

Introducing Conventional Human Resources Practices as Part of Civil Service Reform in Qatar 2006-2016

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ABSTRACT

Qatar in the Arabian Gulf is one of many states worldwide trying to improve governance. In 2008, Qatar introduced various 'human resources management (HRM) practices to improve management of employees. However, there is a growing belief that importing undiluted systems based on other cultures may potentially erode local Arab culture significantly and harmfully. The research project aimed to evaluate if Government Ministries in Qatar can use principally Western HRM theory and practice to manage employees successfully while still allowing them to preserve and strengthen Arab and Islamic values and identity.

Some months into the project which commenced in 2006, the State initiated further major reforms and introduced new Ministers and top executive teams in each of 13 newly created Ministries. This created much additional noise in the data making it difficult to separate the effects of wider reforms from those caused by new HRM practices.

Given the difficulties of using more conventional statistical analysis techniques, research then adopted a Mixed-Methods Exploratory Sequential Research Design the research completed extensive and detailed research into HRM systems in place in each Ministry. It also collected data and information about perceptions of executives about HR reforms, leadership and management style and other salient factors.

The research reached eleven important findings. Among these, the findings showed the people management systems bore much closer resemblance to classic personnel management system. This negated any likely benefits of introducing HRM. The findings also found considerable differences between the national culture of Qatar and that of the West, from where the State drew many of its new ideas for reform. Adoption of such culturally dissimilar systems had the potential to offset efforts to preserve the Gulf's highly distinctive culture. The work also make practical recommendations with which reform efforts could be improved, though not at the expense of local culture. The thesis completes with recommendations for further research.

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I would especially like to thank my dear wife and family for their endless support throughout this period. Without their help and sacrifices my doctoral studies would not have been possible.

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis and the work reported herein was composed by and originated entirely from me. Information derived from the published and unpublished work of others has been explicitly acknowledged in the text and references are given in the list of sources and bibliography.

London, 21 October 2017

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Worldwide, states seeking to improve governance have normally employed practices and theory developed in the West. Middle East and North African (MENA) states are among those embarking on such programmes. The OECD-led ‘Good Governance for Development’ in Arab Countries is an example (OECD 2010). Principles of the New Public Management (NPM) model (Haque 2007, Hood 1991) often inspired public-sector reforms. Because people management are central to these reforms, effectively managing government employees forms an important part of reform efforts.

Recently, the State of Qatar introduced various new human resources management (HRM) practices to improve managing its employees (Al-Heeti 2008). There is now a growing belief that importing ‘undiluted’ systems based on other cultures may potentially erode local Arab culture (Najjar 2005, Ouis 2002, Zakaria 2001b). Globalisation and a series of recent wars in Muslim countries have further fuelled this anxiety (Najjar 2005, Yurdusev 2005). Preserving local Arab culture and “*modernisation and preservation of traditions*” (GSDP 2008b; p.3) is now one of the main foci of Qatar’s strategic planning until 2030. This research concerns these civil service reforms, especially those involving HRM.

This project evaluates the wisdom of using HRM developed almost only in Western cultures and implanting them into the different cultural setting of a Gulf State. It evaluates potential influences on HRM practice. These include national and organisational culture, leadership, change management, public management and organisation behaviour theories during a time of major reform which involves all but one ministry.

1.2 CULTURAL TERMINOLOGY USED IN THIS THESIS

The following terms are those used in this thesis. These represent the majority consensus on their usage in cultural research publications (see also Appendix 4 for a list of abbreviations used in this work).

Culture: The Oxford English Dictionary (OeD) defines ‘Culture’ as “*The ideas, customs, and social behaviour of a particular people or society*”. However, for the purposes of this work, there is no universally agreed definition of culture among social scientists (Chhokar, et al. 2007; p.3) though many exist, and this work will later explore them in greater detail. In this thesis, the general term ‘**culture**’ refers to ‘national culture’, ‘societal culture’ and ‘organisational culture’ depending on the context (see below).

National Culture: means the general cultural characteristics found in one country or region.

Societal Culture: includes religious affiliations which cross-national boundaries, differences in gender, generation or social class level.

Organisational Culture’ is the common culture shared by employees at all levels in an organisation. Deal and Kennedy (1982; p.4) succinctly describe it as “*the way we do things around here*”.

Cross-cultural: describes differences or comparisons between one national culture and another.

Transnational: The OeD defines ‘transnational’ as “*Extending or operating across national boundaries*”. However, for this work ‘transnational’ means the transfer of knowledge and experience between individuals and organisations from different national cultural settings.

Diversity: describes cultural differences between people with varied national or ethnic origins in an organisational setting.

Multicultural: describes distinctive societal differences between people in a single national setting.

Western or The West: in this work the term has a narrower meaning than in normal usage. In this work it refers what Ashkanasy, et al. (2002) describe as ‘The Anglo Cluster’. The UK, Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand and the USA are the main contributors to the most widespread academic literature written in the dominant language of English. Contributions include theories of HRM, leadership, change management, public management and organisation behaviour theory. However, this work does not ignore the important contributions of academic theorists from European and other OECD countries, especially in cross-cultural research.

1.3 RATIONALE FOR THE PROBLEM

Public services are an important part of Qatar’s economy. They represent nearly 90% of total government activity and more than 60% of state spending (Qatar Planning Commission, 2007). Since 1996, Qatar’s civil service has gone through a series of major change initiatives including to HRM practices. In 2000, Qatari human resource (HR) managers were unknown as a local professional discipline in the civil service, though there were (administrative) personnel managers.

Starting around 2000, Qatar sent many students to Western universities as a means of fast-tracking government improvements. This author was one of the first group of students. For similar reasons, the Government employed foreign consultants and training companies. Both groups unintentionally reinforced the idea that Western HRM practices were universal applicable. Returning students and those receiving training appeared to put in Western practices ‘undiluted’ into a Qatari setting. Many such HRM practices potentially are directly at variance with national characteristics of the Qatari and Arab peoples, as well as local employment practices, if imposed. Examining these changes and their effects because of cultural differences was the subject of the original research project started in late 2006.

For years, researchers and practitioners worldwide explored various aspects of national cultural differences. Many showed different rates of success of public-sector reforms. The problems

which occurred were often a direct result of cultural differences (Ali 2010, O'Donnell and Turner 2005, Sarker 2006, Schick 1998, Sozen and Shaw 2002, Venezia 2005).

People are the bearers of culture. Thus, cultural differences are most likely to affect those disciplines which involve managing people. International studies have shown significant differences when moving HRM 'best practice' from one national setting to another. These often result in failure (Aycan, et al. 2007, De Waal 2007, Hayajenh, et al. 1998, Hendry 2003, Lavelle 2006, Leat and El-Kot 2007).

Important ingredients of any local culture are its values and norms. As Turner and Hulme note (1997, p.36), cultures "*serve to determine, explain and legitimise human actions*". In doing so, they "*cast severe doubts on the appropriateness of certain [Western] management practices in different national cultural contexts*". A ministry's organisational values and norms should guide and give meaning to its actions. Its civil servants must closely reflect the culture and norms of the society around them (Brown and Humphreys 1995, O'Donnell and Turner 2005, Sozen and Shaw 2002). If they do not, society will eventually react against them. This aspect is especially important to countries like Qatar which are making significant efforts to improve public services and civil service effectiveness.

1.4 THE COUNTRY

Qatar is a small state in the Arabian Gulf, on the Qatar peninsula on the north-east coast of the Arabian Peninsula (fig. 1-1) (otherwise Persian Gulf). The capital Doha is the main commercial and administrative centre. Its main land neighbour is Saudi Arabia though otherwise the sea surrounds Qatar. Qatar as a major oil and gas producer, its Arab, Islamic and tribal history and its position as a trading nation on a principal trade route are all important influences on its national culture and governance.

1.4.1 History

People settled the area occupied by Qatar periodically for many thousands of years, mainly as nomadic tribes. Before the discovery of oil, there were few state boundaries and, while there

were coastal settlements, many inland tribes wandered the area at will with grazing animals. Tribal loyalty was far more important than political or national loyalty. The tribal heritage of the Arabian Gulf means family and clan connections underlie many relationships between and within states in the region. They significantly affect most political and economic activities (Onley and Khalaf 2006).



Figure 1-1 - Map of Arabian Gulf

Qatar adopted Islam in the middle of the seventh century and played an important role in its spread to other countries. Significantly, people and their rulers in Islamic states do not recognise differences between religious institutions and the state (Al-Buraey 2001). Thus, Islam deeply permeates every aspect of governance in Qatar and its near neighbours.

Trade was always important with control of the Arabian Gulf central, especially to major trading nations. In the 19th century, conflict along and around trade routes resulted in most Gulf states placed themselves under British protection through treaties (Joyce 2003; p.36). Britain was then the most powerful global sea power, also protecting its own important trading route to India.

These came to be called the Trucial states which then included Qatar and Kuwait (Abu-Hakima 1972; p.46).

Tribal peoples, in coastal settlements based on fishing, shipbuilding and pearl fishing, eventually fixed the tribes which ruled Qatar. One such tribe was Qatar's Al-Thani family (Hopwood 1972; p.36). In the 1860s, the Al-Thani negotiated between the British and occupiers of neighbouring states as the ruling sheikhs roughly fixed state boundaries. In 1868, the British recognised the Al-Thani as the official voice of all tribes in Qatar (Country Watch 2010). In 1916, Qatar became an independent British protectorate (Abu-Hakima 1972, Qatar 2010). The 1916 Treaty placed Qatar under the Britain's Trucial system of administration (Qatar 2010). This mainly concerned Britain representing Qatar's foreign relations. In practice, the British Political Agent made mainly administrative decisions on the external affairs of the sheikhdom (Hopwood 1972; p.46). Sheikh Al-Thani and his successors ruled Qatar as tribal chiefs, unofficially consulting the Political Agent on important internal affairs.

Oil played a significant role in shaping the region and its governments (Gause 1994). The Anglo-Persian Oil Company discovered the first oil and began its production in Iran in 1911. Britain fixed national boundaries in Gulf region in the 1930's, after the discovery of oil in Bahrain and Saudi Arabia. Prospectors discovered oil in small fields in Qatar and the country first produced it in commercial quantities in the 1950s. In Qatar, as in the rest of the Gulf states, traditional gift-giving practices which shared oil wealth became more formalised as rentier states. Payments by rulers included finance for health, education and infrastructure projects. With fixed boundaries, people began to think seriously about nationality. However, ideas about leadership and family loyalties did not change.

1.4.2 Qatar After Independence

Kuwait declared its Independence in 1961. In 1968, Britain announced it could longer afford to act as a worldwide military power and would abandon all treaty obligations east of Suez. These

including protectorate commitments in the Gulf by 1971. The British decision prompted Qatar, as well as Bahrain and United Arab Emirates to declare their Independence in 1971 (Louis 2006).

Large surpluses from oil revenues in the 1970s gave a massive impetus to social and infrastructure development. Around 1980, oil income fell and by 1983, Qatar ran a budget deficit. By the early 1990s most regional oil companies became state-owned, though with Western experts as their high-level decision makers. In Qatar, the Emir had already assumed supreme responsibility and personally held the profits from oil and gas.

Other Gulf states formed the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) in 1981 to cooperate over trade, economic issues and defence (Al-Mani 2005, GCC 2009) . Since the 1970s, the region has tried to preserve a strong Arab identity through largely Gulf centred organisations. This identity extends to other Arab countries outside the Gulf region including Egypt and Syria (GCC 2009). Nevertheless, their own strategic economic interests in the region compel the USA and Europe to keep a strong regional presence and exert significant influence on the region (Al-Issa 2005).

In Qatar, internal pressures tried to encourage constitutional change. Nevertheless, by 1993, ten of the fifteen members of the Council of Ministers still belonged to the ruling Al-Thani family (Gause 1994).

1.4.3 Modern Qatar

Qatar's long history and its more recent history before and after Independence is relevant to building the national and cultural characteristics of Qataris. The social and political environment in present-day Qatar has two significant effects. First, on setting up and running ministries and public services. Second, on the way ministries manage people in the country. While there was significant progress in creating systems of public administration after 1971 public service development was largely *ad hoc* and reflected the general condition of the country. People, especially leading citizens, widely criticised the sixth Emir. The position became so unsatisfactory that his son, the seventh Emir deposed him in a bloodless coup in 1995.

Qatar's economy still depends heavily on oil and gas, though many of previously the state-run industries are private-sector or public-private partnerships. Despite diversification, oil and gas still accounts for more than 50% of Gross Domestic Product, around 85% of export earnings and 70% of government revenue. Qatar's public-sector is the main employers of Qatari citizens though there is also a small proportion of foreign public-sector workers (GSDP 2008c).

Like most other the Gulf states, Qatar has a high percentage of expatriate workers, especially in the private-sector. By December 2012, with a total economically active working population of 1.341 million, some 1.258 million (93.83%) were expatriates. The absence of suitably trained and qualified nationals meant Qatar achieved much of its progress using expertise brought in from the rest of the world (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001b, Luke 1983). However, as well as bringing their own technologies, external experts brought methods and systems of work, overwhelmingly developed in the West. The State is now making significant efforts to replace skilled and professional workers with nationals in all sectors in a process known as Qatarisation.

1.5 GOVERNANCE IN QATAR

1.5.1 A Brief Overview

In 1995, Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani assumed power as Qatar's seventh Emir and began actively encouraging many wide-ranging socio-economic and socio-political changes (Kamrava 2007). Qatar worked towards creating an advanced infrastructure and rapidly developing social and civil systems to match (Al-Heeti 2008, Rathmell and Schulze 2000), with much wider public participation. Deeply embedded social structures mean Qatar's progress has been achieved through top-down reform rather than from pressure created by a dissenting population (Hawthorne 2003). Limited Western-style democracy is present in municipal elections and political dialogue positively encouraged for all Qataris.

1.5.2 Qatar's Constitutional System

While there are hereditary monarchies in the West, the legislative system in Qatar and its absolutist nature makes it different. Developments in the last 20 years have brought systems in

Qatar somewhat closer to Western systems. Policy-making is quick and can have fundamental, direct impact on the way the civil service operates and HR practices.

1.5.2.1 The Constitution

Emiri Decree No. (11) of 1999 appointed a Drafting Committee to devise a new Constitution which better reflected the needs of a rapidly modernising Qatar. Part of the Drafting Committee's brief was that it should reaffirm Qatar's affiliation to the Gulf region and reflect the State's Arab and Islamic roots. The new Constitution became effective on 9 June 2005 and is now the full source of executive power. Several articles in the Constitution have a direct bearing on HRM, especially Articles 19, 30 and 35 (Appendix 9).

1.5.2.2 Executive Power

The Emir is the hereditary Head of State and is the principal source of law and policy assisted by the Council of Ministers of which he is President (Appendix 9). The Emir is responsible for appointing and dismissing senior civil servants within civil service law. As an absolute monarch, the Emir uses his constitutional authority to create, organise and oversee the work of various consultative bodies. The most important are the *Majlis al-Shura (Shura)* and Council of Ministers (CoM) for creating and advising on public policy (MOFA 2007). The Emir has much greater powers and much more control on both the levers of power and the sources of funding than any Western political leaders or legislature.

In June 2013, Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani announced he would hand power to his 33-year-old son, Tamim bin Hamad Al-Thani who is now Qatar's current Ruler. The present eighth Emir continues to change ministries and public-sector organisations up to the present.

The Shura is a 45-member Advisory Council formed under the Constitution. The public notionally elects thirty members and the Emir directly appoints the remaining fifteen members. The Prime Minister leads the CoM which is composed of Ministers in individual Supreme Councils and Ministries. Each ministerial position is in the gift of the Emir, normally based on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. An Emiri Decree then confirms the appointment. The

CoM is the supreme executive authority and ultimately monitors most civil and external affairs including the conduct of the civil service. The *Shura* has a major role in drafting laws and decrees which are then submitted to the *Majlis al-Shura*. After discussion and approval by this body, the Emir finally approves laws to bring them into effect (MOFA 2010a).

In June 2013, Hamad bin Khalifa Al-Thani announced he would hand power to his 33-year-old son, Tamim bin Hamad Al-Thani who is now Qatar's current Ruler. The present eighth Emir continues to change ministries and public-sector organisations up to the present.

1.5.3 Governance in Qatar

Governance in Qatar remains fundamentally different from those normally found in the Western advanced economies. While Europe does have hereditary monarchs, Qatar maintains its traditional structure under an absolutist hereditary Head of State, though he is bound by Shari'a Islamic law. While Qatar has embraced a partial form of Weberian democracy, public administration remains based on heavily hierarchical rational-bureaucratic models (Weber 1922).

In the West, pre-19th century governance began by creating bureaux, occupied by career officials and answerable to the Ruler, usually hereditary (Beetham 1987). In several societies, this evolved into other forms. In a seminal work around the beginning of the 20th century, Max Weber identified three principal types of what he described as bureaucracies: 'traditional', 'charismatic', and 'legitimate authority' (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.487). Traditional authority arises from the belief a ruler has a natural right to rule, often because of historical rights or by descent. This is the model of Qatar's Governance today.

In Qatari culture, ministers, executives and managers are more likely to give a much stricter interpretation of the law and rules governing public-sector than those in the West. Obeying laws and top-down instructions is traditional obedience to the word of the Emir, with far less leeway for personal judgement or choice.

1.6 MINISTRIES IN QATAR

Public services are an important part of Qatar's economy, representing as they do around 90% of total government activity and more than 60% of State spending (Qatar Planning Commission, 2007). For the last forty years, government in Qatar has undergone several major changes.

1.6.1 Evolution of Ministries in Qatar to 2008

There were no government institutions in place before World War II. Qatar began to create the first administrative institutions in the 1950s. By 1957 there were just over fifty civil servants, beginning with the Ministry of Education. To most outside observers, public administration was almost invisible. In 1965, a British visitor reported that 'no civil service had been established, nor had a proper municipality been set up' (Joyce 2003; p.45). This was not entirely true though further ministry structures soon began to appear. Law No. (5) of 1970 enacted before Independence defined the power of ministers, governed how ministries and other governmental agencies functioned. By Independence on 3 September 1971 the Emir put in place a structure of ten ministries. He added a further two in 1972.

In the comparatively short time since Qatar's Independence in 1971, public services have undergone great changes. Between 1971 and 1986 the size of Qatar's civil service almost tripled (Louis 2006; p.860, UNPAN 2004). Oil revenues allowed Qatar and other Gulf states to build large bureaucratic infrastructures to provide new and expanding services to citizens and as a way of sharing the country's wealth.

A 1987 United Nations study considered a wide range of potential institutional development (UN 1987; pp.3-7). Later, the UNDP identified several critical limitations in the Qatari Civil Service (UNDP 1994a; pp.4-5, 1994b).

In the 1990s, further important restructuring of State administrative systems took place. After the last Emir took power in 1995 there was a yet another re-shuffle of the CoM in 1996 under Emiri Order No. (4) of 1996. This involved the civil service in several initiatives connected with major changes to its operation. The Emir introduced major changes which affected every part of

civil and public life in Qatar. These included governance changes and administrative modernisation to enable Qatar to react to the demands of its increasing globalisation and internationalising of its citizens. Several ministries began restructuring in 1997 supported by setting up the Institute of Administrative Development, attached to the Minister of Civil Service Affairs and Housing. 1998 saw the first Supreme Council created. This acted as a quasi-ministry with responsibility for several 'Departments' that were less than full ministries. In the same year, Qatar set up a Planning Council to plan government services.

Emiri Decree No. (11) of 1999 established a committee to prepare a permanent Constitution and set the terms of reference for Qatar's systems of governance, including its ministries. 1999 also saw more Supreme Councils (SCs) set up. The scope and scale of proposed reforms was large, with a root-and-branch reform of

laws and regulations, policies, objectives and plans, organisational and jobs structures, work methods and procedures, financial system efficiency, manpower planning and development, and government buildings and facilities.

(Qatar Planning Commission 2007)

During the five years before the turn of the millennium, several enabling laws were enacted to support this development. The early 'noughties' saw further changes and additions to SCs. In 2007 came the final changes in this period by abolishing the Ministry of Civil Service and Housing and creating the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Otherwise, it seemed Qatar's Ruling Executive had finally settled the main structure of ministries and public services. In October 2006, this research project began believing the only major reforms would be those which related to replacing existing people management systems with HRM. This proved over-optimistic. In 2008, a major series of reforms took place. Chapter 2 discusses these in greater detail.

1.7 THE IMPORTANCE OF CULTURE TO QATAR

Middle East Arabs, especially in the Arabian Gulf region show increasing concern about the effects of global culture on their society. While they welcome the best features of their new economies, they see the ever-greater intrusion of Western culture as undesirable. In the years before Independence, local Gulf Arab culture present in Qatar was based firmly on tradition and was distinctive and homogenous. Many Gulf Arabs now feel their national cultures are under intense attack, especially from the forces of Westernisation and more narrowly; as enforced Americanisation (Najjar 2005, Zakaria 2001b).

Today, many Arabs see imported Western systems as extending Western imperialism. Most do not view societal changes as an improvement. While there are more goods to buy and enjoy, many Gulf Arabs see liberalising society as socially undesirable. Instead societal change can provoke the politics of protest as people, now some of the richest in the world, see their culture as a key part of their heritage (Zakaria 2001b). Gulf Arabs often see Western secular culture as an affront to traditional Arab culture which has deep roots in Islam in every part of life. The reaction to this has been an increasing emphasis on cultural heritage as a means of legitimising power and the political status quo (Ouis 2002). Ouis (2002) noted even those significantly exposed to the West saw its effects as damaging and Westernisation as something Arabs should strongly resist.

During the debate in Qatar during the period of the seventh Emir, public discussion revealed Qataris felt they did not want a truly Western-style parliament with unlimited legislative powers. Instead they preferred Qatar's own unique version (Fink, et al. 2006). It was clear much of the resistance was because of the strong influence of Islamic thinking. Bahry (2006) quotes Abdul Qadir Al-Emiri, a prominent writer as saying

..... we should take the advantages of democracy while abandoning its disadvantages. We, the Muslims should borrow from democracy what is in accord with Islam and reject what does not agree with Islam.

Bahry (2006)

Bahry (1999) further noted that most Qataris wanted to base the new democracy firmly within in the framework of Islamic orthodoxy.

Qatar's Emir, Sheikh Hamad Al-Thani took a special interest in developing the "*Qatar National Vision*" (GSDP 2008b) launched in 2008 which contains many references to culture and its importance. Despite its wealth and growing modernity, Qatar remains a firmly traditional Arabic society. It now acts strongly to preserve "*its cultural and traditional values as an Arab and Islamic nation that considers the family to be the main pillar of Society*" (GSDP 2008b; p.1).

The Qatar National Vision document makes the State's position on national culture clear.

Modernisation and Preservation of Traditions

Preservation of cultural traditions is a major challenge that confronts many societies in a rapidly globalising and increasingly interconnected world. Qatar's rapid economic and population growth have created intense strains between the old and new in almost every aspect of life. Modern work patterns and pressures of competitiveness sometimes clash with traditional relationships based on trust and personal ties, and create strains for family life. However, the greater freedoms and wider choices that go with economic and social progress pose a challenge to deep-rooted social values highly cherished by society. Yet it is possible to combine modern life with values and culture. Other societies have successfully moulded modernisation around local culture and traditions. Qatar's National Vision responds to this challenge and seeks to connect and balance the old and the new.

(GSDP 2008b; p.4)

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis is in six chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Literature Review: An Examination of the Relevant Theory:

A broad survey to evaluate theory and accepted good practice in the existing body of literature for HRM; leadership theory, cultural theory, change management theory and good practice. The chapter shows how this research used the literature review allowed this student to develop the research methodology into an analytical framework in which to place empirical results and analyse the data.

Chapter 3: Public-sector Reform in Qatar:

An examination of the theoretical and government-executive underpinning of public-sector reform in Qatar. It compares various systems with Qatar, especially those in Europe and Anglo-Saxon countries and how scrutiny of laws may be achieved during periods of change. The chapter also sets reforms against the body of the existing cross-cultural literature which focuses on the issue of public-sector reform.

Chapter 4: Research Methods:

This chapter describes the research methodology used for this research. The research used two questionnaires; the first (QA) (Appendix 2) to all fourteen HR directors and second (QB) (Appendix 3) to the entire senior executive group in every ministry. The chapter presents design of both QA and QB.

The chapter also evaluates various methods of data analysis. It shows the reasons why this researcher chose to use structural equation modelling (SEM) for the final method of statistical analysis. The chapter also describes why this researcher chose Smart-PLS as the software with which to apply SEM.

Chapter 5: Presentation and Discussion of the Findings:

The construction of the questionnaires, especially QA, allowed section-by-section analysis of all important parts of HRM theory and practice. This chapter shows discussion of the results on the same basis. The second part of Chapter 4 shows the results from SEM of QA and QB data and further analysis of these two datasets with datasets from Hofstede and the ‘Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness’ (GLOBE) project. This chapter presents and discusses the entire results and findings.

Chapter 6: Conclusions:

The final chapter draws together the entire findings of this research and considers how this author can apply key concepts to produce theoretically-informed conclusions and hypotheses for future research. The chapter also describes how Qatar can accommodate underlying resistance to Western ideas and still preserve of local culture in HRM. Finally, it suggests on how HRM applied in Qatar could meet both the needs of local culture and produce excellence when managing people.

1.8 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

1.8.1 The Original Research Methodology

Research began in October 2006. The original research strategy, drawn from a deductive approach, was to carry out surveys gathering empirical, mainly quantitative data in each ministry. For reasons which will be set out in 1.8.2, circumstances compelled this researcher to abandon the original research strategy. Because it is now redundant, it is not necessary to describe the original methodology and research design in detail. However, completeness demands a brief description. The first strategy proposed using a mixed-methods convergent parallel design (fig. 1-2)

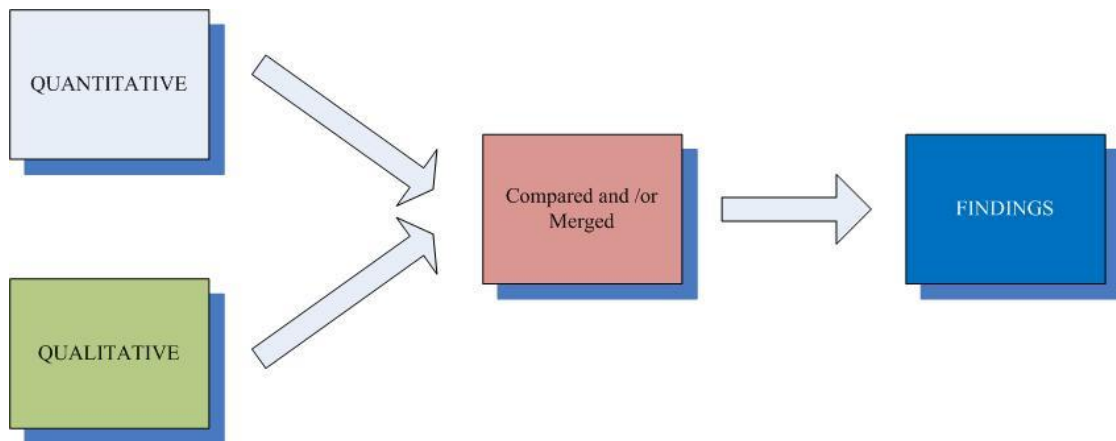


Figure 1-2 - Mixed-Methods Convergent Parallel Research Design
 source: (Bryman and Bell 2007; p.647, 2015)

The research proposed to collect quantitative and qualitative data from a defined, statistically significant range of employees and all levels of ministries. Field data would be collected from questionnaires and structured interviews. The original design assumed that previous civil service reforms in Qatar were broadly like many major HRM changes in Western civil services, though perhaps somewhat behind them. The project would then compare recorded results of similarly disrupted systems after government reforms isolating and separately describing the specific effects of HRM. Analysing effects of newly introduced HRM in Qatar would be facilitated by using accepted HRM theory and then comparing predicted effects from cross-cultural studies which the authors describe in detail in Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), Khilji (2003), Namazie (2003), Bourgon (2008), Gómez (2004).

1.8.2 Major Changes to the Research Environment

In March 2008, the minister in charge of General Secretariat for Development Planning (GSDP) announced its new strategic development plan for the entire state (Al-Thani 2008, GSDP 2008a). Among the sweeping changes all ministries would undergo a massive reorganisation not anticipated in the original design. This continued until at least late 2012, varying from one ministry to another. Unlike in the West, such decisions are taken quickly by the Emir supported by a Ruling Council, mainly composed of members of the Royal Family. The Emir proposed to close ten of the eleven ministries and replace them with another fourteen as well as several ‘SCs’ which would each oversee one or more ministries.

After careful consideration of the developing position in Qatar between 2008 and 2009, this researcher abandoned the original research methodology and considered research strategies for a wholly-uncertain research environment. Such was the magnitude of changes, Qatar planned these would take place over several years. Changes to ministries radically changed the study's environment. They went to the heart of this research project and created the conditions for a complete revision of the research methodology.

1.8.3 Overview of Final Research Methodology

The first inkling of wide-ranging changes to almost every level of governance in Qatar began to emerge in mid-2008. This led to field research being suspended until the position became clearer. It was not until 29 April 2009 that formal announcements were made about reorganisation (Al Arab 2009, Gulf Times 2009). This gave far from complete details of what the Emir proposed. This researcher recognised that government-wide change programmes potentially created massive noise in any data collected. This meant, the project now had to disentangle several other threads from the effects of introducing HRM programmes into the ministries and cultural effects. Other factors included introduction of new ministers to every ministry aimed at driving forward substantial change. Added to this was the problem of trying to research different ministries each at different stages of development. Announcements implied a simultaneous establishment of all thirteen new ministries. This did not occur. The result was the research entered ministries at chronologically different stages of development. Thus, the researcher would collect empirical data from newly-formed ministries and others which were in in the second, third or fourth year of development. Ministry 01, while still being reformed, have been established before 1971. Ministry 01 is atypical from the HRM perspective because much of the ministry is run along military lines.

Another aspect of the changes was that the Emir appointed new ministers through a series of Emiri Decrees (Emiri Decree 2008) (see also Appendix 10). Their brief from the Emir was to introduce significant change. Thus, there was a strong likelihood that new ministers would have a significant individual effect at this early stage.



Figure 1-3 - Mixed-Methods Exploratory Sequential Research Design

source: Bryman and Bell (2007; p.647)

The changes precluded many possible research designs which in their turn restricted how the project should collect information and data. An ongoing analysis of the events in the Qatar, so far as they could be understood, strongly suggested a mixed-methods approach. Developing the research methodology is explained step-by-step in more detail in Chapter 4. Mixed method research design can use a deductive, inductive or objective approach. These may combine in various ways.

Emerging details of the reforms indicated the potential need for more theoretical foundations. In 2008-2010 information and data from field studies in Qatar was either unavailable or could prove of such poor quality because of noise, this researcher temporary discounted its possible collection. These difficulties suggested an exploratory research sequential research design (Bryman and Bell 2011; pp.646-47, Saunders, et al. 2016; p.176) (fig. 1-3). Collecting either qualitative or quantitative field data would be abortive at an early stage of reforms. This researcher thus evaluated alternatives. Information and secondary data remained available and collecting it allowed research to continue.

1.8.4 Précis of Key Theories

HRM and cross-cultural theories remained at the heart of the project. Neither have 'grand theories' but rather 'theories of the middle range' (Merton 1967). Neither theoretical area was undisputed, nor had any degree of universality. However, Merton (1967; p.39) suggests using middle range theories is more suitable than grand theories. They are less remote and give far better correlation between empirical results and observations and so allow further theory to be created.

The theories and works listed below in 1.8.4.1 to 1.8.4.2 and 1.8.5.1 to 1.8.5.3 give a brief synopsis of the main mid-range theories which always applied to this work. A reference list for 1.8.4 and 1.8.5 is separately shown at the end of this thesis. The unusual circumstances following commencement of extensive reforms 2008 created the need to research and understand not only the theories involved in HRM and national culture, but also change management theories, leadership theories including cross-cultural leadership, organisational culture and public-sector reform theory. Because of the noise they created in the field data, each was necessarily considered in-depth during analysis to isolate their effects from those acting between HRM.

1.8.4.1 People Management Theories

People management remains at the heart of this research. Often HRM is used as a catch-all phrase for people management when in fact only administrative systems are in place. If Qatar only uses ‘true’ HRM systems in accordance with theory, research is straightforward. However, this author’s personal experience as a senior HR manager in Qatar’s civil service suggested this was not the position. Thus, he has included a wider range of theoretical constructions used in various forms of people management.

Before HRM, practitioners developed many administrative systems to manage people, normally referred to as **personnel management**. Understanding personnel management enables the author to disentangle traditional personnel management from its successor, HRM. There are many descriptions of the administrative process involved often in comprehensive volumes. Karen Legge is among the prolific authors of books from a practitioner background (1978, 1988) often using earlier work such as that by Alfred Chandler (1962). Others explored theoretical aspects of personal management to develop new practices (Facer 1998, Guest 1991, Torrington 1991, Torrington and Hall 1995). Some focused on the collective bargaining process (Ackers 2007, Littler 1982), a key feature of public services in the West though not in Qatar.

Research suggests Chandler (1962) and others laid down the principles of **core HRM theory** some years before. However, the attributed start of HRM came from the Harvard and Michigan

schools (Beer, et al. 1985, Beer, et al. 1984, Fobrum, et al. 1984) while a modified British version developed later (Hendry, et al. 1990). Since then, various authors (Legge 1995, 2004) (Armstrong 2009, 2012, Bratton and Gold 2007) and many others have developed more comprehensive descriptions of HRM for people management.

HRM Models: From its earliest beginnings, there was no universal agreement among theorists or practitioners which form HRM should take. It could be ‘soft’ which focuses on people as individuals (Beer, et al. 1984) or ‘hard’ (Fobrum, et al. 1984) which sees people as resources. Theory also divided into various groups as practitioners and academics dispersed. Some favoured *best fit models* (Baird and Meshoulam 1988, Boxall and Purcell 2003, Dyer and Holder 1998, Schuler and Jackson 1987) while others suggested *best practice models*, (Dyer and Holder 1998, Marchington and Grugulis 2000, Mess 2004, Pfeffer 1998). This included those the OECD helped to develop HRM in emerging economies.

Strategic HRM: One of HRM’s major propositions which differentiates it from personnel management is its strategic nature. Theorists wrote many works focusing on this aspect (Boxall and Purcell 2000, Digman 1990, Dyer and Holder 1987, Wright 1998, Wright and McMahan 1992). Others such as Randolph Schuler developed seminal works on the subject (Schuler and Jackson 2006, Schuler, et al. 1993). More authors developed strategy using fundamentally different models (Baird and Meshoulam 1988, Truss, et al. 1997). Yet other authors linked strategy with improved performance (Armstrong and Baron 1998, 2002, Dyer 1993).

HRM in the Public-Sector: The public-sector has always been at the forefront of developing people management models. Lynette Harris (2005, 2007, Harris et al. 2002) developed principles specifically in the UK public-sector while there were more general authors (Bach 2001, Storey 1989). Some, like Kerry Brown (2004) were among others who wrote influential books aimed at practitioners. Researchers in Europe observed styles and methods of public-sector HRM in different European contexts (Hegewisch and Larsen 1994, Järvalt and Randma-Liiv 2010, Larsen

and Brewster 2003). Later researchers focused on theoretical aspects to develop the subject (Gould-Williams and Davies 2005, Morris and Farrell 2007).

Cross-cultural HRM: The focus of this thesis is on the effects of culture on HRM. Prominent cross-cultural authors include Nancy Adler (1983, 2002) and Chris Brewster (1995, 2005, 2007). Some authors examine transnational culture; managing employees in the same enterprise, but in different cultures (Bartlett, et al. 2008, Gertsen 1990, Hiltrop 1995). Others wrote on the effects of globalisation and global practice on people management (Common 1998, Perkins 1999, Tayeb 1995).

HRM in an Arab or Islamic Context: Though there was relatively little literature on Arab and Islamic developments in HRM before 1990, it has since increased. This mirrors increasing numbers of researchers working in Arab countries, in parallel with rising participation in higher education among Arab and Muslim populations in the last 20 years. Few created new theories, though all contributed to specific knowledge of the region. Abbas Ali is a prominent Arab writer in the HRM literature (Ali 1993, Shackleton and Ali 1990). Some researchers like Al-Bahar, et al. (1996), and Common (2008) focus on certain Gulf States. Other authors focus on the significant effects of Islamic beliefs on HRM (Abbas 2007, Al-Buraey 2001). Some authors conducted field research in Gulf Arab states (Atiyyah 1997, Robertson, et al. 2002) while others use the wider context of MENA states ((Al-Busaidi 2007, Yousef 2001). Demographics, especially rapid rises in population in MENA states, caused significant effects to people management, especially in the practice of localisation ('Qatarisation' in Qatar). Yousef Tarik (2004), Christopher Rees et al. (2007) and others examined various aspects of this.

1.8.4.2 Cultural Theories

Classic Cross-Cultural Theories: Research into ideas of national or regional culture is far from new and took place from the late 19th century onwards. Edward Burnett Tyler's (1871) work on primitive cultures was later added to by Edward Taylor (1889) who provided a scientific concept of culture.

Prominent mid-20th century researchers included Clyde Kluckhohn, George Murdock, Edward Hall, Clifford Geertz, and Raoul Naroll each contributed to the understanding of cultural characteristics and cross-cultural understanding. Kluckhohn (1944, 18 62, Kluckhohn and Kelly 1944, Kroeber and Kluckhohn 1952) first examined the concepts of culture and then compared culture to behaviour. Murdoch (1955, 1957, 1967) evaluated national ‘universals’ of culture and then how his anthropologically-based concepts could be used in comparative studies. In the 1960s, Murdoch produced his ethnographic atlas which summarised his work. Hall (1959,1966, 1988, 1990, Hall, and Hall, 2000) wrote two seminal works. Later when working with his daughter, Hall first described culture as a silent language and a hidden dimension people of a defined culture could share among themselves.

Clifford Geertz (1963, 1964, 1973, 1994, Geertz and Banton 1966), examined cultural relations and differences between societies, ideologies and religion. He became one of the most famous cross-cultural researchers, along with Edward Taylor. Raoul Naroll (1968, 1970a, 1970b Tatje and Naroll, 1970). William Sumner (1963) was notable for his work on Darwinism and culture. Gerald Weiss (1973) produced a scientific concept of culture. Edgar Schein (1973, 1985, 1992, 2010), better known for his work on organisational culture, added his understanding of cultural characteristics with a study on how institutions were affected by and affected national culture.

In the 20th century, culture divided into two main schools; anthropological and psychological (comparative). Each examined national characteristics of culture in a separate way. This thesis is mainly concerned with anthropological theories, though this researcher read extensively in the other school. The main reason for choosing the anthropological and social anthropological approach was because two of its main researchers, Geert Hofstede and the GLOBE group, set out ideas based on anthropologic theory. These allowed much simpler appraisal of cross-national characteristics in ways which allowed comparison using ‘dimensions’. Each dimension numerically described various facets of culture. Hofstede was a social anthropologist while the GLOBE group of researchers were from mainly from business, management and leadership backgrounds. The original research in 2006 planned only to use Hofstede’s work, but the

introduction of major leadership changes prompted the author of this thesis to include the work from GLOBE because of its focus on cross-cultural leadership.

Principle ‘Anthropological’ Cross-Cultural Theories: Hofstede (1980a, b, 1984, Hofstede and Bond 1985) produced the most widely known and used study from examining managers’ behaviour. He researched IBM worldwide (initially referred to as ‘Hermes’). Building on the work of previous anthropologists including Clyde Kluckhohn and Edward Hall, Hofstede produced his seminal work in 1980. Hofstede’s decision to create ‘dimensions’ represented as numbers built upon Kluckhohn’s work and that of sociologists Cornelius Lammers and David Hickson (1979). The numeric aspect of Hofstede’s work allows cross-cultural comparisons to be made easily. To date, many hundreds of researchers have used Hofstede’s work in research (see also Chapter 2). Other researchers like David Levinson and Melvin Ember (1996), Fons Trompenaars and Charles Hampden-Turner (1997) the GLOBE group (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001, Ashkanasy, et al. 2002, House, et al. 2001, House, et al. 2004, Javidan and House 2002) all used methods of defining culture by dimensions. While Hofstede used students from within his own university, the GLOBE study, led primarily by Robert House, used a large group of independent researchers working worldwide. Each had at least one published work which developed characteristics of their own country or region. In this section, this researcher has listed only those which concern Qatar or broad theoretical principles.

Principle Psychological (Comparative) Cross-Cultural Theories: Researchers from other academic disciplines, mainly psychology and sociology developed alternative national cultural theories to anthropologists. Important theorists include Melvin and Karen Ember (1983), Urie Bronfenbrenner (1989, 1995, Bronfenbrenner and Ceci 1993), Bourdieu and Passeron (1977), and Elinor Ochs (1990). Richard Shweder’s (1991, Shweder and Sullivan, 1993) work related national culture to ‘individuals and groups’. These included family and kinship groups. John Ogbu (1990, 1993, 1995) and Henri Tajfel (1978) examined connections between ethnic culture and social groups. Other researchers like Raeff (1997) and Triandis (1996, 2001) independently developed theories of individualism and collectivism (also a Hofstede dimension) within their

own academic discipline. Detmar Straub, et al. (2002) developed their own set of national cultural characteristics based on social-identity theory. Other researchers examined culture in an multinational or global company context (Ember 2009, Kitayama and Markus 1995, Levinson and Malone 1980).

Organisational Culture is now often linked to HRM and leadership (Armstrong 2006, 2009, 2012, 2014). After 2008, new leadership roles intended to develop a better organisational culture (OC) meant OC became increasingly important to this research. Elton Mayo (1933, 1945) was an early proposal concepts of OC. Seminal works by Edgar Schein (1985, 2010) are closely associated with OC theories. Many other authors researched OC (Benson 1977, Lim 1995, Smircich 1983, Trice and Beyer 1993). Terence Deal and Allan Kennedy (1983) and Tom Peters and Robert Waterman (1982) are frequently quoted. Some notable researchers investigated links between OC and national cultures (Adler and Jelinek 1986, Dedoussis 2004, Klein, et al. 2009, Shehata 2003).

Arab Culture: The many workers and companies visiting or working in the Gulf has led to the publication of guides, some of which contain useful, accurate descriptions of certain features of Arab culture (Al-Omari 2008, Bakarar 1993). Although Geert Hofstede (1981, 1984) amalgamated Arab culture under a single heading. Hofstede concluded the culture of the Gulf was largely homogenous. Straub et al. (2002) carried out theory-based evaluation of Arab culture based on the comparative effects that information technology users experience. The GLOBE project examined Arab culture in more detail (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001, Atiyyah 1997, Den Hartog, et al. 1999b, Kabasakal and Bodur 2002). Richard Lewis (2006), developed his theories of culture from direct observation of students in language schools worldwide and provides an alternative view of Arab culture. While focusing on leadership Rafik Beekun, and Jamal Badawi. (1999) provided useful insights into the Islamic mindset.

Many observers examined *Arab culture through the prism of Islam* and its effect on various aspects of daily and working life. Of those which directly relate to the subject of this thesis,

Muhammad Al-Buraey (2001) evaluated the effect of Islam on administration. Linda Herrera (2004) examined Islam's long-standing effects on education. Various studies have placed Islam at the heart of those effects for consideration by this project (Beekun and Badawi 1999, Fish 2002, Fontaine 2008, Hamid 2007, Khiabany 2007, Koys 2001, Sidani 2005, Wright and Phillips 1980). Other studies used Islam as a cross-cultural category (Fitzgerald 1997, Geertz and Banton 1966, Wright and Phillips 1980)

1.8.5 Effect of 2008 Qatari Reforms on the Theoretical Base

In the light of information emerging in 2008, other groups of theories soon became necessary to help interpret data and results. This researcher quickly recognised any data collected would contain not only the effects of culture on HRM reform, but effects of massive public services reforms, leadership changes and the change process itself.

In every ministry, the Emir appointed new leaders as ministers and senior executive civil servants. It became clear the Emir expected them to perform key roles within the reforms. Thus, leadership theory was included. The initial project viewed HRM change in public service organisations differently from the major structural reforms in Qatar's public services. HRM was a system change while wider reforms represented a significant strategic change. Thus, change management became another potentially large theoretical area requiring study. There exists a large body of change literature, including for public-sector organisations, which required detailed study. Public management reform also has a large body of literature and theory attached to it. Given the extensive changes occurring, this researcher also included change management theories and public-sector reform theory like the NPM.

Containment of the research boundaries became a major problem. Rightly, few doctoral students would contemplate research extending to such a wide theoretical base under normal circumstances. These were not normal circumstances, especially compared with a Western context. This rarely sees top to bottom reform linked to wholesale closure of ministries and the establishment of an entire set of new ones over a relatively short period. In each of the five

groups of theories now involved, like culture and HRM, there are several theoretical approaches rather than universal theories. This further adds to the unusual complexity of the research.

Just as with HRM and Culture, the lack of grand theories creates significant problems when listing key theories. Knowledge and theory is fragmented in all five groups of theories involved after 2008. The three extra groups all have alternative theories and important subtopics. A thorough and detailed knowledge of each group is vital in understanding their effects enough to be able to separate or eliminate them from the central focus of the research. Sections 1.8.5.1 to 1.8.5.3 give a précis of the potentially applicable extra theories added after 2008.

1.8.5.1 Public-Sector Organisation and Reform

Classical Theory of Organisations: Max Weber (1946, 1947) was a significant influence on thought about public and bureaucratic institutions and credited with being one of the founding fathers of sociology. Weber identified six major principles of Western bureaucratic form;

- 1) A professional administrative class of people;
- 2) Hierarchical organisational form;
- 3) A clear system of authority, accountability and responsibility;
- 4) Management by consistent rules, standards and norms;
- 5) Appointment, employment and division of labour by qualified functional speciality;
- 6) Impersonal relations i.e. Separation of professional of private and personal interest and public servants not being the servant of the ruler.

He also developed a model of bureaucracy where legitimacy is seen to come from legal order and authority. Many other early advances in public-sector management came from the scientific management school (Fayol 1916, Goodnow 1900, Taylor 1998).

The Neo-Classical Theory of Organisations partly focuses on people in public administration. Mary Parker Follet (1920) focused on relationships between groups of workers and applied sociological and psychological principles to more democratic systems of administration. Widely regarded as the founder of modern management, Follet later influenced many management

theorists including Metcalf and Urwick (1942). After her death, Follett's work was almost forgotten until the 1960s after which she influenced a later generations of leading management theorists (Graham, 1995). Follett describes informal systems, leadership rather than power, worker security and productivity. Elton Mayo (1933, 1949) is widely viewed as the originator of human relations theory, and suggested social and psychological needs should not be ignored and saw organisations as cooperative system with psychological incentives. Chester Barnard (1938) researched management and leadership emphasizing competence, moral integrity, rational stewardship and professionalism (Gabor and Mahoney 2010) In the 1930s and 40s several theorists began to propose further theories which focused on public administration (Graiciunas 1937, Gulick 1937, Gulick and Urwick 1937, Mooney and Riley 1939). Abraham Maslow (1943, 1954) developed the Hierarchy of Human Needs, a theory about the ranked satisfaction of various human needs and how people pursue these needs. A contemporary of Maslow, Frederick Herzberg developed his Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg, et al. 1959) . This examined factors such as organisational policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions and salary.

Public Administration Theory is a US perspective on public-sector administration development (Gaus 1950, Nigro and Nigro 1965). American political scientists Larry Kirkhart (1971) and Dwight Waldo (1968) questioned predominant models and the scope of the public-sector while Alice and Donald Stone (1975) developed concepts of professionalism and education in public administration. Herbert Simon (1947, 1957, 1976, 1997) was a major proponent of the decision-making theory which moved from concerns about administering budgets increasingly to analysing public administration.

Public or Rational Choice Theory partly explains how incentives paid to those working for government influence worker behaviour. The work of Herbert Simon into decision-making in administrative services first allowed it to be subjected to scientific analysis (Simon 2013 [reprint], Simon and Barnard 1947, 1959). James Buchanan and Robert Tollison (1972, 1984) explained the constitution building process and certain pressures by special interest groups. In

1975, Buchanan outlined his theory of the contractarian basis of states and its limits. William Niskanen (1971) extended ideas of rational self-interest to public administrators and examined the motives of public-sector bureaucrats. Other important theorists who examined how individual preferences shape social choices included Kenneth Arrow (1951, 1963, 2012). More recent rational choice theorists include Terry Moe (1984) and Colin Hay (2004).

Principal-Agent Theory (PAT) is rooted in private-sector economic theory, decision theory, sociology, organisation theory and political science (Smith and Bertozzi 1998, DeGeorge 1992). In bureaucratic public-sector organisations, relationships between political authorities and civil servants are commonly perceived as those between principals and agents and provides a framework to conceptualise bureaucracies. PAT is another economic-based theory which relates to rational choice theory and shows how people make decisions the principal most wants. Some commentators believe PAT is one of the dominant theories which helps people understand and explain why certain governments perform poorly (Carristine et al. 2007). PAT partly deals with roles delegated to public servants as agents and with the ways the principal might incentivise them to prevent them acting in their own self-interest. These include, in Qatar's case, sharing national wealth, or developing pay for performance systems. Significant academic contributions were made by other authors and theorists (Lane 2005, Moe 1995, Waterman and Meier 1998, Wood and Waterman 1994).

Public Organisation Theory in part describes the nature of power and authority in organisations. It further describes the relationship between organisations and society and relations between organisations, their leadership and their management (Clegg and Westwood 2003, McAuley, et al. 2007, Tsoukas and Knudsen 2003). Certain theorists like William Ouchi (1977) investigated economic efficiency, while James Thompson (1967) investigated the social-science basis for organisational theory. Other theorists examined principles of organisation theory and behaviour to public organisations of all kinds at all levels of governments (Baker 1969, Denhardt 1981, Heffron 1989, Jreisat 1999, Christensen, et al. 2007, Gortner, et al. 2007,

Harmon and Mayer 1986, Tompkins 2005). Barry Bozeman (1987) and James Perry and Hal Rainey (1988) evaluated differences between public and private organisations.

The NPM: The 1980s saw the wide introduction of private-sector management techniques into the public-sector (Box 1999). In a movement which began in the UK, because of public dissatisfaction with bureaucratic organisations, the cost of public services and the need to modernise, the reform movement became known as NPM (Ackroyd 1995, Dunleavy and Hood 1994, Ferlie 1996, Hood 1991). NPM spread to other advanced economies like USA, Europe, Australia New Zealand (Boston 1996, Box 1999, Pollitt 1995). NPM was built on previous theoretical foundations (Gruening 2001) normally based on public organisation and administration theories, as well as those in principal-agent theory (Christensen and Lægheid 2002, Lane 2000). However, public services began to recognise NPM was not a universal panacea for difficulties in public sector administration and it began to change (McLaughlin, et al. 2002, Bourgon 2007, Hood and Peters 2004). After several emerging economies experience major problems implementing NPM (O'Donnell and Turner 2005, Haque 2006, Sarker 2006) NPM appeared to only best apply to advanced economies, typified by OECD membership. Despite these difficulties, in 2007, the UNDP and OECD launched initiatives for governance reforms in MENA states based on the NPM model (UNDP 2007).

Public-sector and culture is central to the purpose of this research. Despite lacking an overarching theory, several researchers have researched the effects of cultural differences (Brown and Humphreys 1995, Jones and Kettl 2004, Kakabadse, et al. 1996, Newman and Nollen 1996, Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004) in comparative studies. Others have also researched OC which is fundamental to people management (French, et al. 2011; pp.337-365) in public services in an international comparative context (Parker and Bradley 2000, Smircich 1983, Trice and Beyer 1993).

1.8.5.2 Leadership

Leadership became a central issue for this study when the Emir legally appointed new ministers to lead change in every ministry. It thus became realistic to assume that leadership had a potentially significant effect on the reform programme, especially as ministers are normally responsible for appointing their own senior management or executive teams including HR directors.

Western countries developed leadership theories based on their own cultures, and there is a strong relationship between both leadership and change, and leadership and culture, especially OC (French, et al. 2011, Huczynski and Buchanan 2013). It also underpins formal authority, power influence and status (Huczynski and Buchanan 2013; p.652). While present in ancient societies, especially in a military or religious context, the main concepts and ideas of leadership developed from the 1950s and 60s onwards. Lacking a single overriding concept, early researchers first sought patterns and traits which organisations could use to identify the best potential leadership candidates.

Amon those theorists who used the **Classic Leadership Patterns** approach were Chris Argyris (1953, 1973, 1976) who first examined leadership as a management role and later examined the functions of chief executives. Edwin Fleishman (1953, Fleishman and Harris 1962) evaluated attitudes and behaviours to try and describe leadership. Daniel Katz examined leadership in terms of performance (Kahn and Katz 1960, Katz, et al. 1950). Ralph Stogdill (1950, Stogdill and Coons 1957) saw leadership in terms of their influence and their ability to set and achieve goals. Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt (1958) examined the relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates using delegation and freedom of action as their central thesis, with concepts of leadership as a continuum between autocratic and democratic leadership. Rensis Likert (1961a, b) used the term ‘patterns’ to study emerging styles of leadership in the 1960s as part of his theory of organisations. Bernard Bass and Ralph Stogdill (1990) first developed their ‘Handbook of Leadership’ in the 1980s. Many organisations and students of leadership of the time widely regarded it as an indispensable guide. Edwin Fleishman (1953,

Fleishman and Harris 1962, Fleishman, et al. 1991) was especially concerned with attitudes and practices of leadership. Martin Evans (1996) and Michael Mumford, et al. (2000) continued and expanded on the patterns approach of earlier authors.

An alternative school of **classic leadership** concerned itself with **leadership traits**. Writers like Charles Bird (1940) examined leaders from a psychological perspective. After the 'patterns approach' fell largely out of use, theorists like Colin Fraser (1978) and Marvin Shaw (1955, Shaw and Blum 1966, Shaw and Harkey 1976) focused on leadership traits and team performance. Rosemary Stewart (1982a, b, 1991) examined the traits of managers and leaders at various levels in the organisation.

In the 1970s and 80s several theorists explored **leadership contingency or context fitting theories**. In these leadership style fitted the context in a continuum between use of complete authority by leadership and complete freedom for subordinates. Early contingency theorists included Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958). Later Fred Fiedler (1971, 1978) developed the first true contingency theory. He suggested effective leadership depended on structuring the immediate task, the leader's position power and the type of relationship a leader has on subordinates. Paul Hershey and Ken Blanchard (1988a, 1988b) extended contingency theory to include what they named 'situational leadership'. Michael Frank (1993) assembled the various strands of contingency theory to produce 'The Essence of Leadership'. Daniel Goleman (2000, 2004) used contingency theories to develop six leadership styles; coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pacesetter and coaching, each of which built on the idea that leadership styles either damaged the working atmosphere or improved worker flexibility, commitment and performance. Each of the various contingency theories argue that all organisations are unique and so effective leadership must closely fit an individual organisation.

Various authors like Daniel Goleman (2000) developed theories and concepts of different **leadership types**. Working from a psychological perspective, Bernard Bass (1960), first developed ideas of leadership in relation to organisational type. He later became known for his

seminal works on *transformational leadership* (Bass 1999, Hater and Bass 1988). He derived the term ‘transformational’ from the work John MacGregor Burns (1973) who first divided leaders into *transactional* and *transformational* leaders. Transactional leadership methods develop relationships with followers in terms of trades or bargains with them. Transformational leaders in contrast are a type of charismatic leader who use their personality to inspire and motivate others to perform beyond their contracted obligations. Noel Tichy and Michelle Devanna (1986) and later Bernard Bass and Ronald Riggio (2006) further extended the concept of transformational leadership.

In parallel with John MacGregor Burns (1973), Robert House (1971, 1976) worked on leadership effectiveness and concepts of *charismatic leadership*. This is the kind of leadership which comes from special kind of personality. Examples include Alexander the Great, the Prophet Mohammed, Adolf Hitler and Steve Jobs of Apple. Other researchers developed theories of types of leadership such as *paternalistic* (Aycan 2001, Pellegrini and Scandura 2008) or the related *father leadership* (Low, 2008) which are sometimes found in Asian contexts including China, Brunei and East Asia. Greenleaf (1977) developed his theory of *servant leadership* in which leaders primarily serve the needs of their subordinate rather than those of the organisation. At the opposite end of the spectrum *autocratic leadership* (Van De Vliert 2006) is a strictly top-down leadership method.

These remain the most important leadership types in the literature though there are others. These included **modern leadership theories** developed by authors like Warren Bennis and Bert Nanus (1985) who developed leadership types related to change, Sims and Lorenzi (1992) who examined new styles of leadership which emerged in the 1990s, and a version of autocratic or ‘tough leadership’ developed by Judith Scully, et al. (1996) which characterised leadership in turbulent trading environments.

Leadership and power: Many forms of leadership involve the exercise of power whether by direct application or as influencing power. Two social scientists, John French and Bertram Raven

wrote a seminal work (1958) on the subject of different forms of power identifying coercive, reward, legitimate, referent and expert power. Although other researchers developed and extended ideas of power within organisations including Dorwin Cartwright (1965), Jeffrey Pfeffer (1992a, b, Salancik and Pfeffer 1974) and Robert Benfari, et al. (1986), French and Raven's work remains as a basic theory. It is especially relevant in the ministries studied in Qatar because of their continuing emphasis on legitimate power given directly from the Emir. Jai Sinha (1995) examined the relationship of culture to the exercise of power. His contemporary, Deborah Tannen (1995) examined the relative weight power gives to different communications within organisations.

Leadership versus management: There remains considerable debate about this. Some theorists argue both leaders and managers make significantly different contributions to the way they develop and run organisations (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.654). Often senior executives describe themselves as 'organisational leaders' when many are instead exercising managerial functions. This researcher believed the difference would make outcomes in Qatari ministries vary according to the way power, leadership and management organised people management and reform. John Kotter (1990b, 2000) made a significant contribution to this debate with George Weathersby (1999) defining ideas more concisely.

Leadership and culture: following the publication of Hofstede's work (1984, 1985) some theorists examined cultures effect on leadership using Hofstede's principles (Dorfman and Howell 1988). Others studied particular types of leadership. This included work by Dong Yung and Bernard Bass and others (Jung, et al. 1995), who evaluated transformational leader in collectivist cultures such like those in the Gulf. Such was the interest in leadership and culture, the exercise of leadership in various countries became the foundation of the GLOBE study in sixty-two countries (Den Hartog, et al. 1999b, House, et al. 2001, House, et al. 2004, House and Mansor 1999, Javidan and House 2002). GLOBE used a large group of researchers worldwide. A group of cross-cultural psychologists approached the problem from a different perspective,

developing their own theories of cross-cultural leadership (Offermann and Hellmann 1997, Van De Vliert 2006).

Arab leadership: early researchers in the GLOBE study Abbas Ali (1996) and Hayat Kabasakal and Muzaffer Bodur (2002) examined different types of Arab leadership. While most studies appear as journal papers, Rafik Beekun and Jamal Badawi (1999) offered a book, not about Arab leadership specifically, but rather about Islamic leadership and the substantial influences Islam has on the exercise of leadership. Coinciding with larger numbers of Arab students taking up higher education the West, various other authors have examined influences of Arab culture on leadership (Klein, et al. 2009, Neal, et al. 2005, Shahin and Wright 2004, Smith, et al. 2007, Yousef 2000).

Public-sector leadership became a central issue for this author after the 2008 Qatar reforms. Just as theorists recognise public-sector organisations have major differences from those in the private-sector it follows public-sector management and leadership are also different (Allison 1986). Various researchers have looked at different issues which specifically affect public-sector leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2004, Cooper and Wright 1992, Moynihan and Ingraham 2004, Storey 2004b, Wart 2003). Other researchers examined different leadership types, previously described in this section, though with focus on public-sector leadership. The main focus on leadership types in the sector has been on charismatic and transformational leadership (Javidan and Waldman 2003, Waldman, et al. 2003). However, other authors have examined best practice leadership of various types (Bertucci 2004, Brennan and Hamlin 2008, Hood 2002, Parry and Proctor-Thomson 2002).

Most of the published work on public-sector leadership occurred in the context of Western organisations. When this researcher reviewed the literature in 2008, only limited research had taken place in Arab states. Behrooz Kalantari (2005) was an exception with his study of Middle Eastern public-sector management. He adopted a cross-cultural approach to developmental public-sector leadership.

1.8.5.3 Change Management

One may interpret reforming people management across Qatar's entire public-sector as mere organisational changes, albeit across an entire sector. The 2008 reforms were of an entirely different and higher order of change. They are undoubtedly intended as major structural strategic change with the Emir planning significant all-embracing change in governance. By changing so many aspects of each ministry, the change process potentially became great magnitude and depth. The result, according to change management theory, would be to introduce massive noise within any data the researcher collected. This would significantly interfere with results unless actively considered (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; pp.624-27).

Change has been a significant factor in organisations for many decades, especially in the private-sector. Huczynski and Buchanan (2007; pp.618 & 626) report that research as early as 1908 remains relevant to change today. Theory suggest that change significantly affects every part of an organisation from its most lowly-paid or least important employee to the top executives and organisational leaders. It also affects all other organisational stakeholders. Arguably, most public-sector organisations have a much higher number of stakeholders than private-sector firms of similar size and complexity.

Classic Change Theories: Robert Yerkes and John Dodson (1908) were among early psychological researchers to note the relationship between arousal and human performance. They argued task performance increases with interest arousal, stimulating pressure which lead people to claim 'I work better under pressure'. Kurt Lewin (1951) developed one of the dominant theories about change. Lewin proposed there were three stages to change; unfreeze, change and refreeze. This theory was so influential it remains in use and important today, though it has since been modified and extended. Early work on Lewin's Change Theory involved various researchers (Burns and Stalker 1961, Lippitt, et al. 1958, Schein and Bennis 1965). John Kotter proposed an alternative model claiming Lewin's model was too simple. He proposed instead an 8-stage change model (Kotter and Schlesinger 1979). This involved:

1. Creating urgency;
2. Forming a guiding coalition;
3. Developing a change vision;
4. Communicating the vision to obtain buy-in;
5. Empowering people and remove barriers;
6. Generating short-term wins;
7. Not giving-in to early setbacks; and
8. Making it stick;

Later theorists, of which there are many, such as Christopher Mabey, et al. (1993) developed change models further, though still building on earlier work. Christopher Collins and Rainwater 2005 produced a seminal work which described the process of change in a large organisation (Sears, the American retail organisation). Their findings remain the foundation of change programmes worldwide.

Much of the work of theorists involved creating **change models**. Lewin (1951) and Kotter (1996, Kotter and Schlesinger 1979) developed early change models. Andrew Pettigrew (1987, Pettigrew 1973, 1985) examined the effects of work specialisation and diffusion of work structures to create a new model. Richard Walton (1975) tried to explain that reported change was normally unsuccessful and proposed another alternative model. Henry Mintzberg (1989, Mintzberg and Westley 1992) wrote influential work on structuring of organisations and the cyclical nature of organisational change. Theorists continued to propose different change models. Patrick Dawson (2003a) proposed that change should be more contextualised and dealt with as a process rather than as a simple model. Todnem Rune (2005) argued that, with changing economic and social conditions, better knowledge of workforce behaviour, changing work practices and the growing body of change literature, organisations should use models different from classic change models. He argued models of change should not be based on Lewin's original theory, those developed by John Kotter (1996) or Lueck's Seven Steps (2003) because they are no longer relevant in today's conditions. Nevertheless, classic models remain in widespread use.

Strategic change: Huczynski and Buchanan (2007; p.592) define strategic change as “*An organisation transformation that is radical, frame breaking, mould breaking or paradigmatic in its nature and implications*”. They suggest the term ‘strategic’ denotes scale, magnitude and depth, normally expressed as the need for the organisation to become more flexible, adaptable effective or efficient. As such, strategic change makes more traditional type of changes different and potentially obsolete. In the 1980s and 1990s researchers began to direct their attention to strategic change rather than partial, routine change (Johnson 1992, Pettigrew 1988, Pettigrew, et al. 1992, Ring and Perry 1985, Tichy 1983). Hammer and Champy (1993) wrote one of the seminal works on strategic change, describing new methods of ‘re-engineering’ organisations rather than simply changing them.

Change is such a constant problem facing organisations, especially in the private-sector, that many authors have written about various aspects of strategic change. They include Dawn Kelly and Terry Amburgey (1991) who evaluated inertia in strategic change processes and Boeker (1997) who described the effect of different types of managers on change. David Buchanan, et al. (1999) described the evolution of strategic change management theory and Margaret Abernethy and Peter Brownell 1999 explored the role of budgets in organisational change.

Resistance to change: A recurring and long-standing theme in the change literature concerns the effects of resistance to change, usually by employees and many middle-ranking managers (Coch and French Jr 1948, Kotter and Schlesinger 1979). Sometimes, resistance is characterised by structural inertia (Hannan and Freeman 1984). Authors like Achilles Armenakis (Armenakis and Bedeian 1999, Armenakis, et al. 1993) evaluated whether the roots of resistance can be found in the theory of organisations. They argued organisations which actively prepared for change have better results. Diane Waddell and Amrik Sohal (1998) and Sabdy Piderit (2000) examined whether organisations can use resistance to positively aid change processes. Shaul Oreg evaluated if the personalities of those involved and the context affects resistance. Other authors examined the psychological reasons why resistance to change occurs (Bovey and Hede 2001, Weick and Quinn 1999).

The importance of **HRM's role in organisational change** has often been recognised by researchers. Edgar Schein (1973) and others such as Julien Philips (1983) and later Buchanan and Boddy (1992) all recognised the importance of the people management role to creating effective change agents. Thomas Kocher and Lee Dyer (1993) described HR officers as 'transformational leaders' in the change process. As HRM matured, HRM's change management role became increasingly recognised (Cunningham and Hyman 1995, Doorewaard and Benschop 2003, Pascale, et al. 1997, Ulrich 1998). Leading HR authors like Michael Armstrong (2006, 2009, 2012, 2014) began including change management as a principal function of HRM. After 2000, many authors continued to evaluate and expand the role of HRM in the change process (Caldwell 2001, Stace and Dunphy 2001, Francis 2002, Doorewaard and Benschop (2003). Christopher Rees et al. (2007) argued that localisation efforts (Qatarisation in Qatar) led by HRM, actually represented strategic change in all Gulf states.

Change and the public-sector: Several authors developed change theory linked to either NPM-related reforms, or to alternative change programmes. These researchers demonstrated how all change theory applies to public-sector reforms regardless of the sector in which it originally developed (Vince and Broussine 1996, Buchanan, et al. 2006, Gould-Williams 2004, Stace and Norman 1997, Thomson 1992). Harold Leavitt (2003, 2005) focused on change in hierarchical organisations examining why such organisations persisted and how they are affected by concepts of authority and leadership.

Change and culture: Several researchers focus on relationships between change and culture (Jaeger 1986, Kanter 2003, Kanter and Corn 1994, Schneider 1989, Schneider and De Meyer 1991). Some viewed cross-cultural change as either as a product of globalisation or across national boundaries in multinational firms (Bass 1997, Drori, et al. 2006, Mead 1998). Ian Brooks and Paul Bate (1994) evaluated the effect of OC on the UK civil service.

Change and leadership: John Kotter (1990) proposed the leader's role is to create an agenda for change, communicate their vision, develop people and persuade them to accept the validity

of goals, to motivate and inspire people and to produce positive and sometimes dramatic change. Jay Conger (1989) and David Nadler and Michael Tushman (1990) examined the role of charismatic leaders during the change process while Van Vugt, et al. (2004) evaluated how autocratic leadership was sometimes needed during change processes. Bernard Bass (1990, Bass and Avolio 1994) notably examined the differences between transformational and transactional leadership. Others evaluating the role of transformational leadership included Regina Eisenbach, et al. (1999) and David Herold, et al. (2008). Various researchers examined the differences between change management and change-leadership roles (Gill 2002, Kanter 2003, Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006, Tony 1994).

1.9 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

This chapter introduced the topic of this research, showing how research aimed at explaining the relationship between HRM developed in a Western culture could be applied to a dissimilar Arab cultural context. The focus has been showing how the national culture of Qatar might affect or influence how change to HRM is initiated or accepted. It begins to explore how useful, or problematic, importing such systems from a dissimilar culture might be.

While Qatar only came into existence in 1971 as an independent state, the long regional history Qatar's own history is highly significant to its development as an Arab nation firmly founded in Islamic traditions. Qatar now has a highly distinctive culture which is at the heart of every aspect of society, civil, social, economic and in the way its institutions behave and run within the context of a traditional monarchy. These have a direct effect how systems of governance operate in Qatar and ultimately how HR is managed. This chapter describes the ministry system in Qatar between 2006 and 2014.

Next, this chapter laid out the structure of the thesis briefly describing its six chapters.

The theoretical base of this study is a vital. When this researcher first proposed the study, its focus was only on two mid-range theoretical bases; HRM and cross-cultural theories. Huge reforms first announced in 2008 seriously affected the entire civil service and ministries in Qatar.

This had a major effect on this research project. As the reforms unfolded, it became clear that it would be wholly insufficient to study HRM and cultural theories in isolation. The noise introduced into any data collected in the field by the effect of newly appointed leaders, major public-sector reforms and the entire change process potentially lead to major research and analysis problems. Without understanding and separating the changes caused by public-sector change, changes in leadership and a major change process, defining the effects of culture on HRM reforms became impossible. This chapter describes how and why was necessary to enlarge the theoretical bases of the research from two to five.

Lacking any ‘grand theory’ in any of the five areas, this chapter provides a summary of each theoretical base and the sub-divisions of theory which applied to the project. The chapter further explains the circumstances applying after 2008 meant applicable theoretical areas had to be chosen before the extent and scope of the reforms was understood or implemented.

1.10 THE NEXT CHAPTER

Chapter 2 is a literature review of the theoretical bases of this study. The principal focus remains on HRM and the cross-cultural theory. These receive most prominence in the next chapter. Nevertheless, general leadership theory and cross-cultural leadership especially that introduced in the wide-ranging GLOBE study is critically reviewed along with change theory. All are important to understanding the significance of this work. The chapter concludes by demonstrating how this research used the literature review to develop the final exploratory research methodology into an analytical framework in which to place empirical results, analyse the data, then make suggestions and develop potential hypotheses for future research.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews applicable theory related to HR and personnel management, national and OC, leadership and change.

2.2 HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Since Law No. (1) of 2001, Qatar's public services have called people management "HRM". For the purposes of this project, at first this researcher took the term at face value. He assumed it to be strategically-based HRM rather than old-style personnel management. This literature review approaches it from the same perspective. At the same time this researcher recognises that labels may be misleading, for in many organisations the terms HR and HRM have almost totally replaced the previous label of 'personnel management' (Armstrong 2009; p.13) despite still implementing old-style personnel management. For research purposes, this project traces the development of HRM to locate any Qatari management systems on the continuum between personnel management and HRM. Questionnaire A (Appendix 2) covered each of these, based primarily on work by Armstrong (2009), which itself provided a description of all the major aspects of practical HRM systems.

2.2.1 Personnel Management Versus HRM

Historically, personnel management developed in the nineteenth century at the height of an era of heavily hierarchical management systems. Then, governments imposed increasing regulations on working conditions such as the 1840 Factory Act in the UK (Bratton and Gold 1999b; pp.4-6). Forward-thinking employers began to take an increasingly paternalistic view of managing people, especially in the UK, Germany and the USA. With the arrival of three major developments in people management, industrial rationalisation, Taylorism and the 'human reaction movement; which arose from the work of American theorist Elton Mayo, administration of personnel assumed even greater importance (see 1.8.5.1). During the 1960s and 70s the UK

Government enacted various acts which added to the personnel management function. These including the Contracts of Employment Act 1963, Redundancy Payments Act 1965, the Employment Protection Act 1970 and the Employment Protection Act 1975. While personnel management was administratively important to the functional operation of largely hierarchical organisations, its scope stopped there. Personnel management (PM) is a largely administrative function, dealing with routine management of employees' records, recruitment and dismissal, discipline and industrial or labour relations, often in a unionised environment in larger Western organisations and civil and public services organisations (Schuler and Huber 1990, Storey 1989a).

In the 1958 edition of the Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations (Yoder et al, 1958) cited by (Kaufman 2001) defined 'PM' thus:

In current practice, careful usage employs the terms personnel management or personnel administration to refer to the management of manpower within a plant or agency, and the terms emphasise employer relations with individual employees, in such activities as selection, rating, promotion, transfer, etc. In contrast, the term labor relations is generally used to describe employer relations with groups of employees, especially collective bargaining — contract negotiation and administration. Industrial relations, or employment relations, in recent years, has come to be used as the broadest of these terms, including the areas of both personnel management and labor relations. “Industrial relations” or “employment relations” thus describes all types of activities designed to secure the efficient cooperation of manpower resources.

Kaufman (2001) citing Yoder et al, (1958)

HRM is quite different, and PM is just a small part of the work involved in managing people.

Although theorists from 1960s onwards identified some principles now known as HRM, it was not until the 1980s the concepts of modern HRM were born. This came with the development of the Michigan Model, (Fobrum, Tichy and Devanna (1984) and the Harvard model (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, *et al* (1985, 1984).

The Michigan model (fig. 2-1) emphasises the holistic nature of HRM which was marked by significant interrelationships in the organisation. The Michigan model developed an HRM cycle composed of four elements; ‘selection’, ‘appraisal’, ‘development’ and ‘rewards’ together intended to improve organisational performance. The model’s main strength was integration which drew together the organisation and people management by matching internal HRM functions, policies and practices to the organisational strategy. The Michigan model provides the essential foundation for modern HRM because it contains the ‘HRM cycle’ Nevertheless, the model was somewhat prescriptive and mechanistic in operation (Bratton and Gold 1999a; p.18). It also ignored different stakeholder interests, situational factors and concepts of strategic management’s choices.

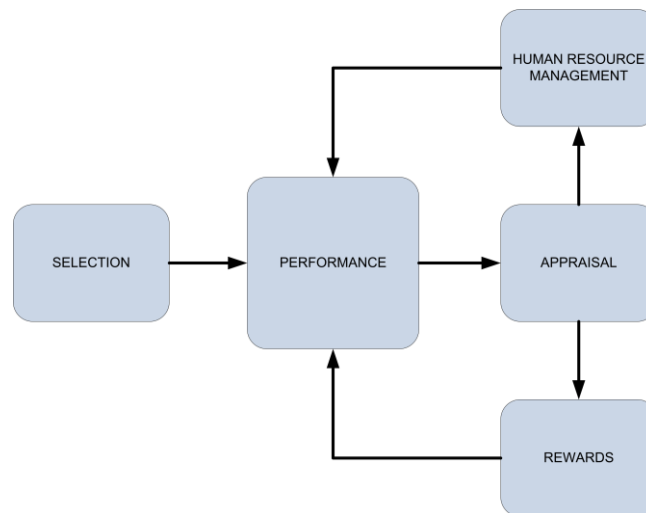


Figure 2-1 - The Michigan Model of HRM

Derived from: Fobrun *et al* (1984) cited by Bratton and Gold (1999; p.18)

The Harvard model based its principles on the following definition of HRM, suggesting:

HRM involves all management decisions and actions that affect the nature of the relationship between the organisation and employees – its human resources. General Managers make important decisions daily that affect this relationship but are not immediately thought of as HRM decisions.

Bratton and Gold 1999a; p.18 citing Fobrun *et al* (1984)

This model contained six constituent parts: 'situational factors', 'stakeholder interests', 'HRM policy choices', 'HR outcomes', 'long-term consequences', and 'a feedback loop through which the output flows directly to stakeholders and into the organisation' shown in fig. 2-2.

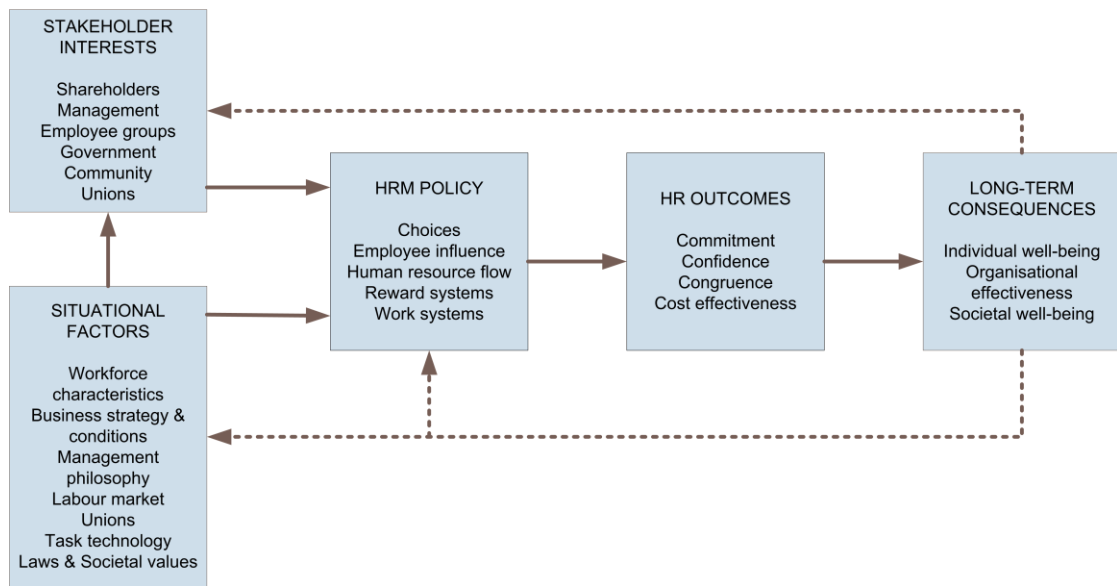


Figure 2-2 - Harvard Model of HRM

Source: Beer et al (1984; p.16)

However, both Michigan and Harvard models were strongly US-centric. Their philosophical differences gave birth to 'hard' and 'soft' HRM models. 'Hard' models view people as primarily organisational resources, while 'soft' models emphasise the human side of people management (Storey 1989a). The Michigan model is 'hard' while the Harvard model is 'soft'. Hard models arise from two separate disciplines; 'scientific' and 'strategic' management. Soft models come from 'human relations' and 'Japanese-style management' philosophies.

In the late 1980s interest in HRM began to grow outside the USA. The development of models began in the UK by David Guest (1987a, 1989, 1997), Hendry, Pettigrew and Sparrow (Warwick Group) (1990) (fig. 2-3) and Storey (1989a, b, 1992). As well as observing the fundamental differences between HRM and PM, each UK model recognised the cultural differences between people management in the USA, the UK and elsewhere.

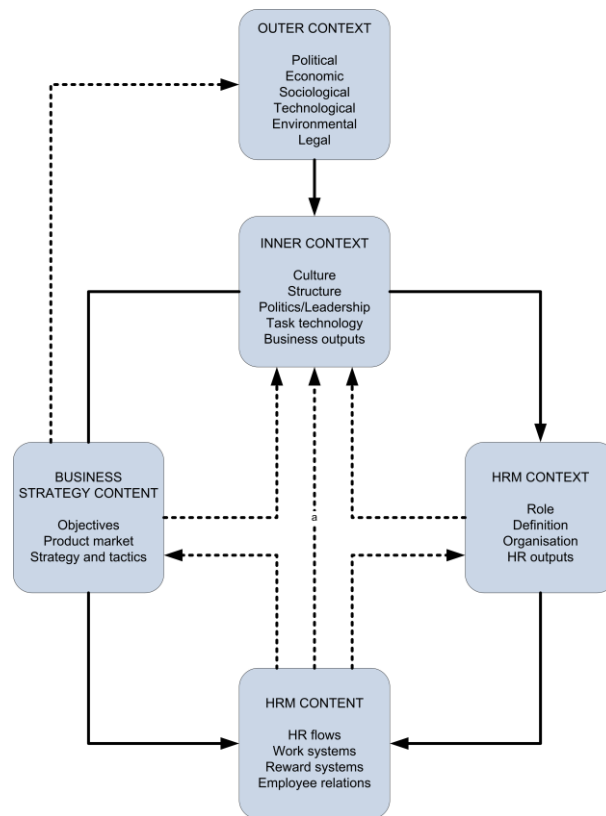


Figure 2-3 - Warwick Model of HRM
 Source: Hendry, et al. (1990) / Bratton and Gold (1990; p.24)

2.2.2 Major Differences Between PM and HRM

Storey (1989a, b, 1992) (table 2-1). analysed differences between personnel management and HRM and developed a model that intentionally superseded PM, based on four 'dimensions'; beliefs and assumptions, strategic aspects, line management, and key levers.

Table 2-1 - Storey's Comparative Model of HRM

Derived from: Storey (1989a, b, 1992)

Dimension	Personnel Management / Industrial Relations	HRM
BELIEFS AND ASSUMPTIONS		
Contract	Careful delineation of written contracts	Aim to go 'beyond contract'
Rules	Importance of devising clear rules/mutuality	'Can do' outlook;
		Impatience with rules
Guide to management action	Policies and procedures; Consistency of control	'Business need / Flexibility / Commitment
Behaviour referent	Norms / Custom and practice	Values / Mission
Managerial tasks vis-à-vis labour	Monitoring	Nurturing
Conflict	Institutionalised	Unitarist
Standardisation	High (e.g. 'parity' an issue)	Low (e.g. 'parity' irrelevant)
STRATEGIC ASPECTS		
Key relations	Labour – management	Business – customer
Initiatives	Piecemeal	Integrated
Corporate plan	Marginal to	Central to
Speed of decision	Slow	Fast
LINE MANAGEMENT		
Management role	Transactional	Transformational leadership
Key [people] managers	Personnel /IR specialist	General /business /line managers
Prized management skills	Negotiation	Facilitation
KEY LEVERS		
Foci of attention for interventions	Personnel procedures	Wide-ranging cultural, structural and personnel strategies
Selection	Separate, marginal task	Integrated, key task
Pay	Job evaluation; multiple fixed grades	Performance related; few if any grades
Conditions	Separately negotiated	Harmonisation
Labour-management	Collective-bargaining contracts	Towards individual contracts
Thrust of relations	Regularise through facilities and training	Marginalised (with exception of some bargaining for change models)
Communication	Restricted flow /indirect	Increased flow /direct
Job design	Division of labour	Teamwork
Conflict handling	Reached temporary truces	Manage climate and culture
Training and development	Controlled access to courses	Learning companies

In many organisations, there remains a lack of misunderstanding as to what defines HRM and how it differs from PM. Guest (1987) set out the principal differences between the two systems (table 2-2).

Table 2-2 - Guest's Comparison of PM and HRM
Source: Guest (1987)

Personnel Management		HRM
	Compliance	Commitment
Psychological contract	Fair day's work for a fair day's pay	Reciprocal commitment
Locus of control	External	Internal
Employee relations	Pluralistic	Unitarist
	Collective	Individual
	Low trust	High trust
Organising principles	Mechanistic	Organic
	Formal /defined roles	Flexible roles
	Top-down	Bottom up
	Centralised	Decentralised
Policy goals	Administrative efficiency	Adaptive workforce
	Standard performance	Improving performance
	Cost minimisation	Maximum utilisation

Guest (1987, 1997) contended that HRM was entirely distinct from PM because HRM purposefully integrates organisational strategy with people management strategy and seeks behavioural commitment to organisational goals (Bratton and Gold 1999b; p.21). Thus 'true' HR managers have changed from their former PM role of administrators to one which enables, empowers and facilitates (Price 2007; p.32). Line managers take a much more active role in people management and undertake many administrative functions previously carried out by personnel managers.

2.2.3 HRM

This section directly relates HRM practices with the research study. The study asked questions over the full range of public-sector HR practice within ministries in Qatar including potential areas of cross-cultural conflict, or leadership and change effects.

2.2.3.1 General HRM Strategies

Any HRM system aims to ensure the organisation can achieve success through its people (Armstrong 2009; p.5). To be meaningful, HRM must encompass many functions to become a holistic framework operating within a set of beliefs and assumptions. Unlike PM, line managers are an important part of the HR management system and there should be a central involvement

of line managers at every level. HRM systems are different from PM because they are designed not as an added-cost but rather to add value to the organisation (Lemmergaard 2009). HRM achieves this by strategically developing employees to become as productive and effective as possible (Boselie, et al. 2005, Lawler 2005). However, as Armstrong (2009; p.8) cautions there is no universal system of HRM. Accordingly, any organisational system may only resemble conceptual versions of HRM in a few respects. Nevertheless, certain features are needed to differentiate HRM from PM systems. Of these, the most important and significant feature of HRM is strategic integration between the organisation and the HRM strategy process (2009; p.9).

In the West, HRM has a strong trend to deal with employees individually rather than collectively. to promote everyone's involvement with and commitment to the organisation (Armstrong 2009; p.10, Legge 1995a). This is normally achieved by promoting mutual respect between employer and employee, mutual responsibility to one another, mutual rewards for both employer and employee, and mutual influencing opportunities (Armstrong 2009; pp.9-10). There are three major approaches towards adopting HRM practices; 'best practice', 'best fit', and 'bundling' (Armstrong 2009; pp.33-39).

2.2.3.2 Major Approaches to HRM

The '*best practice*' approach assumes there are a universally applicable set of practices regardless of the organisation's circumstances or environment. Proponents of best practice, like Jeffrey Pfeffer (1998) suggest that adopting best practice HRM leads to superior organisational performance. Yet as the analysis in table 2-3 shows, there is limited agreement as to what constitutes best practice. Gibb (2001) describes best practice merely using as a 'black box' packed with good practice templates. These templates will be either discrete HRM systems or more holistic models of HRM.

Table 2-3 - 'Best Practice' Compared

Pfeffer (1998) and Pfeffer & Veiga (1999)	Guest (1997)	MacDuffie (1995)	Delery and Doty (1996)
Employment security			Yes (as Pfeffer)
Selective hiring	Selective hiring	Selective hiring	
Self-managed teams			
High compensation contingent on performance			Performance-based compensation,
Training to provide a skilled and motivated workforce	Training as an on-going activity		Formal Training Systems
Reduction of status differentials		Reduction of status differentials	
Sharing information	Communication as a two-way process	Active encouragement of upward communication from employees	Employee Voice
Shared Ownership	Employee Share Ownership Schemes		
Job Design	Job Design to increase flexibility	Job rotation to increase flexibility	Broadly based jobs to increase flexibility
Career Ladders			Internal Career Ladders
Appraisals			Results-oriented Appraisals

Despite this lack of agreement, organisations such as the OECD have widely promoted the idea of 'best practice' (OECD 1996, 2004c). The organisation initially did this in OECD countries, and later throughout the rest of the world, including MENA states (OECD 2010). Increasing globalisation and the proliferation of multinational corporations (MNCs) have also spread best practice (Bratton and Gold 1999b; p.75). Nevertheless, there remain significant criticisms of the 'best practice' approach (Kuvaas and Dysvik 2010, Marchington and Grugulis 2000, Paauwe and Boselie 2005). Price (2007; p.89) notes that American Business School management models have been widely assumed to be 'normal' and 'best practice'. Consequently, they are frequently applied universally "*regardless of local traditions, culture or business history*" (2007; p.90). Armstrong (2009; p.34) also observes that 'best practice' has many critics, citing several authors. He notes that HRM systems depend on operational context. For this reason alone, it becomes difficult to accept the idea of the universality. Others are more pragmatic, suggesting that while HR strategies may be strongly influenced by national, sectoral and organisational factors, they still may not necessarily invalidate the concept of 'best practice' (Boxall and Purcell 2000).

While the 'best practice' approach appears to be more popular, a major alternative is '*best fit*'. Armstrong (2009; p.37) describes best fit as more realistic than best practice. Underlying the concept of best fit is the achievement of a close alignment between organisational strategy and other systems based on contingency theory (Moreno-Luzón and Peris 1998). In 'best fit' the most suitable practices depend on context and adaptation. Thus, best fit concepts have major relevance to studies of cultural fit (Stavrou, et al. 2010). Most theorists believe 'best fit' originated in US models of HRM (Morris and Maloney 2003). Armstrong (2009; p.35) suggests that 'best fit' may be vertical integration or alignment between organisational and HR strategies.

Just like 'best practice' there are disagreements with the 'best fit' approach. Armstrong (2009: p 37) cautions against the danger of "*mechanistically*" matching HRM systems with strategy. The major limitation of most 'best fit' studies which link HRM with strategy is that they only examine external, market business strategies without looking further, provided one assumes competitive strategy follows the Michael Porter (1980) model (Purcell 1999). This oversight has special relevance to public-sector organisations which may not look as closely at competitive advantage as private-sector firms.

The third major model of HRM is that of '*bundling*':

... the development and implementation of several HR practices together so that they are interrelated and therefore complement and reinforce each other.

(Armstrong 2009; p.37)

Dyer and Reeves (1995; p.2) suggest the logic of bundling is "*straightforward*" and based on the theory of employee performance; a function of both ability and motivation. Bundling practices aim to enhance both. Dyer and Reeves (1995) concluded that bundles most normally included careful selection, extensive training, and contingent compensation. MacDuffie (1995) noted employees will only contribute fully when they believe their own interests coincide with those of the organisation for whom they work. Michie and Sheehan-Quinn (2001) agreed, but found negative correlations with productivity when employers use short-term contracts, low job security, low levels of training and relatively unsophisticated HR practices.

Bundling is not simply a matter of 'throwing together' a few practices (Armstrong 2009; p.39, Guest, et al. 2004). Organisations may devise competency frameworks which include recruitment, learning and development, indicate standards of behaviour and performance and which underlie resourcing strategies. An organisation must decide which bundles to use by allying itself to one or other of these models and deciding the best way of relating different practices together (Armstrong 2009; p.39). There is little agreement between either theorists or practitioners to which practices to 'bundle' to produce the best performance (Hyde, et al. 2006, Keenoy 2007).

Only when the organisation adopts one of the 'best practice', 'best fit or 'bundling' models can the general HRM strategy be decided. This will define how to achieve the organisation's goals through people and integrate HR policies and practices (Armstrong 2009). To be most effective, any HR strategy must satisfy organisational needs; be founded on detailed analysis and study; be coherent and integrated; and be capable of being turned into actionable programs. The HRM strategy will then address the needs of all stakeholders of the organisation by addressing three important questions. First, what are the major strategic organisational objectives and how will they be translated into HRM strategy and objectives? Second, what are the performance drivers of those objectives and how do the skills, motivation and structure of the organisation's workforce influence them? Third, how will the HR system influence the skills, motivation and structure of the workforce?

2.2.3.3 - HR Management Processes

Management processes deal with fundamental HRM activities, roles in and the organisation of the HR function. They include competency based HRM, knowledge management, and high-performance work systems (Armstrong 2009; p.199).

The fundamental HRM role is to manage people proactively and provide guidance, support and services to the organisation and its managers on all matters relating to the organisation's employees. The role involves introducing and maintaining HR strategies, policies and procedures

for all matters concerning the employment, well-being and development of all people working for the organisation. Activities may be broadly divided into two categories; 'transactional' and 'strategic' (Armstrong 2009; p.83). Transactional activities concern normal delivery of HR services. They include developing policies, practices and procedures, and ensuring their implementation. To achieve this, HR will need to achieve a consensus with both managers and employees. Strategic activities are transformational and aimed at aligning HR and organisational strategies and subsequently implementing the HR strategy (Armstrong 2009).

Producing value moves the HR function from being merely administrative to membership of the executive management team (Schuler and Huber 1990). HR professionals are then involved with active budgeting and creating organisational effectiveness in the public-sector and in the private-sector, with 'the bottom line' and profits. This is encapsulated in the "*HR Value Proposition*" (fig. 2-4). The Value Proposition (Ulrich and Brockbank 2005) consolidates the approach that HRM protects the interests of all key stakeholders. To achieve this, HR competencies must include the ability to design and deliver a culture-based HR strategy which links internal and external cultures together while focusing HR activities on external customers and business strategy. HR activities should create and sustain the required culture. This means having a good understanding of the environment beyond their organisation, and beyond their sector to society in general or to the wider global community.

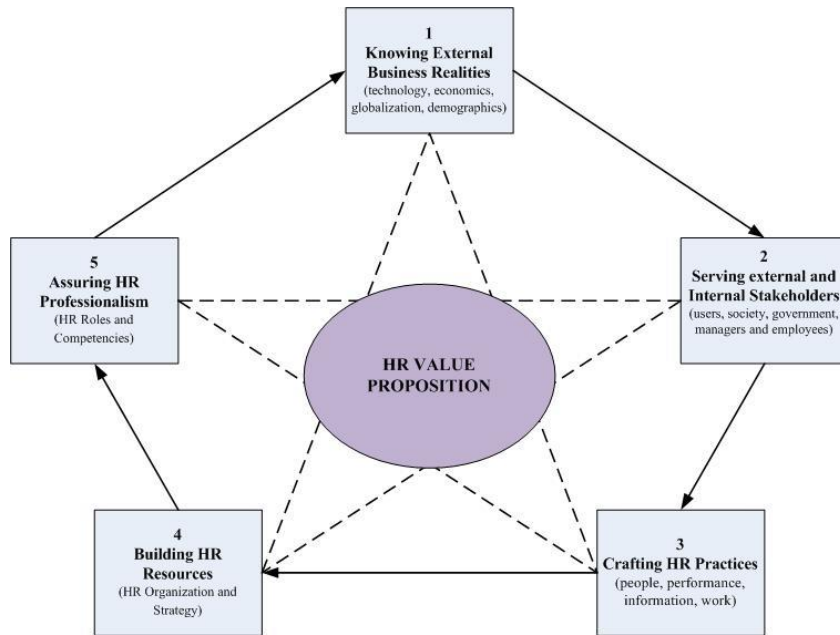


Figure 2-4 - The HR Value Proposition
derived from Ulrich and Brockbank (2005)

Ulrich and Brockbank (2005) developed fourteen 'transformational criteria' based on this model.

Each is linked to one of the five practice elements (table 2-4)

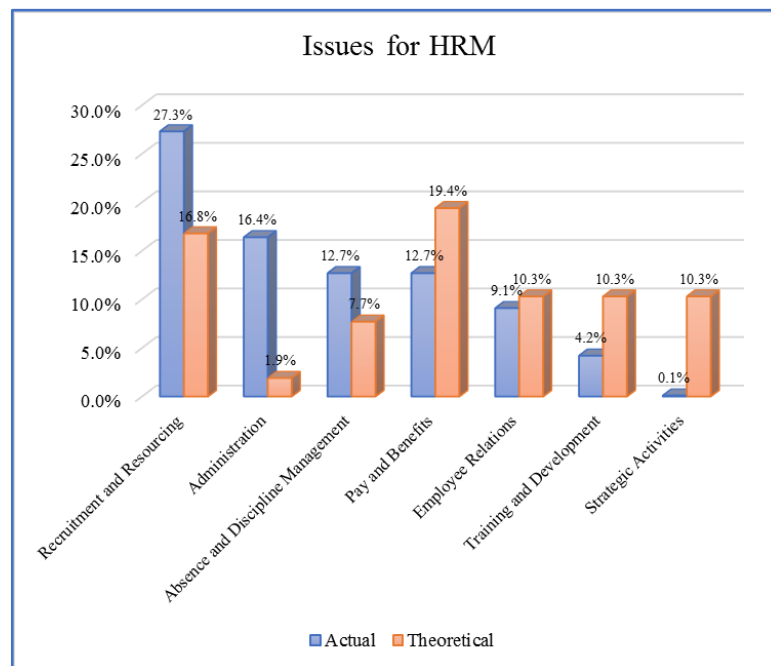


Figure 2-5 - Issues Facing HR Departments - Time Expended vs. Theoretical Importance
derived from Crail (2008)

Table 2-4 - HR Value Proposition Transformation Criteria
 adapted from Ulrich and Brockbank (2005)

HR Value Proposition Element	Criterion No.	HR Transformation Criteria - An effective HR Function..
1. Knowing the external business realities	1	[Organisation] ..has HR professionals who recognise external business realities and adapt HR practices and allocate HR resources accordingly
	2	[Org.]..creates value for the government by increasing intangibles.
2. Serving external and internal stakeholders	3	[Org.]..increases 'customer' value by connecting with target customers.
	4	[Org.]..helps line managers deliver strategy for building organisational capabilities.
	5	[Org.]..clarifies and establishes an employee value proposition and enhances individual abilities.
3. Creating HR practices	6	[Org.]..manages people processes and practices in ways that add value.
	7	[Org.]..manages performance management processes and practices in ways that add value.
	8	[Org.]..manages information processes and practices in ways that add value.
	9	[Org.]..manages workflow design and processes in ways that add value
4. Building HR resources	10	[Org.]..aligns its organisation to the strategy of the business.
	11	[Org.]..has a clear strategic planning process for aligning HR investments with organisational goals.
5. Ensuring HR professionalism	12	[Org.]..has HR professionals who play clear and appropriate roles.
	13	[Org.]..builds HR professionals who demonstrate HR competencies.
	14	[Org.].. invests in training and development of HR professionals.

2.3 CULTURE

2.3.1 Introduction to Culture

The effect of national culture (NC) is another principal element in this study as this researcher originally conceived it and it remains central to the final work. NC is an important concept in today's world of rapid transport, mass migration, mass communication and the exchange of ideas. Its effects have been widely noted. These include difficulties in transferring leadership styles (Brodbeck, et al. 2000, Hamilton and Bean 2005, Javidan, et al. 2006a) and the difficulty in transferring HRM practices (Clark, et al. 1999, Papalexandris and Panayotopoulou 2004, Ramamoorthy, et al. 2005). Section 1.8.4.2 provides an overview of the main foundations of national cultural theory. While early works are noted, it is unnecessary to explore them further for this study's purposes and the works of Geert Hofstede (1984, Hofstede and Bond 1984) and NC works from other authors form the foundation theory for this study.

NC has significant effects during government reform projects in states which import foreign ideas, concepts and practices as best practice. Cultural theory is used to provide improved context to Qatar's public-sector reforms, whether cross-cultural or those of OC. This research also evaluates potential areas of cultural conflict when during major change programmes.

One area of culture this researcher did not originally consider to be significant was that of 'OC'. While OC can often be related to NC, OC is a discrete element of culture often researched and described without reference to NC. As Chapter 3 will describe, Qatar's reforms in 2008 and leadership changes expressly intended to change OC.

2.3.2 Defining 'Culture'

2.3.2.1 Culture as Layers

'Culture' is not a single concept but rather one comprised of multiple layers (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; p.11, Schein 2010; pp.23-33, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1997; p.7). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005; p.11) proposed a comprehensive list which identifies six different levels of culture (table 2-5). Cultural characteristics are derived from each level and may not be in harmony and indeed, may conflict. For example generational values may conflict with ideas of social class or gender-related culture. Table 2-5 describes NC as Level 1. This researcher argues, given the distinctive nature of Qatari culture with its strong influences of wider Arabic language and culture and the all-embracing effects of Islamic influence, layers 1-5 together more correctly describe Qatar's NC. Layer 6 is a discrete level of OC.

Table 2-5 - Hofstede's Layers of Culture

Adapted from: Hofstede and Hofstede (2005; p.11)

Culture Type		Description	Relevance to Qatar
1	National culture	Culture according to one's country (or <i>countries</i> for people who permanently migrated during their lifetime)	Strong, shared Arabic, Islamic and language draw Gulf States together into a common culture.
2	Regional culture	This may include not only regional but ethnic, religious or linguistic affiliations either alone or in combination. This is an important consideration in multi-ethnic societies such as Qatar, which have a high proportion of migrant workers	This is an important consideration in multi-ethnic societies such as Qatar, which have a high proportion of migrant workers.
3	Gender-related culture	The culture attributed to whether one was born a girl or boy	Especially important in Islamic and Arab societies.
4	Generational culture	Separating grandparents from parents and parents from children and one age group from another	In a culture highly affected on one hand by millennia of tradition, and on the other by globalisation and especially rapid social change.
5	Social class	Associated with educational opportunities, wealth and opportunity. This may affect a person's education, life chances, occupational profession	In a highly structured tribal culture where social class of the 'tribe' or group is highly important.
6	Organisational culture	Culture at various levels, whether organisational, corporate, departmental, or team level.	To be expressly and deliberately modified under 2008 reforms.

In 1985, Schein (2010; p.24) independently proposed culture existed in levels – in this case, three; ‘artefacts’, ‘espoused beliefs and values’ and ‘basic underlying assumptions’ (table 2-6). Schein’s levels, which are founded on distinctly different principles, bear only a loose relationship with those of Hofstede (table 2-5). They are. In Schein’s case, the term 'level' means the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer (2010; p.23).

Table 2-6 - Schein's Levels of Culture

Source: Schein (2010; p.23)

Level	Culture	Description
1	Artefacts	● Visible and feel-able structures and processes
		● Observed behaviour
		◇ difficult to decipher
2	Espoused Beliefs and Values	● Ideals, goals, values, aspirations
		● Ideologies
		● Rationalisations
		◇ may or may not be congruent with behaviour and other artefacts
3	Basic Underlying Assumptions	● Unconscious, taken for granted beliefs and values
		◇ determine behaviour, perception, thought, and feeling

Schein (2010; p.23) prefers the term 'basic assumptions for the deepest ‘level’ 3. Assumptions are normally taken-for-granted, treated as non-negotiable by group members. While ‘assumptions’ approximately coincide with the terms in ‘NC’ used by other theorists like

Hofstede, Trompenaars, and House, they are an imperfect match. Assumptions involve much more than NC and may involve any or all cultural types described by Hofstede in table 2-5.

Schein (2010; p.2) additionally identifies four different ‘categories’ of culture; ‘macro cultures’, organisational cultures, subcultures; and micro-cultures (table 2-7).

Table 2-7 - Schein's 4 'Categories' of Culture

Source: Schein (2010; p.2)

Culture		Category
1	Macro cultures	Nations, ethnic and religious groups, occupations that exist globally
2	Organisational cultures	Private, public, non-profit, government organisations
3	Subcultures	Occupational groups within organisations
4	Micro-cultures	Microsystems within or outside organisations

Table 2-8 - Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's Three Levels of Culture

Derived from: Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2009; pp.21-23)

Level	Culture	Description
Outer	Explicit Products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Less esoteric, more concrete factors – observable reality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Language, food, buildings, houses monuments, agriculture, shrines, markets, fashion and art
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Observed behaviour <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Such as ways people greet one another Symbols of deeper levels of culture Prejudices normally start at this level
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Norms <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sense of 'right' and 'wrong' Formal as written laws Informal as societal values "This is how I should normally behave" Concept an individual or group has regarding desirable behaviour.
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Values <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Define 'good' and 'bad' Closely related to shared ideals of the group "This is how I aspire or desire to behave"
Inner	Basic Underlying Assumptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Basic values people strive for to survive in their environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Solutions disappear from individual's awareness
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Groups organise in a way to increase effectiveness of problem solving <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developed differently in different geographical regions - also formed different sets of logical assumptions
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questioning of Basic Assumptions leads to irritation or puzzlement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Changes of culture only occur when 'old ways of working' no longer work and threaten survival

Although Trompenaars was a student of Hofstede, his definition more closely resembles Schein's than Hofstede's (table 2-8).

2.3.2.2 - Definitions of 'Culture'

There is no common agreement on the definition of culture as an entire concept.

Geertz (1973) defined culture as:

A system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which people communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitudes towards life.

(1973a; p.89).

More recently Geert Hofstede (1984) defined culture as:

The collected programming of the mind which distinguishes members of one human group from another.

(1984; p.21)

D'Andrade (1990) relates culture to learning and 'natural language'. This is important to gain understanding of the drivers of culture in Arab societies and similarly, in Western Anglo-Saxon countries where the English language is also a strong unifying factor.

Culture consists of learned and shared systems of meaning and understanding, communicated primarily by means of natural language. These meanings and understandings are not just representations about what is in the world; they are also directive, evocative, and reality constructing in character.

(1990; p.65)

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) address cultural 'outputs', saying:

Culture is the way in which a group of people solves problems and reconcile dilemmas.

(1997; p.6)

Trompenaars and Hampden further suggest culture directs and forms the roots of action (1977; p.24). They note culture is relatively stable only when its norms reflect the values of society (1997; p.22). They suggest unless this happens society is likely to be destabilised.

The GLOBE project sought to develop a collective understanding of the meaning of culture for use worldwide. The collective definition culture GLOBE uses:

The shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations.

(House and Javidan 2004; p.15)

Researching mainly in an organisational context, Edgar Schein (2010/1985; p.18) offers the following definition for culture:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members is the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

(2010; p.18)

This researcher defines culture as:

A pattern of shared and inherited traits that manifest themselves at levels of observable reality, formal or informal norms and values, and deep underlying beliefs. Together, characteristics of these levels progressively affect the inherent assumptions of national, regional, or discrete meta-groups, and generally define how people in those groups think, feel, behave and approach tasks and relationships.

2.3.2.3 Arab Attitudes to the West

Researchers report certain cultural attitudes in Arabic-speaking countries which often manifest themselves as anti-Western or more specifically anti-American (Makdisi 2002, Toolan 1990, Zakaria 2001a). Some Muslims view American and Western hegemony as a new form of imperialism (Clement 2003). Zakaria (2001a) notes significant differences in how Westerners and Arabs view 'modernity'. To Americans, modernity is good. Arab societies are now sufficiently open to other influences to be adversely affected by modernity. However, they are not so open as to absorb modernism and globalisation completely. Many Arabs see globalisation in terms of products and consumer goods and little else. Zakaria (2001a; p.2) describes how "*disoriented young men with one foot in the old world and another in the new, now look for a*

purser, simpler alternative". Ultimately, societies have three responses: change in response to alien cultures, challenge them, or flatly reject them. Arab cultures, including Qatar, are currently challenging Western influences and this is shown in various 'National Visions' in the region.

2.3.3 Principal Cross-Cultural Theories in this Work

Geert Hofstede's (1980, 1984) work came to dominate anthropologically-based cross-cultural dialogue in the last thirty years. In a multinational study that owes much to Hofstede's principles, the GLOBE project has recently gained prominence (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; pp.136-37). Both have been widely studied by independent researchers, especially Hofstede. This section examines these two major theoretical bases in more detail with a critical analysis of dissenting voices which partly or wholly reject their approach.

2.3.3.1 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Geert Hofstede was a Dutch social anthropologist. In his seminal work, Hofstede (1980) evaluated attitudes of managers working for IBM in forty different countries worldwide; later fifty-three, (Hofstede and Bond 1984). Hofstede's analysis in 1980 reduced NC to four 'mental programs' or 'dimensions'. This allowed him to quantitatively and comparatively describe individual NCs. Hofstede related his four dimensions to basic anthropological and societal theories. In a later work, Hofstede added a fifth 'dimension' (Hofstede and Bond 1988).

Hofstede's believed social systems could only exist because "*human behaviour is not random, but to some extent predicted*" (Hofstede 1984; p.16). Hofstede suggested every person carries within themselves patterns of thinking, feeling and potential for action learned throughout their lifetime, especially in early childhood (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; p.2). These influences are based on factors such as region, ethnicity, gender, generation, class and religion. Although some influence may transcend NC, he theorised this formed the basis of any culture. He also notes that "*soft factors*" could similarly affect OC (2005; p.35). He suggests that culture is, like genes, something that people retain despite changes. Hofstede observes that, while change might sweep the surface, the deeper layers remains stable, passed on by the unwritten rules of society.

Table 2-9 - Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions
 Derived from Hofstede and Bond (1984) and Hofstede and Bond (1988)

Abbrev.	Dimension	Description
PDI	Power Distance	Measures inequalities in societies and how much weight different societies place on power coming from prestige and wealth. These inequalities are normally formalised in the amount of authority of one person has over another.
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these.
IDV	Individualism	An IDV score represents a point on a continuum between two values. Individualism is a situation in which people mainly look after themselves and their immediate family only. Collectivism, in contrast is a situation in which people belong to in-groups or collectives who look after them in exchange for loyalty.
MAS	Masculinity	Represents a point on a continuum between 'masculinity' and 'femininity'. These are not merely questions of gender , but rather gender-perceived attributes. Hofstede (1980: p.174) defines masculinity as "a situation in which the dominant values in society are success, money and things" whereas "femininity is a situation in which the dominant values in society are caring for others and the quality of life". Thus, the MAS score relates to the choice of social gender roles and their effects.
LTO	Long-Term Orientation	Another continuum. Values associated with long-term orientation are thrift and perseverance, while those associated with short-term orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations and protecting one's 'face'. LTO was developed in twenty-three cultures although no LTO study occurred in Arab countries. However, Arab culture is strongly short-term oriented.

Hofstede's named his dimensions 'Power-Distance', 'Uncertainty Avoidance', 'Individualism', 'Masculinity' and in 1988 added 'Long-Term Orientation' (table 2-9). Since his original work, several thousand independent researchers have tested Hofstede's concepts and with a few exceptions, have validated them in a wide variety of circumstances.

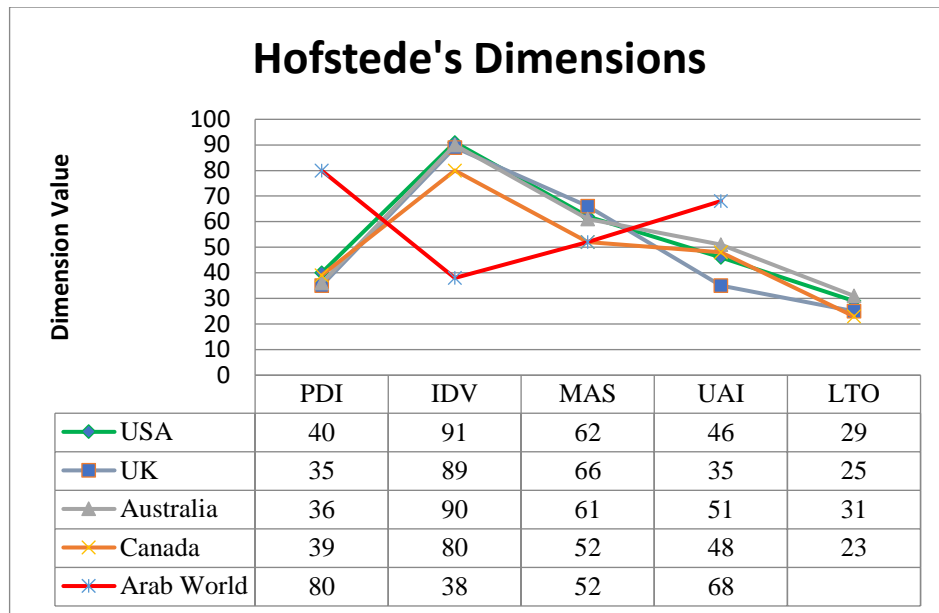


Figure 2-6 - Comparison of Main Theory-Producing States with Arab World

Derived from: Hofstede and Hofstede (2005)

Hofstede did not measure the specific attributes of Arab countries, but referred to the ‘Arab World’ which he considered relatively homogenous (fig. 2-6). Hofstede’s Arab World included Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, though not specifically Qatar (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005) (Appendix 5). Large Power-Distance Index (PDI) and Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) are the main characteristics for this region. PDI and UAI reflect the regions tribal roots and a high respect for authority.

Employees in the Western individualistic societies (fig. 2-6) usually act in their own interest. Ideally, employers organise work so that employees’ and employer’s interests coincide. In a collectivist culture, people are often employed based on their connection to an ‘in-group’. In-group interests may override employee’s individual interest (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; pp.99-100).

In individualistic societies, family relationships at work are considered undesirable and discouraged for fear of nepotism and conflict-of-interest. Individualist societies are more performance or results oriented. Stronger legal protection of employees is used to compensate. In a collectivist society, poor individual performance is not normally seen as an adequate reason

for dismissing an employee who is a member of an in-group (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; p.100)

In individualistic societies, managers manage individuals, with bonuses and reward paid individually. In collectivist societies, incentives and bonuses are best paid to groups. In individualistic societies, all employees are considered as equals regardless of gender, national or ethnic origins, or other differentiating characteristics. In contrast, in collectivist societies, employees are positively judged if they belong to an in-group or one gender, usually male (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; pp.100-01).

The Arab World's Masculinity (MAS) dimension is interesting because of its similarity to Western MAS scores (fig. 2-6). The Arabs World's MAS score is marginally higher than the average of all countries worldwide. Yet in Arab societies, women generally occupy quite different positions in society than males to those in the West (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; pp.118-9). That different societal groups coincide at this point, yet behave differently, strongly suggests a strong external factor modifying Arab society (2005; p.120). Islamic belief in differences between gender roles in society is the most likely candidate.

Garcia, *et al.* (2009) found organisations in the Arab World prefer employing males and nationals. This directly correlates between the IDV and MAS and PDI scores. This contrasted markedly with results for Western countries. Garcia *et al* (2009) also analysed related GLOBE which broadly compare with Hofstede's 'dimensions' of IND, MAS and PDI and showed similar results.

2.3.3.2 GLOBE Cultural Dimensions

In a research project which began in 1993, researchers evaluated culture in sixty-two countries and 825 organisations worldwide during the GLOBE project. Later, the project evaluated leadership in a further twenty-two countries (Chhokar, et al. 2007). GLOBE-developed nine cultural dimensions (table 2-10) based on theoretical and empirical data. The general hypothesis

in the GLOBE project is that dominant cultural norms induce behaviour patterns which are reflected in working practices (House, et al. 2004a)

Table 2-10 - The Nine GLOBE Dimensions

Derived from House, et al.(2004b; p.30)

Abbrev.	Dimension	Description
PD	Power Distance	The degree to which members of a discrete societal group (DSG) expect power to be equally distributed
UA	Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which members of a DSG relies on social norms, rules and procedures to manage risks and alleviate unpredictability
HO	Humane Orientation	The degree to which DSG encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others
Co I	Institutional Collectivism	The degree to which organisational and societal institutional practices encourage collective action and distribute resources
Co II	In-group Collectivism	The degree to which individuals in a DSG express pride, loyalty and cohesiveness to their group, organisation or family
AS	Assertiveness	The degree to which individuals are assertive, confrontational or aggressive in their relationship with others
GE	Gender egalitarianism	The degree to which a DSG minimises gender inequality
FO	Future Orientation	The inverse score of whether more people live or should live for the present rather than for the future and engage in future oriented behaviour
PO	Performance Orientation	The degree to which a DSG encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellent

This researcher uses these dimensions as independent variables in later analysis. GLOBE measured two forms of variables (Appendixes 6 & 7). The first concerns *actual* ‘Practices’ in organisations while the second concerns *should be* ‘Values’ (House, et al. 2004b; p.11). The origins of the first six GLOBE variables (PD, UA, HO, Co I, Co II) closely relate to Hofstede’s dimensions of PDI, UAI and IND.

2.3.3.3 Contradictions Between Hofstede and GLOBE

The GLOBE project was inspired by, and intended to correct the Hofstede model (House, et al. 2004a, House, et al. 2001). While Hofstede's work has been frequently validated, it also remains subject to criticism. The same is true of the GLOBE model which is more controversial (Fischer 2009, Minkov and Hofstede 2011). In their reply to Hofstede's criticism of GLOBE measures (Hofstede 2006), Javidan *et al* (2006b) pointed out the shortcomings of Hofstede's own measures. They also pointed to Hofstede's limited understanding of the relationship between national wealth and culture, important in this present [Qatar] study. Hofstede (2006) suggested many measures of NC are correlated with national wealth. Hofstede interprets this to mean that culture is strongly affected by economic factors. He suggests, as a nation grows wealthier it becomes increasingly

individualistic (IDV) and tends to higher levels of power-distance. Javidan *et al* (2006b) disagree. They counter Hofstede's proposition by suggesting that other studies have found different results, predominantly based on the explanation of how wealth was created by factors such as the 'protestant work ethic'.

Hofstede's work involved a single study that provided a snapshot of culture, while GLOBE is a longitudinal study which reports changes over time. The dimensions in GLOBE, while bearing some resemblance to Hofstede's dimensions, also vary in important details and go beyond those proposed by Hofstede (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.644).

A major question addressed by GLOBE is the extent to which specific leadership characteristics relate to culture and how leaders influence others to help accomplish group or organisational objectives (House, et al. 2004b; p.15). Javidan *et al* (2006b) highlight they deliberately used leaders as their research population; compared with managers in Hofstede. These factors made GLOBE's aims fundamentally different from those in Hofstede (1980).

While these differences may be important, they do not detract from the validity of other studies, always provided those researchers understood there *are* differences. Each measure can be individually important and both Hofstede and the GLOBE authors caution against other researchers using GLOBE or Hofstede's work too mechanistically.

2.3.3.4 Dissension and Alternatives

This researcher examined more than one hundred and fifty source documents relating to Hofstede studies for this project. He then evaluated more than one hundred and twenty-five for the GLOBE project. Given the number of articles used on these works there is a wide body of literature relating to both methods of cross-cultural analysis. Hall (1959, 1966), Schein (1985), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) and others proposed a rationalist approach somewhat different to Hofstede's. Nevertheless, most articles broadly confirm the findings of Hofstede, and confirm GLOBE findings rather less.

Other researchers, like Oyserman, Coon, and Kimmelmeier (2002) and Fischer, et al. (2009) directly challenge the concepts of previous rationalist research. They strongly question principles of individualism and collectivism. Sullivan and Cottone (2010) and others have challenged rationalist theories for being too Western-centric; or found they do not properly address commonalities of culture (Cromby and Nightingale 1999). Gerhart (2008), Jacob (2006) and Sanchez-Burks, et al. (2007) challenge the validity of Hofstede's research methods or have found significant gaps in the theory. Other rationalists such as Richard Lewis (2006) have formulated more pragmatic approaches to cultural variation. Importantly, opponents of rationalist theories also variously note 'cultures change over time'.

There are other approaches to cross-cultural studies leading to differing theories using entirely different approaches. In the 1970s, sociologists placed social structure as a central concept of sociological theory. Geertz (1973a, b) proposed an interpretive theory of culture, while Gearing (1984) proposed a research method based on cognitive mapping. Another school of thought, which emerged from the Annales School in France, viewed culture as "a *mentalité*" (Ashford and Mael 1989; p.51). In the meantime, anthropologists continued to develop alternative concepts of culture around various 'theories'.

Two principal approaches were 'schema' and 'discourse theories' (Holland and Cole 1995) where schemas are knowledge structures and interrelationships between networks of constituencies.

Schemas expressly specify how essential elements of culture relate to one another in societal networks. Exchange theory-based on social structure was developed by Blau (1975) cited by (Cook and Whitmeyer 1992). Ashford and Mael (1989) proposed that cross-cultural study should be based on social-identity theory. Albert Bandura (Bandura 1991) posited cross-cultural studies should be based on social cognitive theory, arguing other available theories were too Western-centric. Bandura believed culture is based on an interaction of personal factors, behaviour and the environment which forms a way of protecting individual and group behaviour.

Discourse theories directly challenge many of the increasing number of advocates of Hofstede-type approaches. Discourse theorists argued that Hofstede suggested societies were more far more homogenous than they actually were. The foundations of discourse theory lie in social constructionism (Holland and Cole 1995) and constructivism (Burr 2003; pp.63-90). Social constructivists hold that our way of understanding the world does not come from objective reality, but rather from other people, past and present. Constructionists suggest all forms of knowledge historically are culturally specific (Burr 2003; p.7). Burr suggests when other people adopt the knowledge of the West, or when Westerners impose their own view, what they are claiming is the truthfulness of the Western view as opposed to the falsity of others (2003; p.33).

2.3.3.5 Cross-Culture and the Public-Sector

Just as international managers must develop "*intercultural competence*", to deal with people from different cultures, then it follows public service managers must also display 'local cultural competence' to deal with people from their own society (Gertsen 1990). His work suggests this involves affective, behavioural and communicative competences if organisations are not to develop a cultural gap. Cseh and Short (2000) say public service professionals must become more culturally aware and culturally sensitive. Fundamental cultural characteristics based on quite different national characteristics of individuality and collectivism, involve respect for hierarchy or authority, or taking different views about risk-taking (Li and Karakowsky 2002). Yet if Arab public servants have been indoctrinated into a predominantly Western mentality the real danger is that a 'local' cultural gap between the civil service and the public will develop. For when communicating with members of the same cultural group, people constantly reference ideas of common tradition to establish common ground (Xi, et al. 2009). Xi, et al.'s research showed that people in collectivist cultures, such as those in Arab societies, were more likely to be more susceptible to group influence than those in individualist societies of the West.

Li and Karakowsky conclude (2002; p.196) that previous research on cross-cultural issues has not paid sufficient attention to the effects of government policy on NC and that practitioners and

government officials do not seem to understand the cultural changes they may inadvertently induce.

2.3.4 Arab Culture

Any study of culture should take into account cultural and specificities of civilisation (Tibi 2005). This research project examined the specificities of Arab culture compared to Western culture because people from Islamic and Western civilisations are visibly different and have traditions and world-views that vary from one another (2005; p.319). Lewis (2006; p.400) agrees, saying:

Westerners and Arabs have very different views about what is right and wrong, good and evil, logical and illogical, acceptable and unacceptable. They live in two different worlds, each organised in its own manner.

Lewis (2006; p.400)

There are commonalities of culture across the Gulf, and to a large extent in the Arabic-speaking countries of the broader 'Arab World'. These commonalities lead to affinity between Arab peoples and often lead to lack of trust with other cultures (Swift 1999).

2.3.4.1 Arab National Cultures

Al-Omari (2008; p.32) citing work by Hofstede (1980), Hall (1976) and Bluedorn, et al. (1999) describes Arab culture as having four major determinants; 'collectivism', 'high-power-distance', 'high-context culture', and 'polychronicity' – a far greater propensity to multi-task.

In the Gulf, collectivism means a strong reliance on tribal and family contact and the values of honour and face. This gives one of the most highly distinctive features of Arab society; the dominance of primary group relations. Instead of individuals asserting their separateness and individuality, they behave as committed members of a group. Affiliation is nurtured at the expense of individual needs for power and achievement, although power and achievement are sometimes compensated for with affiliation to a more powerful group. This leads Arabs towards an important cultural attitude described as "*people are for people*" ("*An-nass lil-nass*") (Bakarat 1993; p.201). Bakarat notes one fundamental difference between Arab and Western cultures is

the role of the individual. Westerners typically believe the individual is the focal point of social existence and the laws and rules apply equally to everyone, that individuals have a right to certain kinds of privacy and the environment can be controlled by humans through technology. This strongly influences Western thought theory and behaviour. In contrast, Arabs usually believe most things encountered in life are controlled by fate and by Allah (*insha'Allah*), that wisdom increases with age, and the inherent personalities and roles of men and women are fundamentally different. Nydell (2006; p.13) describes a series of behavioural traits of Arab societies which he describes as 'basic values':

1. It is important to behave always in a way that will create a good impression on others.
2. Any individual's dignity, honour and reputation are of paramount importance, and no effort should be spared to protect them. Honour and dishonour apply to the entire family or group.
3. Loyalty to one's family or group also takes precedence over personal preferences. Social class and family background are the major determinant factors of personal status. Individual character and achievement are secondary to this (Nydell 2006; p.15).
4. Nydell (2006; p.17) also reports important differences of roles of personal friendship in Western and Arab societies. To most Westerners, friendship is about companionship and it is considered 'poor form' to cultivate friendships primarily for what can be gained from the other person's influence. In Arab societies, friendship imposes a strong duty to give help and do favours wherever possible.
5. Westerners believe objectivity and examination of facts should be carried out logically; without the intrusion of emotional bias. Arabs believe differently and place a high value on displays of emotion (Nydell 2006).

Al-Omari (2008; p.33) suggests that around 60% of Arab values, attitudes and behavioural patterns are derived from deeply held collectivist values and beliefs. In collectivist cultures,

emphasis is placed on consensus and consultation in the decision-making process where open conflict is avoided whenever possible.

In a high-power-distance culture, bureaucracies have numerous layers and powerbrokers where exclusive privileges are expected for those at the top (Al-Omari 2008, Moideenkutty, et al. 2011). Linked high-context features are characterised by the need to save face and the use of complex and sophisticated systems of internal communication which are more unspoken than explicit. The combination of high-power-distance (PDI) and uncertainty avoidance (UAI) is a dominant feature of Arab culture (Hofstede 1980, Hofstede and Hofstede 2005). This creates a position where leaders have virtually complete power and authority and can create laws, accompanying rules and regulations to reinforce their own leadership and control (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005).

Arabs have a polychronic culture (Bluedorn, et al. 1999). Arabs are characterised by the complex management of time where several tasks are managed simultaneously and where timing and diplomacy can override the need for urgency. Lewis (2006; p.402) notes that Western countries and Arab countries are at opposite ends of the monochronic and polychronic scales. This means communication plans are quite different in practice. Arab culture often emphasises form and word at the expense of content or meaning (Bakarat 1993)

Historically, Islamic culture has been shaped by many factors. These include dependency, colonisation, a relatively recent change from rural nomadic to urban living, repressive conditions and traditional loyalties of religion, ethnicity and kinship (Bakarat 1993; p.3). Nevertheless, a sense of common identity which consists of the sharing of essential elements define the character and orientation of Arab peoples. The term 'Arab peoples' conveys a wider message. Arab peoples are united by a common language and many other common features such as regional culture, socio-political experiences, economic interests, self-perceptions and religion (1993; p.31). Since most Arabs are Muslims, religious and Arab identities are often viewed as inseparable (1993; p.33) making Islam one of the strongest influences on Arab culture (Chamberlayne 1968).

Arabs have also been afflicted by the sudden introduction of foreign practices and concepts in traditional societies. The reaction of some people to Western influences is to reject them and become more conservative and religious. The clash of cultures has now become a serious issue. Nydell (2006; p.8) describes the intercultural dilemma as being an issue of

... whether they can adopt Western technology without adopting the Western values and social practices that go with it and thereby retain cherished traditional values

Nydell (2006; p.8)

Western people generally believe in equality for all and different characteristics that define people should have no effect on their right to be equal. Arabs also believe in equality, but in a significantly different way to the West. Arabs recognise a model of "*equal but different*" (Metcalf 2007; p.54) recognising the fundamentally different roles different individuals play in society. The clearest manifestation is the difference between genders, so often misunderstood by Western people. The Qur'an and the reports of the actions of the Prophet Mohammed (*hadiths*) set out principles of equality between genders 1400 years ago (Al-Mannai 2010) long before gender equality appeared in the West. In Islam, its form is entirely different from the West's concept of '*everyone is equal regardless of individual characteristics*'. Instead, in Islam equality is based on different roles in life. Thus, Arab people believe people are '*equal but different*'. This shows up clearly in families.

The family lies at the core of Arab society, in political, economic, social and religious terms. Its privileged position is enshrined in the constitution of many Arab or Muslim states (Chamberlayne 1968) including Qatar. Women hold a central and powerful position in the family (Nydell 2006; p.48). Her word in a family setting is the strongest. Society views her primary role as dealing with issues of family and children (Metcalf 2007). It is normal that even the most powerful men will be guided by their mother or the female head of the household. They truly are '*the power behind the throne*' in family setting, though in a different setting such as 'work' their relative role changes. Additionally, in Qatar, women enjoy full legal equality confirmed by the

Constitution (MOFA 2010b) though this legal equality does not go the whole way to resolving Western-style gender differences imposed by local culture. Inevitably, the family versus work role has significant effects on women in the workplace. Despite rapidly increasing levels of education, relatively few married women have jobs outside the home. To counter this, improving women's status and role in wider society has now become Qatar's official policy strongly supported by the Emir (News24 2009).

Women in Qatar, and much of the Gulf, can no longer be described as timid, inferior, domesticated women who scarcely leave their houses (Elamin and Omair 2010). Even so, many traditional attitudes prevail in Arab culture and the workplace. Equality is also influenced by a culturally-based class system and policies towards foreign and expatriate workers who make up over 98% of the workforce (QIX 2015), though much lower in the public-sector (Gubash 2010). Again, we see role and position in life affecting quite different ideas of equality. Most Gulf states have 'localisation' policies in place, which legally appoint and promote citizens in preference to foreign workers (Al-Ali 2008, Forstenlechner 2010, Madhi and Barrientos 2003, Rees, et al. 2007). In Qatar, this is known as 'Qatarisation'.

2.3.5 Organisational Culture

Corporate or OC is conceptually separate but strongly related to NC and cross-cultural theories. It first came to prominence with the work of Edgar Schein (1985). OC has been a popular concept for more than 30 years, though it remains controversial (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007: p624). Like NC, OC deeply affects the way people behave within organisations, often subconsciously. OC was not in the original study. Its special relevance in this study is the way leadership changes and public-sector reforms in Qatar deliberately set out to change then prevailing OCs by imposing widespread leadership changes.

Theorists describe OC at its simplest as "*the way we do things around here*" (Peters and Waterman 1982b). The term OC is about a mixture of "*shared beliefs, values, assumptions, significant meanings, myths, rituals and symbols that they [the stakeholders] held to be*

distinctive for the organisation” (Green 1988: p6). These are not the same as the features of the organisation such as its structures, organisational systems or most aspects of its technology. OC creates an intangible but distinctive 'feel' to any organisation when viewed internally or externally.

OC is closely related to organisational effectiveness. Many authors including Edgar Schein (1992) Virginia Schein (1979), (Jaskyte 2004), and Asree et al, (2010) note that OC may also be directly related to leadership and strategy. Leadership input to OC is vital, and a key part of this [Qatar] research. Leaders and executives are expected to create a distinctive management style. In a well-run organisation there is an alignment between management style and OC (Bititci, et al. 2006).

Like NC, there is no standard definition for OC. Writers have variously described it as:

Culture is 'how things are done around here'. It is what is typical of the organisation, the habits, the prevailing attitudes, the grown -up pattern of accepted and expected behaviour

Drennan (1992; p.3)

The deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously and define in a basic 'taken for granted' fashion an organisation's views of its self and its environment.

Schein (1988)

The pattern of assumptions, values and norms that are more-or-less shared by an organisation's members.

Cummings and Worley (2005; p.490)

.... A pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by age group as it solves its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore to be taught to new members if the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

Schein (2010; p.18)

As well as Edgar Schein's ideas explored earlier in section 2.3.2, other authors significantly contributed to concepts of OC. Deal and Kennedy (1982; p.37) proposed that OC contains five components:

1. The 'business environment' - government actions, other comparable organisations, changes in technology, demand from stakeholders and general economic conditions shape the organisation;
2. 'Values' - which are at the heart of OC and made up of key beliefs and concepts shared by the organisation's employees. Often values are unwritten and work on a subconscious level;
3. 'Heroes' - who personify an organisation's values and provide role models for success within the company. Heroes provide vision for the organisation;
4. 'Rites and rituals' – ceremonies and routine behavioural rituals that reinforce the culture;
5. The 'cultural network' - the informal network within an organisation that is often the place where people learn the most important information.

Bititci, et al. (2006: citing Harrison 1987) provides a framework of four types of OC; 'role culture', 'power culture', 'achievement culture', and 'support culture'. Harrison bases his framework directly on Hofstede's (1980) work.

'Role culture' – people perform their work to fulfil contractual duties, backed up by sanctions and personal loyalty towards the organisation. In role culture, the powerbase of any leader is legitimacy and followers give status to the leader out of respect for the office. The leader does what the organisation allows him or her to do. The leader is technically expert and well-informed.

'Power culture' – people perform their work out of hope for reward, fear of punishment or personal loyalty towards a powerful individual. Leaders in a power culture may be authoritarian,

autocratic and an idealistic prime mover. The leader tells others what to do and motivates using reward or punishment.

‘Achievement culture’ - people perform their work out of their satisfaction for the excellence of work and achievement. In an achievement culture, leadership flows from the leader’s knowledge and skills and followers give him status out of recognition of his contribution. The leader draws energy from competitive conditions and actively aims for goals and targets, constantly directing and encouraging participation. Management styles in this culture are consultative.

‘Support culture’ - people perform their work out of enjoyment for the work’s own sake and respect for the needs and values of the people involved. In the support culture, the leader’s power base is from personal charisma which symbolises their values. Followers give status to the leader out of liking or identification with him or her. The leader encourages involvement in decision-making and common respect and trust, actively seeking consensus, commitment, openness and good morale. Management styles in this culture are democratic, participative and team building.

Huczynski, and Buchanan (2007; p.634) provide an alternative view on types of OC. They base each of five types of culture on a bipolar set of perspectives; ‘Culture has v. Culture is’, ‘Integration culture v. Differentiation culture’, ‘Consensual culture v. Fragmentation culture’, ‘Culture managed v. Culture tolerated’, and ‘Symbolic leadership’.

‘Culture has v. Culture is’ - The functionalist ‘has’ perspective suggests every organisation simply has a culture. This view comes from the objective reality of artefacts, values and meanings. In contrast, the social constructionist ‘is’ perspective consists of a subjective reality of rites, rituals and meanings and rejects the idea that culture has any objective independent existence.

‘Integration v Differentiation’ - These two perspectives suggest a clear set of values, norms and beliefs, which most employees share and that guide their behaviour creates a strong culture. The integration perspective describes an organisation which has a single unified culture. Integration

leads to organisational effectiveness through greater employee commitment and control. Direct measurement is by productivity and cost-effectiveness.

The differentiation perspective describes an organisation which consists of several subcultures each with its own characteristics and diverse interests.

‘Consensual v. Fragmentation’ - In the unitary or consensual perspective, the organisation and organisational leaders stress consensus but admit the possibility there may be occasional failures in communication. This view assumes the organisation precisely follows the leader’s view of what the culture of the organisation should be.

The fragmented perspective sees the organisation as a collection of often opposed groupings. Examples include ‘management versus labour’, ‘production versus marketing’, and so on. Leaders assume the inevitability of conflict and focus various opposing interests and opinions between different groups and on identifying seats of power.

‘Culture Managed v. Culture Tolerated’ - The ‘culture managed’ perspective assumes corporate leaders can either create or adapt the culture. Leaders sometimes uphold or reinforce the culture originally fixed when the organisation was created. In a ‘culture tolerated’ OC, the organisation takes a non-interventionist attitude towards culture and its management.

‘Symbolic Leadership v. Management Control’ - Symbolic leadership encourages employees to feel they are working for a worthwhile organisation so they will become encouraged to be more productive and work harder. The ‘management control’ perspective argues that symbolic leadership a backdoor attempt to manage rather than give leadership. This perspective suggests people enter organisations with different motivations, experience and values. The leader must manage and control them to reduce variability of employee behaviours, so OC becomes homogenised.

OC thus becomes an important element in controlling and aligning organisations with strategic goals. Leadership plays a highly important part in creating, developing and underlining it.

2.4 LEADERSHIP

Leadership assumed major importance in this research for two reasons. First, cultural factors characterised by a high power-distance mean that organisations, especially those in the public-sector, act in a strictly top-down manner with leaders providing the top-level of command. Second, the Emir appointed a new minister for every ministry. The Emir charged each of them with bringing about changes to OC to action the Ruler's own national strategy. It became reasonable to expect 'leadership' itself would introduce significant change in every ministry. Such changes are extra to those occurring from the effects of introducing reformed HRM systems. This researcher later needed to account for this in empirical data. This created the need for both extensive and intensive reviews of the leadership literature and the many facets of leadership theory and practice which Chapter 1 described.

For many years, theorists and practitioners have believed leadership to be a critical determinant of organisational effectiveness and one which can change the way the organisations behave (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007: p695). Qatar's Emir and the Advisory Council clearly thought so when they introduced new ministerial appointments. Each minister then appointed an executive team to oversee management and change. Executive teams formed the research population for the present study (QB). In private-sector terms, each minister became the chief executive (CEO) of his ministry while his deputy minister acted as the operational head of the ministry or managing director (MD). Each head of a major department provided focused leadership to his department. Departmental heads acted as part of the Ruling Executive of the ministry; in private-sector terms, its board of directors. However, in practice this private-sector analogy has limits. As this chapter will show, public-sector leadership is often significantly different from their private counterparts. The cultural characteristics of Qatar also have a major effect.

2.4.1 Leadership Versus Management

Theorists widely hold that 'leadership' and 'management' are fundamentally different skills (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007: p697). A manager may potentially lead. Most managers do not. While some commentators infer the skills of managers and leaders are synonymous, most now agree they are not. Kotter (1990) divided leadership and management together into four functional areas; 'creating an agenda', 'developing people', 'execution', and 'outcomes'. He suggested a significant difference existed between management and leadership roles in area. Bennis and Nanus (1985: p21) summarised this as "*managers do things right while leaders do the right things*". These authors then suggest managers aim for short-term daily efficiency and accuracy while leaders create vision, objectives, effectiveness and long-term goals. Armandi, *et al.* (2003) also distinguish between leadership and management. They suggest a manager is someone who uses formal authority to direct the work of others. In contrast, a leader personally influences others because of subordinates' willingness to do what he or she asks. Armandi, *et al.* suggest the real difference between the two is that employees are willing to do what leaders ask of them because they *want* to instead of doing it because a manager wills it. Butler (2009: p140) expresses this differently noting "*leadership complements management; it does not replace it*". Rowe (2006) agrees, noting that both management and leadership, while related, are different processes. He notes one might better understand leadership as an organisational engagement with time, culture and change. This differs from managers' relationships to these influences. Thus, leaders *create* organisations while managers *sustain* them and keep systems functioning well (Allman 2009, Rowe 2006). Kotter (1990) suggests the leadership is about coping with change and the more change occurs, the greater the need for leadership rather than management. Allman (2009) agrees suggesting "*the fundamental purpose of leadership is to produce useful change*".

The same is true in the public-sector. In many reforms, public-sector managers use restructuring, re-engineering and technological fixes to address organisational problems. Yet they only address some issues. Organisations really need leadership rather than traditional public service

management to provide solutions (Naquin and Holton 2006). To achieve high-performance, organisations must closely examine both management and leadership development processes, rather than efficient management alone. Thus, this researcher had to discover whether executive respondents acted as managers or leaders. Otherwise, it would not be possible to predict their effect on either their ministry or the data.

2.4.2 Leadership, Power and Authority

The relationship between power and leadership is important for this study. Research shows the Gulf is a region with a high-power-distance culture defined by Hofstede's PDI dimension (1980, 1984). Al-Yahya (2009) reported several studies which showed that, in the Gulf, there is over-centralisation of power and control.

In an important early work relating power to leadership, French and Raven (1958) identified five potential sources of power (table 2.11).

Table 2-11 - French & Raven's Bases of Social Power

Basis of power	Description
Reward Power	Influence through the ability to give recognition, promotion, pay increases etc.
Coercive Power	Influence through the use of force including punishment, demotions (real or apparent) pay cuts, reprimands etc.
Referent Power	Influence based on the belief of followers that the leader has desirable qualities (charisma)
Legitimate Power	Influence based on given authority or position which followers have the obligation to accept - normally depends on the leaders formal organisational position title.
Expert Power	Influence based on the leader's perceived expert knowledge and skills

Later theorists like Kotter (1985) and Benfari *et al* (1986) built on these definitions to add; 'information power', 'affiliation power', and 'group power'.

While theorists and practitioners widely use French and Raven's model, it does not have universal acceptance. Braynion (2004) reports several studies which disagree with French and Raven. She suggests the 'bases of social power' concept lacks comprehensive and valid empirical

support, and is too leader-focused. Such classifications do not place assumptions in a social or cultural context.

Huczynski and Buchanan (2007: p798) add the different perspective of ‘power-as-property’ which helps define the locus of power. They suggest three perspectives of power as the property: ‘power of the individual’, ‘relationship power’; and ‘power as an embedded property of organisational structures’. Used well, a leader’s power may create a framework of authority which is often welcomed when crises or change occur, or may directly lead to rewards for certain followers (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007: p701). Thus, power and motivation intimately relate to leadership.

There can also be a negative side to power. Failure to recognise and examine the negative effects of power may distort any discussions on leadership (Washbush and Clements 1999). Negative use of power may be associated with eight behavioural categories; ‘insincere’, ‘despotic’, ‘exploitative’, ‘restrictive’, ‘failed’, *laissez-faire* and ‘active-passive-avoiding’ leaderships (Schilling 2009: p114). Negative effects of power often cause organisational failures. These include; bad decision-making, frustration, negative feelings and attitudes among employees and followers, dysfunctional organisations, wasted resources, and at worst, the failure of the organisation. Thus, negative effects may lead to either ineffective leadership or in worst cases, destructive leadership.

2.4.3 Leadership Types

Throughout recorded history, societies have realised the high value of leadership and stories of exceptional leaders survive from history to the present-day. These include Salah al-Din Yusuf (Saladin), Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, Alexander the Great, Hannibal and Julius Caesar. Chapter 1 showed modern theories of leadership have been mainly developed since the 1960s and 70s. Prominent theorists include Henry Christopher Argyris (1973), Henry Mintzberg (1973, 1975), Fred Dansereau, George Graen and Willian Haga (1975) and James McGregor Burns (1978). Argyris (1973) examined leadership as CEO effects on organisational development.

Dansereau, et al (1975) developed leader-member exchange (LMX) theory using a ‘vertical dyad’ approach derived from essentially Western psychological theory, based on interactions between two people. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), developed LMX theory had developed suggesting leadership is based on three domains; ‘leader-based’, ‘relationship-based’, and ‘follower-based’ (table 2-12)

Table 2-12 - Leadership Domains in LMX
Derived from: Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995)

	Leader-based	Relationship-based	Follower-based
What is leadership?	Appropriate behaviour of the person in leader role	Trust, respect, and mutual obligation the generate influence between parties	Ability and motivation to manage one's own performance
What behaviours constitute leadership?	Establishing and communicating vision; inspiring, instilling pride	Building strong relationships with followers; mutual learning and accommodation	Empowering, coaching, facilitating, giving up control
When most appropriate?	Fundamental change; charismatic leader in place; limited diversity among followers	Continuous improvement teamwork; substantial diversity and stability among followers; network building	Highly capable and Task committed followers

Over the intervening period various difficulties had emerged mainly as a result of the validity of the LMX construct and its definition, and measures used by other researchers (Schriesheim, et al. 1999). Nevertheless, many of its principles and findings remain useful though there are limits to its use in a non-Western culture.

In his seminal work, Burns (1978) defined two different types of leaders 'transformational' and 'transactional'. These concepts receive significant and continued attention from both academics and practitioners as ‘new leadership’ approaches. Burns notes that transactional leadership occurs when a leader treats relationships with followers as an exchange. This gives followers what they want in return for acting and giving results in a way the leader wants, and by undertaking prescribed tasks to follow established goals. In contrast, a transformational leader uses relationships with followers to promote motivation and commitment. The leader influences

and inspires followers to go beyond mere compliance with prescribed tasks in a way that improves organisational performance (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007: p718).

James McGregor Burn's (1978) influential ideas of 'transformational' and 'transactional' leadership have often dominated ideas leadership. Other theorists have sought alternative styles of leadership. These include 'visionary' (Manning and Robertson 2002), 'directive' (Muczyk and Reinmann 1987), 'paternalistic' (Westwood and Chan 1992), 'servant leadership' (Greenleaf 1977), '21st-century leadership' (Bennis and Nanus 1985), 'authentic leadership' (Walumbwa, et al. 2010), and 'super leaders' (Sims and Lorenzi 1992).

The question remains whether the transformational leadership style is culturally-based or transferable to Qatar and the Arab World. Shihin and Wright (2004) tested this in Egypt and observed the theoretical foundations of transformational leadership differed in significant respects from those found in similar research carried out in the United States. They argued that Bass and Avolio's model of transformational leadership needs adjustment and modification in different countries, especially in the Arab World. They observed cultural effects induced by Islam, and traditional family and tribal structures. They noted "*Egyptians were found to have a great fear of loneliness, they always desire to be surrounded by family and friends*" (2004: p503). They believed that culturally, Arabs show a tendency towards preferring charismatic leadership. They noted this involves seven different Egyptian 'leadership factors'; 'positive leadership', 'reluctant decision-making', 'enthusiastic leadership', 'bureaucratic leadership', 'social integration', 'authoritarian leadership' and 'individual consideration'. 'Positive leadership' meant an active involvement in every part of leadership activities. 'Reluctant decision-making' meant avoiding taking decisions, delaying important decisions and finding it the logical to rush in and solve problems. 'Enthusiastic leadership' means constantly expressing confidence and talking enthusiastically about what could be accomplished. 'Bureaucratic leadership' not only tends to impose bureaucratic systems but also uses them to find fault with subordinates and focus attention on irregularities and mistakes. 'Social integration' encourages social gatherings and inspires group members to discuss work issues together. 'Authoritarian leadership' means enjoying

exercising power over followers. Nevertheless, Egyptian leaders use 'individual consideration' which treated subordinates as individuals, considering them as having different needs and using teaching and coaching methods with them, reminiscent of servant leadership. Together they produced a peculiarly Arabic style of transformational leadership. The cultural closeness of Egypt and Egyptian management styles to that in other Gulf states including Qatar is noted by many researchers. Most notable are Hofstede (1980, Hofstede and Hofstede 2005) and GLOBE project researchers (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004a)

Theorists continue developing ideas of leadership though sometimes they are contradictory, confusing and lacking in cohesion (Hay and Hodgkinson 2006). Bryman (1996) tried to remove this confusion by noting leadership theories usually falls into four groups. 'Trait theories' identify the characteristics of leaders. 'Behavioural theories' identify behavioural styles of leadership. 'Contingency theories' focus on fitting behavioural styles to situational factors. 'New leadership theories' seek to explain the leader's projection of vision. 'New leadership theories' have largely replaced the first three; trait, behavioural and contingency theories. Nevertheless, theorists continue researching trait, behavioural and contingency theories and still contain ideas relevant to modern leadership and are described below. De Church (2010) added further categories which include 'strategic leadership' and 'shared and distributed leadership'.

One style, paternalistic leadership which, while developed further east in Asia, fits Arab thinking. Chen and Kao (2009) define paternal leadership as:

a style that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity couched in a personal realistic atmosphere and which has three stylistic dimensions: benevolence, moral[ity] and authoritarianism

Beekun and Badawi (1999: p15) postulate the second major role in the Muslim leader is to be a 'guardian-leader'. They observe that a leader should protect his community against oppression, to encourage obedience to Islamic principles (*taqwa*), and to promote justice. Yet guardian-leadership does not appear in the academic literature. The closest approximations to its principles

is paternalistic leadership with its origins were in earlier works by authors such as Max Weber and Mary Parker Follet. Weber (1947) described how paternalistic practices were normal in pre-bureaucratic organisations, although he suggested they would disappear as organisations became more bureaucratic. He described paternalistic practices as ‘elementary traditional domination’ with obedience owed to the leader because of his or her status.

Many modern paternal leadership studies are centred on China and East Asia, though there has been research in India, Turkey, China and Pakistan (Pellegrini and Scandura 2008). These studies show that in those regions at least, paternalistic leadership was less authoritarian than Weber described and owed more to its roots in “*fatherliness*”; the concept that strong authority is combined with concern and consideration. Studies also show that subordinates respond positively to the care and protection offered by the father figure who heads the organisation.

Paternal leadership relies on values such as personal loyalty to the leader and unquestioning obedience all of which relate heavily to a traditional patriarchal household. The important aspect is that a paternal leader takes interest in the welfare and protection of his subordinates, including their private lives and personal welfare (Jones 1983, Pellegrini and Scandura 2008). Jones (1983) describes how paternalistic control of leadership implies using both personal material rewards and punishments extensively, in contrast to simply controlling work. This further implies that subordinates are tied to the personal relationship they may have with the superior because the superior might give or withhold personal benefits.

2.4.4 Leaders and Strategy

All organisations must periodically evolve and change to overcome threats and take advantage of opportunities. Leaders must communicate strongly and clearly vision, strength of purpose, commitment and determination to organisational members for the organisation to succeed (Krause 1997: p123). Strategy creation is also about ‘doing the right things’ and must be the principal concern for senior executives and leaders. Leadership, especially new leaders, must define then communicate strategy clearly. Strategy is about understanding what the organisation

does, what it plans to become and then focusing how it gets there (Harvard 2005: xiv). Many leaders think their role is only to create and evaluate strategy. However, most successful leaders stay close to the implementation, so they can view problems directly, rather than relying on progress reports (2005: p101). Inevitably, leadership influences the organisation through its strategy. For, as one of the most quoted strategic theorists, Michael Porter (1980) notes, leaders may develop strategy explicitly through the planning process. It may also evolve directly through the actions of various roles, functions and departments. Porter summarises (1980: xx1) “*the sum of these departmental approaches rarely equals the best strategy*”. In other words, strategy needs leadership.

Whether an individual or the executive team leads, senior leadership must take responsibility to manage the organisation strategically through a continuous series of processes (Wells 1997). Performed iteratively, each series of processes will normally involve creating a vision of the organisation's future. Then developing a set of guiding principles or behavioural norms necessary to achieve the vision, stating, restating and clarifying the core purpose of the organisation and developing strategic goals.

2.4.5 Leadership Groups and Teams

Whatever the perspective of leadership, many organisations still believe they must appoint a new leader when change or reform is needed. This seemed to be the view of the Emir in the thirteen newly-formed ministries in Qatar. Many of the senior executives were also new, aimed at improving departmental leadership. When he appointed new ministers, the Emir reflected the view of many organisations worldwide who believe they should recruit from outside the organisation to create a new vision and structure (Turner 2004). However, as Turner notes from research findings, to achieve such effects, it is not always necessary to appoint from outside. Indeed, usually appointing a new leader from inside organisations is far more effective. This may of course, depend on the existing status and reputation of the internal appointee. However, leadership theory makes it clear that whatever route organisations take when appointing a leader, one must consider the effects of leadership in specific areas of the organisation design. These

include strategy, leaders and follower structures (delegation, accountability and responsibility), organisational development, corporate culture including ethics and morality and individual departmental areas such as HRM, financial or operations management.

As this thesis will show, three types of leader faced the researcher, each of which is described by Schein (2010). The first is 'leadership of existing groups'. In this case only one ministry (M01) remained largely untouched apart from introducing new HR systems. The second was 'leaders of groups which developed from existing ministries'. The third was 'leaders of newly created ministries'. The objectives of the Emir and the Ruling Council in appointing new leadership for almost all ministries, was to drive through change and introduce new OCs whether they fell into Groups 2 or 3. The Emir sought to introduce new stakeholder values expressed in Qatar National Vision (QNV 2030). Existing research already shows that focusing on stakeholder values and core competencies using suitable leadership leads to an improved OC (Asree, et al. 2010: p). Asree, *et al.* found there was a direct relationship between improved OC and organisational performance. This in turn affects the ability of service firms and public-sector organisations to achieve greater responsiveness to the needs of stakeholders.

Schein (2010 p198) describes how all new groups start with an 'originating event'. The leader's task is to ask fundamental questions about the organisation's purpose and tasks. Individually, all members of the group, at all levels, will ask fundamental questions about their own role and whether their needs will be met. They will ask questions about their own influence and whether the levels of personal contact they have with superiors will meet their needs. Schein (pp204-05) describes four stages of group evolution; 'group formation', 'group building', 'group work', and 'group maturity'. In this case, the 'group' is the ministry although it may also be departmental or operational group.

The first stage of 'group formation' is the dependence phase in which everyone assumes 'the leader knows what we should do'. In this phase, the leadership must define issues of inclusion, power and influence, acceptance and intimacy, and identity and role. The process will include

building new norms around authority until each sub-group learns to analyse its own processes and creating a 'common language'. This results in corporate culture slowly forming. Other secondary leaders may emerge at this stage. Processes of positive problem-solving and anxiety avoidance reinforce norms people employees build them into those assumptions which become 'taken-for-granted'. The organisation will eventually adopt a distinctive corporate culture. If during this early period, the group fails repeatedly fails to develop a coherent culture the organisation will eventually replace the leader, whether by another appointee or informally. Alternatively, it may mean the top leadership takes and more powerful, active role. If people somehow challenge the leader challenged and he or she voluntarily gives up some authority and shares power with the group, less confidence in the leader may develop (Schein 2010; p.215). The leader's reaction may be to reassert his/her authority, make members more dependent on him or her. To achieve this the leader may have to reduce some personal features of subordinates' relationships with each other or with their superior. This will destroy important components of organisational cohesion.

Group effectiveness is important. Two measures of effectiveness are how effectively any group focuses on its tasks and if it can reduce and avoid anxieties. The latter are highest at early stages of group formation. This is the stage when leaders must be most sensitive. Schein suggests (2010; p.217) that if a leader imposes pressure prematurely, groups will start to fail. Alternatively, groups will fail if they must continually question cultural assumptions. This will only serve to increase apprehension and confusion.

In any new organisation, OC originates in:

1. Beliefs, values and assumptions of its first leader;
2. Collective learning experience of group members; and
3. New values, beliefs and assumptions brought in by new members.

(2010: p219).

The stronger and more certain the leader is in his chosen leadership style, the more likely the organisation will succeed. The group cannot test potential solutions if the leadership makes no

proposal. Even when proposals stimulate actions, leaders must actively decide whether their proposals have resulted in effective systems and methods of work. This must continue until internal systems become stable. Thus, clear leadership is important at the beginning of any group formation process. Leaders must behave unambiguously and actively discourage dissent. If people do not see the original leader as creating problem-solving solutions to problems as they occur, other, stronger people will intervene and emerge as leaders. If the first leader's assumptions on how the group should work are wrong the group will fail at an early stage.

In existing or merged organisations, leaders may embed their beliefs and values and assumptions in various ways. The simplest way is through the leadership style they adopt (as 2.4.3). Leaders should also use 'embedding mechanisms'. Schein (2010; p.236) describes six primary embedding mechanisms:

1. *What leaders pay attention to, measure and control on a regular basis;*
2. *How leaders react to critical incidents and organisational crises;*
3. *How leaders allocate resources;*
4. *Deliberate role modelling, teaching and coaching;*
5. *How leaders allocate rewards and status;*
6. *How leaders recruit, select, promote, and excommunicate."*

The leader must reinforce the main embedding mechanism with 'secondary mechanisms'. Secondary mechanisms include how the leader designs and structures the organisation. It may even extend to the design of physical space and buildings. They will include formal organisational systems and procedures, and formal statements of organisational philosophy and operations. Leaders should further reinforce secondary mechanisms by creating a common set of rights and rituals of the organisation. These must be peculiar to the organisation and should highlight important events and people. Each mechanism must intentionally entrench the leader's personality in the organisation. Early leaders have the first choice about the amount they manage and what and how they communicate. In more mature organisations containing legacy systems, most of subordinates' efforts go into maintenance mechanisms. These create institutionalised

bureaucratisation. Only at earliest stages after appointment does the leader have any real chance of changing or embedding corporate culture of the type he or she wants.

At this early stage, the leader's role is twofold; institutionalising OC into the organisation and then teaching followers to adopt internalise that culture (Fairholm and Fairholm 2000). Crucially, leaders must support what they say by their own actions and displayed beliefs. Only then can leaders motivate followers into loyalty towards the organisation.

In organisations which hope to create a knowledge management culture, instilling behavioural and interpersonal skills into followers is vital. Again, this means involves leaders choosing an suitable leadership style (Politis 2001). In the West, the most effective styles involve human interaction and participative decision-making. In knowledge-based organisations the leadership plays a key role in developing and linking necessary factors for successful knowledge acquisition. Leadership influence on the choice of objectives for the group or organisation creates, supports and encourages the perceptions and attitudes of followers. There are various models of participative decision-making between leaders and subordinates such as those proposed by Vroom (1973, Vroom and Jago 1988, Vroom and Yetton 1973) when certain conditions occur. These conditions include:

- The need for improved decision-making;
- The need for subordinates to 'buy-into' decisions; and
- When subordinates have specialist knowledge the leader does not have.

Participative leadership and distributive (shared)-leadership concepts are similar. Both rely on expertise, relevance and context (Dechurch, et al. 2010).

The literature often has accounts of how leaders, like CEOs, have a significantly positive effect on their organisation. Huczynski and Buchanan (2007: p695) describe leadership as being "*a critical determinant of organisational effectiveness*" whatever the form of the organisation. This is as true of the public-sector as the private-sector. This is why leadership often becomes a focal point of governmental modernisation (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2006). This does not

suggest that leadership is a universal good. Leadership can also negatively affect organisations. For example, strong leaders may be charismatic, but lead their organisations in the wrong direction because their reputation is greater than their leadership quality (Turner 2004). This may also occur because the leader lacks credibility with subordinates or stakeholders (Duignan and Bhindi 1997).

For much of shared or team-based leadership (see also 2.4.5.1), most leadership theory focuses on the characteristics and effect of a single leader, whatever their real or perceived type. But 'leadership' may be far more than just the competence of a single person. One view is the leader embodies fundamental organisational competence (Morden 1997). Organisation competence will include not only the individual competences of the leader, but organisationally being able to preserve best fit with the environment. Leaders are the effective guardian of organisational core competences. They must take an active interest in managing the organisation's knowledge base, its core competencies representing collective and accumulated learning and managing key resources which develop core competences. The leader should also focus on strategic managing technological dynamics and corporate innovation to best ensure the best fit in any future environment.

Another perspective is that leadership in organisations is inherently multilevel (Dechurch, et al. 2010). This is because to be most effective and organisation should have multiple leaders are different levels of the organisation. The research in Qatar's ministries took account of this by considering both the most senior executives, and major departmental heads and their deputies. Multilevel leadership ideas arise from concepts of 'shared leadership' (Hiller, et al. 2006, Pearce and Conger 2003) developed in the last decade. This overturns paradigms that have dominated thinking on leadership at least since the 1950s. The traditional concept holds that leadership is only about the 'top' individual and his or her relationship to subordinates or followers. As 2.4.5 showed, leadership can and does occur everywhere in an organisation. The best departments are usually those which the best leaders. If ideas of shared leadership are true, is this is a mainly

Western occurrence? Alternatively, is it one transferrable to other cultures where power-distance relationships and individualism-collectivism values are fundamentally different?

2.4.5.1 Individual and Team Leadership

While many relational theories are about individuals, most also concern wider groups or teams of people, or indeed to the effects of leadership groups on subordinates.

Large organisations often limit the opportunity for individuals to interact with senior executives and leaders individually. So individual-leader contact becomes of decreasing importance and group-leader interaction more important. Kakabadse (2000) remarks individual-centred consideration of leadership effects is no longer robust enough. In many organisations, any individual has little room to exercise judgement outside their own role. In contrast to decision they must apply to work effectively in their officially prescribed roles.

Many researchers note that people go to great lengths to preserve their affiliation with a group. Group membership leads to different behaviour. Many people perform within a group in ways unlike ways they work as individuals outside it (Sheard and Kakabadse 2004).

Leadership is normally necessary to provide focus, vision and organisational coordination, whatever the group size (Hogg, et al. 2006). Hogg et al suggest that one of the key ways this may happen is through social-identity. Identity involves “*social categorisation, group motivation, collective self-conception, group membership, intergroup relations and social influence*” (2006: p336). This differentiates group relationships from individual and team relationships. Social categorisation depersonalises individual behaviour. So, relationships are no longer based on individual identity, but rather the identity that they derive from the group, whether it is a favoured ‘in-group’ or an ‘out-group’. Under this scenario, leaders whose characteristics match those of the dominant group are more likely to lead effectively.

Hiller, *et al.* (2006), Hale and Fields (2007) and Wendt, et al. (2009) all noted that factors of individualism-collectivism and power-distance may affect collective leadership. They suggest that because individualists and collectivists interpret group relationships in different ways and

value interdependence differently, this interpretation may affect collective leadership. Individuals in high PDI cultures (Hofstede 1980) more readily accept their social status as followers. They may feel themselves less well-equipped to engage in leadership roles than the leader. In high PDI cultures, power is relatively stable, often based on family or tribe. People view those in positions of power as being different types of people to those who have no intrinsic power (Hale and Fields 2007).

2.4.5.2 Management Teams

Most leadership theory assumes the leader is an individual. This is not always the case. Instead, there may be collective leadership, especially for groups of cross-functional teams (Hiller, et al. 2006). In the private-sector, collective leadership through a board of directors is common. An equivalent in the public-sector is when multiple committees decide direction. In Qatar, there are certainly leadership teams. These include the CoM and executive teams in each ministry. The CoM has authority over individual ministers and has a supervisory role over their actions. It has broad responsibility over creating and developing ministries under the Constitution. The CoM also has the authority to recruit and dismiss government employees, provided this does not interfere with the rights of the Emir, or with those of individual ministers. The CoM's role extends to supervising civil service performance in annually recorded programmes of continuous improvement (MOFA 2010a). It was beyond the scope of this project to extend the research to the CoM. Even so, the limited research into collective leadership, like that by Hiller et al (2006), confirms the effects of culture on shared leadership practice. Hiller et al found that executive teams in collectivist cultures often display higher levels of collective leadership. However, this effect may be partially offset by high power-distance. This is not as significant as the influences of individualism-collectivism. Nevertheless, Hiller et al (2006) expressed doubts about this finding and believe it may be more because of experimental design rather than a basis in fact.

This researcher included all those people who could potentially be part of each ministry's executive team in the research population. He made no attempt to distinguish between those who were actual executive team members and those who were not.

The limited research into teams and groups in the 1980s and 90s included the influential review by Hambrick and Mason (1984). Otherwise, few researchers have examined the executive team or top management teams (TMGs) and its leadership affects as a group (Matthews 1998). Matthews suggested the rationale for studying TMGs is that they have significant power to steer the organisations and perform a wide variety of tasks. This includes TMG leadership at lower organisational levels than individual leaders. Research is now emerging that suggests the TMG is a better unit of analysis than the chief executive simply because of their wider impact on the organisation and the various tasks and roles they perform. Yet as a group, TMGs have received relatively little research attention.

2.4.6 Leaders' Roles

Mintzberg (1975) argued leaders have three main roles; 'interpersonal', 'informational' and 'decisional' with each role further subdivided. The interpersonal role reflects the need for someone to become a figurehead and encourages liaison between those involved. In an informational role, the leader becomes a spokesperson and disseminates ideas, which he or she subsequently monitors as they take root. The decisional role may often be entrepreneurial, and usually involves allocating resources and negotiating between disparate factions in the organisation.

2.4.7 Leaders and Organisational Culture

Leading cultural theorists such as Edgar (Schein 1985, 1992, 2010) have long recognised The relationship of leadership and OC, especially when change or reform takes place. Schein (2010) describes various effects of leadership including explaining new visions, conveying of espoused beliefs and values, embedding beliefs, reward and allocation status and acting as role models. Leaders may have a negative effect when they engage in emotional outbursts, do not pay attention to detail sufficient and send out inconsistent signals. Huczynski and Buchanan (2007; p.629) notes the two factors which most contribute to OC are top management and leadership affects and the socialisation of employees. These authors further note that n new organisations, leaders

are can exercise considerable influence, especially when selecting senior managers. Thus, leaders can help develop the social-identity of an organisation (Ashford and Mael 1989). Peters and Waterman (1982a; p.76) suggest the values of organisation are central to organisational success and these are set by leaders together with other key elements of structure, systems, style, staff, skills and strategy.

Edgar Schein (1985; p.317) proposed that leadership was so important that he observed “*the unique and essential function of leadership is the manipulation of culture*”. He assumed that OC can be created by organisational founders and organisational leaders. He further assumed that good leadership was the difference between ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ cultures and those organisations which are inefficient and efficient. Essentially, leaders are best placed to innovate and adjust rapidly and correctly to the necessary strategic direction of the organisation. Writing about transformational leadership Bernard Bass (1985), (Bass and Avolio 1994), remarked that “*changing organisational culture is an outcome of transformational leadership which impacts on followers’ levels of effort and performance*”. Thus, good leadership directly contributes to a strong OC leading to successful organisational performance (Lim 1995). Lim notes that leadership occurs using different forms of exchange including both tangible (pay and rewards for example) and intangible such as personal recognition. When rewards are contingent on performance the effectiveness of individuals and groups is enhanced simultaneously with improving OC. Lim (1995) further suggests that inspirational leaders focus on transformation, charisma and vision to raise the needs of the followers and encourage awareness, interest and achievement. Even informal leaders can individually contribute to OC, usually through a process of interaction and consensus among individual groups or teams. Several authors including Brooks (1997), Waldersee and Griffiths (2004), Gill (2003) and (Michaelis, et al. 2009) see developing OC an essential element of any change process.

2.4.8 Leadership in the Public-Sector

Just as in the private-sector, leaders play a significant role though it may sometimes be different (Allison 1984). This section elaborates on public-sector leadership.

2.4.8.1 Differences Between Public and Private-Sector Leadership

Various authors have evaluated the differences between motivation in public-sector workers and private-sector workers and discovered distinctive differences, including specific public service motivation (PSM).

Perry and Wise 1990 described PSM as:

an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organisations.

Perry and Wise (1990; p.368)

Mann (2006) proposed the following description:

a deeper desire to make a difference, and ability to have impact on public affairs, a sense of responsibility and integrity, and a reliance on intrinsic rewards.

Mann (2006; p.33)

In Qatar, more than 80% of the Qataris in the working population, work in public services. This signals great motivation to work in the public-sector, though reasons Qataris do so may be different from those described as PSM. Nevertheless, it is likely there is also significant 'classic' PSM. It is thus reasonable to assume that leaders and senior executives in Qatar's public services display similar motivations or use them in others to help their leadership.

As well as PSM, sources of power for leaders of public services are essentially different from those in the private-sector. In most countries, both executive politicians and senior executive public servants normally control major public management reforms. Together they decide on crucial reforms (Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004: p50). Reform begins at the higher reaches of government, as it did in Qatar, in this case introduced by the Emir and the Ruling Council. Senior executives in each ministry are all from an elite group which may either be considered as an 'independent group' with great autonomy. Hood (2002, cited by Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004: p41) describes them as "*battle troops for political masters to command and redeploy*. As members of the Ruler's in-group, the dominant administrative culture is more likely to affected them than

private-sector managers. The basic structure of the State leads to two power elements. The first is vertical dispersion of authority throughout individual ministries. The second is horizontal coordination at central government level which decides how far ministers and senior executives must coordinate their activities (2004: p41).

The basic structure of the State leads to two dimensions of power. Vertical dispersion of authority throughout individual ministries. Horizontal coordination of central government level which considers how far ministers and senior executives coordinate their activities (2004: p41). The third difference is the effect of political influences on public-sector leadership. Broad shifts in values may affect society and in turn, public administration. Together these differences make public-sector leadership of reform, change, and HRM relevant.

When it comes to change specifically, many researchers find there are significant differences between public and private-sector organisations (Sminia and Van Nistelrooij 2006). These range from the different reasons for launching change, to the ideas and approaches used. Empirical experience in Western public-sectors found that simply transferring private-sector change methods to the public-sector leads to different results. This is mainly because of the multiplicity of decision makers, a wider range of stakeholders and the more bureaucratic organisational design in public-sector organisations. Many public-sector organisations must also work with different, often legal authorities and handle the influence of legislation and political influences in a way no private-sector organisation will during change. Pressures in the West however, are different from those in Qatar and the Gulf. While public services in the West are more likely to suffer budget cuts, Qatar has had no such problems until recently.

Ministers in the West, who are normally politicians, are increasingly decentralising and delegating authority to professional public servants often to isolate themselves from everyday operational failures (Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004; p.146). Thus, in the West there has been a change from 'administration' to 'management'. In Europe, public servants have played leading roles in deciding reform agendas and proposing specific styles of reform, often without specific

political support (2004; p.192). These 'mandarins' are individually powerful, aware of the environment of their organisations, and often able to take pre-emptive action to preserve public service systems.

Like the private-sector, successful change in the public-sector needs many competencies in leaders and chief executives. These include advanced communication skills, mobilising skills and project evaluation skills (Battilana, et al. 2010). While these appear to be the same as the skills and leadership styles needed in the private-sector, context, PSM and the 'public-sector attitudes' of subordinates changes them.

Just as in the private-sector, many of the leadership styles described in Chapter 2 appear. Diefenbach (2007) refers to both autocratic and paternalistic styles of leadership. Autocratic leaders may introduce change using 'scare tactics', warning all subordinates there was "*a compelling reason for change and a proposed direction is crucial*" (2007; p.128). Diefenbach describe this as management by the "*there is no alternative*" (TINA) principal. Under this principle, leaders rush aside any objections from subordinates as they ask subordinates to consider 'the reality of change'. The alternative to autocratic leadership is the slightly more benign paternalistic approach. Here, the chief executive adopts a protective stance which is at the same time autocratic. Paternalistic leadership combines the TINA principal with a top-down approach. This involves few executives. The main communication is from the leader who communicates those areas that will change and those staying the same (2007; p.130). In this system, the executive management team decides strategic change; the privileged few or the "*upper echelons*".

One of the favoured public-sector leadership styles in reforming organisations is transformational leadership (Horton 2003, Martens and Salewski 2009, Murphy 2008). In the UK for example, in the first decade of the 21st century the Labour Government set up several leadership schools where transformational leadership was the 'buzzword' (Currie and Lockett 2007). Yet many also recognise that in public services organisations, transformational leadership is markedly difficult

to use. Currie and Lockett note that leadership in the public-sector must deal much more with organisational direction and defining more complex problems than leaders in the private-sector. Thus, public-sector leaders become important innovators rather than simply achieving commercial goals. Heavily bureaucratic organisations are also less responsive to transformational leadership (Pawar and Eastman 1997).

Asquith (1998) described two significantly different change management models which emerged from his research. Both related to transformational or transactional styles. First, was the 'transactional authority model' or "*traditional pre-Bains (1972) [UK] local government management model*". Asquith described this as "*nothing more than a loose collection of semi-independent power-baronies without any central coordination of purpose*" (1998; p.265). In this model, leaders displayed transactional characteristics. Essentially, they existed within bureaucratic hierarchies where they used rigid scientific management methods rather than more current HRM approaches.

The principles of charismatic leadership in the public-sector receive little attention. Javidan and Waldman (2003; p.232) noted "*the concept of charismatic leadership seems alien in public administration, at least from the viewpoint of many writers and researchers*". Few public servants are rewarded for taking risks and indeed the idea of risk-taking is normally alien to governmental organisations. Public-sector servant leadership is also largely missing from research publications.

2.4.8.2 Leadership and Public-Sector Change

A major problem of organisational change in public services is that largely mechanistic methods, rather than 'soft' people-centred approaches have dominated structural thinking for a long time (Lloyd and Maguire 2002). This led to subordinates thinking of themselves as merely components of a larger machine. It affected the way subordinates interpreted their environment, their sense of purpose, and the way they thought. Under public choice theory (Brennan and Buchanan 1985, Buchanan and Tollinson 1972, Dunleavy 1991), public servants in management

and executives positions normally act rationally in their own self-interest (Brennan and Buchanan 1985; p.33). Political actors, who include leaders of ministries are “*instrumental, self-serving utility-maximisers*” (Hay 2004; p.41) whose most important consideration is enlarging their ministry’s budget and building their personal empire. Public choice theory contains concepts of ‘individualism’ in which Buchanan and Tullock (1962) cited by Engelen (2007) proposed that individuals decide for themselves exactly what they value and what motivates them. The individual power leaders hold places them in a special position in which they can influence how change happens, and how the organisation installs processes such as HRM. Yet this does not mean that bureaucrats, public-sector and political leaders are always selfish rent-seekers, but can also be honest and have good intentions, as well as higher purposes, values and principles (Zafirovski 2001).

Some public choice theorists argue this the reason politically linked public service organisations exist in a special way and so one should consider them differently to private-sector organisations. Thus, some theorists argue that those who benefit are political leaders, government bureaucrats and owners and workers in favoured sectors. They become the main beneficiaries during distribution of public good rather than the public (Zafirovski 2001). However, it may also be true that bureaucrats and leaders are often simply driven by misconceptions of public and individual interest, and thus become poor decision makers leading poor reform programmes.

Karp and Helgø (2008) note that leaders and subordinate view change differently. Senior executive leaders see change as an opportunity to strengthen and renew the organisation. Subordinates may not see it that way. They neither see, nor probably welcome change because it disrupts their former comfortable position within the organisation and in the hierarchy. Change is only successful when the interests of leaders and subordinates roughly coincide.

Research on change in the public-sector in the West found a move away from hierarchical bureaucratic systems which involve command and control during times of major reform. In successful change programmes, research found leaders encouraged subordinates to take part and

be more involved (Horton 2003). In much of the West, trade union communication and involvement play an important part in change.

Despite large-scale employee involvement, reforms have not always been successful. Observers claim that less than 10% of change programmes in public services achieve their complete aims. Assumptions made by governments about the motivational effects of reform programmes on employees often have the opposite effect. Another phenomenon known as the "*managerialisation of politicians and the politicisation of managers*" has also occurred (Horton 2003; p.410). Reforms lead to fragmenting public services caused by creating 'cost centres' which has led to a lack of coordination and cooperation. Paying individual bonuses has also had a similar adverse effect. Many public-sector organisations have created systems of targets and performance indicators which have had an adverse effect on the quality of service. Reasons leading to problems and performance declines are widely reported throughout the West.

When leaders choose the wrong leadership style to suit OC, change programmes often fail. While change may succeed at first, the momentum is with leadership when they introduce top-down change (Diefenbach 2007). Management of change becomes "*top-down radical shock strategies and the exercise of political clout*" (Ferlie, et al. 1996; p.86). This is especially true when they use a top-down management approach with a predefined organisational structure (Sminia and Van Nistelrooij 2006). However, subordinates start to react by dealing with change tactically rather than strategically as leadership communication lose effect. People listen, make up their own mind and then find ways to bypass instructions (Diefenbach 2007). While subordinates seemingly agree to change, in fact, they neither accept nor contribute to it. According to Karp and Helgø (2008) the approach to change needs much greater sensitivity from leaders. Successful organisational change comprises socially-constructed reality with negotiated meaning resulting from power relationships. This often means avoiding top-down managerial interventions and imposed solutions.

Research in the West shows transformational and charismatic leadership are the most successful styles because leaders exploit the organisation's collective self-identity to achieve their aims (Chang and Johnson 2010). Collective identity is important in two respects. First, it encourages followers to follow group and organisational goals. Second, if members strongly identify with the group, this identification improves their perceptions of leader effectiveness and the respect they give to leaders. However, Chang and Johnson also report that individual self-identity is important both in leaders and followers. The effects of individual identity seem different from effects of collective identity. Relational leadership theory (Uhl-Bien 2003, 2006) which parallels LMX theory holds that leadership is an inherently social process in which individual identities of leaders and followers play a major part.

Leaders have a significant effect on functional and operational roles within public service organisations. Such roles include HRM. If, for example, leaders fail to take a strategic approach to HRM, a fragmented, *ad hoc* approach to its development and implementation occurs (Massey 1994). Those public-sector organisations which truly use HRM strategically will display five essential elements (Tompkins 2002: p96):

1. A proven strategic planning process;
2. A full involvement of the human resource directors (HRD) in change planning, especially considering any personnel-related implications of strategic direction. In public authorities, this is likely to mean almost all strategic issues;
3. A clear organisational statement of strategic objectives;
4. The vertical alignment of personnel policies and practices with the organisation's mission and strategic objectives. This likely leads to the horizontal integration of between HR policies and practices;
5. An HR Department whose organisational role and structure are consistent with and contribute to achieving the organisation's strategic objectives.

In those public-sector change programmes without strategic HRM, existing approaches towards people management often act as a barrier to progress (Massey 1994). Because they are not properly strategically integrated, pay and reward systems including bonus schemes encourage individual job holders to behave in ways that conflict with the goals of the organisation. The

lack of strategic direction makes the organisation and people management policies vulnerable to external influences. Eventually failure to use strategic HRM directly and adversely affects the organisational performance and have serious effects on efficiency, cost, productivity and quality of service.

Leadership is an important element of change related to HRM (Massey 1994). Leaders in this instance may mean either the primary leader or those responsible for the HR function. Ultimately, however it is the chief executive who influences if a strategic approach is taken.

There are several reasons organisations may take a non-strategic approach.

1. There may be issues of power and personality between the chief executive and HRD. If there is significant inequality in the relationship is unlikely the HR Director will make a significant contribution to organisational strategy.

2. The chief executive's attitudes will decide the OC and expectations of the HR role.

If they value this role, the leader will integrate HRM into key planning and decision-making for the whole organisation. If they do not, and they regarded HRM as purely administrative, HR will not make a strategic contribution to the organisation. This is likely to show itself and be observable at departmental level. Historic issues and ways of managing people will continue to predominate. The chief executive and the executive team will keep the view that HR is an administrative role that makes no real contribution to organisational planning and development. Massey (1994) notes this may well arise from the skill of individual HRDs. Then, the organisation and its leaders will see HRM as a discretionary, non-value-adding role which simply costs money without adding value.

2.4.9 Leadership and this Research

Leadership became increasingly important for this research after reforms to Qatar's public-sector led to the Emir appointing new leaders in every ministry. However, when considering leadership, it is important to remember most leadership research during the past half-century has occurred

in the West (Dorfman and House 2004). Thus, almost all prevailing theories of leadership and much of the empirical evidence also comes from the West and mainly from North America. This defines leadership mainly in individualist rather than collectivist cultures. This may mislead researchers when they evaluate systems in collectivist societies using Western theory. Fortunately, the GLOBE project (see section 2.4.10) conducted studies into the major theory-producing countries of the West as well as in two national studies the Gulf.

Because of cultural influences, leadership in the West may be unlike leadership in other societies around the world, although there are some likenesses they vary culturally (Dorfman and House 2004). What people may regard as good leadership in Western countries, different societies in different parts of the world may see in a different light. Dorfman and House (2004: p51) describe several examples citing various authors. They note the West widely accepts that leadership styles which highlight participation. In collectivist cultures, they may have questionable effectiveness. Even so, East Asian managers place much weight on paternalistic leadership and group maintenance. This style of management is much rarer in the West. Charismatic leaders may be also highly assertive in the West, whereas in other collectivist parts of the world they may be far less assertive, and possibly self-effacing. Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi and the Dali Lama are good examples of the East Asian charismatic leader. Western management theory often sees leaders who listen to their followers as highly desirable, yet in China the opposite is true. So, the next sections examine differences in GLOBE perspective to find both fundamental differences and likenesses.

2.4.10 The GLOBE Leadership Project

2.4.10.1 Introduction

Section 2.3.3.2 briefly discussed the GLOBE project and its nine cultural dimensions. However, the main reason for including GLOBE after the 2008 reforms was its focus on the connection between culture and leadership. Specifically, this researcher included GLOBE because it carried out detailed research in both the target regions compared in this [Qatar] research; the West and the Arab World (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Ashkanasy, et al. 2002, Brodbeck, et al. 2000).

In the latter, specific leadership research took place on leadership in Qatar (Abdalla 1987, Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a).

The GLOBE project originated in Robert House's interest leadership, focusing on exploring charismatic leadership internationally (House 1998). After an unpromising start to the charismatic leadership project, House changed it to explore the following aims:

1. *To discover whether organisations worldwide universally accept certain leader behaviours and see them as effective;*
2. *Identifying non-universal culture-specific leadership behaviours and organisational practices which people have accepted as being effective in each country surveyed;*
3. *To define the influence of cultural forces on the social status of leaders worldwide and the degree of influence granted to leaders;*
4. *The effects of specific environmental and organisational demographic influences on leadership behaviour and organisational practices.*

(House 1998; p.230)

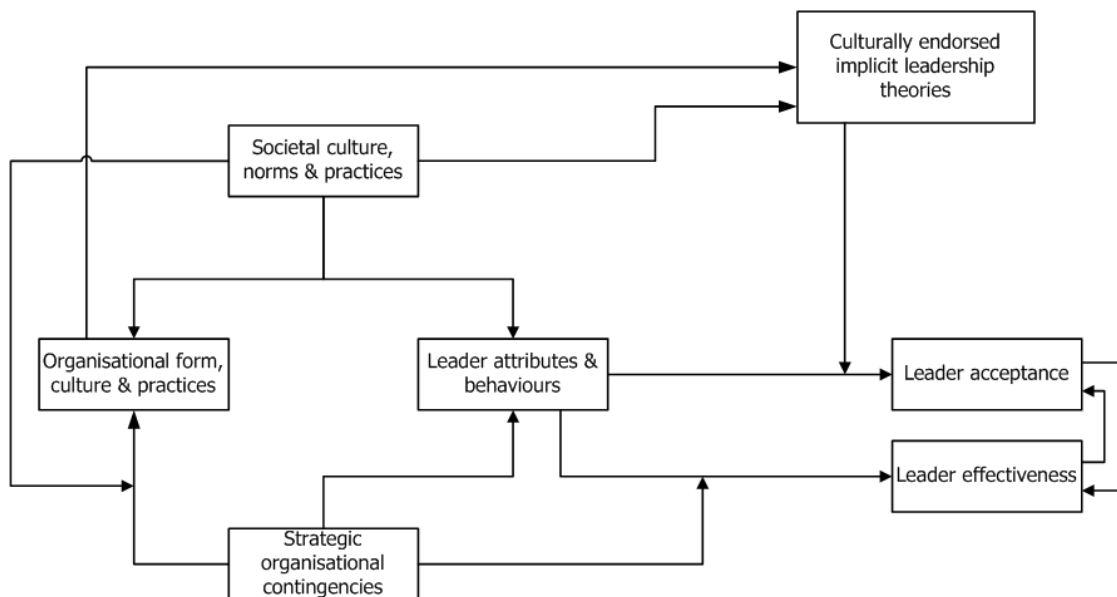


Figure 2-7 - The GLOBE Conceptual Model

Derived from: House, et al. (2001; p.500)

These addressed many of the concerns which arose from Qatar's government reforms. A wide range of literature has since either taken part in the GLOBE project or evaluated its results. This

researcher gathered and analysed one hundred and thirty-eight journal and book articles to evaluate GLOBE's findings and the potential effects of leadership in Qatar's ministries.

The resulting GLOBE project sought to research both positive and negative effects of leadership and culturally dependent variables in sixty-two countries (Den Hartog, et al. 1999) using the conceptual model shown in fig. 2-7. The principal aim of GLOBE was to develop:

..... an empirically-based theory to describe, understand and predict the impact of cultural variables on leadership and organisational processes and the effectiveness of these processes.

(House, et al. 1999)

In an introduction to GLOBE, the project's principals note that theorists needed such studies to understand why variables and behaviours which made leaders effective in one country were not seemingly universal (House, et al. 2001). They suggested the need for leadership and organisational theories which transcend cultures to understand what works and what does not in different cultural settings. They further noted that cross-cultural literature stressed how strong is the connection between NC and leadership.

2.4.11 Leadership in the Middle Eastern Cluster

Many authors including Hofstede (1980), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) and Lewis (2006) have noted the strong similarities between Arabic-speaking peoples. The GLOBE project took a similar approach, clustering the several broadly Arabic countries of Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco, Qatar and Turkey. Results are in table 2-13 and fig. 2-8.

However, there are fewer similarities between leadership styles in the GLOBE Arab World (table 2-13 and fig. 2-8) than in the Anglo Cluster as table 2-18 (later). One can explain this by differences in groups GLOBE chose compared with Hofstede (1980). The latter used a compact group of states situated around the Gulf (Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates (UAE)) though he did include Libya. North African states and Turkey are less typical of the Arab World.

Table 2-13 - Variation in Selective Leadership Styles in Middle East Cluster

Derived from Dorfman, et al. (2004; p.714)

	Charismatic/ Value-based	Team Oriented	Participative	Humane Oriented	Autonomous	Self- Protective
Egypt	5.57	5.55	4.69	5.15	4.49	4.21
Kuwait	5.90	5.89	5.03	5.21	3.39	4.02
Morocco	4.81	5.15	5.32	4.10	3.34	3.26
Qatar	4.51	4.74	4.75	4.66	3.38	3.91
Turkey	5.95	6.01	5.09	4.90	3.83	3.57
Group Mean	5.35	5.47	4.98	4.80	3.69	3.79
Std. Dev.	0.653	0.527	0.258	0.450	0.492	0.378

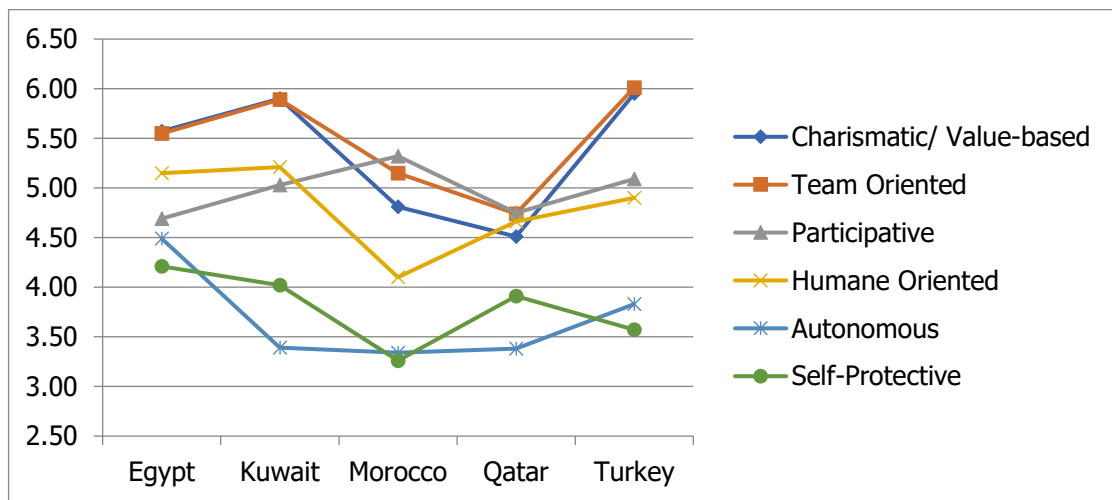


Figure 2-8 - Cultural Leadership Trait (CLT) Leadership Scores Middle East Cluster

Derived from table 2-13

Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) explain differences between Middle East cluster states by noting economic differences. The major difference is the two Gulf states included in this group, Qatar and Kuwait, are among high development societies in the UN's Human Development Index (HDI). The HDI rating depends heavily on the states' high revenues from oil and gas. This, and several other historical factors significantly influence work environments, leadership thought and behaviour in Kuwait and Qatar (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a). In contrast, Turkey and Egypt and Morocco have fairly small *per capita* Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Most of their economies depend on the service sector and agricultural products. This creates a major difference with different societies within the same cultural cluster.

However, despite economic differences, the region shares several commonalities. Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) note these include religious, linguistic, social, political and historic characteristics. Importantly, most countries in this cluster share a heritage of many decades of foreign control.

Turkey, only briefly occupied in the early 20th century, was the centre of the Ottoman Empire, one of the principal occupying powers for centuries. Nevertheless, because of colonial history each of these countries have a recognisable European influence over its management and social systems (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001).

While Islam strongly influenced all countries of the Middle East cluster, its influence varies depending on the level of orthodoxy (Kabasakal and Bodur 2002). Throughout the region's history, the influence of Islam on leadership and local culture was strong. People long saw the leader as the person responsible for the welfare of his people before Allah (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001). Religious texts reinforce these views. Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) note that verses in the Qur'an show Islam clearly advocates people should accept both the authority of those in leadership positions and differences in class structure. Islamic theory and practice remains deeply rooted in Islamic management thought and based on its social philosophy. Islamic philosophy suggests leaders must satisfy followers' physiological needs to achieve organisational goals. Islam holds that leaders must achieve balance between spiritual, psychological and material needs (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001). From experience, this researcher knows this is a commonly held view in Qatar's public-sector where most Qatari citizens work. Public servants across the Gulf hold similar views. In all Gulf states the government sector is tolerant and offers high job security. Thus, many people working in Gulf public-sector organisations normally exert only minimum effort in most jobs. This inevitably affects leadership styles.

Each Gulf states has a duality between secularity which represent Arab nationalism, and religious influence which reflects Islam (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). The balance of this dualism greatly defines the individual cultural characteristics of each country in the region. Thus, the region represents a complex set of diversities, contradictions and pluralism. This may explain any national differences in leadership characteristics not entirely explained by NC alone.

Sections 1.7 and 2.3.4.1 describes how family and in-group relationships stand at the heart of all Arab cultures. The network of inter-dependent relationships deeply influences styles of

leadership. The father of the family expects complete loyalty and obedience. This also affects social and organisational behaviour. Compared with all other groups in the GLOBE study, the Middle Eastern Cluster scores significantly higher for group and family collectivism. In contrast, the group scores lower in gender egalitarianism, uncertainty avoidance and future-orientation on average (Kabasakal and Bodur 2002). Leaders and to a lesser extent, managers normally play the role of tribal leaders who shoulder all responsibility and centralise authority. Power and authority is projected through in-groups to whom leaders have intense loyalty. Leaders consider themselves "*the protectors, caregivers and fathers of their employees*" (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001; p.511). Thus, Arab societies and organisations normally work through strongly hierarchical relations. In such organisations power is always downwards. Subordinates defer to superiors' orders and are guided by them. Superiors return power and give patronage to their followers. Qatar scores highest on gender egalitarianism of all the states in this group. This may result from recent efforts to give greater equality to women in Qatari society.

If one excludes Turkey and Morocco differences between 'Middle Eastern Cluster' states reduce. A different picture thus emerges in fig. 2-9 and table 2-14.

Table 2-14 - Variation in Selected Leadership Styles - Gulf States and Egypt: Middle East Cluster
 derived from Dorfman, et al. (2008; p.714)

	Charismatic/ Value-based	Team Oriented	Participative	Humane Oriented	Autonomous	Self- Protective
Egypt	5.57	5.55	4.69	5.15	4.49	4.21
Kuwait	5.90	5.89	5.03	5.21	3.39	4.02
Qatar	4.51	4.74	4.75	4.66	3.38	3.91
Gulf Group Mean	5.33	5.39	4.82	5.01	3.75	4.05
Standard Deviation	0.726	0.591	0.181	0.302	0.638	0.152

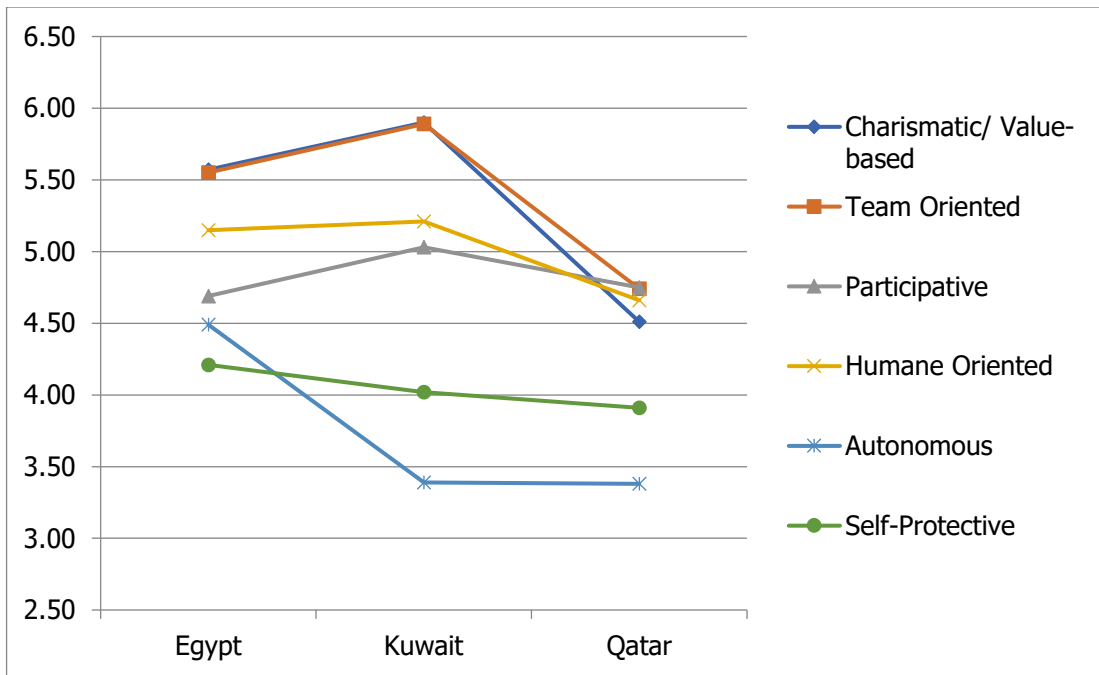


Figure 2-9 - CLT Scores in Gulf States and Egypt in Middle East Cluster
 Derived from table 2-14

Even when reduced to Egypt and the two Gulf countries in table 2-14 and fig. 2-9, there are still significant variations in leadership styles, though many major differences disappear.

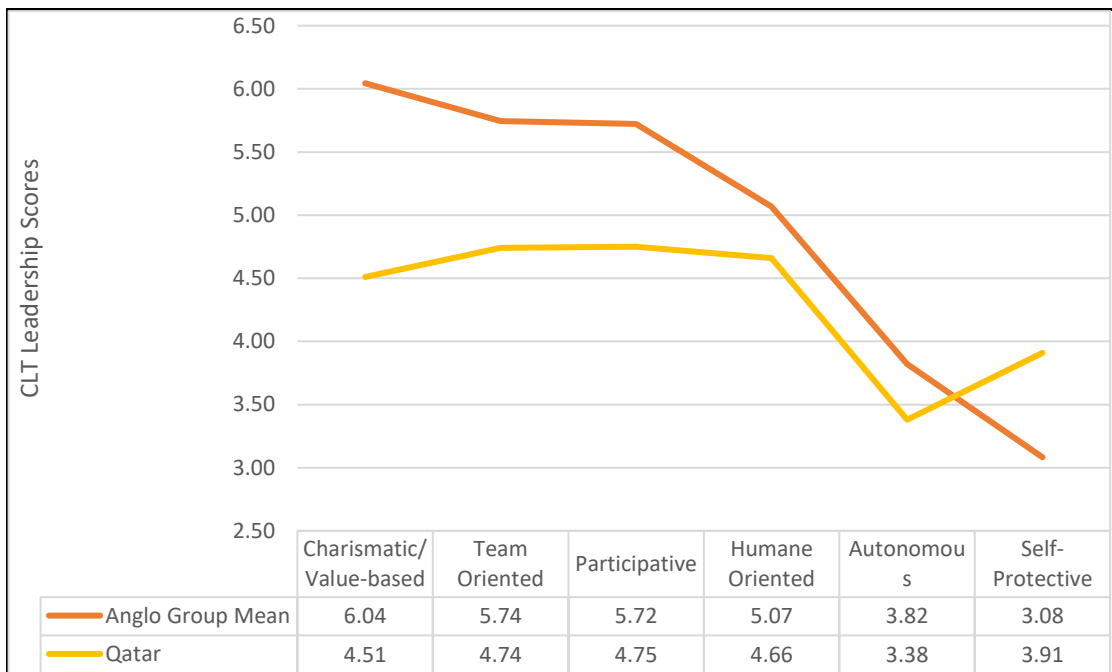


Figure 2-10 - Comparative CLT Scores between Qatar and Anglo-Group Mean
 Derived from Dorfman, et al. (2008; p.714)

Fig. 2-10 compares the mean of CLT leadership scores of all Anglo Cluster nations and the mean of CLT leadership scores in Qatar (Appendix 8). This highlights the differences between Qatar

and the West. Fig. 2-11 compares Qatar and all Anglo Cluster nations showing there is little correlation between any separate Anglo nation and Qatar.

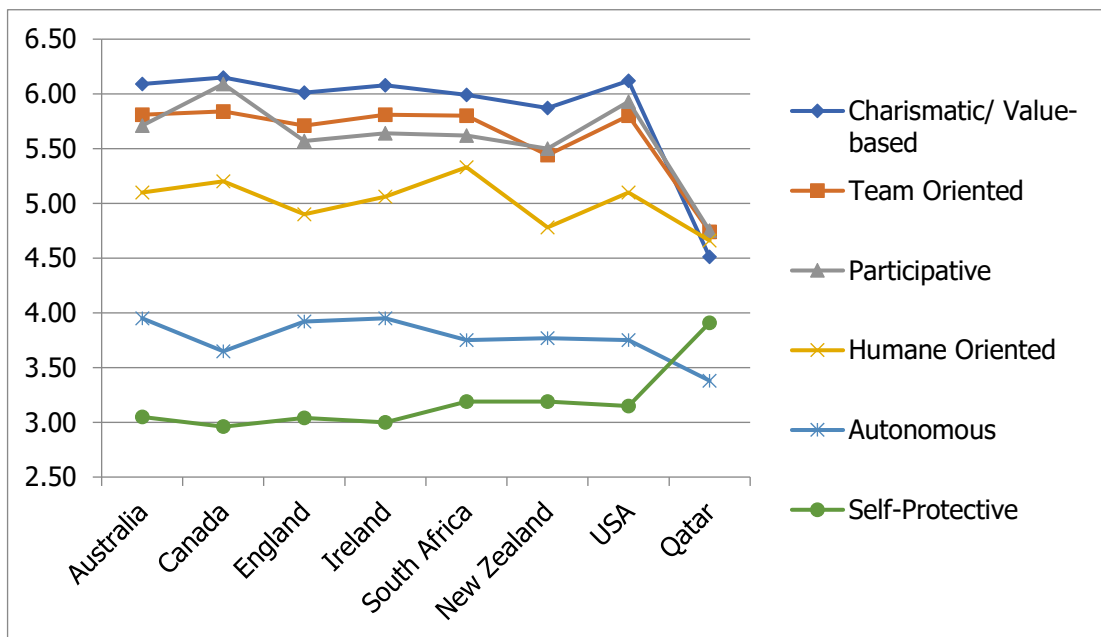


Figure 2-11 - Comparative CLT Leadership Scores between Qatar and All Anglo-Group Countries
 Derived from table 2-14 and table to fig. 2-10.

One of the clearest defining differences between the Middle East cluster and Qatar specifically, is that leadership values are less extreme. Qatari scores normally appear around the midpoint on the scale (see table 2-14 and figs. 2-10 & 2-11). Fig. 2-11 shows that none of the first four preferred leadership styles received a score of more than 4.75 or less than 4.51. Thus, one cannot associate Qatari leadership style with extreme values. Figs. 2-10 and 2-11 clearly show them.

Qatar was one of the states researched under the GLOBE project. Only the study by Abdalla (2001a) collected empirical data. Kabasakal and Bodur 2002 (2002) used secondary research on the full Middle East dataset for their study. Despite strenuous efforts by this researcher, he could not access any of the original information. Thus, only secondary data and the findings of these two studies and other works form the basis for this evaluation.

There are relatively few studies of the Gulf Region, and even fewer of Qatar. This has led to a significant shortage of Arab theories of management and organisational leadership (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a). These two GLOBE studies provided useful information and data for this project. Tables 2-15 and 2-16 show results from the GLOBE questionnaire.

Table 2-15 - Ranking of Leadership Traits Obtained Through Interviews

Derived from Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001; p.519)

Leadership Traits	Ranking
Inspirational, motivational and directional skills	1
Knowledge, education and competence	2
Integrity/credibility	3
Rapport, social skills	4
Vision, strategic planning, future orientation	5
Development, change and performance orientation	5
Responsible, hard worker	7
Consultative	8
Decisive	9
Self-sacrificial, risk taker, bold and courageous	10
Law orientation	-
Negotiator, manoeuvre and flexible	-

Table 2-16 - Leadership Profiles in Qatar

Derived from Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001; p.516)

Leadership Scale (GLOBE)	Mean Value
Integrity	6.20
Administratively competent	6.07
Diplomatic	6.03
Charismatic I: visionary	6.02
Charismatic I: Inspirational	6.00
Performance oriented	5.85
Status conscious	5.74
Team: Collaborative	5.63
Team II: Team integrator	5.53
Decisive	5.47
Modest	5.40
Humane orientation	5.35
Charismatic III: Self-sacrificial	5.00
Conflict inducer	4.94
Procedural	4.40
Autonomous	3.20
Non-participative	3.00
Face-Saver	2.89
Autocratic	2.82
Malevolent	2.30
Self-centred	1.90

Quantitative data collected by researchers during the GLOBE project (table 2-16) ranks the most important traits of outstanding leaders gathered in interviews of managers and senior executives.

Qatar marginally favours participative, team-oriented, and humane-oriented leadership styles. Each is consistent with the family and group-oriented societal culture dominant in Qatar (Kabasakal and Bodur 2002). Concepts of 'consultation' are deeply rooted in Gulf tribal societies through the joint influences of religion and Bedouin traditions (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001). Where leaders use consultation, they more often use it to satisfy the sensitivities of parties involved rather than improve decision-making. Participative leaders act in a non-autocratic, non-dictatorial manner and delegate tasks in an egalitarianism way. Team-oriented leaders use consultation and diplomacy to hold together groups and reinforce feelings of belonging. Humane orientation involves being generous and compassionate. The mid-range results from the GLOBE project suggest the leaders in the area should be undistinguishable from the rest of society. Most have average traits compared with all the clusters (Kabasakal and Bodur 2008; p.51).

Autonomous leadership normally affect leadership negatively. A notable difference between Qatar and the Anglo Cluster is in self-protective leadership styles. This leadership type involves being self-centred and status conscious (Brodbeck, et al. 2008; pp.1047-1048). It tends towards being face-saving. While still viewed by both clusters negatively, is less so in Qatar.

The GLOBE project uncovered the duality and contradictions in Arab leadership styles. While it found Arab leadership to be effective, it also found it to be more restrained than in other areas. Most respondents suggested that managers can combine both management and leadership skills (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001). The mid-range results in Gulf states confirm this. However, GLOBE respondents believed sources of influence of Arab leaders and managers were different. Researchers strongly associated Arab managers with rules, regulations, knowledge and position within the hierarchy. In contrast, the Ruling Executive usually draw leaders because of their personal standing and (tribal) position in society.

GLOBE found societies in the Middle East cluster continuously experience tensions between Eastern and Western influences. They struggle between tradition and modernity and between Islam and secularity in the form of nationalism. In key leadership areas, Arab leaders must manage expectations of efficiency, improvement and performance expected from leaders in the West and other parts of the world. In the Arab cluster, there is a trend towards more traditional paternalistic values. These often extend towards nepotism and tribal favouritism. Kabasakal and Bodur (2008; p.51) noted the basic features of Arab leadership reflected societal practices. They identified these as including in-group orientation and preserving some characteristics of traditional patrimonial style. They also noted a heavy emphasis on masculinity, tolerance of ambiguity and limited emphasis on planning. The GLOBE study found that Arab leaders prefer stronger rule orientation, a strong hierarchy of relationships and institutional connectedness though they shunned assertiveness.

2.4.11.2 Arab Leadership

In a paper which preceded his involvement in GLOBE, Iklas Abdalla (1987) researched the effect of supervisory and social power in the Gulf. His conclusions defined three influencing methods used by supervisors and middle managers; ‘reward-punishment’, ‘position-organisation’, and ‘expert referent’ influences. Another finding was the education level of subordinates has a strong negative effect on these three influencing processes. He inferred that educated individuals formed a small elite group in society and considered themselves “*above the system*” and difficult to influence through position and expert power. This, he suggested, would have a significant effect on the organisation especially when those with special influence selected and appointed leaders.

GLOBE’s Middle Eastern Cluster’s researchers reviewed academic literature from the region. Their first findings were there was little knowledge of societal and OC and leadership practices in the region including Qatar (Kabasakal and Dastmalchian 2001). Their paper argued the geography of the region created certain important variables such as language, ethnicity, climate and religion which had an impact on some cultural dimensions. Common characteristics in the

area are collectivism, large power-distance, strong uncertainty avoidance and masculinity. Islam especially influenced implicit leadership characteristics. The GLOBE study supported previous papers such as that by Yousef (2001). This paper also found the 'Islamic work ethic' (IWE) directly affects both organisational commitment and job satisfaction and moderate the relationship between the two, unmoderated by the effects of NC. Yousef (2001) found this varied across age, education level, work experience and organisational type. He suggested the IWE is like the better-known Protestant work ethic (PWE) in its emphasis on hard work, commitment and dedication to work. However, the IWE differs from the PWE because it places more emphasis on 'intention' rather than 'results'. Referring to the teachings of the Prophet Muhammad, Yousef stresses social aspects in the workplace and duties towards society. Those working in the public services showed a stronger inclination towards the IWE.

In a later paper, written as part of the GLOBE project, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001a) noted the low level of attention from researchers to leadership and organisational practices in the Arabian Gulf. He linked this to difficulties of studying cultural values and their links to organisational behaviour. They noted particularly how Islamic principles had gained more popularity among the mass of the population resulting from organisations adopting Western management approaches. They also noted:

The government sector is lenient and provide high job security for the native workforce, though some natives developed a tendency to exert nothing more than the minimum effort.

..... Tribal traditions and their collectivist culture profoundly influence Arab managerial styles and hence managers tend to play the role of tribal leaders (Sheikhs). Tribal leaders generally shoulder all the responsibility and centralise authority. They have intense loyalty to their 'in-groups' they consider themselves the protectors, caregivers and fathers of their employees. They tend to consult with their in-groups (the equivalent of kin) and they might be relatively aggressive and authoritarian with members of other groups.

..... Hence, the present native managerial style is a mixture of bureaucratic and traditional tribal methods.

Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001; p.510)

Using GLOBE-defined research methods and instruments, Abdalla and Al-Homoud found the most valued leadership styles in decreasing order are charismatic value-based traits, self-protective leadership traits and considerate leadership traits. Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) highlight charismatic and team-oriented leadership as to favoured styles (fig. 2-12). Team-oriented leaders display characteristics which are collaborative, loyal and consultative. This style of leadership is consistent with Arab's family orientation and the in-group societal culture prevalent in Arab states. Characteristics of team-oriented leaders are sometimes at odds with the need for transformational and charismatic leadership. In turn these leadership styles are often contrary to low future-orientation and low performance orientation prevalent in Arab organisations.

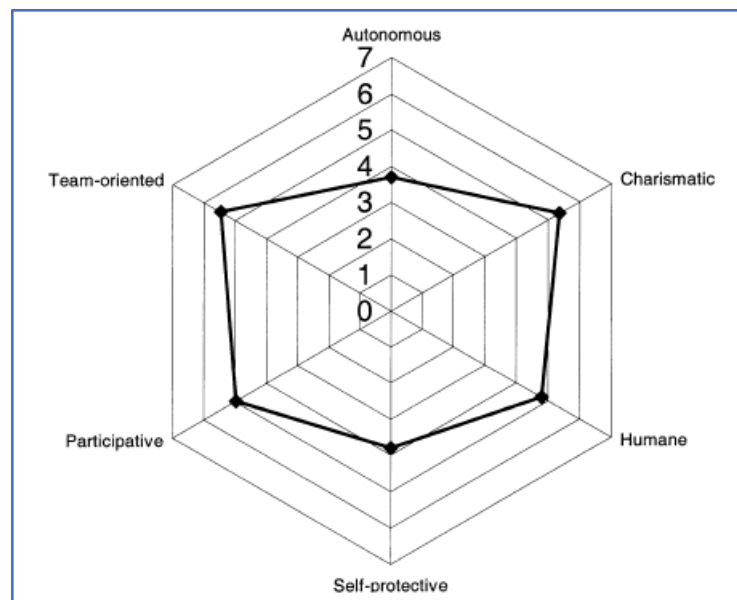


Figure 2-12.- Arab Cluster's Leadership Profile

Source: Kabasakal and Bodur (2002; p.50)

An autocratic leadership style inhibits leadership success. Irresponsibility, a weak personality, inexperience and poor knowledge, lack of social skills or report with subordinates are all negative leadership factors.

Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) note:

..... The desirable leadership profiles are consistent in(Kabasakal and Bodur 2002) many ways with the Islamic leader profile in terms of its emphasis on charisma, integrity, team, future and performance orientation.

The incongruence between the desirable leadership traits-behaviours and both the actual leadership styles and societal values may also be partly related to the dual values endorsed by a large part of the Arabian Gulf societies, particularly the educated ones Most individuals endorse both old and new work societal values Managers often proudly boast [of] their imported modern technology in work design but in practice they put into the service of socio-political expectations. They hire, motivate, organise and direct in ways that are more consistent with their traditional tribal cultures than with the modern system they have proudly introduced.

(2001; p.524)

A high proportion of the limited regional studies on leadership highlight the idea of tribal and familial systems on local ideas of leadership. Neal, et al. (2007) note that researchers should consider the “*important prototypical secular leader throughout the Arab World*” (2007; p.292), the sheikh. They suggest understanding the traditional status and role of the sheikh in Arab societies provides an insight into modern Arab leadership. Often Western observers misrepresent the sheikh’s role in Arab society. Instead of being a mere autocrat with absolute power over subordinates, the sheikh is paternalistic, looking after the needs of tribe members without passing over rights and responsibilities to them. While this suggests a top-down role there is, a high degree of interaction and consultation. Subordinates roles, power and influence are “*determined by their place in the nexus of family, friends and allies*” (2007; p.293).

2.4.10.3 Western Leadership

In this thesis, this researcher has focused on Western leadership as epitomised by the Anglo Cluster (Ashkanasy, et al. 2002) despite the research in several other clusters, including those in Europe. In Europe alone, there were four GLOBE study clusters. These were Eastern Europe (Gyula, et al. 2002), Latin Europe (Jesuino 2002), Nordic Europe (Holmberg and Åkerblom 2007, Lindell and Sigfrids 2007) and Germanic Europe (Szabo, et al. 2002) from the ten clusters identified worldwide. Each has different leadership characteristic. It was beyond the scope of this study to include them all.

Australia, English-speaking Canada, England, Ireland, New Zealand, white South Africa, and the United States make up the Anglo Cluster (Chhokar, et al. 2007; p.297).. This cluster includes the countries where until recently theorists developed most mainstream management and social theories. GLOBE summarise the Anglo Cluster as follows:

The Anglo Cluster scored high on Performance Orientation. It was in the mid-score range for Assertiveness, Future-Orientation, Gender Egalitarianism, Humane Orientation, Institutional Collectivism, Power-Distance, and Uncertainty Avoidance. The only cultural dimension it scored low was on In-Group Collectivism.

The Anglo Cluster endorsed charismatic/value-based leadership very strongly, the highest of all clusters. It also endorsed team-oriented leadership and elements of participative leadership enacted in humane-oriented matter quite strongly. Self-Protective behaviours were viewed rather negatively. A "person-oriented" leadership is endorsed in all Anglo cultures where a leader is expected to deliver results by operating as part of the team or clan.

Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.297)

Further details of this summary appear in tables 2-17 to 2-19 and in figs. 2-13 to 2-14 above

Table 2-17 - GLOBE Leadership Characteristics Compared
Derived from: (Chhokar, et al. 2007)

GLOBE characteristics	Anglo Cluster		Qatar	
	As Is	Should Be	As Is	Should Be
Uncertainty Avoidance	4.42	3.99	4.09	4.82
Future Orientation	4.08	3.78	5.33	5.92
Power Distance	4.97	4.73	2.86	3.23
Institutional Collectivism	4.46	4.50	4.32	5.13
Humane Orientation	4.20	4.42	5.40	5.30
Performance Orientation	4.37	3.45	6.08	5.96
In-Group Collectivism	4.30	4.71	5.84	5.60
Gender Egalitarianism	3.40	3.63	4.90	3.38
Assertiveness	4.14	4.11	3.89	3.80

Ashkenasy *et al* (2002) describe the special defining features of the Anglo Cluster. The seven countries in this cluster share three important characteristics;

- 'a common use of the English language';
- 'they were all once members of the British Empire' and
- 'they all have developed Western economies'.

Today, despite changes in the world economy they remain among the wealthiest nations in the world and much of this is down to the common culture they share. The headquarters of most major national corporations remain situated in the countries of this cluster. Although the combined population of the Anglo Cluster countries is only around 500 million, about 7% of world population, this group accounts for around 40% of the World's Gross National Product. This makes the Anglo Cluster influential both economically and socially. Their wealth, long developed education systems, and common language together explain why they account for most management theory and practice. Except for South Africa, the whole cluster scored highly on the UN's HDI. This suggests that their populations share a high-quality lifestyle and high standard of living.

The greatest variation in leadership behaviours lies in participative, humane-oriented and team-oriented behaviours respectively (table 2-18). If the values are taken together New Zealand was the least closely aligned to each mean score, followed by Canada, and then South Africa. Ireland was the most typical of each mean score, followed by Australia and England.

Table 2-18 - Variation in Selective Leadership Styles in Anglo Cluster
Derived from Dorfman, et al. (2004; p.713)

1.Participative		2.Humane-Oriented		3.Team-Oriented		4.Overall Variation	
Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation	Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation	Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation	Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation
-0.37	Canada	0.29	New Zealand	0.30	New Zealand	0.81	New Zealand
0.22	New Zealand	-0.26	South Africa	-0.10	Canada	0.60	Canada
-0.21	USA	0.17	England	-0.07	Australia	0.42	South Africa
0.15	England	-0.13	Canada	-0.07	Ireland	0.35	England
0.10	South Africa	-0.03	Australia	-0.06	South Africa	0.30	USA
0.08	Ireland	-0.03	USA	-0.06	USA	0.16	Ireland
0.01	Australia	0.01	Ireland	0.03	England	0.11	Australia

For individual values, Canada was farthest from the mean for participative style (column 1 of table 3-17), followed by New Zealand, and then USA. For humane-oriented style (see column 2

of table 2-18), New Zealand was farthest from the mean, followed by South Africa and England. New Zealand was also farthest from the mean in team-oriented style, followed by Canada and Australia.

Table 2-19 - Variation of Leadership Styles about the Anglo-Group Mean

Derived from Dorfman, et al. (2004; p.713)

Participative		Humane-Oriented		Team-Oriented	
Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation	Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation	Variation from the Group mean	Country rank by Variation
0.22	New Zealand	0.29	New Zealand	0.30	New Zealand
0.15	England	0.17	England	0.03	England
0.10	South Africa	0.01	Ireland	-0.06	South Africa
0.08	Ireland	-0.03	Australia	-0.06	USA
0.01	Australia	-0.03	USA	-0.07	Australia
-0.21	USA	-0.13	Canada	-0.07	Ireland
-0.37	Canada	-0.26	South Africa	-0.10	Canada

However, when one arranges variations above and below the Anglo-group mean, a slightly different picture emerges (table 2-19). The line within the table shows the mean value. New Zealand is the country furthest above the mean (least likely to adopt a leadership style), whereas Canada is furthest below the mean. Leadership styles of individual countries vary and reflect the nuances of each NC.

The most influential country in leadership theory and practice is the USA. With around 312 million people and a large geographic area, there are many different styles of leadership. The USA reveals itself to be a hugely complex society whether viewed through the lens of history, politics or culture (Hoppe and Bhagat 2008; p.475). American society and culture bases itself on various ideals. These include ‘liberty’ which stresses complete political and economic freedom based on the market led economy. A strong movement towards equality and rigorous protection of disenfranchised groups and minorities balances this. This promotes ideas of solidarity and social justice in society and in organisations. Even so, Americans favour efficiency and productivity. This often means large-scale organisations working with government to create full employment and growth with the goal being ever-increasing standards of living. The counter-movement to the big-business model is one which values the small organisation and

egalitarianism. This is clear in their philosophy which favours simplicity, preservation, local control and bottom-up democracy (2008; p.481). These four themes combine, protected by the US Constitution to create a distinctive American society. A further issue one cannot ignore is that of religion; based mainly on Judaeo-Christianity. This has an important impact on many institutions and organisations and thus, their leadership practices. Hoppe and Bhagat (2008; p.481) note that religion is of supreme importance to many people. Today's "*religious right*" deeply embeds itself into business and politics and exerts a strong influence on national policies. The result is that character, integrity, responsibility, honesty, and plurality are significant values in society and are the critical qualities of effective leaders.

These features have shaped American society and its leaders into a strongly individualistic culture, with its foundations on hard work and ideas such as the PWE. Hoppe and Bhagat (2008; p.495) note that such individualism is unusual worldwide. Western, and especially Anglo-Saxon ideas of individualism have shaped theory and practice in many areas. Yet it is founded on the views of less than one-seventh of the world's population. This is in major contrast to most of the world's adherence to communitarian forms of society. In the United States, individualism means that is both desire and admire personal success. American leaders are expected to focus on work, career, performance, results, challenge and competition, with decisiveness and efficiency as key performance indicators. Individualism characterises organisations by flexibility and openness to change. The 'different and new' are exciting, desirable and welcomed. Society strongly encourages creativity, innovation and individual thinking. This leads to considerable openness to change.

Hoppe and Bhagat (2008) summarise the ideal characteristics of leadership in the USA:

- *To stand out, leave one's mark, get things done, and succeed;*
- *To be results-driven, exert control over one's environment, and be decisive, forceful and competitive;*
- *To work hard, be action oriented, active, and have a sense of urgency;*
- *To willingly take risks, and be creative, innovative and flexible;*

- *To be objective, practical, factual, and pragmatic;*
 - *To be experienced, seek input from others, and be informal.*
- (2008; p.484)

In the last 50 years, American societies have seen major change. This has inevitably changed the theory and practice of leadership. Recent societal transformations include changing demographics with increasing numbers of cultural subgroups, significantly increased gender equality, and technological advances.

All the preceding factors have led to a culturally American view of leadership with individualism and a strong view of 'self' at the forefront. Leadership is an individual influencing process by leaders who are outstanding, charismatic, transformational and authentic. Americans strongly believe there is a causal link between what leaders do and organisational results. This turns good leaders into 'heroes' and 'warriors' (2008; p.497) leading 'a band of followers'. Americans also understand that a good leader recognises the competencies, motivation and preferences of those who follow them. Communication is at the heart of such leadership, with leaders developing intrinsic motivation, clarity of goals, and skills in followers. Leader's effectiveness is partly a result of followers' effectiveness and partly the result of internal and external environments.

The GLOBE project found that outstanding American leaders have high levels of performance orientation, personal integrity, humane orientation, vision, and inspiration in descending order of priority. To a smaller extent, American society expects leaders to be modest yet decisive, self-sacrificial and good team integrators. In contrast, Americans do not look favourably on leaders who are autocratic, non-participative, status conscious, malevolent and conflict-inducing.

An important conclusion from the Anglo Cluster results is that although individual countries may vary, the literature places an overwhelming emphasis on the participation of followers as a means of ensuring effective leadership. This seems rather contrary to the individualistic culture of each of the Anglo-Saxon countries. Even so, all are democratic, and people place great emphasis on freedom of speech (Ashkanasy, et al. 2002).

The Anglo Cluster is forward-looking and accentuates performance. Leaders are moderately assertive and have less reliance on formal rules and procedures than other clusters (Ashkanasy, et al. 2002). The Anglo Cluster also feels they should be more equal power distribution as well as equality for women and a greater humane orientation. In the Anglo Cluster team-oriented leadership style is consistent with low power-distance and uncertainty avoidance. Organisations expect them to use team structures, be diplomatic and inspire a shared vision. ‘Collectivism’ describes different ideas in different Anglo societies. In New Zealand for example, low ‘family collectivism’ means team-oriented leaders must be task focused and ensure they meet strategic aims. In contrast, Irish leaders are normally more family oriented and people see teams as “*a surrogate family unit*” (Ashkanasy, et al. 2002; p.37). All countries in this cluster trend towards individualism rather than collectivism. Subordinates place great emphasis on their freedom and being able to contribute comments. It is most important leaders recognise this, including all relevant parties in the decision-making process, delegating responsibility and avoiding a rigid top-down approach. Humane leadership also ranks moderately high, with caring leaders considerate of others.

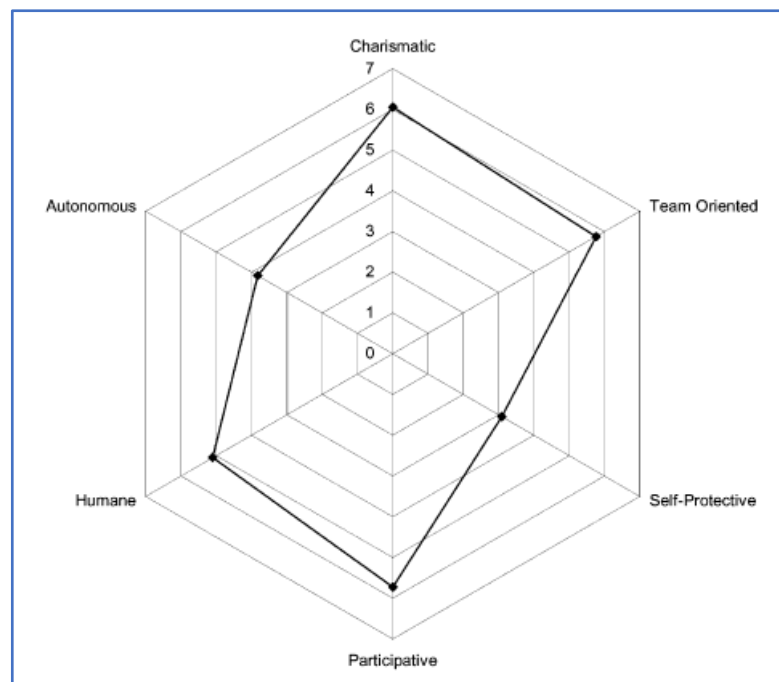


Figure 2-13 - Anglo Cluster's Leadership Profile
 Source: Ashkanasy, et al. (2002; p.37)

Despite many similarities, some differences exist between members of this cluster which emerge in CLT scores, principally in participative (table 2-20) and humane-oriented leadership (table 2-21) as shown in collectively table 2-22 and fig. 2-14 below, with Canada and New Zealand showing the greatest variations.

Table 2-20 - Participative Leadership

Derived from: Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.1038)

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimensions	Leadership Values
Participative leadership	✓ Performance Orientation	Participative
reflects the degree to which leaders and managers involved subordinates into making and implementing decisions.	✓ Gender Egalitarianism	Autocratic (reverse scored)
	✓ Humane Orientation	
	Negative dimensions	
	× Uncertainty Avoidance	
	× Power Distance	
	× Assertiveness	

Table 2-21 - Humane-Oriented Leadership

Derived from: Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.1038)

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimensions	Leadership Values
Humane Oriented Leadership	✓ Humane Orientation	Modesty
A style that reflects supportive and considerate leadership. Such leaders are also likely to be passionate and generous.	✓ Uncertainty Avoidance	Humane Oriented
	✓ Assertiveness	
	✓ Performance Orientation	
	✓ Future Orientation	
	Negative dimensions	
	(none)	

Table 2-22 - CLT Scores Anglo Cluster
 Derived from Dorfman, et al. (2004; p.713)

	Charismatic / Value-based	Team Oriented	Participative	Humane Oriented	Autonomous	Self-Protective
Australia	6.09	5.81	5.71	5.10	3.95	3.05
Canada	6.15	5.84	6.09	5.20	3.65	2.96
England	6.01	5.71	5.57	4.90	3.92	3.04
Ireland	6.08	5.81	5.64	5.06	3.95	3.00
South Africa	5.99	5.80	5.62	5.33	3.75	3.19
New Zealand	5.87	5.44	5.50	4.78	3.77	3.19
USA	6.12	5.80	5.93	5.10	3.75	3.15
Group Mean	6.04	5.74	5.72	5.07	3.82	3.08
Std Dev.	0.096	0.140	0.211	0.182	0.119	0.093

Table 2-22 and fig. 2-14 show that charismatic, team-oriented and participative styles of leadership are normally the most effective in the Anglo Cluster. GLOBE researchers see charismatic (transformational) leadership as the best overall style for the West.

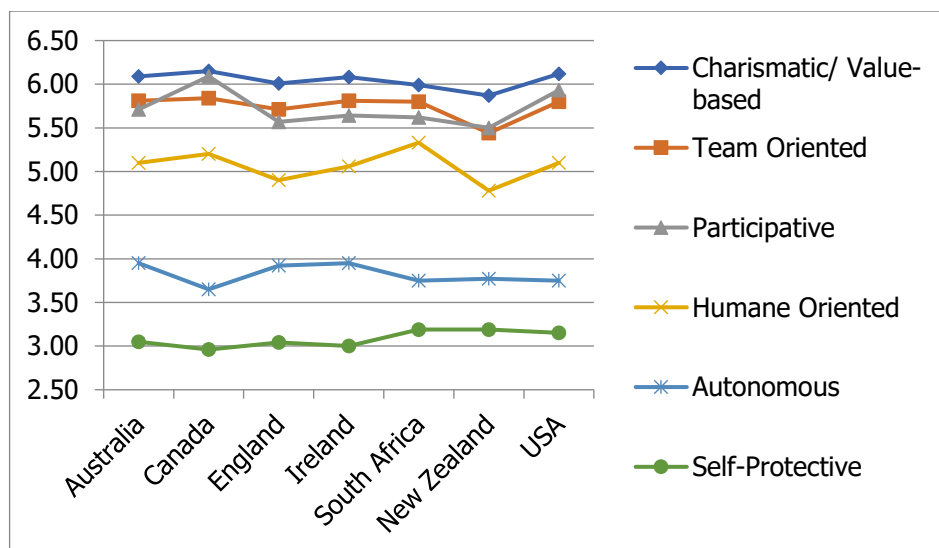


Figure 2-14 - CLT Leadership Scores Anglo Cluster
 Derived from table 2-16

Charismatic behaviours (table 2-23) include being visionary, inspirational, and appealing to the underlying values of followers (Ashkanasy, et al. 2002, Dorfman, et al. 2004).

Charismatic leadership types is effective across all cultures in this cluster. Ashkanasy, et al. (2002) note it remains necessary for the leader to understand his or her individual culture and its specific behaviours to be most effective. In Australia, for example, people expect charismatic leaders to be visionary and inspirational (2002; p.35).

Table 2-23 - Charismatic / Transformational Leadership

Derived from: Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.1038)

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimensions	Leadership Values
Charismatic/Value-based Leadership A style that reflects the ability to motivate and inspire subordinates or to extract high-performance outcomes	✓ Performance Orientation	Visionary
	✓ In Group Collectivism	Inspirational
	✓ Gender Egalitarianism	Self-Sacrifice
	✓ Future Orientation	Integrity
	✓ Humane Orientation	Decisive
	Negative dimensions	
	× Power distance	

The style is not only applicable in Western cultures. Ashkenasy *et al* (2002) comment this value-based style is effective across all cultures, though may contain strong elements of local culture. Charismatic leaders must understand nuances of their local culture and which specific behaviours are most effective in them. This type of leader is visionary and inspirational, but still seen as "*one of the boys*" (2002; p.35).

Table 2-24 - Team-Oriented Leadership

Derived from: Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.1038)

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimensions	Leadership Values
Team-oriented Leadership Emphasises effective team building and the creation of common purposes or goals among team members.	✓ Uncertainty Avoidance	Collaborative Team Orientation
	✓ In Group Collectivism	Team Integration
	✓ Humane Orientation	Diplomatic
	✓ Performance Orientation	Benevolent
	✓ Future Orientation	Administratively Competent
	Negative dimensions	
	(none)	

Team-oriented leaders (table 2-24) employ a collaborative approach, making full use of team structures. Leaders are diplomatic and inspire followers to adopt a shared vision. This style of leadership is consistent with low power-distance and uncertainty avoidance.

Table 2-25 - Cross-cultural Comparison of Leadership Styles

Derived from: House, et al. (2004a; p.713 and others)

	Australia	Canada	England	Ireland	New Zealand	South Africa	USA	Qatar
CHARISMATIC	6.09	6.16	6.01	6.08	5.87	5.99	6.12	4.51
Performance Orientation	6.35	not available	6.34	6.38	6.31	6.01	6.46	5.85
Visionary	6.24	not available	6.20	6.33	6.23	6.15	6.28	6.02
Inspirational	6.40	not available	6.36	6.33	6.50	6.33	6.35	6.00
Integrity	6.36	not available	6.13	6.19	5.49	6.35	6.51	6.20
Self-Sacrificial	5.14	not available	4.86	5.11	4.88	5.01	5.16	5.00
Decisive	6.02	not available	6.00	6.14	5.69	6.07	5.96	5.47
TEAM ORIENTED	5.81	5.84	5.71	5.81	5.44	5.80	5.80	4.75
Team Integrator	6.10	not available	6.16	5.46	5.71	5.61	6.03	5.53
Team Oriented	5.52	not available	5.39	6.19	5.21	6.02	5.38	5.63
Administratively Competent	5.41	not available	5.41	5.60	4.79	5.74	5.63	6.07
Diplomatic	5.56	not available	5.38	5.44	5.22	5.43	5.46	6.03
Malevolent (Reversed)	1.63	not available	1.74	1.66	1.83	1.81	1.55	2.30
SELF-PROTECTIVE	3.05	2.96	3.04	3.00	3.19	3.19	3.16	3.92
Self-Centred	1.91	not available	1.95	1.99	2.23	2.10	1.97	1.90
Status conscious	3.82	not available	3.73	3.63	3.56	3.78	3.60	5.74
Conflict inducer	3.28	not available	3.39	3.36	3.74	3.69	3.53	4.94
Face saver	2.67	not available	2.55	2.48	2.39	2.78	2.66	2.89
Procedural	3.56	not available	3.61	3.50	3.86	3.53	3.90	4.40
PARTICIPATIVE	5.71	6.09	5.57	5.64	5.50	5.62	5.93	4.76
Autocratic (reversed)	2.28	not available	2.69	2.48	2.63	2.30	2.03	2.82
Non-participative	2.31	not available	2.26	2.24	2.38	2.46	2.10	3.00
HUMANE	5.09	5.20	4.90	5.06	4.78	5.33	5.21	4.66
Humane	5.12	not available	4.93	5.01	5.09	5.35	5.19	5.35
Modesty	5.09	not available	4.96	5.11	4.57	5.33	5.24	5.40
AUTONOMOUS	3.95	3.65	3.92	3.95	3.77	3.74	3.75	3.38
Autonomous	3.95	not available	3.87	3.95	3.77	3.74	3.75	3.20

Table 2-25 shows that autonomous leadership (table 2-26) and self-protective leadership (table 2-27) are least desirable styles. These leadership types scored relatively low, and people did not see them as contributing towards effective leadership. While people recognised that sometimes leaders must be autonomous, they also saw this style conflicting with team-oriented behaviours. Self-protective leadership involve behaviours such as face-saving or stressing policies and procedures.

Table 2-26 - Autonomous Leadership

Derived from: Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.1038)

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimensions	Leadership Values
Autonomous leaders	✓ Performance Orientation	· Individualistic
Likely to be independent and individualistic in character.		· Independent
	Negative dimensions	· Autonomous
	× Humane Orientation	· Unique
	× Institutional Collectivism	

Table 2-27 - Self-protective Leadership

Derived from: Chhokar, et al. (2007; p.1038)

Leadership Style	Cultural Dimensions	Leadership Values
Self-Protective:	✓ Power Distance	Self-Centred
In a Western context, 'Self-Protective' leaders focus on ensuring the safety and security of the individual and group through status-enhancement and face-saving.	✓ Uncertainty Avoidance	Status Conscious
		Conflict Inducer
	Negative dimensions	Face Saver
	× Gender Egalitarianism	Procedural
	× In-Group Collectivism	
	× Performance Orientation	

Despite some differences across the cluster, the Anglo-group have a clear view of what represents an effective leader. Canada displays this most clearly. Ashkanasy, et al. (2002) characterise the Anglo-group as heavily performance-oriented. While the group is male-dominated, and highly individualistic, societal pressure mean that leaders now recognise there is a need to change both. Thus, becoming much more inclusive of female leadership, actively encouraging and promoting gender equality. Individualism is now trending towards subordinates showing increased loyalty and commitment to families.

A key challenge is to become more collectively focused, with structures in place to help individuals achieve and being rewarded for achieving. This will mean moving towards an ever-greater team environment. The individualistic nature of Anglo-group societies encourages

leaders to promote subordinates based on merit rather than status. Such a meritocracy will allow leaders to address both problems of race and gender inequality, as well as achieving a greater group-oriented workplace simultaneously.

2.4.10.4 GLOBE Leadership Practices and Values

GLOBE results appear in tables 2-28 & 2-29 and figs. 2-15 & 2-16. These were taken either from Western, or Arab countries and compared to cluster and world means.

Table 2-28 - Selected GLOBE Leadership Practices

Derived from House *et al* (2004) and (Chhokar, et al. 2007)

Practices									
	PD	UA	HO	Co I	Co II	AS	GE	FO	PO
Anglo Group									
Australia	4.74	4.39	4.28	4.29	4.17	4.28	3.4	4.09	4.36
Canada	4.82	4.58	4.49	4.38	4.26	4.05	3.7	4.44	4.49
England	5.15	4.65	3.72	4.27	4.08	4.15	3.67	4.28	4.08
USA	4.88	4.15	4.17	4.2	4.25	4.55	3.34	4.15	4.49
Mean	4.9	4.44	4.17	4.29	4.19	4.26	3.53	4.24	4.36
Standard Dev	0.15	0.19	0.28	0.06	0.07	0.19	0.16	0.13	0.17
ME Group (Islamic)									
Egypt	4.92	4.06	4.73	4.5	5.64	3.91	2.81	3.86	4.27
Kuwait	5.12	4.21	4.52	4.49	5.8	3.63	2.58	3.26	3.95
Morocco	5.8	3.65	4.19	3.87	5.87	4.52	2.84	3.26	3.99
Qatar	4.73	3.99	4.42	4.5	4.71	4.11	3.63	3.78	3.45
Turkey	5.57	0.36	3.94	4.03	5.88	4.53	2.89	3.74	3.83
Mean	5.23	3.25	4.36	4.28	5.58	4.14	2.95	3.58	3.9
Standard Dev	0.45	1.63	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.39	0.4	0.3	0.3
World									
Mean	5.17	4.16	4.09	4.25	5.13	4.14	3.37	3.85	4.1
Standard Dev	0.41	0.6	0.47	0.42	0.75	0.37	0.37	0.46	0.41

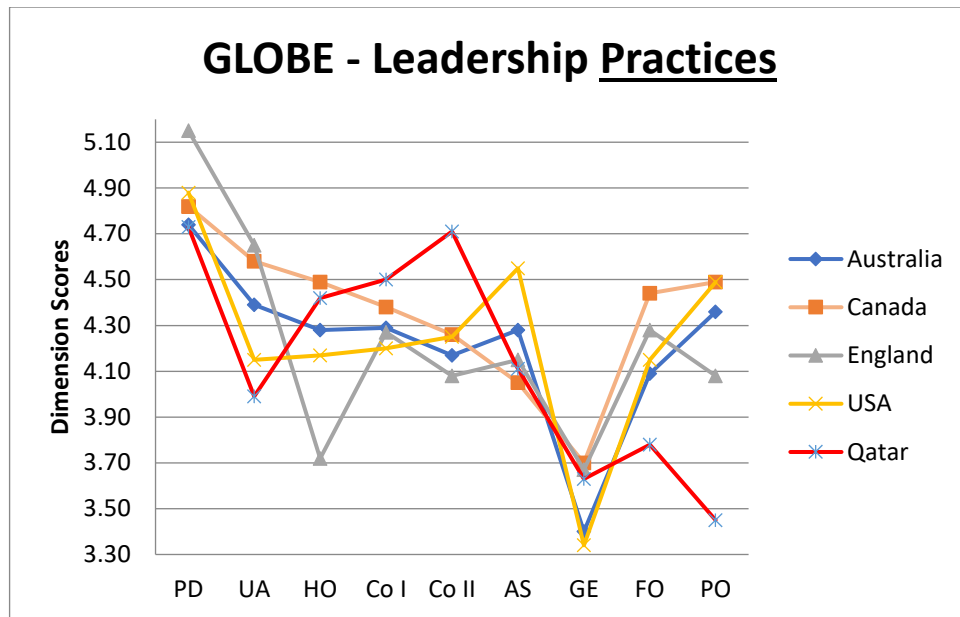


Figure 2-15 - Comparative Leadership Practices in GLOBE
 Derived from table 2-28

Figs. 2-15 and 2-16 show graphically the comparison between Western ‘theory-generating countries’ and Qatar. England shows marked differences to other Western countries in places because of recent societal changes. Booth (2007; pp.335-36) attributes these to inward migration, multiculturalism, divisions between scientific and intellectual elites, and the fracturing of the United Kingdom along regional identities. Together these have significantly weakened English cultural cohesion and divided the country along progressive and traditional lines. Thus, England to some extent become somewhat atypical of Anglo-Saxon countries in terms of ‘practices’ (fig. 2-15), even though, as fig. 2-17 shows, underlying Anglo-Saxon ‘values’ remain intact.

When Ashkanasy, et al. (2002) evaluated the English-speaking ‘Anglo Cluster’ in its context of historical and cultural evolution, an analysis of Britain's colonial past show that many of the characteristics derived from British colonial rule. Their work describes the Anglo Cluster as containing many of the most developed and economically advanced countries in the modern world. They commented Anglo cultures are largely homogenous as “pluralistic democracies with a legacy of the British Empire”. Ashkanasy et al (2002; p.38) concludes all are "performance-oriented, male-dominated societies and value individualism, and paradoxically gender equality".

Fig. 2-15 and 2-16 show Qatar (red line) is significantly differentiated from Western countries (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a). The precise differences will be explored later in this thesis.

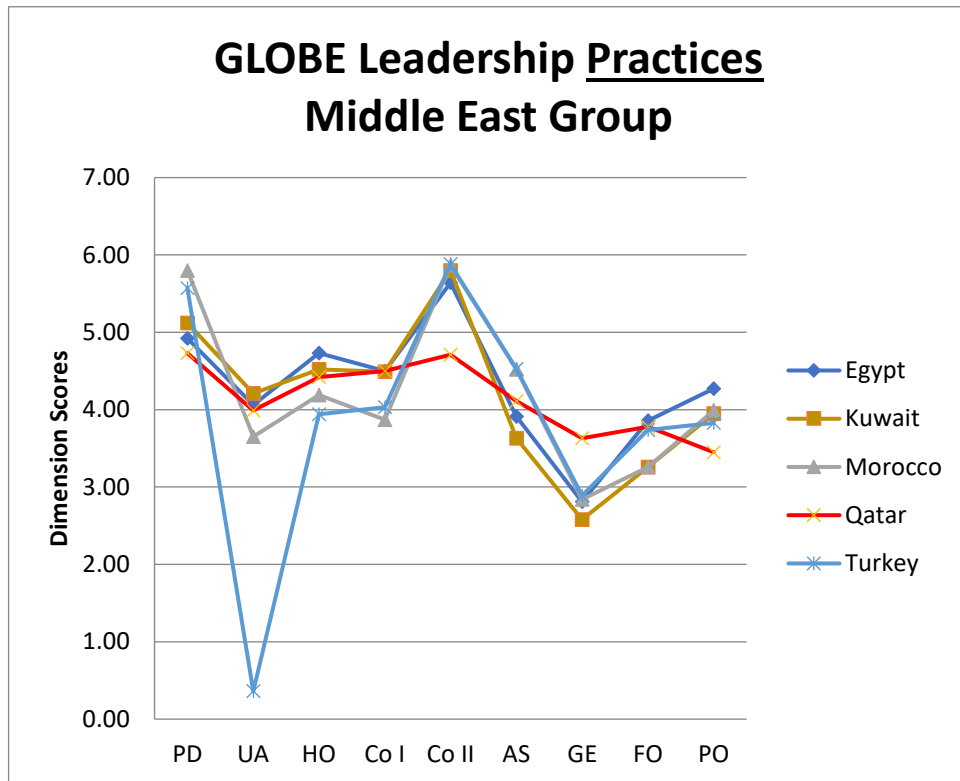


Figure 2-16 - Comparative Practices of Middle Eastern Leadership from GLOBE
 Derived from table 2-29

Hofstede (2000) suggested the Arab World was relatively homogenous, though his study did not include Turkey. In the GLOBE study, graphically depicted in fig. 2-18, GLOBE included Turkey. Significant differences may be seen in UA in Turkey otherwise each member of the Arab World group is well correlated in most other respects, though Qatar differs significantly in in-group collectivism and gender equality.

Table 2-29 - Selected GLOBE Leadership Values
 Derived from House et al (2004) and (Chhokar, et al. 2007)

Values									
	PD	UA	HO	Co I	Co II	AS	GE	FO	PO
Anglo Group									
Australia	2.78	3.96	5.58	4.4	5.75	3.81	5.02	5.15	5.89
Canada	2.7	3.75	5.64	4.17	5.97	4.15	5.11	5.35	6.15
England	2.8	4.11	5.43	4.31	5.55	3.7	5.17	5.06	5.9
USA	2.85	4	5.53	4.17	5.77	4.32	5.06	5.31	6.14
Mean	2.78	3.96	5.55	4.26	5.76	4	5.09	5.22	6.02
Standard Dev	0.05	0.13	0.08	0.1	0.15	0.25	0.06	0.12	0.13
ME Group									
Egypt	3.24	5.36	5.17	4.85	5.56	3.28	3.18	5.8	5.9
Kuwait	3.17	4.77	5.06	5.15	5.43	3.76	3.45	5.74	6.03
Morocco	3.11	5.32	5.51	5	5.68	3.44	3.74	5.85	5.76
Qatar	3.23	4.82	5.3	5.13	5.6	3.8	3.38	5.92	5.96
Turkey	2.41	4.67	5.52	5.26	5.77	2.66	4.5	5.83	5.39
Mean	3.03	4.99	5.31	5.08	5.61	3.39	3.65	5.83	5.81
Standard Dev	0.35	0.33	0.2	0.16	0.13	0.46	0.52	0.07	0.25
S Asia Group (Islamic)									
Malaysia	2.97	4.88	5.51	4.87	5.85	4.81	3.78	5.89	6.04
Indonesia	2.69	5.23	5.16	5.18	5.67	4.72	3.89	5.7	5.73
Iran	2.8	5.36	5.61	5.54	5.86	4.99	3.75	5.84	6.08
Mean	3.77	5.16	5.43	5.2	5.79	4.84	3.81	5.81	5.95
Standard Dev	0.28	0.25	0.24	0.34	0.11	0.14	0.07	0.1	0.19
S Asia Group (Total)									
Mean	2.78	5.16	-	5.03	5.77	4.17	4.1	5.86	5.99
Standard Dev	0.12	0.32	-	-	-	0.97	0.36	0.21	0.22
World									
Mean	2.75	4.62	5.42	4.73	5.66	3.82	4.51	5.49	5.94
Standard Dev	0.35	0.61	0.25	0.49	0.35	0.65	0.48	0.41	0.34

When it comes to leadership values, Western countries are well correlated and show significant relationship to one another. Qatar (in red) is clearly and visibly different in fig. 2-17.

Just as ‘Arab World’ leadership practices, shown in fig. 2-16 coincide, most leadership values also closely correlate, although again, there are clear differences with Turkey (fig. 2-18). This also allows this project to draw inferences with reasonable confidence from other research carried out in different Arab countries, especially those in the Gulf when specific data are not available for Qatar.

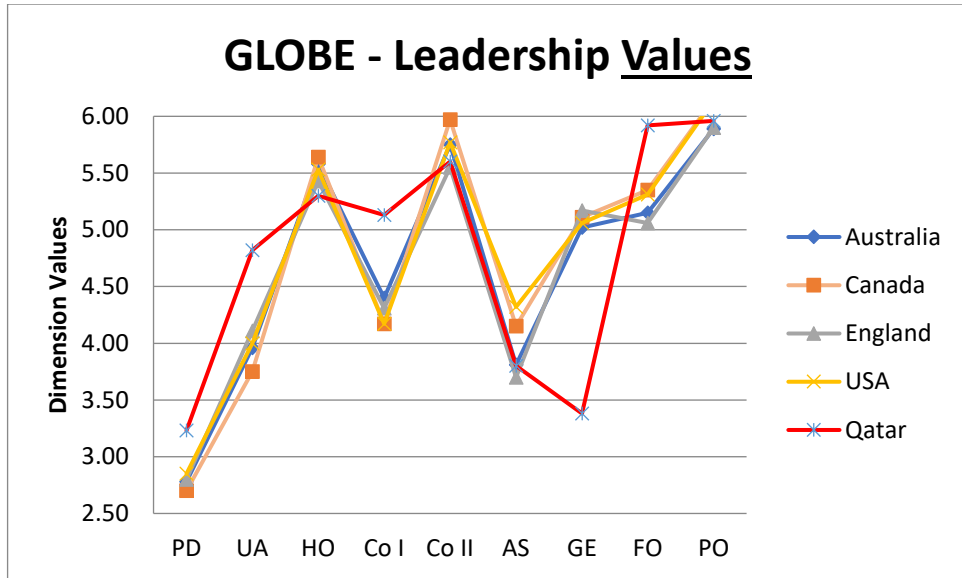


Figure 2-17 - Comparative Leadership Values in GLOBE
Derived from table 2-29

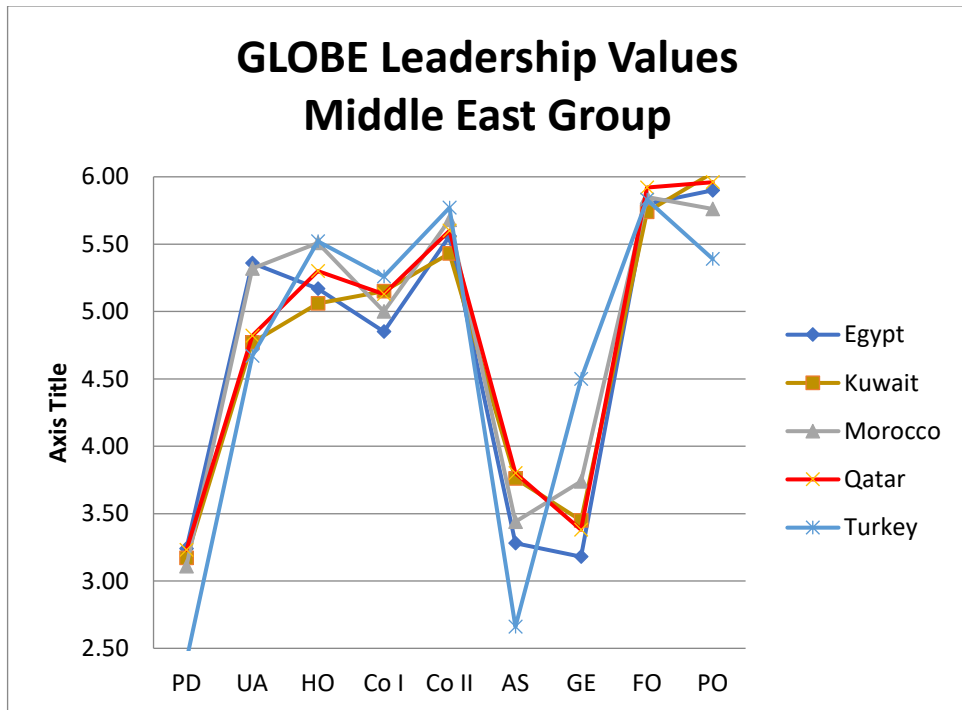


Figure 2-18 - Comparative Values of Middle Eastern Leadership from GLOBE
Derived from table 2-29

2.5 CHANGE THEORY

2.5.1 Introduction to Change Theory

Although there is a significant body of change theory and literature (see 1.8.5.3), this section restricts itself to reviewing only to change affected by leadership and HRM reforms. This researcher concluded these two facets of change were those most likely to create noise in empirical data collected to meet the main aims of this project.

2.5.2 Leadership Effects

Increasingly, there is clear evidence that leaders do have a significant impact on the successful implementation of change (Battilana, et al. 2010, Bruckman 2008, Higgs and Rowland 2005, Kotter 1990, 1996) and many more. The context of this research project intimately links HRM leadership and change. The link calls for specific competencies and leadership effectiveness at people-oriented and task-oriented behaviours (Battilana, et al. 2010). The planned organisational change involves each of these. Because each ministry is different, ministers as leaders were unlikely to adopt generic change across all organisations during the 2008 reforms.

Managing change is about managing both people and processes (Moran and Brightman 2002)

Herkenhoff (2004) showed that, to be effective, leaders should not only display intellectual clarity but must also be emotionally sensitive to the needs of their followers. This means creating an OC which binds members based on their own cultural values (Brooks 1997, Herkenhoff 2004). Herkenhoff suggests that 'cultural values' refers to combined national, organisational and professional cultures. Brooks (1997) believes managing change links to a leader's ability develop a distinctive OC and to create and communicate a culturally-based vision and model of change. This involves extensive, conscious use of symbolism, and attention to personal and shared values. Some cultures are more naturally inclined towards using both hard and soft levers to affect change and achieve high-performance.

For some of Qatar's ministries, change meant merging existing organisations to form new ministries. Mergers involve a difficult organisational process which may be harder to achieve than normal change. In Qatar, this potentially required change to one or more already-settled OCs present in existing ministries. Then a leader's ability to change individuals within such organisations becomes an important factor. Changing an organisation must emphasise people as individuals in any such merger process (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006). Any new leader's effort should be directed towards four identifiable areas:

1. Existing institutional leaders;
2. Suitable management strategies;
3. Existing organisational structure, systems, processes and culture; and
4. Acceptance of change by individuals with key existing roles.

A new leader and executive team must then actively engage as architects of the new organisation. The executive team has the skill of helping others change those aspects of former OCs, customs and values not in tune with the new shared vision. If the executive team lacks suitable communication and change management skills, they will be unable to act as consistent role models. This will lead to negative results (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006, Lawson and Price 2003). If executives lack the skill to act as role models, many staff will become detached from the new organisation during change.

The style of leadership, the beliefs and characteristics of leaders affect their choices and their behaviours and approaches to problem-solving during change (Eisenbach, et al. 1999, Finkelstein and Hambrick 1996). For example, Japanese management styles proved more effective than less-successful Western systems of leadership which are predominantly informed and reinforced by management education systems (Watson 1983).

However, much of the recent change literature has showed that transformational leaders are more successful (Bass 1985, Bass and Avolio 1994, Eisenbach, et al. 1999, Tichy and Devanna 1986), at least in the West. Transformational leaders promote creating a culture that encourages team

decision-making and behavioural control. Because transformational leaders connect with individuals, this style is better at overcoming any resistance that might go with major change. Michaelis, et al. (2009) suggest connection with individuals is largely a result of the charisma of change leaders. They can influence the values, belief behaviour and performance of others and promote subordinates' trust in the leadership. If either transformational or transactional leaders can achieve strong organisational identification and their followers, they are much more likely to be successful (Martin and Epitropaki 2001).

Change also needs certain leadership competencies which are also closely linked to a leader's four actions (Higgs and Rowland 2000, 2001):

1. Creating the case by engaging others to recognise the need for change;
2. Creating essential change by ensuring the leaders has a deep understanding of the issues and consistent tools and practices support him or her;
3. Building commitment by engaging others in change;
4. Designing effective plans and supervising and reviewing progress which will complement and uphold change;
5. Promoting and developing skills in people so they can find their own answers while still have leadership support.

Battilana, *et al.* (2010) take a different approach. Building on the work of Nadler and Tushman (1999) and Beer and Nohria (2000), Battilana distinguished between task-oriented and person-oriented behaviours. Taken together, both behaviours cover most day-to-day leadership actions, even though each needs different but related sets of competencies. Effective leaders will clarify task needs and structure tasks around organisational objectives and thus support task-oriented behaviour. People-oriented behaviours rely on the leader's ability to connect with subordinates and account for his own and others' emotions (Battilana, et al. 2010, Ferres and Connell 2004). The extent to which leaders are empathetic with subordinates' mental models in an existing framework is important. Leaders with the skill to interpret such models can read social clues

which may be neither obvious nor openly expressed. Sometimes leaders may be effective at only one skill, while others may be effective at both task-oriented and person-oriented behaviours. A continuum of leadership behaviours represents individual differences between leaders. The range is responsible for variation in organisational change implementation, because leaders stress different sets of activities in any planned organisational change (Battilana, et al. 2010).

Higgs and Rowland (2005) identified several change-leadership approaches. These included; 'shaping behaviour', 'framing behaviour', 'creating capacity', 'directive change', 'master change', 'do it yourself (DIY) change' and 'emergent change'.

'Shaping behaviour' is leader-centric and is about what leaders say and do, how they think about change, how they make others accountable with a focus on the individual. 'Framing behaviour' involves creating a starting point for change, designing and managing change and communicating guiding principles. 'Creating capacity' means developing organisational and individual capabilities and communicating and creating connections. 'Master change' is associated with complex externally driven change. 'Directive change' is one which involves leadership control and one normally finds it within organisations with a short history of managing change. 'DIY change' infers non-intervention by leaders when they simply allow change to happen. Higgs and Rowland found success negatively related to 'DIY' and 'directive' change behaviours. 'Emergent change' is a long-term, internally driven evolution of an organisation.

Higgs and Rowland (2005) inferred that in short-term change which concludes in less than one year, leadership behaviours are critical to success. Leader-centric behaviours (shaping behaviour) impairs change implementation and taking a laissez-faire (DIY) approach or a top-down approach to change is rarely successful.

The last observation confirms most research into *Western* organisations shows individual empowerment of subordinates is a major route to success (Estad 1997, Gill 2003, Kotter 1995, Piasecka 2000). Rather than using command and control structures for change, leaders actively

involved employees through training, personal development and management strategies. Power structures in Qatar are different.

2.5.2 Leadership, Change and HRM

Without exception, changing an organisation involves people and managing people. It therefore follows the HRM role is critical during change (Francis 2003). Thus, HRM actions performed by the HR department and its most senior managers has a strategic role to play (Mcmahan, et al. 1998, Novicevic and Harvey 2001).

In organisations structured by function, the HR role is to develop a fit with organisational strategy (Schuler and Jackson 1987). The literature widely and increasingly documents HRM's role as 'change maker'. However, leaders still normally initiate how and to what extent the HR department becomes involved. Departmental and lower ranking line managers often have great discretion over job design. However, how they assign work, how much they delegate and the degree to which jobs encourage engagement and promote discretionary behaviour still depends on leadership influences over managers and job holders (Armstrong 2009; p.340). Price (2007; p.57) describes leadership as the most critical element of the process. It is, for example the right of leaders to develop the organisation to follow a corporate strategy. If this includes a human resource-based view of the firm the success and failure of organisational change will depend on the unique contribution of HR to organisational change (Doorewaard and Benschop 2003). If the strategy includes no such view, then HRM's role is likely to relegation to controlling adverse effects of change programmes and acting only as administrators. However, as Kerfoot and Knights (1992) report, HRM type practices can develop without HRM policies or if HRM departments largely fail to have a leading involvement in organisational change. In some organisations, the absence of the strong and credible leadership of people management means the HR department cannot deliver anything except old-style PM.

People are usually at the centre of change, and the most important people-related processes are those associated with HRM (Oakland and Tanner 2007). The role of HR and its leadership during

change remains rather underexplored in the literature. However, Higgs and Rowland (2000) noted HRM adds value to change by balancing effective delivery of core services with broad-based and change management competencies. Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994) describe many change processes as those drawn from changing key characteristics of HRM policy. These often involve new structures and processes which support effective, efficient end-to-end operations. They may involve extensive training and development programs. In successful change programmes, HRM identifies and matches people's competencies to new roles, even when the change programme creates no immediate new roles. The HR department normally plays a significant role to link leadership and subordinates using effective communication and involving staff in engagement programmes (Francis 2003). Importantly, HRM will link the strategic purpose behind change to operational issues. Oakland and Tanner (2007) describe how creating this link is the central role of leadership, who sets direction, inspires organisation-wide change and ensures proper implementation of change using core processes. Leaders must understand, measure and improve them. If links become broken, leaders risk major misdirected effort. Then the change becomes largely ineffective because the organisation will see no resultant benefits.

2.6 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

Chapter 2 reviewed the key literature involved in this research: HRM; comparative NC and OC, leadership, and change management. This chapter built on the wider examination of applicable theory found in sections 1.8.4 and 1.8.5 of Chapter 1. While 1.8.4 and 1.8.5 gave a wide précis of all the main theoretical bases of the study, Chapter 2 reviewed the key themes of this research in greater depth. As Chapter 1 showed, there are many features to each theoretical base. Chapter 2 did not try to cover every feature of these theories in this review, though this researcher read each one in depth. Given the potential complexity and breadth of each subject, the researcher's purpose was to understand each subject and its nuances before eventually settling on the literature reviews in this chapter. Thus, this chapter reviews and cites only the most important facets affecting this research.

People management was at the heart of this project. From experience as a senior people manager in Qatar, this researcher hypothesised that however named, administrative people management (PM) would predominate. This meant examining classic PM and the major differences between PM and HRM. As later chapters will show, this proved to be an important exercise in deciding to what extent each ministry applied principles of HRM which should have superseded PM. Section 2.2.3 examined the major features of HRM. This reviewed different approaches to using HRM practices. These included 'best fit', 'best practice' and 'bundling' to understand which approach Qatar may have adopted in its reforms.

This chapter, and extensive peripheral reading intended to inform this researcher how best to carry out field research. Chapter 2 does not review every detail of the literature on HRM. After the review, this researcher settled on using works by Michael Armstrong (2006, 2009, 2011). These were reflective enough of theory and practice on which to base Questionnaires A and B. While he could not expect any single series of work to cover every aspect of HRM theory and practice, these works acceptable for creating a synopsis. As Chapter 4 will show, this provided the foundation for questioning of HRDs to identify the content of HRM systems and practices in each ministry.

This chapter then reviewed both cross-cultural and OC prior works. The initial aim was to base a cross-cultural comparison of adopted HRM practices on Dutch social anthropologist Geert Hofstede's influential, much researched and verified work. Wider public-sector reforms introduced Qatar's Emir after 2008 meant this research had later to widen the research base to include the extensive GLOBE study on cross-cultural leadership. Between them Hofstede and GLOBE-related works provided a significant body of literature and research on which to base a cross-cultural study of HRM. Each provided a series of comparative cultural dimensions based on largely categorical data. These gave a foundation on which to build possible statistical analysis of factors involved in a cross-cultural study. Usefully, GLOBE also contained a specific study in Qatar while Hofstede's work had only considered 'the Arab World', a composite measure of several countries around the Gulf region.

Nevertheless, extensive as they are, they represent only one branch of cross-cultural theory; social anthropology. This not universally accepted by cross-cultural researchers and theorists. So, this researcher this critically analysed social-anthropologically-based theory and other branches of cross-cultural theory. He also reviewed bodies of work which addressed specific cross-cultural themes like those which include public-sector practice, gender and diversity issues, societal and transnational (cultural transfer) issues affecting HRM. Among these works he also reviewed characteristics of Western, Arab and Islamic cultures in section 2.3.4.

OC is another expression of culture within organisation. This researcher needed to review OC literature because in 2008 the Emir appointed new ministers to change this to align each ministry with QNV 2030. This chapter showed that while NC and OC conceptually relate to one another, they represent different though important 'layers' of culture. Another similarity between NC and OC is there is no clear definition. Section 2.3.5 examined how various theorists described OC and its effects.

The reforms of 2008 onwards showed the conceptual and practical significance of leadership within the reforms. Leadership had special importance for three reasons; cultural, organisational and data-related. Section 2.4 describes how leadership theory not only performed a vital function within reforms but also directly affects both changes to HRM and the change process itself. Important differences exist between 'management' and 'leadership' which can significantly influence the way organisations manage. The chapter explored these differences.

In a high power-distance and collectivist culture such as Qatar, the relationships between leadership, power and authority are especially important. This chapter evaluated both positive and negative features of the power relationships. These often affect leadership types, widely evaluated in leadership theory. Theorists have classified leaders in various years as leadership concepts developed, especially over the last six decades. Both leadership and HRM have significant, interconnected roles in developing corporate strategy. The GLOBE study summarised in Chhokar, et al. (2007), and House, et al. (2004a). The main aim of this study was

to evaluate comparative leadership in many cultures worldwide. This provided the special link between culture and the leadership reforms occurring in Qatar needed to help disentangle complex relationships within ministries. This included those relationships which were the primary objectives of this researcher's work; those between HRM and NC.

Section 2.5 addressed the effects of the wider change and reform occurring after 2008. As Chapter 1 showed, change has been the subject of extensive research over the last six decades. While important for its effect of creating noise within empirical results, this researcher focused on two areas; leadership's role in change projects and, specifically the relationship between leadership, change and HRM.

The breadth of the literature review contained in this chapter, was wider than that used by most researchers. This was compelled by the events of 2008 onwards. The greatest difficulty for this chapter was in containment and focus to enable this researcher include only necessary theories with which to explore contingent effects of the range of reform in Qatar's public-sector during HRM changes.

2.7 THE NEXT CHAPTER

The next chapter will describe governance reform in Qatar. This is followed by a detailed evaluation of reforms in Qatar's public services, set against similar reforms in Western public services, especially those resulting from various theoretical public service reform concepts.

Chapter 3 - Public-sector Reform in Qatar

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a literature review and description of public-sector reforms in Qatar. HRM is one of the two primary subjects of this research. This chapter evaluates HRM reform in Qatar since 2001. It identifies a specific issue with the most potential divergent HRM practices between Arab states and the West: equality and diversity.

From 2008 onwards, Qatar introduced massive reforms to the entire civil service. This chapter evaluates them including HRM in Qatar's public-sector and compares them to similar reforms in the West. The West refers mainly to the English-speaking group of countries from which this researcher drew public-sector and HRM literature and theories because of their availability in English language. This chapter also evaluates public-sector reforms in another advanced Western group; European countries, there they often take a different form to those in Anglo-Saxon countries

Public-sector leadership became a key catalyst of reform in Qatar. Qatar appointed new ministers in every ministry and charge them with reforming the entire system. This chapter examines the importance of leadership. It also examines comparative leadership in the West and in Arab countries.

3.2 HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT REFORM IN QATAR

3.2.1 HRM Reforms This Century

From 1995 onwards, the new Emir showed a significant understanding of the various major issues confronting Qatar. Two involved issues important to this research, improving the efficiency and effectiveness of public services and improving HRM capabilities.

After a settling down period of around five years after taking office. The Emir issued Law No. (1) of 2001 that strengthened civil service employment law, This Law used the term 'HRM' in its title for the first time. This law was significant, containing one hundred and twenty-four

articles spread among fifteen chapters. It aimed to govern every aspect of civil service people management, though some specialist professions such as the police were excluded. Significantly, it also allowed the Cabinet of Ministers to issue executive directives for carrying out or changing this law without the need for top-down reform. This researcher knew from his own direct personal experience, that despite Law No.1's title, people management in civil service organisations continued to be largely administrative in a 'PM' (only) mode.

The Emir later issued a Decree (19) of 2002 entitled 'National Project for Administrative Development'. The Decree made this project the responsibility of the Planning Council. The Planning Council declared its mission to be:

Leading the development of a modern public service that is focused on the needs of the public and the business community, and establishing Qatar as a leading example of public-sector development.

Planning Council (2007)

The Planning Council created the Public Service Development Unit (PSDU) as the body coordinating the changes in line with the Emiri Decision No. (19) of 2002 where Article 2 stated:

This programme aims at developing new functional and organisational structure and the constitutional organs and means of the services sector.

Planning Council (2007)

Decree (19) aimed to develop all thirty-two public institutions in a six-year development programme, divided into four major phases. Public institutions included ministries, government departments and other public-sector organisations. Phase 1 involved research and assessment aimed at identifying specific areas for improvement. Phase 2 was the planning and design stage which prioritised improvements and set up pilot schemes. Phase 3 involved implementation, with HRM included as a key target area. Phase 4 was the reporting stage of the project. This has since been superseded and remained unfinished at the end of this research.

The intended objective was to produce responsive, efficient, transparent, respectful, accountable and cost-effective civil and public services. This mirrors objectives of many of those

governments who developed their own public services under the NPM paradigm. The Executive squarely aimed Qatar's 'Service Improvement Initiative' at such objectives. Just like Western NPM, services would become strategically planned and target driven. Ministers would set specific goals and becoming responsive to public feedback. Key stated elements to achieve this are that:

.... service delivery staff are skilled, engaged and motivated

and

The organisation changes culture by developing a workforce with the capabilities required to accomplish its S[ervice] Q[uality] objectives in the work environment that supports their efforts.

(Planning Council 2007)

Qatar's economy is fairly small compared to most Western states though large for its population. Qatar-wide initiatives allow far more scope for developing an integrated economy from a people management perspective. The PSDU developed an initiative known as the Qatar Labour Model. The Cabinet approved a National Action Plan for Qatar's Labour Market Strategy in 2006. This sought to develop the entire labour market as a coordinated national resource. This included full integration of private, government and individual labour markets. PSDU proposed advanced predictive methods to better plan for future national employment needs. In June 2008, the GSDP announced its 'Capacity Building Initiative (CBI)' (Al-Heeti 2008). This remained 'under development' during the entire period of research.

In 2007, the Planning Commission launched a root-and-branch reform of people management systems which involved:

..... laws and regulations, policies, objectives and plans, organisational and jobs structures, work methods and procedures, financial system efficiency, manpower planning and development, and government buildings and facilities.

(Qatar Planning Commission 2007)

The original focus of this research programme was to evaluate the changes when ministries changed from traditional PM to true HRM. However, part-way through this project, the Emir

introduced several other important initiatives which brought massive changes to entire structure of the ministries described earlier and in 3.3.3.

3.2.2 Equality and Diversity

Equality and diversity are two issues on which Western countries and Arab countries have widely differing perspectives. This section highlights the issues because of these major differences. Sometimes, they are for religious or cultural reasons. At other times, Gulf organisations must take account of different workforce demographics, and societal and cultural values, including those in the public-sector. Expatriates have occupied different roles in Qatar dependent on their occupation. This means many organisations differentially value one worker over another. Employers give Qatari citizens absolute preference, then GCC citizens. Other nationalities come third (see Law No. 8 Appendix 1).

Major changes to Western societies in the 20th Century, mostly in the period after World War II, led to certain principles being fundamental to PM and later HRM systems. Sweeping societal changes included demographic and social changes which control the size and composition of the workforce and the proportion of the population engaging in the labour market (Bratton and Gold 1999: p92).

Social changes led to the widespread societal adoption of ideas of equality often led by public-sector employers (Cornelius 2002). The increasing diversity of general populations and particularly organisational diversity (Mavin and Girling 2000) drove this. Diversity includes gender, age, nationality and ethnicity and other identifiable individual characteristics (Liff 1997). Social unrest such as the civil rights movement in America and mass immigration created great pressures within society which led to 'equality' being protected by the law (Bassett-Jones 2005). The social changes taking place before and during the time led to incorporation of these ideas into its 1980s HRM principles (Benschop 2001, Cassell 1996, Ernst Kossek, et al. 2003). The result is that 'equality and diversity' is now firmly embedded in all Western HRM theory, strongly protected by law and practice.

Since the 1970s an overwhelming proportion of Qatar’s workforce has been non-Qatari, to promote rapid economic and structural progress, in common with other Gulf countries. Of the total Qatari workforce, almost 71% work in the civil service (table 3-1). By 2009 the civil service employed 91,095 people, with the workforce made up of around 55% Qataris and 45% foreign workers. Most senior managers and all executives are Qatari nationals. Of Qatari nationals in government service, around 62% are men and just under 38%, women. Of non-nationals, almost 88% are men and just 12.28% are women (QSA 2011).

Table 3-1 - Qatar Workforce 2009 by Sector and Nationality

Source: Qatar Statistics Authority (2011)

Sector	Qataris			Non-Qataris			Gross
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Public Corporations	7,015	4,279	11,294	35,967	11,710	47,677	58,971
Mixed	4,602	1,481	6,083	24,883	8,146	33,029	39,112
Private	2,560	744	3,304	962,258	25,157	987,415	990,719
Diplomatic	34	-	34	1,758	232	1,990	2,024
Non-profit	-	-	-	32,195	48,147	80,342	80,342
Government	31,199	18,959	50,158	35,909	5,028	40,937	91,095
Totals	45,410	25,463	70,873	1,092,970	98,420	1,191,390	1,262,263

Qatar and other Gulf states recognise that for economic progress to happen so many expatriate workers is not sustainable long-term (Al-Busaidi 2007). Thus, they have put in place ‘localisation’, programmes to promote local citizens over expatriate workers proactively (Forstenlechner 2010, Harry 2007, Rees, et al. 2007, State of Qatar 2009).

While Qatar’s Constitution may guarantee equality, the law, societal and cultural values all embed inequality. Most Qataris justify such principles as protecting Qatar's long-term interests, just as many theorists have argued that principles of equality are in the West's long-term interest. Nevertheless, this places HR systems in Qatar in a different environment from those around which theorists and practitioners create HR systems in the West (Armstrong, et al. 2010, Stevens, et al. 2008).

3.2.3 HR Reforms After 2007

After announcements by the Planning Commission in 2007 (see end 3.2.1) and May 2007 (State of Qatar 2007), this researcher began to follow the progress initiatives under CBI. Although

there were rumours the Emir would announce a new law under this initiative, at first the only result was a Decree adding and amending sections to the Civil Service Act of 2001. (Decree Law 2007). The Decree simply altered civil service pay and pensions.

In April 2008, The senior coordinator at the Planning Commission announced a new the labour market strategy (Campbell-Thomson 2008) though this mainly covered private-sector labour market reforms and accepted qualifications. The Executive announced nothing about public-sector HRM reforms until June 2008 (Al-Heeti 2008). This made HR strategy and integral part of the entire system. The entire presentation is in Appendix 11.

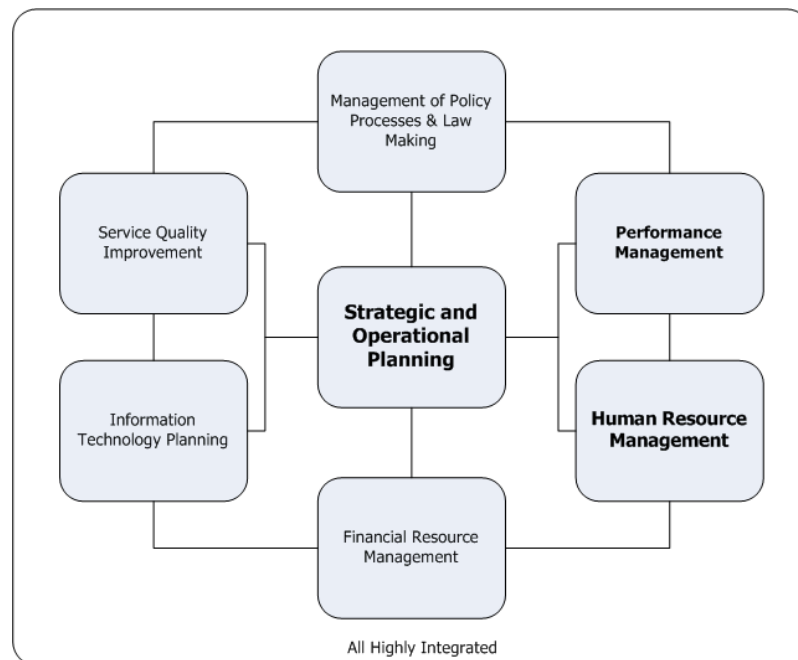


Figure 3-1 - HR Strategy as Part of the CBI

Derived from: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.1)

The changes shown in fig. 3-1 are consistent with the HR ‘best practice model’ (Armstrong 2006, Marchington and Grugulis 2000, Mess 2004) as are those in figs. 3-2 to 3-6 and promoted by the OECD in their MENA governance initiative (OECD 1996, 2004a, b, c, 2010)

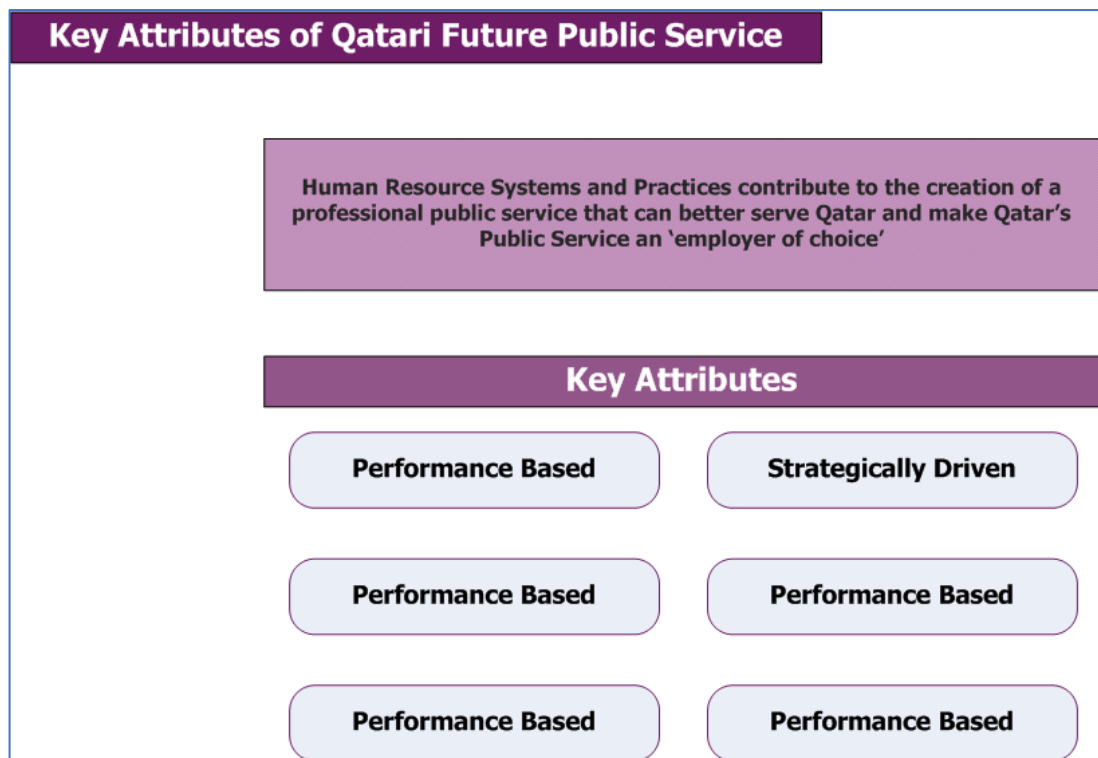


Figure 3-2 - Key Attributes of Qatar's Public Services Strategy
 Derived from: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.6)

Fig. 3-3 shows how each minister (leader) is at the heart of the entire process joining strategy and results with the other components of 'best practice' HRM. All the components come directly from Western HRM (Armstrong 2011; pp.571-576, Laka-Mathebula 2004, Price 2007; p.15, Zhu, et al. 2005) and change management practice (Gill 2003, Karp and Helgø 2008, Kotter 1995, Moran and Brightman 2002, Peus, et al. 2009). At this stage, the presentation showed little recognition of the need to consider Qatar's NC.

Leadership not only emanates from the top of an organisation. The Emir clearly thought so, given his comprehensive changes of leader for every organisation with powers to appoint new executives.

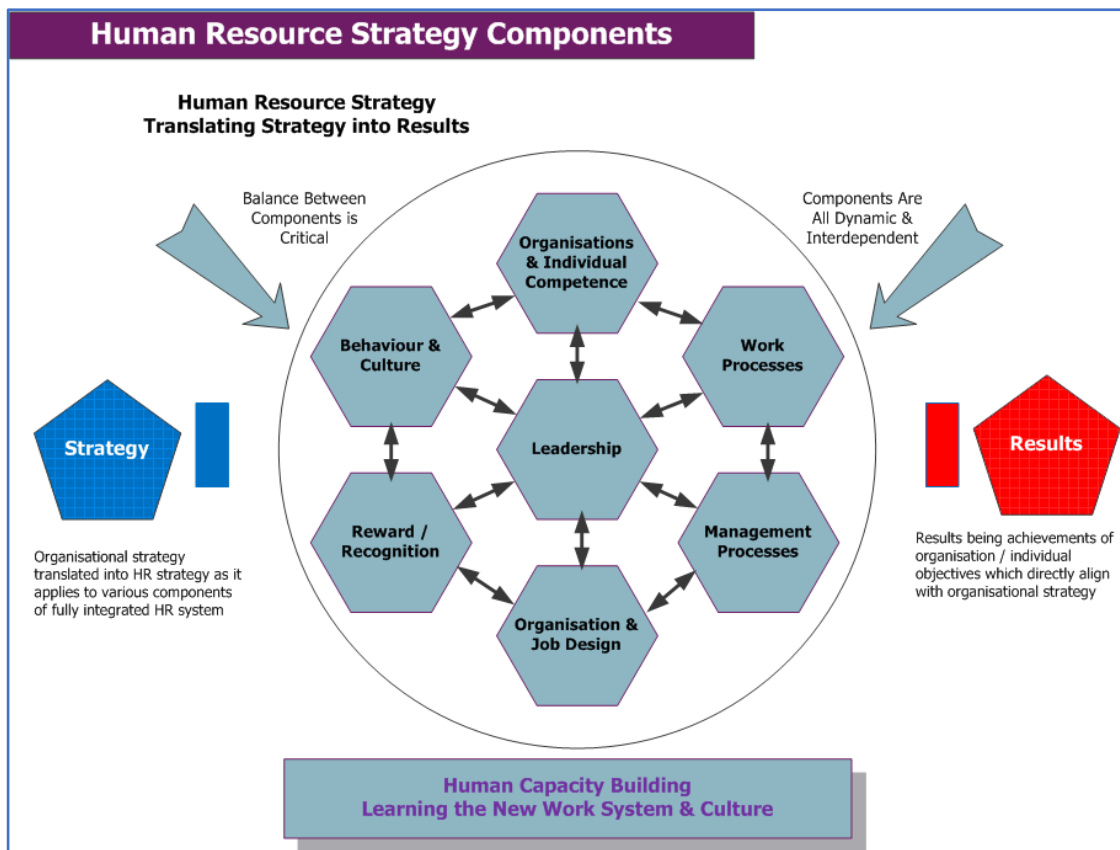


Figure 3-3 - HRM Strategy Components

Derived from: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.4)

Various theorists also believe the HRM department's role is essential for providing leadership and promoting change (Armstrong 2011; pp.562-3, Kochan and Dyer 1993, Massey 1994, Ulrich 1997).

Fig. 3-4 shows the entire content of the proposed changes while fig. 3-5 shows the objectives of CBI. This programme brought together various elements of HRM reform, change and public-sector theories of the types discussed in Chapters 1 and 2. All are components of strategic HRM (Armstrong 2006, 2009, 2011). Communication, heads the list. Armstrong (2011; pp.167-191) suggests that it is a key element of employee engagement and motivation.

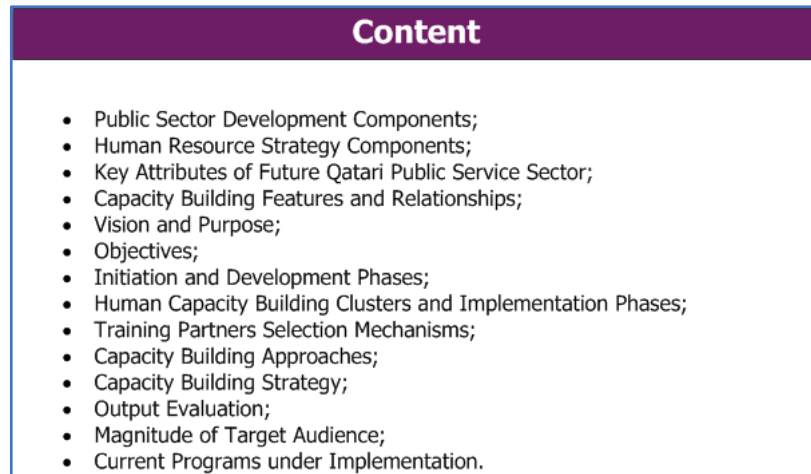


Figure 3-4 -The Content of Qatar’s Reform and Capacity Building Programmes
 Derived from: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.2)

The list of objectives (fig. 3.5) shows the importance of HRM, especially as ‘managing people’ and ‘communication’ are high on the list. The list in fig. 3-5 also refers to the coordinating role of the HRM function as it works externally with other departments in each ministry. If implemented, these objectives would no longer be old-style PM and would be firmly part of the different HRM philosophy (Armstrong, 2008, 2010).

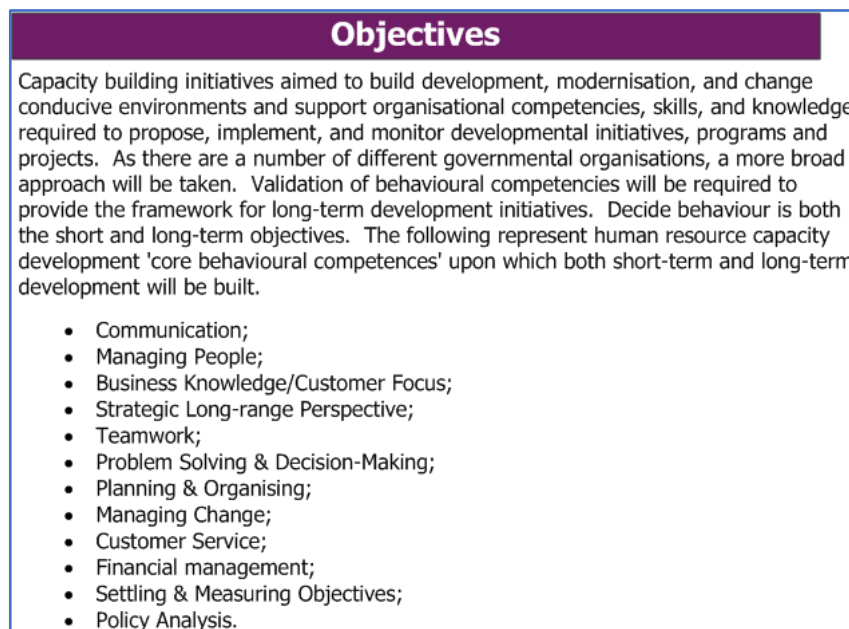


Figure 3-5 - Objectives of the Capacity Building Programme and HR Reform
 Source: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.9)

The Executive seems to have recognised the need for improving professionalism throughout the civil service and this was a major part of the CBI programme (fig. 3-6).

There followed an announcement of Qatar’s First National Strategy by a member of the Royal Family in October 2008 (Al-Thani 2008) who outlined the national strategic plan and the issues and challenges Qatar faces. Then in November 2008, the Crown Prince (now the present Emir) announced the QNV 2030 (GSDP 2008b, d) which had fundamental implications for the approach to HRM and preservation of NC.

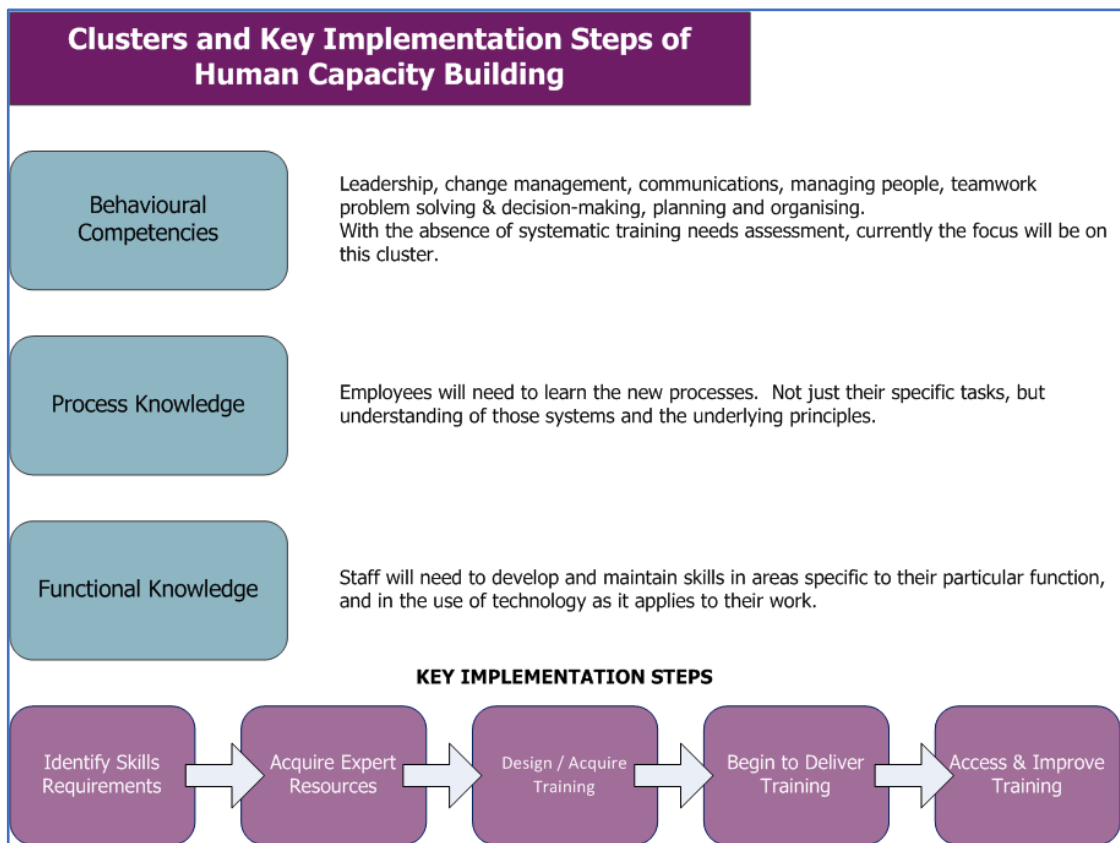


Figure 3-6 - Human Capacity Building through Training and Knowledge Development
 Source: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.11)

In 2009, the Emir enacted ‘Law 8 of 2009 - Human Resource Management Act’ (Appendix 1). This applies only to the public-sector. The private-sector continued to use the separate Law No. (14) of 2004 to govern employment. Government reforms made several changes to private-sector law in 2014 and 15 (Law No 3 of 2014; Law No. 1 of 2015 and Law No. 21 of 2015). The major reason the public and private sectors in Qatar have different employment laws is because the fundamental policy of Qatar as a rentier economy (Hertog 2010, Schwarz 2008). This directly results in civil servants enjoying better terms and conditions than those in the private-sector.

With such a high proportion of Qatar’s workers in the public-sector, the public-sector has become a major part of sharing the state’s wealth with its citizens.

Law No.8 of 2009 has fourteen chapters and 177 articles. Table 3-2 lists the chapters. This researcher translated the copy in Appendix 1 from the original Arabic to more easily compare its contents with research literature.

Table 3-2 - Law No.8 of 2009

Chapter Heading	
Chapter I	Definitions
Chapter II	Planning and Organisation of Human Resources
Chapter III	Recruitment and Selection
Chapter IV	Salaries and Bonuses, Allowances and Other Related Benefits
Chapter V	Training and Development
Chapter VI	Performance Management Systems
Chapter VII	Promotions
Chapter VIII	Transfer, Assignment and Secondment
Chapter IX	Leave
Chapter X	Officer’s Duties, Prohibited Acts and Discipline
Chapter XI	Occupational Safety and Health
Chapter XII	Termination of Employment
Chapter XIII	End of Service Gratuities
Chapter XIV	General Provisions

This researcher concludes while Law No.8 is called the “*Human Resource Management Act*” it more closely resembles ‘PM’, covering largely administrative and contractual employment functions (Storey 1989a). The Executive merely updated and amended the previous Civil Service Act of 2001. It is not in itself any basis of a ‘true’ HRM system. Such laws rarely are, even in the West. The thesis examines Law No. 8 in much greater detail in Chapter 5 (5.2.1). As this analysis will show, compared with the CBI objectives, Law No.8 omits many of the important characteristics of HRM. This involves executives and civil service officers having a different relationship with their employer and HR officers than is the case in PM (Klinger and Lynn 1997, Oswick and Grant 1996).

Section 3.2.2 discussed equality and diversity and proposed this was unlikely to appear in Qatari HRM systems. While Al-Heeti (2008) referred more than once to initiatives which *at face value* appear to be moving towards equality and diversity (fig. 3-7), Law No. 8 does not.

Human Resource Management Concerns

- Values its employees who in turn will respect their clients and co-workers and honour their dignity;
- Focuses on results, promoting and demanding high standards of performance from staff;
- Bases employment decisions on merit;
- Builds challenging, rewarding and mobile careers and attracts and retains persons with talent and imagination, who are committed and are of the highest calibre;
- Provides for the growth and development of its employees;
- Demonstrates a sense of caring for both its members and its customers;
- Has the highest quality leadership and excellent in the management of human resources;
- Provides a workplace that is free from discrimination, recognises the diverse backgrounds of [Country Three's] public servants and values the differences that people bring to the service;
- Provides a fair, flexible and rewarding workplace, which exhibits cooperative workplace relations based on consultation and communication;
- Provides a working environment that is secure, healthy, ergonomically designed and aesthetically pleasing.

Figure 3-7 - HRM Concerns

Derived from: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.5)

Vision and Purpose

National human capacity building is a major component of the Public Sector Development Project. It has been initiated as a foundation for a comprehensive human resources strategy and corporate culture building in this State of Qatar:

Vision
The development of a productive and highly motivated workforce, equipped with the skills, knowledge, and specialisations required to meet the country's economic and social development needs. Emphases given to Qatarization, workforce diversification, women's increased participation in the workforce, and work ethic that promotes a work culture capable of accommodating new work styles and proactively coping with regional and international fast changes.

Purpose
Capacity building aims at building and improving human resources skills, knowledge, abilities and behaviours within the public service sector.

Figure 3-8 - Vision and Purpose

Derived from: presentation by Al-Heeti (2008; p.8)

Briefly, various articles show differential treatment between men and women (e.g. Art 25, 27) or between Qataris and non-Qataris (e.g. Art.14, 26, 28, 46). In the first case, certain regulations can only apply to women; addressing pregnancy issues for example just as they do in the West. Otherwise, Law No.8 recognises different roles for men and women in Qatari society which are fundamentally different to those in the West. Articles recognise men as the principal breadwinner in any family and they receive payments not given to women employees.

Non-Qataris receive less favourable treatment than Qataris under Law No.8. Al-Heeti (2008) shows (fig. 3-8) the emphasis on Qatarisation which is a discriminatory measure. In cases like Article 14, the law also discriminates favourably between Qataris and GCC citizens and even more between GCC citizens and non-Arabs. Each such article would be discriminatory and normally unlawful in the West. In Qatar, it is not and reflects national and regional policy, local societal conventions and shari'a law.

3.3 GOVERNANCE REFORM IN QATAR

Qatar has been in continuous reform since Independence in 1971. The Ruling Executive introduced major changes which affected every part of civil and public life in the country, though often reforms failed. From 1995, the Executive recognised Qatar needed to change its public services to react to demands from its citizens and globalisation.

Yet most of the theory and practice for many improvements was developed in the West and directly reflects and entrenches Western values and customs into those exposed to them (Najjar 2005, Nguyena, et al. 2009) . This exposure takes place by several routes. These include globalisation (Venezia 2005), by training initiatives (Wilkins 2001), by students educated in Western universities (Neal and Finlay 2008, Nguyena, et al. 2009), or by initiatives from major Western organisations such as the OECD through the GfD programme (UNDP 2007). There is no question of the West deliberately imposing its own cultural practices and values directly or overtly, however. Nevertheless, Qatar, its citizens, and other Gulf Arabs have already recognised the dangers of creeping Westernisation by other routes to their own valued and distinctive culture and show clear determination to turn back the tide (Najjar 2005) .

The world economic recession starting in 2007/08 compelled Qatar to improve the quality and cost-effectiveness of its civil service to ensure it does not consume excessive resources and provides value for money. The global recession was not the only reason. Faced with a growing birth rate and the large outflow of funds to other countries from which it drew workers, the Government aims to largely replace expatriate workers with locals under a Qatarisation

programmes. When this occurs, the characteristics of the working population would change to restore 'Arabness' to civil servants. Government practices needed to reflect this and signal acceptable directions for policy and management and restore connections to local culture (Turner and Hulme 1997; p.34).

Qatar joined the regionally-inspired Good Governance for Development Initiative (GfD) launched by the Prime Minister of Jordan in February 2005. The OECD and UNDP were formally invited to join the initiative (UNDP 2007). With eighteen Arab states in the MENA region the OECD created a multifaceted programme of civil service development including reforming public service delivery, government and administrative simplification. Government reforms in the West inspired much of it. Several OECD countries including the UK, some European states, the United States and Canada acted as co-chairs. The aim was to bring together practitioners in many disciplines from OECD countries and partner them with those from MENA states (UNDP 2007).

In 2008, Qatar published its Qatar National Vision 2030 (QNV2030). QNV2030 described 'human development' in Qatar as its first pillar (GSDP 2008b; p.18) and social development as its second. QNV announced further changes to public institutions, stating it wished to:

Preserve Qatar's national heritage and strengthen Arab and Islamic values and identity.

(2008, p.18)

In June 2008, the GSDP announced a 'CBI' (Al-Heeti 2008). This included yet more major changes to HRM in ministries. Yet despite QNV's stated aim of increasing "Arab and Islamic values", CBI drew new HRM practices direct from Western theory and practice with little thought to possible effects on local culture.

3.3.1 Arab Public Service Management

Academic researchers took little interest in management in the Middle East until about twenty years ago. Even then there was wide recognition that Arab management was culturally bound (Ali 1995, Bakhtari 1995, Dickson 2002, Enshassi and Burgess 1991).

Management in the Gulf necessarily means managing a diverse workforce because of the high percentage of foreign workers. Although there is a lower proportion of expatriates working in the public-sector, a significant percentage of foreign workers still exists.

There are management difficulties in Arab states. Research identifies problems of over-centralisation of power and control, incompetence of decision-making, low productivity, unpredictability of decision-making and lack of sustainable, improved employee empowerment and representation in state institutions (Al-Yahya 2009). Nevertheless, attitudes are changing in the Gulf. Centralisation of authority and decision-making remains, though consultative practices are improving. Nevertheless, styles of management practices seriously reduce the ability of public-sector organisations to use HR skills effectively.

Regionally, women public-sector employees have different culturally-relevant characteristics and different career ambitions. Metle (2002) found a strong but negative correlation between traditional Kuwaiti culture and job satisfaction. Metcalfe (2007) found four overriding influences when managing women:

1. Centrality of the family where men and women have complementary roles;
2. Recognition of men as the sole breadwinner of the family;
3. A code of modesty resting on the dignity and reputation of women. This leads to limits on contact between the genders; and
4. Unequal balance of power in the private sphere; anchored in family laws based on Sharia.

Labour market structures and employment laws support each influence. Laws often channel tax relief and employment-related benefits only through men. Market dynamics reflect the general

view of women in society in Gulf states. The 'equal but different' philosophy which underpins Islamic society has also led to high degrees of role stereotyping and the sometimes, problematic status of Arab women in the workplace (Elamin and Omair 2010, Neal 2010)

Various authors like Al-Yahya (2009), Neal (2010), Metcalfe (2007) and Branine and Pollard (2010) found people widely use and abuse the practice of social networking (*wasta*). The main career users of *wasta* in the public-sector give people, what in Western terms would be an unfair advantage to gain jobs, promotion or to bypass procedures. Often there are no official sanctions of the practice. Nevertheless, it remains "*a corrosive reality*" (Neal 2010; p.254). Neal reports that at normal managerial levels, employees found *wasta* an effective way to bypass often complex procedures and bureaucratic needs. This often led to inequalities of rights, employment conditions and, in Western terms, allowed employees improper access to power and authority.

Gulf states' public services still find great difficulty in keeping workable, effective and efficient public organisations (Kalantari 2005). Kalantari notes the culture of any organisation or society comprises assumptions, values, norms and customs and represents "*expected behaviours of organisations and people that occupy those offices*" (2005; pp.125-26). He argues that collective orientations which come from people's values, traditions and history are the essence of culture. In this way, organisational and administrative cultures are normally heavily influenced by the dominant values in each society.

In a more recent study into public-sector HR management in the region Al-Hamadi, *et al.* (2007) found various significant influences on management culture. The influence of religion was highest. Next came the continuing influence of public and private-sector expatriates who had held higher management positions and their contributions to developing civil service and labour laws during the 1970s. The influence of beliefs, values, norms, customs and rituals and early experience in the family and religious socialisation were also important. Influences of OC, the social elite and unique, inherited local management styles were significant.

Rulers of more enlightened Gulf states like Qatar have increasingly recognised the same benefits, though for different reasons. Rentier systems have arisen as a method of sharing state income, at least with their citizens (Hertog 2010), based on centuries-old Islamic principles of social welfare (*sadaqa*, *zakat* and *waqf/awqaf*).

3.3.2 Comparative Public-sector Reforms

In the third quarter of the 20th century, ideas about public-sector organisations began changing. Significant societal changes, especially among English-speaking advanced countries, this thesis used in previous chapters to define ‘the West’. In them, the public and politicians began to see bureaucratic organisations as obstructive and filled with unnecessary ‘red tape’. The term bureaucracy increasingly grew to have a negative meaning among the public (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.489).

Change to government services in Britain started in the 1980s and 90s when the Thatcher Government tried to introduce private-sector management techniques to the public-sector. One purpose was limiting costs which were growing out of control while simultaneously levels and standards of governance declined (Ackroyd 1995). Some researchers later used the term ‘The New Public Management’ (NPM) (Ferlie, et al. 1996, Hood 1991). Other states, especially Anglo-Saxon countries such as Australia and New Zealand also began to adopt NPM. More OECD countries followed including some in Europe (Flynn 1995). However, the structures of individual states variously affected the scope and content of NPM reforms. Flynn (1995) reports three recurring themes:

1. Aim to increase efficiency, accompanied by measuring and showing better results or outputs;
2. Long-term planning horizons more than budget period; usually at least three years; and
3. Reform of HRM towards results-orientation.

While NPM is by no means a total panacea, these also coincide with Qatar's publicly stated aims in its reforms from 2007 onwards. OECD countries were not alone in adopting NPM. Ideas of NPM continued to spread and grow internationally. However, this does not make NPM a universally applicable solution. The United Nations saw NPM as a useful basis for reform initiatives in emerging states. Importantly it also recognised NPM was not "*a panacea for the problem of the public-sector*" in crisis states (Larbi 1999; p.35). Nevertheless, often under the influence of the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Haque 2006), or the OECD, many less-developed countries began to reform their governments, with mixed results.

Kickert (1996). concluded all public-sector management reforms under NPM were strongly rooted in the North American business management culture. He agreed with the seminal work of Allison (1984) that roles of public-sector managers were like private-sector managers only "*in unimportant aspects*". Kickert (1996; p.18) argues states in other parts of the world should only use American-style public-sector management with great caution. He saw too much difference between national politics and methods of administration merely to import American theories and methods. Hood and Peters (2004) reported an increasing number of cross-cultural comparative studies. Other theorists suggest that differences in implementation were needed between one country to another, as cross-cultural effects emerge (Aeberhard 2001, Brown and Humphreys 1995, Common 1998, Flynn 1995).

Qatar began to reform its own public services after 1995 services though bureaucracy does not have the same negative connotations in Qatar as the ones which stimulated. Nevertheless, the Qatari government began to recognise public services must change to be more efficient, effective and better value for money (Al-Heeti 2008, Al-Khalifa 2006, Bgsi 2000). While NPM is by no means a universal solution to improving governance, the paradigm provides a useful yardstick against which to judge Qatar's progress.

Given the four commonly accepted definitions by Hood (1995; p.96), Thomson (1992; p.35), the OECD (1995) and Osborne and Gaebler (1992; p.35) a comparative taxonomy of Qatar's is possible, as follows (tables 3-3 to 3-6):

Table 3-3 - Hood's Original Definition of NPM

Derived from: (Hood 1991)

Christopher Hood Definition		
NPM		
Defined Characteristics	Operational Significance	Qatar's Adoption
Unbundling of the Public Sector into corporatized units organized by product	Erosion of single service employment; arms-length dealings; devolved budgets	No
More contract-based competitive provision, with internal markets and term contracts	Distinction of primary and secondary public service labour force	No
Stress on private-sector styles of management practice	Move from double imbalance PS pay, career service, unmonetized rewards, 'due process' employee entitlements	Minimal – but adoption of HRM
More stress on discipline and frugality in resource use	Less primary employment, less job security, less producer-friendly style	No
Greater emphasis on visible hands-on top management	More freedom to manage by discretionary power	No
Explicit formal measurable standards and measures of performance and success	Erosion of self- management by professionals	Yes
Greater emphasis on output controls	Resources and pay based on performance	No, but limited attempts to introduce performance-related pay

Table 3-4 - Application of Managerialism

Derived from: Thomson (1992)

Peninah Thompson's Definition	
Managerialism	
Defined Characteristics	Qatar's Adoption
The strategic role and empowerment of the chief executive.	No, directions from Emir and Ruling Council
Leadership (at various levels) in public sector organisations	No, limited by the hierarchical accountability
Creating and building of effective senior teams	Limited
The shift from administration to management, from enforcing defined processes and rules to the exercise of discretion	No
The over linking of operational activity to the overall mission and objectives of organisations	No
The delegation of HRM responsibility from the centre to line managers.	No
Evaluating operational systems and processes for efficiency, effectiveness and value for money.	Some assessment measures used
The active pursuit of quality and high standards of customer care.	Some
Active management of the cultural adjustment in all changing organisations from one entity to another.	No

Table 3-5 - Composite International Model of NPM

Derived from: OECD (2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2010)

OECD Definition	
Standard NPM Characteristics	
Defined Characteristics	Qatar's Adoption
Developing authority and thereby providing flexibility	No, strictly hierarchical systems with top-down control
Ensuring performance, control and accountability	Some annual performance measures, hierarchical control but limits on accountability
Developing competition to, and choice in public services	No, though some privatisation
Providing responsive public services	Improving
Improving the management of public sector human resources	HRM systems introduced
Optimising information technology	Yes, committed to e-government
Improving the quality of regulation	Yes
Strengthening steering functions at the centre	Yes

Table 3-6 - Application of American-Style NPM

Derived from: (Osborne and Gaebler 1992)

American Definition	
Osborne and Gaebler's Style of Public Sector management	
Defined Characteristics	Qatar's Adoption
Steer not row	No, constant steering from the top
Empower public communities to solve their own problems rather simply deliver services	No, limited, nominal accountability through elected body
Encourage competition rather than monopolies	No, though some privatisation
Be driven by missions not rules	Rule driven
Be results-oriented	No, but some annual performance measures
Meet the needs of customers not of the bureaucracy	No
Concentrate on earning money than on spending it	No
Invest in preventing problems rather than curing crises	Yes, continual improvement
Decentralize authority	No
Solve problems by influencing market forces rather than creating public programs	No

A taxonomy of Qatar's current administration based on Pollitt and Bouckaert's (2004) five key features is shown in table 3-7.

Table 3-7 - Taxonomy of Qatar's Administration

Partly derived from: (Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004)

Characteristic	Description
Public Sector Type	Traditional Bureaucracy
State Structure	Unitary and Centralised around the Traditional Monarchy
Executive Government	Direct Emiri direction with Ruling Council, Limited Democracy
Minister/Executive Relations	Under the Nomination, Control and Direction of the Emir
Philosophy and Culture of Governance (Administrative Culture)	A public interest system, heavily influenced by Qatari national traditions and the subjected to only limited scrutiny
Diversity of Policy Advice	Emir and Ruling Council with nominal democratisation giving a limited role for societal actors in developing public policy
Legal Framework	Predominance of Law. Unquestioning acceptance normal. Hereditary Head of Government, Constitutional, Codified Dual System based on Shari'a but greatly influenced by Romano-Germanic legal systems and Egyptian Jurisprudence in practice.
Accountability	Strictly Hierarchical
Political Determination	Top Down - with considerable mixing of politics, social position and civil service executive power
Professionalism of Civil Service	Professional civil service, but does not normally rely on technical competence for position. Family and tribal connections important. Qatarisation encourages appointment on nationality rather than talent alone
Distinctiveness	Highly distinctive from private sector

Not all Western societies are the same. Indeed, as Ackroyd (1995) notes the UK was different from continental powers such as Germany and Sweden when one considers relations between the economy and the state. Ackroyd notes that Britain always was a *laissez-faire* economy, substantially unregulated except through the fiscal and monetary policies of central government. In contrast, other European powers are to various degrees 'corporatist' in organisation and outlook, bringing together interests of the state and labour with those of industry. What Qatar did borrow from the newly developed NPM-based reforms was the UK's ideas of privatising what can be privatised, though even more limited in Qatar. This is especially true in the way Qatar has privatised many state industries to still preserve its income from its vast natural resources and then share them with its citizens. The latter concept is greatly important to Qatar. In fact, it was the reason the last Emir took over from his father in 1995. Rentier states gain much of their national income from revenues which come from the outside world to buy the state natural resources. Schwarz (2008) suggests that such natural resource dependence has created weak states in that state formation has not been accompanied by political accountability or

transparency. This researcher disagrees in the case of Qatar, though he recognises this may not be the case in other less stable rentier states in the Gulf and elsewhere.

The answer for Qatar lies in the recent past. Then Qatari citizens saw the Emir and the ruling family having an unfair share of Qatar's wealth. Qatar was not alone. It is a problem faced by other Gulf Arab states and as Schwarz (2008; p.603) notes rentier states like Qatar "*display a particular path to state formation that by and large defies the European path*". While such dates might solve the problem of state income distribution and intrinsic link exists between politics and economics which serve as a strong impediment to Western-style democratic rule (Huntington 1995, Ross 2001).

Qatar has made rapid socio-economic progress since Independence in 1971, and especially since 1995. However, Qatar was and remains, essentially a tribal society which does not see the Western democratic model as either important or applicable to its progress. Societies are arranged on tribal grounds where there are direct routes through the tribe to tribal elders and from there, direct to the Emir and the ruling family. In that sense, Qataris feel that its systems are more democratic than Western states, not less, with every citizen enjoying access to real decision makers of the kind unparalleled in the West. Qatar uses different systems to make people's opinions felt much more quickly and more directly than in the West. They are far from "*autonomous from societal demands do not rely on taxation*" Schwarz (2008; p.599). Qatar has other ways of accommodating societal demands and does so successfully, probably unlike many other rentier states, and certainly since 1995.

Western eyes see states which they perceive as being relatively inaccessible through conventional (i.e. Western) administrative channels (Hertog 2010). Those entities outside the system often seek alternative ways of accessing state resources which involves intermediaries who hold privileged positions. Hertog (2010) notes that past research has aggregated *all* rentier states worldwide without recognising the differences which occur in GCC countries. Hertog prefers the term 'brokerage states' rather than 'rentier'. This leads to a position of rich but relatively in

transparent bureaucracies but only to those ‘outside the system’. States like Qatar, perhaps especially Qatar give local businesses and nationals special privileges which channel state resources through local society. Deliberate state policies, which can be seen on employment laws, create privileged access for Qatari citizens, especially those from the major tribes.

3.3.3 Major Reform in the Structure of Ministries from 2008

By Emiri Order (1) of 2008 the Emir ordered the complete reformation of the Council of Ministers (CoM) affecting almost every existing Ministry and Supreme Council. The Emir appointed new ministers in every state organisation charging them with leading organisational change and improving OCs and attitudes. On October 28, 2008 Emiri Decision (44) of 2008 (GSDP 2008b) approved a new strategic plan, the QNV 2030. This too, was to have major effects on reorganising the civil services in Qatar.

In 2009, Emiri Decree No (16) of 2009 set the terms of reference of the ministries and major reforms to the structure and composition of ministries and SCs. Other new laws affected the structure of the public-sector and its employees. Law No (8) of 2009 became the new employment law which governed the entire civil service. However, it was not until well into the ‘teens’ in the 21st century that people knew the full extent of the changes.

Meanwhile, Emiri Decision (16) of 2009 set out the amended functions for each ministry, while Emiri Decision (28) of 2009 further organised a new CoM. Then followed a series of Emiri Decrees throughout 2009. These set up or significantly reorganised various SCs and ministries. The reforms have since continued right up to the present. This presented major challenges to studying the effects of HRM systems implementation against a constantly shifting background.

As the final ministry structure emerged it became clear that seven SCs and fourteen new, significantly reorganised, or in only a few cases, existing ministries would be created by 2010. Later, around 2012 with large-scale reorganisation still in progress, further major changes became known. After consulting with his academic supervisors, this researcher decided to ‘draw a line’ at this point.

The position at December 2014 was as follows:

Supreme Councils

- A. The Supreme Council for Economic Affairs and Investment;
- B. The Supreme Council for Family Affairs;
- C. The Supreme Council for Health;
- D. The Supreme Council of for the Future Vision of Qatar;
- E. The Supreme Council of Information and Communication Technology;
- F. The Supreme Council of Magistracy;
- G. The Supreme Education Council of Qatar.

Some act as ‘super-ministries’ with direct public responsibilities for service delivery, while others fulfil their functions through subordinate ministries and departments.

Ministries

- 1. Ministry of Awqaf and Islamic Affairs;
- 2. Ministry of Business and Commerce;
- 3. Ministry of Culture, Arts and Heritage;
- 4. Ministry of Economy and Finance;
- 5. Ministry of Education and Higher Education;
- 6. Ministry of Energy and Industry;
- 7. Ministry of Environment;
- 8. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
- 9. Ministry of Justice;
- 10. Ministry of Labour;
- 11. Ministry of Municipality and Urban Planning;
- 12. Ministry of Public Health;
- 13. Ministry of Social Affairs;
- 14. Ministry of the Interior.

In 2015, rumours again began to circulate of further major changes to ministries. The rumours proved to be true. By early 2016, there were eighteen ministries and many other new organs of state. The (new) Emir and the CoM, with oversight by the *Shura* oversees them all.

Ministries by 2016 are:

1. General Secretariat of the Council of Ministers;
2. Ministry of Administrative Development;
3. Ministry of Culture, Arts and Heritage;
4. Ministry of Defence;
5. Ministry of Development Planning and Statistics;
6. Ministry of Economy and Commerce;
7. Ministry of Endowments and Islamic Affairs;
8. Ministry of Energy and Industry;
9. Ministry of Environment;
10. Ministry of Finance;
11. Ministry of Foreign Affairs;
12. Ministry of Information and Communications Technology;
13. Ministry of the Interior;
14. Ministry of Justice;
15. Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs;
16. Ministry of Municipality and Urban Planning;
17. Ministry of Transport;
18. Ministry of Youth and Sports.

The continuing development and expansion of ministries is significant. While Qatar may be a rapidly expanding economy, expansion on the scale and constant change creates lack of stability in governance. It also signals poor forward and strategic planning by the State. The constant need for new ministries within only a few years shows a lack of coordinated thinking. There is another explanation, also; the high use of Qatari nationals because of high birth rates and the need to provide public-sector employment in a rentier estate. Either way, such change is wasteful and clearly unsustainable.

3.4 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

Chapter 3 examined various features of public-sector reform, focusing mainly on Qatar. Section 3.1 introduced the subject of HRM reform, then introduced the reforms that took place after 2008.

It also explained why the researcher hypothesised that public-sector leadership would become a key catalyst during those reforms.

Several reforms of HRM have taken place in Qatar and section 3.2 discusses them, especially those taking place from 1995 onwards. The section examined the various laws and initiatives put in place up to 2007. These included a National Action Plan and a Labour Market Strategy. Other initiatives included the CBI. In 2007, the Planning Commission launched the expected root-and-branch reform of people management systems which the first research project anticipated. Qatar views issues of equality and diversity in Qatar differently from the same issues in the West. The West also widely misunderstands their implications, especially when it comes to gender equality. These are areas this researcher hypothesised would be treated differently from their theoretical basis in the West. Therefore, the chapter discusses them in detail. The section then explores Qatar's HR reforms which took place after 2007, examining a presentation given in 2008 of the likely shape of HRM in Qatar's ministries. As anticipated, reforms of these services were based on Western models.

Shortly after HRM initiatives, Qatar announced a widespread reform of governance which went well beyond HRM and changed the entire landscape of this research project. Section 3.3 discussed Arab public service management and comparative public service reforms in the West, including the NPM. Because Qatar became involved in good governance issues led by the OECD which bore strong resemblance to Western reforms, the section examined NPM in both Western and Qatari contexts. One feature of Qatar's reforms had a major effect on the conduct of this research. The original research project had the eleven existing ministries as its projected research environment. In 2009 the Emir put into law, reforms first announced in 2008, which abolished ten of the eleven ministries and put in place fourteen different ministries and several SCs. The section details these changes. The section also notes that after the State appointed a new Emir in 2013, further public-sector reforms took place. By 2016, the Government announced a structure of eighteen new or existing ministries. The continuing development and expansion of ministries in Qatar is significant. One explanation is that it signals a possible lack of stability and public

systems. Another explanation suggests poor forward and strategic planning by Qatar. A third reason is different and may be linked to Qatar's surging population. Qatar is a rentier state which to preserve stability uses various ways to share the country's massive oil and gas income to its citizens. The public services employ a high percentage of working Qataris and one means of wealth distribution is through rewarding its employees with excellent wages and working conditions.

3.5 THE NEXT CHAPTER

Chapter 4 describes the research methodology used to conduct this research and collect empirical data in Qatar's ministries. Analysis takes the form of advanced SEM. The chapter also discusses this researcher selected SEM in preference to other statistical analysis methods and what SEM adds to the analysis over descriptive statistics normally used in an exploratory methodology.

Chapter 4 - Research and Data Analysis Methods

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter examines the research methodology and statistical analysis methods used in this work. It evaluates the difficulties of data analysis and describes the statistical methods this researcher finally adopted.

4.2 CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH METHODS

The primary aim of this research project is to show whether introducing new HRM practices developed in a Western cultural setting are suitable in a different cultural setting. Even without the extra difficulties, understanding cause-and-effect of any feature of organisational management in any large organisation is always difficult.

Table 4-1 - Cross-Cultural Comparisons at mid-1990s

Derived from Sackmann and Phillips (2004; p.373)

Key issues	Cross National Comparison	
Context driving emergence	Economic Forces	• rise of multinational corporations - focus: how to conduct business in other countries
		• Good management recognised as a means of economic development
	Research drivers	• US/Anglo-Saxon practices = model for other nations
		• Globalisation
Theories	Assumptions and Frameworks	• Rise of comparative management
		• [No] Universal definition of culture
		• Management research was mainly Western
		• Nation state = culture
Research focus	Questions	• Cultural identity: single, monolithic, unchanging, with individual characteristics
		• Convergence two universal cultures
		• Search for universally applicable dimensions
		• How do managerial attitudes and behaviours differ across cultures?
		• How do national cultural differences affect individual, group and organisational performance?
		• What are the effects of cultural differences?

By the mid-1990s, three major streams developed in management- related cross-cultural research. (Boyacigiller, et al. 1996; pp.102,117,134, Sackmann and Phillips 2004). Chapter 1 named them as 'cross-cultural', 'trans-cultural', and 'diversity'-'multicultural'. Researchers based each stream on distinct concepts of culture and each in context. For extra clarity, this project

uses two terms for the third stream 'diversity' and 'multiculturalism'. Diversity is about multiple cultures within an organisation, whereas multiculturalism is about multiple cultures within a society. Table 4-1 shows the contextual influences when shaping cross-national research.

The massive changes taking place in Qatar's public services after the start of this project would create massive noise in the data. This noise further exaggerated the difficulties of isolating effects created by introducing new HRM systems which related only to cultural factors, because of substantially increased noise in the data. Instead of effects caused by HRM, it was also necessary to also isolate those caused by the change process (see 4.4.1). To lay bare cultural reasons, the researcher had to disentangle several threads. Thus, while research was exploratory, it still had to remain theoretically and methodologically rigorous, and relevant in practice.

4.3 RESEARCH AIM

To evaluate if government ministries in Qatar can use principally Western HRM theory and practice to manage employees successfully while still allowing them to preserve and strengthen Arab and Islamic values and identity.

4.4 CHANGES TO THE RESEARCH ENVIRONMENT

4.4.1 Major Reforms and Their Effect on Research Methodology

Following announcements in 2008, those massive and previously unsignalled changes described in previous chapters took place in Qatar's public services. By March 2008 this researcher had collected only partial data. He abandoned further data collection but continued to follow changes in each ministry and expanded desk-based research.

These and constant changes throughout the remaining period of research created huge difficulties meeting the project aim. Instead of addressing this aim directly, this researcher also needed to isolate changes caused by the change process itself and more especially, new leadership in every ministry. Other factors meant separating potential causes of any effects seen from changes due

to implementation of HRM and effects of culture. This was further complicated because most change and leadership theory is also culturally bound.

An early evaluation showed wider public-sector reforms was likely to affect results. Leadership, change, HRM and cultural theories all suggested ministers and senior executives would all have a significant effect on the character of their ministry, though their extent and variation were unknown. Some ministries underwent more reforms after those which took place in 2008-2010, sometimes more than once. This researcher finally drew a line under most field research in late 2013 when reforms appeared to reach a briefly plateau. By then, all ministries were at different stages of maturity. Some ministries had an almost-settled corporate culture and systems of working while others had not. Reorganised and broken-up ministries inherited some of their old corporate culture and systems and the Emir charged them with developing new ones. Entirely new ministries had a largely unformed corporate culture and new systems. Far from 'comparing like with like', this researcher had to consider many extra issues

4.4.2 Evaluating New Research Methods

Only the Ministry 1 (M01) escaped almost unscathed from being part of the 2008 reorganisation. One possible strategy was to use M01 as a control group in a classic experimental design (Bryman, 2008; pp.35-37, Saunders et al, 2007; pp.136-37). However, it was clear M01's organisational structure was exceptional. The nature of M01, meant the ministry organised many of its personnel along military lines and did not use HRM systems common to other ministries. This made M01 fundamentally different and so did not form a representative control group. This researcher thus rejected an experimental strategy as a means of removing the noise from change programmes.

Potentially, the researcher could have surveyed fewer than fourteen ministries. However, after analysing detailed histories for each ministry, each had such different histories that identifying 'typical' ministries were difficult. Thus, the researcher also rejected a case study approach (Bryman, 2008; pp.52-57, Saunders et al, 2007; pp.139-40).

The original research strategy, drawn from a deductive approach, was to carry out surveys gathering empirical data in each ministry. Now, instead of comparing one mature system with another, the problem was different. Research had to compare HRM in largely stable, slowly evolving systems of public service in the West with introducing HRM into reformed ministries, most at different stages of development. On one hand, there were variations of organisational behaviour between different ministries. On the other, there were hypothesised variations of behaviour towards HRM systems in the West and in Qatar. While not abandoned, this researcher had then to adopt methods capable of distinguishing between effects of recent major leadership changes and of new HRM practice using a series of progressive filters to isolate the substantive issues. The researcher considered various alternatives with the aim of significantly reducing or removing the excessive noise in the data from each ministry. Yet, while surveys alone could not remove noise, collecting empirical data remained central to the research.

This researcher had somehow to be remove 'noise' produced by the reorganisation. This meant taking all new factors out of every ministry and leaving the common essence of public administration in Qatar. To add to the problems, a further reorganisation of ministries, the Emir announced he would create two more in 2009. Reforms would begin in April 2009. The problem now faced was data collection within reorganised systems in each ministry. The practical limits of the project only allowed for research among senior managers and ministers who knew the extent of the reforms and their effects. This researcher could no longer collect data from the mass of employees who knew little. Yet data collection on as large a scale as possible remained necessary to evaluate effects of the changes on organisational behaviour in its various forms. Further analysis of the problem showed, with project resources, too many variables needed analysis if research had not to extend beyond reasonable time limits. The researcher re-evaluated the problem yet again. He then recognised that he could remove one significant variable – that of internal national cultural differences in executive groups. All ministers and senior executives were Qataris.

Preceding chapters described how leadership has a significant effect on both HRM implementation and major change programmes (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.698). This researcher judged it would be too difficult to separate leadership effects over recent changes from those on HRM reforms. While limited studies of leadership effects in the region exist, few involve Qatar. Their scope, age and scale made them of little value in this study with one important exception, the GLOBE study (Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004a).

4.4.3 Development of the Research Objectives

Major new reforms called for redevelopment of the original research objectives. Preliminary investigation after reform showed some ministries were made up from various existing departments. These brought with them existing practices and remnants of other corporate cultures.

At the start of research, although HRM was apparently a professional discipline in ministries, few if any senior ‘people managers’ had professionally education or training in HRM techniques. Without the foundation of professional training, interpretation of new rules and accompanying HRM potentially varied from one ministry to another. Thus, it became necessary to define precisely which HRM practices are present in each ministry. The guiding mind behind HR practice in each ministry, normally the fourteen HR directors, was the source of this information.

Nor was it possible to discover in advance what allowances for cultural practices HR directors made in each ministry. On one hand, it was possible heritage practices evolved over time adapted to cultural norms. It was equally possible HR directors would use reorganisation and the new national vision to rethink HRM practices. Research needed to identify those allowances consciously made in HRM practices for cultural reasons in each ministry.

NC apart, previously described theory suggests leadership and management styles will have a significant effect on corporate culture when adopting and applying HRM policies in each ministry (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007). Social anthropologists suggest each national group reacts differently to authority and leadership (Hofstede 1980). Arab countries have a markedly

different power-distance relationship to that found in most Western cultures (Al-Suwaidi 2008, Hofstede and Hofstede 2005; p.43, Kalantari 2005, Smith, et al. 2007). Beekun and Badawi (1999) note there is a definite Islamic content in leadership style. Also, research suggests leaders have a significant impact on OC (Asree, et al. 2010, Schein 1992, 2010) which may vary with NC (Al-Emadi and Al-Asmakh 2006, Dedoussis 2004, Hofstede 1998) or during change (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006). Thus, identifying leadership and management styles in the research population became important.

After isolating these issues, the next problem was how to evaluate overall effects of culture on new HRM practices of each ministry. The research must show whether the effects were the result of OC, leadership or other change factors. Alternatively, could one assign them to NC. Useful signals are those differences between ‘observed’ and ‘desired’ effects expressed by respondents. House et al (1999) analysed them as “*as is*” and “*should be*” culture (Chhokar, et al. 2008; p.4). The difference or ‘gap’ shows the direction in which leaders change the organisation. It is a strong indicator of the wish to preserve and strengthen Arab and Islamic values and identity expressed in the QNV 2030 (GSDP 2008b) or whether other motivations are to work.

4.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This researcher finalised changed research objectives based the issues described in the preceding section as follows:

1. To identify specific HRM practices introduced into each ministry.
2. To identify whether the HR Director (or other directing mind) in any ministry has deliberately modified HR practices to account for cultural differences.
3. To establish the leadership and management styles present in senior executives in each ministry.
4. To establish the effects of new HRM practices in each ministry from a senior management perspective.
5. To evaluate those effects caused by local organisational, management and leadership styles and show if they are predictable from general HRM, cultural, leadership and change management theories.

6. To isolate the extent of effects or problems that new HRM practices have had on each ministry from an NC perspective by separating them from effects of other changes happening in each ministry.
7. To analyse if the direction of organisational and HR development sets up conflicts between HRM theory and national aims of preserving and strengthening Arab and Islamic values and identity in public service organisations.

4.6 METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

4.6.1 Re-evaluating the Research Strategy

Saunders et al (2007: 135) describes the need for a clear research strategy. However, Bryman (2008) notes the difficulty in characterising the nature of the link between theory and research and describes it as "*by no means a straightforward matter*" (2008: 6).

In this case, recent changes in Qatari ministries imposed further major complexities which created many new variables. This needed a significant re-evaluation of the original research strategy and methodological choice suggesting a mixed-methods research design and an explanatory study.

4.6.2 Exploratory Studies

Saunders et al. (2016) define exploratory research as "*Research focuses on studying a situation or a problem to explain the relationship between variables*" (2016; p.716).

Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss (1967) began to explore concepts of grounded theory in a seminal work. Their work also laid the foundations of the guiding structure for explanatory studies. Glaser (1978), John Tukey (1977, 1980), Mallows and Tukey (1982) and Lofland and Lofland (1995) later expanded them.

Fig. 1-3 earlier arises from methods first described by Tukey (1977; p.23). Theoretical insights and exploration past data produce research questions and objectives. Qualitative and semi-qualitative information obtained by exploration of past data normally guides the overall design. This researcher gathered information by exploring and evaluating accepted literature on the

theory of various subjects previously identified in this chapter. Semi-qualitative data on culture came from Hofstede's work (1980, 1984, 1985, Hofstede and Hofstede 2005) and from the GLOBE study (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Ashkanasy, et al. 2002, House, et al. 2004a, Javidan and House 2002). Tukey notes such research "*Does not begin with a tidy question. Nor does it end with a tidy answer*" (1997; p.24). Tukey (1997) further notes exploratory data mainly uses descriptive statistics for analysis.

Exploratory studies form a valuable way to ask open questions to discover what is happening and gain insights about the topic of interest (Saunders, et al. 2016; p.174). Saunders et al. suggest the advantage of exploratory research that is flexible and adaptable to change and allows further changes of direction when new data or information appears during this study. Further advantages become clear when there are few earlier studies available (Robertson, et al. 2002). The method can include a search of the literature, interviewing experts, and conducting in-depth interviews (2016; p.175). This researcher incorporated each of these in this research.

By its nature, the qualitative element of this research examined the multiple 'theories' shown in both Chapters 1 and 2. These include HRM, cross-cultural theories, OC, leadership and change theories. None are '*grand theories*' but rather '*theories of the middle range*' (Merton 1967). Merton (1967; p.39) suggests that using *middle range theories* is more suitable than *grand theories* because they are less remote and give far better correlation between empirical results and observations.

Disadvantages of using exploratory methods include that results are non-generalisable, especially when there are small populations or sample sizes. In this case, the research environment dictated this. This results in an inability to arrive at definitive conclusions on the findings. Even when research design lacks the normal rigorous standards of both data gathering and analysis required by research theory, findings may still point the way to future research methods. The focus of the research aim normally narrows as research advances (Saunders, et al. 2016; p.165). So, while

exploratory research is often unstructured, this researcher believed if he followed good research practice the more valuable findings would be.

4.6.3 Reliability and Validity of Data

At the heart of the credibility of new research findings are issues of reliability and validity of data (Saunders *et al*, 2007; p.149). Reliability is about the extent to which data collection and analysis yields findings which are consistent. In normal circumstances, one may assess reliability based on three criteria:

1. Will any measurements always yield the same results?
2. Will other observers performing the same study make similar observations? and
3. Is there transparency in which senses made from the raw data?

These issues posed problems for this researcher. The first problem was that this researcher was compelled by circumstances to take measurements while the organisations were in the process of active change and reform. This goes to the heart of points (1) and (2) above. Second, is the issue of culture. OC and NC in Qatar and other Arab countries often means respondents do not answer questions honestly or factually. This leads to response bias (Baron-Epel, et al. 2010). Such response bias is well documented (Saunders, et al. 2007; p.150, Stoddard 2010)

The respondents who took part in this study could potentially have provided biased answers for other reasons. Paulhus (1991) suggests the following:

- a) They are naturally polite and respectful people, who prefer to avoid any type of argument or social risk-taking, so they provide responses which they think will gratify the researcher;
- b) They perceive themselves to be of lower educational and/or social status than the researcher, and so they defer to authority by endorsing what they think the researcher believes to be true;

- c) They do not respond to the items according to their own individual perceptions, but follow the collective perceptions of their own group or culture; and
- d) They are too busy, distracted, or bored to provide responses that reflect their own individual knowledge, experience, or beliefs.

Response bias can be controlled by interspersing questionnaires with items specifically designed to measure it. However, one could infer bias in other ways as shown in the previous paragraph. The standard solution to acquiescent response bias is to incorporate items to have negate counterparts. For example, the item 'I believe this Ministry is in a good position to achieve its stated goals' could have the counterpart 'I believe this Ministry is not in a good position to achieve its stated goals'. Analysts can then eliminate respondents who always strongly agree or strongly disagree with pairs of conflicting items. This avoids contaminating the results with distorted data (Paulhus 1991). Previous researchers have developed several short scales to measure other types of response bias (e.g., social desirability) consisting of items that can be added to any questionnaire (Barger 2002, Hilbert 2012, Holtgraves 2004).

However, the inherent lengths of Questionnaire A (QA) led to practical limits on how many questions one could ask. Instead this researcher paid careful attention to wording questions which either, by using theoretical models or by cross-referencing with other questions, performed the same role.

Validity is about whether findings are what they seem and whether causal relationships are what appear to be (Saunders et al, 2007; p.150). Methods of statistical analysis specifically address major types of validity; construct validity, criterion related validity, face validity, formative validity and sampling validity (Allen and Yen 2002).

4.7 THE RESEARCH POPULATION

The research population consists of all fourteen civil service organisations named ‘Ministry’. The population did not include any other public-sector organisation and excluded SCs or government agencies even if they performed some functions normally associated with ministries.

4.7.1 The Sampling Frame

The researcher faced two major choices; either random sampling across the whole research population or convenience sampling from a particular class of civil servant (Bryman 2008; pp.165 & 182). This researcher rejected the first; random sampling on four major grounds:

1. He knows from extensive experience in Qatar’s public service that most public servants, especially junior ones, are extremely unwilling to answer surveys which may appear to criticise superiors.
2. Culturally-based response bias.
3. The need to sign survey forms, even when assurance is given over anonymity and confidentiality, normally result in unacceptably low levels of return.
4. Few randomly selected employees, especially at an early stage of change, have enough knowledge of developments in their ministry to give significant answers.

4.7.2 Cohorts for Each Survey Instrument

The researcher adopted two separate cohorts; one for each survey instrument. The first cohort comprised all fourteen HR directors from each ministry. Here this researcher collected data using a fully structured interview based on Questionnaire A (Appendix 2).

The researcher used a convenience sampling method with the sampling frame of 100% of 280 senior managers and executives in every ministry from the deputy head of major departments up to all ministers.

4.7.3 Sample Size

Sample size is normally an important consideration in confirmatory research when using statistical analysis methods on continuous, binary or categorical data (Bell, et al. 2010, Calkins 2005, Liu and Agresti 2005, Strauss, et al. 2002). In this research, the number of ministries limited the first group addressed by QA with 100% sampling

Questionnaire B (QB) was more problematic. Ministries varied greatly in size, especially during early stages of reorganisation. This researcher recognised that convenience sampling, if chosen carried with it problems of sample size. Given the total of two-hundred and eighty senior executives, even if spread evenly across all ministries, would give a sample size of just twenty for each ministry – below the number normally considered statistically significant (Calkins 2005). They were not evenly spread with executive group sizes ranging from eight to fifty-two, complicating the issue further.

The standard solution for confirmatory research is increasing sample sizes. Had this researcher been dealing with mature ministries this would be straightforward. Here, this researcher considered that extending sample size beyond the executive group carried excessive risks of response bias, unreliable data and lack of respondents' knowledge. The smaller group size became 'the lesser of two evils' and sample size restricted to defined executive groups. The implications of this on data analysis methods and results are described in detail in the next chapter. Difficulties with sample sizes for both questionnaires further confirmed the need to use an exploratory research methodology.

4.8 HR IN QATAR'S MINISTRIES

After wide-scale government reforms described earlier, the content and composition of HRM systems in each of Qatar's ministries was unclear. Without this information, the primary purpose of this research could not be undertaken. This researcher administered Questionnaire A (Appendix 2) to remedy this.

By design. Questionnaire A (QA) investigated the whole range of possible components of the HRM systems. QA formed the basis of a structured interview process administered to the whole research population which consisted of all HRDs appointed for each ministry. In two cases, there was no internal (ministry) HRD. Instead, Supreme Council responsible for the ministry employed the director. In every case, whatever the job title, this researcher interviewed the 'guiding mind' behind HR systems.

Questionnaire B mainly addressed the results of HRM practices from executive managers' perspectives. It also explored harmonisation between executives' tactical and strategic expectations of the HRM system (in QB) and how HRDs saw the same issues in QA.

4.9 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

4.9.1 Questionnaire A

QA (Appendix 2) contained three important sections. The first tested the professionalism and training of the guiding mind. The second tested in detail which HR systems each ministry put in place. The third showed what changes HR directors deliberately made to allow for cultural differences between HRM theory and Qatari practice.

QA mainly aimed to identify detailed people management systems used in each ministry. Before collecting this, QA gathered other information to identify personal characteristics and motivations of the HRD in his or her role as 'guiding mind', and other driving forces behind the reforms. These included the influence of the senior executive team and the minister. Other issues were:

- 'Professionalism' of the HR Director;
- 'Awareness' of the need to link state, organisational and HR strategies;
- 'Sources of HR theory and practice' from which each ministry had derived its detailed management systems;
- External 'Sources of Influence' such as government policies and initiatives, or external trainers and consultants;

- ‘Cultural influences’ the HRD actively considered when designing HRM systems;
- ‘When and how’ HR directors initiated reforms.

This researcher designed QA around standard Western HR theory and practice described in Chapters 1 and 2. He anticipated HR directors might ask for definitions of any terms contained in the questionnaire. After evaluating various standard sources, this researcher selected Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice (2009) as comprehensively representing current Western practice.

In line with the research approach described earlier, QA aimed to collect factual data. Where the research wanted opinions, QA used a seven-point Likert scale. Elsewhere, QA used binary questions, except for length of service.

The researcher first designed QA (and QB) in English to most closely match HR theory; then translated it into Arabic. The researcher then piloted the translation among other managers in various ministries and private-sector organisations to ensure that questions lost no meaning in translation and its meaning was clear. The researcher achieved this by conducting a series of pilot studies. By design, only one HRD in a single ministry took part in both the pilot studies and survey.

4.9.1.1 Contents: QA

‘Professionalism’: Questions Q1, Q2, Q3 explored the background of the HR Director (HRD). From his own direct experience as a senior executive civil servant, this researcher knew many HRDs had no professional training in HRM. Often HRDs were generalist ‘managers’ who had moved from one discipline into HRM. These are 'Generalist' Directors (GDs). The researcher classified any director who had fulfilled no other function within the ministry other than people management as a ‘HR Professional’ Director (HRP). The researcher made no value judgement about HRPs’ qualifications, training or whether they practiced PM and HRM. QA made the distinction between GDs and HRPs to see if later analysis could distinguish between the two.

The researcher wanted to find if an HRD with professional specialised training in HRM (by university degree for example) would approach HRM management differently.

‘Awareness’: Q4, Q5, Q6 examined whether an individual HRD was aware of the full reforms to improve both governance and HRM systems. The researcher designed Q6 to show the HRD’s real targets when developing HRM systems. In other words, Q6 tested perceived linkages between good governance, HRM, and HRD professionalism and if HRDs made ‘across the board improvements’ or focusing on particular areas. This would then show individual HRD’s knowledge of professional HRM systems and the extent to which they thought tactically or strategically.

‘Details of Systems’: Q7, Q8 sought to establish specific HR systems in place. These questions also tested knowledge and professionalism of the directing mind. Q8 was more specific. Each ‘functional area’ of HRM has a series of ‘components’. Q8A distinguishes between policies and practice and tested which policies the HRD published and set up as a universal standard system. Thus, Q7 & Q8 enabled a more accurate comparison of people management systems between Ministries.

‘Sources of Theory and Practice’: Q9 questions the source of HRM systems. Q9 informs how uniformly HR systems spread knowledge throughout the ministries. Taken together, Q9 signals how much professionalism is present; how much HRDs are simply doing what ministers tell them to do and whether if present, ministries impose ‘Western influences’ centrally or from other sources.

‘Other Influences’: This researcher designed Q10 to show how much influence major government initiatives have had or are likely to have. Q10 group questions indicate how these major influences are working, and how uniformly HRM spreads practices across different ministries.

‘The Influence of Culture’: Q11 group of questions assumed HR systems is made up of many practices designed from the HRD’s knowledge or which came from legacy systems. Q11A

explores the reluctance or enthusiasm for applying the big initiatives, and 'cultural resistance'. Q11B & 11C reports issues causing HRDs problems. Q11D & 11E reports an HRD's active resistance to cultural forms. Q11F reports how much HRDs actively consider cultural issues in areas where there is less conflict of ideas. All Group 11 questions will together show HRD's deliberate resistance to Western influence.

'*When and How*': Q12 gives information about the potential conflict between culture, new ideas, official directives and laws, and showing enthusiasm for change.

4.9.1.2 Data Collection: Questionnaire A

Data collection took the form of structured interviewing by this researcher (Bryman 2008; p.200). Although individual questions were straightforward, the nature of the responses meant moving from one section of the questionnaire to another in certain places. This added complexity was best resolved by the interviewer guiding the interviewee through the questionnaire. The researcher provided each interviewee with a copy of Questionnaire A in Arabic, a day in advance to allow him to familiarise himself with the questions asked. The researcher encapsulated the questionnaire to prevent completion. Each questionnaire introduced the research and its rationale in writing. Any interviewee could ask questions about any one of the answers required in the questionnaire, or ask the interviewer to explain what terms meant. The researcher carried a copy of Armstrong's Handbook to ensure uniformity of prompts (2008: p207). However, none of the interviewees needed explanations from Armstrong's Handbook.

4.9.2 Questionnaire B

Questionnaire B (QB) (Appendix 3) aimed to draw responses from executive teams from each ministry. Executive teams in this case included ministers and deputy ministers. Its overriding purpose was to test the effects of HRM systems on the organisation from the management perspective. HRM theory suggests that management and leadership attitudes have a major organisational effect (Armstrong 2009; p.340). Organisational theory makes similar claims (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.695).

4.9.2.1 Contents: Questionnaire B

The researcher divided QB (Appendix 3) into several sections. The first section (Q1), tests why executives believed why HR directors had put HRM systems in place. This was important as a potential determinant of attitude in any environment where the cultural norm is to put in place systems simply because the Emir orders ministries to do.

The next section (Q2-Q4) tests how well executives believe HRM systems were working when interviewed. Q5 examines the relationship between HRM and the ministry's corporate strategy. The next section (Q6) tests how respondents would like systems to be. This follows principles created in the GLOBE survey. The purpose of this section is to examine in which potential directions executives may drive the organisation and if they saw the essential connection between HRM and organisational strategy. The fourth section (Q7) asks respondents to describe their own leadership and management styles. This researcher uses well-developed HRM and organisational theories to identify then remove effects of leadership style on the organisation. Finally, the questionnaire asked about informational (Q8) and organisational factors (Q9). The researcher uses these to inform the analysis and allow exclusion of some factors from the data.

4.9.2.2 Data Collection: Questionnaire B

The second cohort consisted of one hundred percent of senior managers and executives including HR directors totalling 280. For this cohort, the research used the self-administered Questionnaire B (Appendix 3). The researcher made an exception for ministers. Local etiquette demanded the researcher was present in person while he or she completed the questionnaire.

4.10 DATA ANALYSIS

4.10.1 The Data

Further scrutiny of the problem showed there were too many variables for analysis with available resources if the research stayed in realistic limits. Instead, this researcher adopted a multilevel data filtration process. Using it, this analysis would progressively remove 'noise' in the data. This would leave cross-cultural and HRM effects exposed. However, there was always one

variable too many no matter how he approached the analysis. As described earlier in this chapter, to solve this problem, the researcher could remove only one variable - the NC of respondents; common among all senior managers.

Leadership has a significant effect on both HRM implementation and major change programmes (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; p.698). Each major study under GLOBE (Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004a) gives a detailed analysis of the effects of leadership on the organisations worldwide. Detailed research methods and data sets, including work by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001a) in Qatar were available for secondary analysis (Bryman 2008; pp.296-97). Unfortunately, despite several attempts, the researcher could not access GLOBE original core datasets. Thus, this researcher had to rely on GLOBE's own analysis, while recognising identified weaknesses of using secondary data (Bryman 2008; p.49, Saunders, et al. 2007; pp.251-52).

Results from the GLOBE study, with other peer-reviewed papers on culture-specific leadership and its effects, allow elimination of various features of organisational behaviour from the new findings. This researcher used principles of secondary analysis to isolate causal influences of leadership from the influence of new HRM practices reducing noise significantly. Similarly, he analysed differences between the predicted results of installing HRM systems in a Western setting and the actual results in Qatar mainly because of the change process. Early analysis showed that leadership, rather than change itself was a key factor. Leadership theory became a key component.

Without an even more detailed critical analysis of GLOBE against other leadership theories than appears in this chapter, results are bound into a single GLOBE-developed type of leadership. Richard House who led the GLOBE project was a notable leadership theorist (House 1971, 1977, 1995). However, the research paradigm adopted by House was only one of many, leaving findings in question.

Repeated filtering will leave mainly cross-cultural effects exposed. A further cross check against the main body of identified cross-cultural literature will confirm them as expected results. Any unexpected results will receive further analysis which will either remove them or confirm they have cross-cultural causes. Finally, removal of leadership effects identified by the GLOBE study and other theorists which will give preliminary results. These will point to the likely strength of effects of culture on any newly installed HRM systems on which to build later studies.

The complexity of the data meant that this researcher had to choose statistical analysis software carefully. After extensive testing, the researcher rejected SPSS as unsuitable for the survey information collected. Then, he tested 'R' and Stata extensively. The researcher decided Stata was the better alternative. However, further prolonged evaluation of Stata, including Stata's own SEM module. The researcher decided this too was less than ideal for the complexity of the project and difficulties caused by the research model of the time. Eventually, after much testing, newly developed Smart-PLS capability of Partial Squares SEM, software proved more able perform advanced analysis than Stata's SEM module. Final analysis used SEM to produce reported results.

4.10.2 Choice of Data Analysis Methods

Analysing these data proved to be the most stubborn problem faced in this study because of the difficulty of using standard methods of analysis (see table 4-3). Hofstede (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005) and GLOBE (Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004a) provided descriptive statistics for the datasets (Appendixes 6-8). These proved of limited value compared to full statistical analysis. Considerable noise in the data, caused by recent reorganisations and changes of leadership, made it worse to provide such analysis, despite much effort. Also, the data structure (table 4-2), which is mostly categorical data, either binary, or in datasets for QB, by ordered categorical (ordinal) data drawn from Likert scales. One cannot deal with these data, although seemingly numeric in format, either as numerical data or by methods designed for use with unordered categorical (nominal) data (Agresti 2007; p.3, Clason and Dormody 1990, Jamieson 2004).

To properly analyse the data and achieve the necessary results usually involved merging various datasets although the researcher could analyse some by themselves. Most analysis used the QA and QB merged dataset. However, to analyse cultural effects meant variously merging three GLOBE datasets with QA and QB or alternatively the Hofstede (1984) dataset with QA and QB. Several datasets, especially QB, contain mainly latent variables. Latent variables are those which have content like attitudes or opinions which “*in principle or practice cannot be observed*” (Bartholomew 1996; p.12) or measured. Otherwise referred to as ‘factors’; latent variables introduce extra problems and using different statistical modelling techniques.

There are different sample sizes between GLOBE (Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004a) and Hofstede (1984). In Hofstede’s study Gulf states and Egypt were combined and referred to as ‘Arab countries’. The GLOBE study involved analysis of separate states, including a specific study of Qatar. Both GLOBE and Hofstede analysed many countries. The researcher extracted datasets from GLOBE and Hofstede to combine selected Arab states with target Western states. Those chosen from each are from largely culturally comparable states.

Table 4-2 - Description of the Datasets

Dataset	Origin	Description of Data	Description of Sample	Sample Size
QA	Survey Results	Binary	Factual from Human Resource Director	
QB	Survey Results	Continuous, Binary and [mainly] Categorical from 7-Point Likert Scale	Executives in All Ministries above Certain Rank – Mainly Latent Data	
GL_Practices	GLOBE Study of 62 Countries	Continuous: derived from mainly Categorical Sources	Compiled from Results of Studies described in Books and Journal – No access to source data	12 [Target Countries]
GL_Values	-- As above --	-- As above --	-- As above --	
GL_CLT	-- As above --	-- As above --	-- As above --	
Hofstede	Hofstede study of 84 Countries	Continuous: derived from Statistical Analysis – mixed sources & methods	-- As above --	

The immediate effect is the researcher could use the most powerful range of statistical analysis tools which apply to normally-distributed numeric data. Instead, available data collection methods compelled the researcher to use non-parametric analysis methods. These give less clear results and are more difficult to interpret (see table 4-3). Other datasets, drawn from the GLOBE

(House, et al. 2004a) study and from work by Hofstede (1984) are just as problematic. While numeric in form, once again, they take data from ordinal responses which are mostly latent.

However, the biggest problem was how to distinguish between reorganisation effects, leadership changes and effects of introducing new HRM systems - the principal aim of this research. Even while the researcher collected data, the Emir proposed further major changes to the ministries, if not during then within weeks of the survey date.

Table 4-3 - Statistical Methods Trialled

Method	Software Engine	Reason for Choice	Description of problems
Standard non-parametric methods including limited multiple regression, cluster analysis	R/Stata	The 'safe' approach using well-trying 'standard' non-parametric methods of OLS. After considerable time spent trialling this method it was abandoned	Difficulty in modelling these data in combined datasets to remove noise. Method abandoned
Multilevel Analysis or alternatively Generalised Linear Latent and Mixed Models (GLLMM) analysis	R/Stata	These data are multilevel because they model individuals, ministries, and States. Standard errors and tests are suspect because the assumption of independent residuals is invalid. Multilevel analysis is a suitable approach to take into account social contexts as well as individual respondents or subjects (Snijders and Bosker 2012). GLLMM suitability for clustered, non-parametric and multilevel data sets and models with (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2008, Zheng and Rabe-Hesketh 2007)	These methods offered considerable promise but was abandoned at the advice of the Supervision Team.
Logistic Regression and Ordered Logistic Regression	R/Stata	Internal Advice	This method proved highly problematic because of incorrect assumptions about these data, sample sizes, latent variables, assumptions of independent residuals is invalid, statistical analysis unworkable because of the large quantity of output generated. Method abandoned
Factor Analysis	Stata	Method used in GLOBE and similar studies.	Workable method which significantly reduced analysis but uncertain if it would remove noise from data.
		This method is capable of significantly reducing the amount of data analysis (Agresti 2007, Heeringa, <i>et al.</i> 2010, Liu and Agresti 2005).	Method abandoned in favour of SEM
Structured Equation Modelling	Stata	More advanced method than Factor Analysis.	Highly promising but significant learning curve over previous Stata techniques
		It encompasses a broad array of models from linear regression to measurement models to simultaneous equations, including along the way confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), correlated uniqueness models, latent growth models, and multiple indicators and multiple causes (MIMIC).	Alternative software found to significantly reduce time and learning curve.
Partial least squares SEM	SmartPLS	See below for detailed discussion	Satisfactory results produced

This researcher explored in advance several possible data analysis methods at length (table 4-3) by reading and experimentation. These studies were largely inconclusive within the time available and because of fluidity of the position caused by continuing reforms. The urgency that further reforms imposed meant the researcher could not risk further changes halfway through the survey. This imposed more problems because this researcher could not choose a firm analysis model before data collection. Though various methods of approach and analysis were available, this researcher judged none could produce definitive results with any certainty. None of the simpler or more standard approaches could identify connections between culture, leadership, change, and introducing new HRM systems.

4.11 RESEARCH DESIGN AND SEM

After the great difficulties experienced with other data analysis methods the final step needed for exploratory analysis was for this researcher to confirm that SEM was the right approach. It was also necessary to confirm if Stata or more specialised SEM software would best inform the analysis.

4.11.1 Why SEM?

Researchers face special problems when faced with certain types of data which inhibit the use of conventional regression analysis (Leik 1976). This may occur for example when data it may not be up to the standards of interval-or ratio scale measurement. Or it may be what Leik (1976) describes as “*less stringent data*” when trying to work from traditional approaches to ordinal and nominal association. This is the case when applied to multivariate causal models when the researcher tries to incorporate assumptions of process models to causal data to interpret it. Much of the data collected in QB was non-measurable, latent data drawn from Likert scales. Treating such data as continuous outcomes in factor analysis violates assumptions of multivariate normality (Lubke and Muth En 2004, Magidson and Vermunt 2001). This substantially distorts factor structures differently across different groups or classes of data. Thus, while traditional

factor analysis offers data reduction, practice severely limits it. Magidson and Vermunt (2001; pp.373-74) list four reasons for these limitations:

1. The requirement for all variables to be continuous;
2. An assumption of multivariate normality to justify a linear model;
3. An assumption the underlying latent variables (LVs) (factors) are measured using an interval ratio scale;
4. Results are generally not unique because users must select from several possible rotations, each of which gives a different result.

Researchers often use factor analysis with variables of other scalable types. These include dichotomous, nominal, ordinal account variables. This researcher notes the GLOBE project used factor analysis as one of the principal methods of analysis (Chhokar, et al. 2007; pp.15-30 & 1002-03). Researchers and statistical analysts use various solutions, when dealing with latent data, as alternatives to factor analysis including SEM (Bollen and Bauldry 2012). Factor analysis, included as a special case in SEM, provides for testing models of relationships between latent and measured variables (MVs) (MacCallum and Austin 2000). They note the popular misconception that SEM applies only to observational studies and not to experimental studies because experimental studies often include categorical independent variables. Here, the data appears to violate assumption of multivariate normality need not apply to exogeneous MVs. Russell, et al. (1998) provide a discussion of the advantages of using SEM and procedural issues which may occur in such studies.

Goldstein (1995; p.20) notes that in many areas of social sciences measurements are difficult to define precisely. Researchers might assume there is an underlying construct which they cannot measure directly. Instead, the researcher can access the construct indirectly by measuring several relevant indicators. Theorists developed SEM specifically, to deal with individuals' behaviour, attitudes or mental performance. This is most relevant when individuals are grouped within hierarchies and the analysis takes place in a multilevel framework - as in this research.

Conceptually, SEM is a general, powerful multivariate analysis technique which includes specialised versions of several other methods of analysis are special cases (Statsoft 2011). Bentler (1986) carried out a historical review of SEM's development up to the mid-1980s while Austin (Austin and Calderón 1996, Austin and Wolfle 1991) later provided and annotated bibliography of the technique's development. These show that researchers may use SEM to specify and estimate models of linear relationships among variables which include both MVs and LVs (MacCallum and Austin 2000).

Many types of data, including observational data of the type collected by survey instruments QA and QB, combined with GLOBE and Hofstede data, have a hierarchical or clustered structure (Goldstein 1995). This is true of this project's data. The researcher drew this conclusion by noting the data created hierarchy among groups. In this case groups were ministries. Often data of these types contain underlying constructs which researchers cannot measure directly though he or she may measure them indirectly by measuring several relevant indicators. When doing so, Goldstein (1995; p.20) notes it is important to use a multilevel framework such as SEM for analysis. In a review of statistical packages which included SEM, Goldstein (1995) did not include Stata though he noted standard multilevel models [of SEM] would soon be available in most major general purpose statistical packages. Chin (1998b) made similar comparisons between different kinds of software. Like MacCallum and Austin (2000), he noted the large increase in the use of SEM techniques in research literature. SEM rapidly developed from around 1970 onwards especially for psychological research and research analysing latent data with the increase in available processing power. Researchers saw SEM as an amalgam of two traditions; an econometric perspective which focused on prediction and psychometric perspective which focused on moral concepts which used LVs indirectly inferred from multiple observed measures. Further research showed Statsoft Corporation has added SEM to their Stata software after 2004. Goldstein also noted that in many large studies some intended measurements are unavailable. He says (1995; p.173) "*in surveys, for example this may occur through chance because certain questions are answered by particular groups of respondents*". This happened in this research

where all HRDs would not answer question A11. Goldstein confirmed that SEM could deal with such an omission.

Chin (1998b) noted that when applied correctly, SEM-based procedures have major advantages over older techniques. These include principle component analysis, factor analysis, discriminant analysis on multiple regression because of the greater flexibility of the interplay between theory and empirical data. Chin (1998; p.2) further noted that SEM gives a researcher the flexibility to:

1. Model relationships among multiple predictor and criterion variables;
2. Construct otherwise unobservable LVs;
3. Model errors in measurements for observed variables.

Nachtigall, et al. (2003) noted that SEM had evolved since the 1980s from a highly specialised technique to a valuable, proven tool for broad scientific analysis. He noted divergent perspectives on SEM saying

On the one hand, SEM allows for conducting and combining vast array of statistical procedures like multiple regression, factor analysis, (M) ANOVA and many others. But on the other hand, SEM is often seen as complicated and difficult to understand.

Nachtigall, et al. (2003)

Nachtigall, et al. (2003) further notes, “a simple and accurate definition of SEM is hard to find” (2003; p.4). Kuldeep Kumar (2002; p.1) proposed the following:

..... structural equation modelling can perhaps best be defined as a class of methodologies that seeks to represent hypotheses about the means, variances and covariances of observed data in terms of a smaller number of ‘structural’ parameters defined by a hypothesised on the laying model.

(2002; p.1)

Nachtigall, et al. (2003) help by explaining that LISREL (linear structural relations) models is an alternate name for SEM. The term ‘structural relation’ is the core concept of SEM handling relations between LVs. The software normally handles these relations by constructing linear

regression equations, graphically expressed by path diagrams which use arrows. SEM's flexibility comes from its ability to deal not only with a single simple or multiple linear regression, but with this system regression equations. SEM software uses path diagrams and calculates direct, indirect and total effects. These arise from path analysis methods. Its most prominent feature is that it can deal with LVs of the type described earlier. SEM thus consists of a structural model which represents the relationship between LVs of interest and measurement models which represent the relationship between LVs and their observable indicators.

Many of the different models which SEM analyses, fall into several categories making structural modelling extremely difficult to characterise (Statsoft 2011). Path diagrams play an important role in SEM. Statsoft (2011; p.4) describes them as being *“like flowcharts with variables interconnected with lines to indicate causal flow”*.

SEM uses several conventions. SEM software represents measured (observed) variables (a.k.a. indicators or manifest variables) as squares or rectangles. SEM represents factors which have two or more indicators (LVs, constructs and unobserved variables) as circles or ovals. Lines signal relations between variables. The lack of a connecting line implies no direct relationship has been hypothesised. Lines have either one or two arrows. A line with a single arrow shows a hypothesised direct relationship between two variables. A variable with a line pointing towards it is the direct variable. A line with an arrow at both ends, shows covariance between the two variables. These have no implied direction of effect (Ullman 2006; p.36).

Xuan Xiao (2013) usefully compares SEM with Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) in simulations. Noting that while SEM enjoys various advantages over OLS regression, it is not always the case that SEM is the favoured choice. The largest concern is the complexity of SEM compared with OLS. So, while OLS regression is preferred when research satisfies its assumptions, SEM is of most use when it is not possible to do so, as in this case.

This researcher chose Smart-PLS version 2 (Ringle, et al. 2005), as dedicated SEM software. because its developers had simplified and improved its use over add-on methods developed in Stata and other software packages.

Despite the undoubted advantages of SEM, this researcher also notes the disadvantages of using the technique. These include *problems with generalising studies* when conclusions are limited to the particular sample, variables and timeframe represented in the design - especially in exploratory studies (Nesselroade 1991). Selection effects the level of observation. This may also create problems, considering that SEM allows hypothesising about the structure of relationships among MVs in a specific population (MacCallum and Austin 2000). So, in this study this researcher has carefully defined the research population. Some researchers in previous studies have not done so. A second problem is that of *confirmation bias* - prejudice towards the model being evaluated (Greenwald, et al. 1986). Although one strategy is to specify and evaluate multiple models in advance, in this case this was impractical, given the special circumstances described earlier. The third problem arises over *issues of time* (Gollob and Reichardt 1991). These authors suggest that potential causal effects of best studied over a period in case the effects on a variable may change with the passage of time. With the current study, research took place over a long period of time in ways recommended by these authors to overcome this problem.

4.11.2 Smart-PLS Version 2.0

The statistical methodology finally adopted and applied in this study, though exploratory, has its roots in a descriptive correlational research design. The fundamental characteristics of a descriptive correlational design are that:

1. *The approach is not experimental, because the researcher has no control over the participants;*
2. *The researcher conducts a cross-sectional survey based on a series of questionnaire items with a [quasi] quantitative response format using Likert scales;*
3. *All questionnaire items in each dataset measure the naturally occurring status, behaviours, views, attitudes, experiences and other characteristics of*

existing groups of participants. They do so without changing their environment. The researcher does not assign the participants into groups, nor is any part of the environment manipulated by the researcher;

4. The analyst operationalises quantitative variables retrospectively by compositing specified clusters of item-scores which measure valid and reliable unifying constructs;

5. The statistical analysis is conducted to determine the validity and reliability of the constructs, and to explore the correlations; covariations, associations, or conjoint distributions, between the variables within and/or between the groups.

(Ray, 2006).

Descriptive correlational design has certain weaknesses. Statistically derived relationships, from variables operationalised in a cross-sectional survey cannot prove the existence or direction of cause-and-effect relationships. In research design, 'operationalisation' defines measuring variable which the researcher cannot directly measure (latent variable). Logically, for one variable to cause another, the independent (causal) variable must occur first, and the dependent (effect) variable must follow afterwards. However, in a cross-sectional survey, the researcher collects all data at the same time. Thus, the researcher cannot functionally define data collected in a cross-sectional survey as either 'independent' or 'dependent' variables. Just because the researcher finds two variables simultaneously correlated among cross-sectional survey data does not mean that one is the unidirectional cause of the other (Holland 1986, Pearl 2009). Nevertheless, there is an intimate connection between correlation and causation. When one sees a cause and an effect, there is inevitably a correlation. Trying to extend correlations into causal relationships has many difficulties. However, the analyst can still theoretically interpret correlations to hypothesise or predict causes and effects. Random chance does not normally cause a statistically significant correlation which implies the covariation, association, or conjoint distribution of variables. This is justifiable evidence to theorise intuitively, one variable may be the causal predictor of another variable (Holland 1986, Pearl 2009). Descriptive correlational research designs are not only useful to create and develop new theories. They may also be useful as pilot studies or exploratory methods to develop hypotheses. Later researchers can afterwards

test them using experimental designs. Here the future researcher can manipulate the hypothesised causes and measures the effects (Ray 2006).

A descriptive correlational design does not automatically imply the compulsory use of bivariate correlation analysis, described in basic statistical theory. A bivariate correlation coefficient (e.g., Pearson's r) only measures the direction and strength of the relationship between two variables on a standardised scale ranging from -1 to +1. Bivariate correlation ignores the confounding effects of other variables in the same data set. There are flaws in bivariate correlation coefficients because they create an illusion of measuring associations between variables. In fact, they may provide little or no concrete evidence (Burns, 1997; Huck, 2009). Bivariate correlations are false because pairs of variables do not exist alone in reality, but interact with other variables. Often the root cause of a zero-order bivariate correlation is a joint correlation of two variables with one or more other variables. When the analyst removes the joint correlation with other variables, then he or she cancels or reduces in size the zero-order bivariate correlation (Allen and Yen 2002, Waliczek 1998). For example, the correlation between people's salaries and amount of grey hair they have does not imply that firms pay people by their quantity of grey hair. It simply implies that both high salary and grey hair are a joint function of age, experience, and length of service.

There are several advanced multivariate procedures which can measure covariations, associations, or conjoint distributions between inter-correlated variables among large data sets. Researchers can use them to support a descriptive correlational design. The procedure chosen in this study is SEM. However, SEM requires an understanding of different statistical concepts (Kline 2010).

SEM involves a combination of factor analysis and path analysis. The first stage is to formulate and validate a measurement model using factor analysis. Factor analysis is a statistical technique used to define the variability among inter-correlated variables with a lower number of latent or unobserved dimensions called factors. One uses path analysis to model the directional dependencies between a set of LVs (Child 2006).

In this case, the measurement model in SEM consists of the relationships between:

1. Indicator variables (e.g. the item-scores measured by the researcher using a questionnaire); and
2. LVs; defined earlier, which the analyst operationalises by combining indicator variables using factor analysis.

The second stage of SEM is to evaluate a structural model using path analysis. This involves computation and interpretation of the partial regression weights or path coefficients (β) between the LVs (Kline 2010).

The researcher could apply two possible SEM techniques in this study. These are covariance-based (CB-SEM or PLS-SEM) otherwise known as PLS path modelling. This researcher chose PLS-SEM because, in practice, one can use it more easily than CB-SEM. PLS-SEM, unlike CB-SEM is not sensitive to the measurement or distributional characteristics of the data. This implies PLS-SEM does not need normally-distributed variables measured at the interval level). In contrast, CB-SEM needs a large sample size, with at least twenty measurements per variable to produce stable estimates (Westland 2010) while the results of PLS-SEM do not depend on the sample size. Hair et al. (2010; p.776) stated:

PLS is insensitive to sample size considerations. Its estimation approach handles both very small and very large samples. PLS is particularly useful in generating estimates even with very small samples.

(2010; p.776)

Indeed, small sample sizes is the most cited reason (36.92% in twenty-four studies) researchers choose PLS-SEM. Non-normal data is second (33.85% in twenty-two studies) followed by formatively measured LVs (30.77% in twenty-two studies) (Ringle, et al. 2012; p. iv)

Thus, if one uses PLS-SEM, it is unnecessary to test the goodness of fit of the data to a predefined model. Unlike CB-SEM, PLS-SEM does not use a maximum likelihood estimator or extract

information from the covariance/ matrix. PLS-SEM assumes the entire variance is useful and can be explained, so there is no concern for residual or unexplained variance. PLS-SEM is a ‘soft’ modelling technique because it makes minimum demands on the researcher, compared with ‘hard’ techniques, like CB-SEM. The latter is much more difficult to use in practice (Monecke and Leisch 2012). For these reasons, Hair et al. (2011) describe PLS-SEM as “*indeed, a silver bullet*”.

Researchers often perform CB-SEM as a confirmatory technique. Here they use deductive reasoning to confirm the goodness of fit of a well specified model to a large set of data and test predefined hypotheses (Kline 2010). In contrast, because PLS-SEM is easier and quicker to use in practice, and researchers can use it as an exploratory technique. This allows the researcher to apply inductive reasoning to discover new relationships between variables that he or she had never previously considered before, without testing hypotheses (Kline 2010).

In this study, this researcher used PLS-SEM in exploratory mode. Following traditional exploratory data analysis (EDA) methods, this researcher used PLS-SEM to explore what questionnaire responses could tell the researcher about HRM systems, laws, and culture beyond the formal testing of hypotheses. Tukey (1977) originally developed EDA to encourage statisticians to search for relationships and patterns among data, and to create new hypotheses. This is an alternative to applying inferential statistics to test predefined hypotheses. Tukey (1980) argued that researchers place too much emphasis in statistics on confirmatory data analysis. He suggested they should place more emphasis on EDA. For this reason, this research does not test any formal hypotheses. However, the method produces many hypotheses which directly relate to the research questions.

There are three major advantages to exploratory rather than confirmatory approaches to data analysis:

1. A confirmatory approach forces a researcher to adopt a deductive reasoning stance. This involves testing hypotheses and interpreting inferential statistics to indicate statistical

significance (e.g., $p < .05$). However, this automated process may discourage critical thinking about the underlying meaning of the results (Cohen 1968). When a researcher focuses mainly on testing hypotheses, and concentrates only on interpreting inferential statistics, this may distract the researcher from examining other important features of the data (Kline 2010). Inductive reasoning often provides more useful information (Holland, et al. 1989).

2. The wish to produce a desired result which supports a hypothesis may tempt a researcher to manipulate the evidence. This type of self-fulfilling prophecy tempts researchers to report only confirmatory information selectively which endorses their own possibly distorted preconceptions. Theory terms this ‘confirmation bias’ (Lewicka 1998). Confirmation bias often causes researchers to publish misleading information in the literature (Oswald and Stefan 2004).
3. Because so many researchers have used hypothesis testing procedures for many years in their relentless search for statistical significance, significant outcomes are over-represented in the literature. Results that fail to achieve significance are rarely published. Statistical theory commonly refers to this widespread phenomenon as ‘publication bias’, or ‘the file drawer problem’. The problem arises because peer reviewers and journal editors only see as ‘worthy of recognition’, hypotheses which statistical evidence supports. Conversely, reviewers assume results which are not statistically significant indicate a failed study, and discard them (Scargle 2000). Russell (1999) notes it is impossible to know how many non-significant results of hypothesis tests ignore by reviewers compared to the ‘significant ones’ published.

4.11.3 CONSTRUCTION OF PATH MODELS

The rationale which underpins creating the path models in this study is they should ultimately predict how HRM systems work today in Qatar’s ministries. Thus, all the hypothetical causal

paths lead into ‘The Way Systems Work’. The paths represented hypothetical causal relationships between assumed causes and predicted effects. These are indicated by

- (a) A regression weights (β coefficients) which measure strengths of the partial correlations;
- (b) The effect sizes (R^2) which measure the proportion of the variance explained.

Table 4-4 - Operational Definitions of Fourteen Latent Variables

Latent Variable	Definition
1. Information Factors	Diversity of information about HRM defined by public sector law (e.g., QNV 2030; CBI)
2. Reasons	Diversity of reasons for HRM defined by public sector law (e.g., to improve efficiency and effectiveness).
3. Sources	Diversity of sources of management theory and practice – where and from who did they come from? (e.g., legal codes and regulations)
4. Reform Process	Diversity of change process – how was it introduced? (e.g., because of QNV 2030).
5. Drivers of Change	Diversity of the change process – what are the drivers? (e.g., QNV 2030, CBI).
6. Strategy	Diversity of strategic practices (e.g., strategic human resource plan).
7. Practices	Diversity of management practices, including Personnel management; Organisational design; Employee resourcing; Learning and development; Reward management; Performance management; Employee relations management; Health and Safety/Employee well-being.
8. Cultural Dimensions	Cultural dimensions extracted from the GLOBE survey, divided into Leadership Values and Leadership Practices (House et al., 2004).
9. Management Style	Producing order, consistency, and predictability. Telling subordinates how to carry out their work.
10. Leadership Style	Providing a sense of purpose and direction, and motivating subordinates to perform beyond their capability.
11. Professionalism	Length of service of respondent in Ministry, plus whether the respondent’s role in Ministry has always been in HRM
12. Way Operations Are	Beliefs about the way HR operations are reported to be today in the Ministry (e.g., using all of its people to achieve the most effective use of resources).
13. Way Systems Should Work	Beliefs about how HR systems should ideally work in practice in the Ministry (e.g., using its people to achieve the most effective use of its resources).
14. Way Systems Actually Work	Beliefs about the way HR systems are reported to work today for everyday operations in the Ministry (e.g., properly understanding the skills, competence, and potential of all employees).

This researcher used Smart-PLS version 2.0 to construct the models. Tables 4-4 and 4-5 show the conceptual and operational definitions of the fourteen variables used in the models. Fig. 4-1 is a path diagram drawn using the graphic user interface of Smart-PLS. This depicts one of the

models developed to explore the relationships between some of the variables operationalised in this study.

Table 4-5 - Conceptual Definitions of Fourteen Latent Variables

Latent Variable	Operational Definition
1. Information Factors	Composited scores (Yes = 1, 0 = No) for 11 items. The higher the score, the greater the diversity of information factors.
2. Reasons	Composited scores (Yes = 1, 0 = No) for 12 items. The higher the score, the greater the diversity of reasons.
3. Sources	Composited scores (Yes = 1, 0 = No) for 22 items. The higher the score, the greater the diversity of sources.
4. Reform Process	Composited scores (Yes = 1, 0 = No) for 12 items. The higher the score, the greater the diversity of reform processes.
5. Drivers Of Change	Composited scores (Yes = 1, 0 = No) for 8 items. The higher the score, the greater the diversity of drivers of change.
6. Strategy	Composited scores (Yes = 1, 0 = No) for 7 items. The higher the score, the greater the diversity of strategies.
7. Practices	Composited scores for (Yes = 0, 1 = No) for Personnel management (9 items); Organisational design (7 items); Employee resourcing (6 items); Learning and development (6 items); Reward management (9 items); Performance management (6 items); Employee relations management (6 items); Health and Safety/Employee wellbeing (3 items) The higher the score, the greater the diversity of management practices
8. Cultural Dimensions	Composited scores for Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Human Orientation Institutional Collectivism, In-group Collectivism Future Orientation, Performance Orientation (see Tables 4-6 & 4-7).
9. Management Style	Composited scores for 3 items scaled from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7
10. Leadership Style	Composited scores for 2 items scaled from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7
11. Professionalism	Time of service in years (1 < 5; 2 = 6-10; 3 = 11-15; 4 = 16-20, 5 >20) plus respondents role in Ministry has always been in HRM (Yes = 1, No = 0). The higher the score, the greater the level of professionalism
12. Way Operations Are	Composited scores for 8 items scaled from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7. The higher the score, the greater the agreement with beliefs about the way operations are.
13. Way Systems Should Work	Composite scores for 10 items scaled from Strongly Disagree = 1 to to Strongly Agree =7. The higher the score the greater the agreement with beliefs about the way systems should work.
14. Way Systems Work	Composited scores for 18 items scaled from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7. The higher the score the greater the agreement with beliefs about the way systems work.

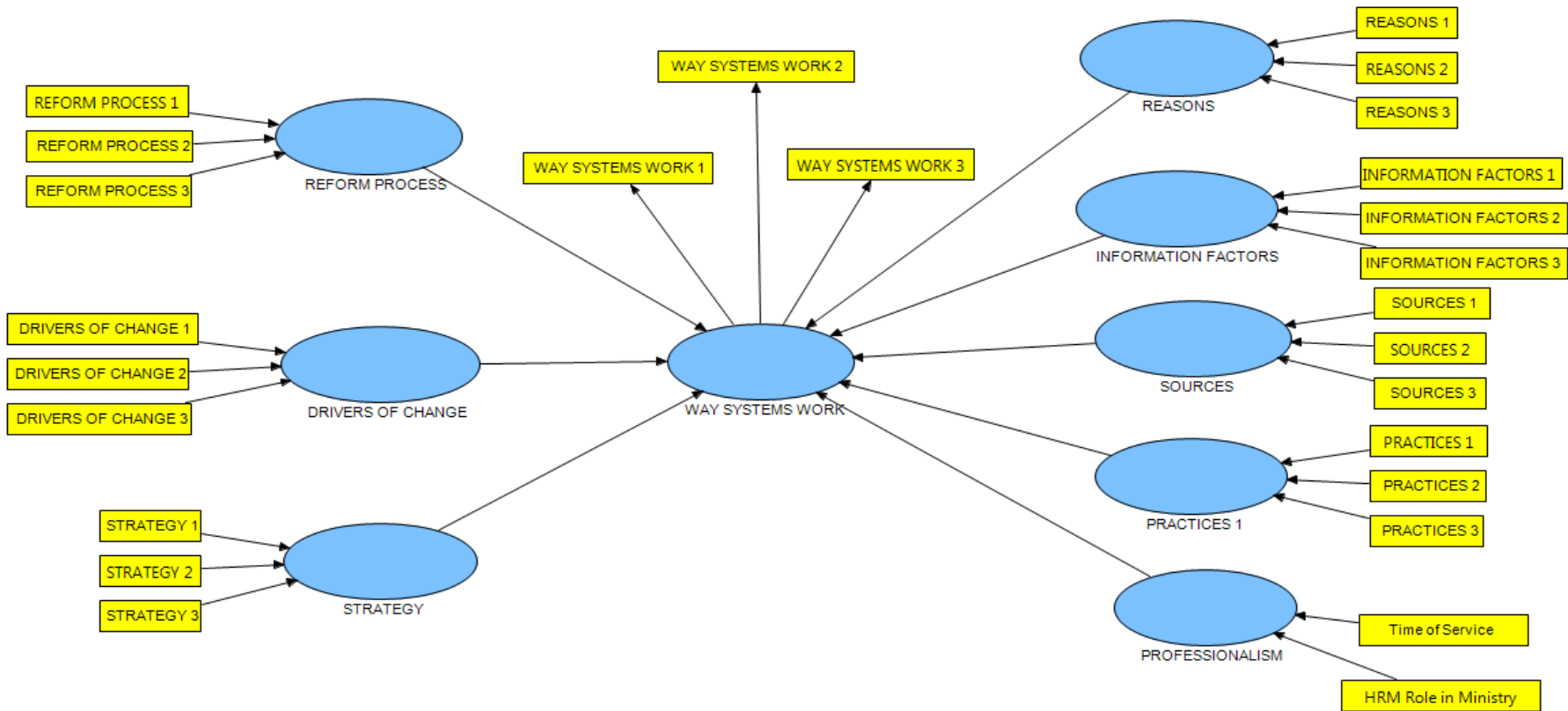


Figure 4-1 - Smart-PLS generated PLS-SEM path diagram

Shows LVs (oval symbols); indicator variables (rectangular symbols); factor loadings (arrows between LVs and indicators); and causal paths (arrows between LVs)

The path diagram in fig. 4-1 shows that Smart-PLS constructs a PLS path model from formative and reflective relationships. As described earlier, arrows symbolise a reflective relationship pointing out from a latent variable into a cluster of indicators. A reflective relationship assumes the latent variable is a unifying construct. Multiple indicators measure the beliefs, opinions, perceptions, or attitudes of the respondents, mirroring the inter-correlated effects of the construct.

Table 4-6 - Comparative Hofstede Cultural Dimensions

Derived from: (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005)

	Power Distance	Individualism > Collectivism	Masculine > Feminine	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long-term Orientation
	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
Arab Countries	80	38	53	68	--
Australia	36	90	61	51	31
Canada	39	80	52	48	23
Great Britain	35	89	66	35	25
Ireland	28	70	68	35	43
New Zealand	22	79	58	49	30
South Africa	49	65	63	49	--
Turkey	66	37	45	85	--
United States	40	91	62	46	29

Table 4-7 - Comparative GLOBE Cultural Dimensions

Derived from: House et al. (2004)

Dimension	Leadership Practices		Leadership Values	
	Western	Qatari	Western	Qatari
	(Anglo Group)	(Islamic Group)	(Anglo Group)	(Islamic Group)
Power Distance	4.90	4.73	2.78	3.23
Uncertainty Avoidance	4.44	3.99	3.96	4.82
Humane Orientation	4.17	4.42	5.55	5.30
Institutional Collectivism	4.29	4.50	4.26	5.13
In-group Collectivism	4.19	4.71	5.76	5.60
Assertiveness	4.26	4.11	4.00	3.38
Future Orientation	4.24	3.78	5.22	5.92
Performance Orientation	4.36	3.45	6.02	5.96

This researcher used Likert scales ranging from 1 to 7 with multiple reflective indicators to measure the respondents' beliefs about the 'Way Systems Work'. Here, 1 = 'Strongly Disagree' to 7 = 'Strongly Agree'. Arrows pointing into a latent variable from a cluster of indicators symbolise formative relationships. Formative indicators include socio-demographic data (e.g., Time of Service) and factual responses to questions. These required a dichotomous 'Yes' or

‘No’ answer, not based on a belief, opinion, perception, or attitude. Examples are: Information Factors, Reasons, Sources, Reform Process, Drivers of Change, Strategy, Practices and Professionalism.

The number of indicators which contribute to each latent variable is unknown when the researcher draws the path diagram. The researcher selects only those reflective indicators that he finds strongly contributing towards the validity and reliability of the latent variable to include in PLS path models. Because QA and QB include several potential indicators for each latent variable, Table 4-5 includes only three reflective indicators per latent variable, for illustration purposes.

4.11.4 Validating the Measurement Model

The researcher enters the indicators into Smart-PLS in a comma delimited (CSV) file. The software automatically transforms data into standard normal distributions; with a mean of 0 and a variance of 1. Factor analysis formulates LVs from the indicators. Validating the measurement model and testing of the quality of the LVs is important in the current study. This is because a major limitation is that responses to many questionnaire items might be invalid and unreliable. The data appears to be contaminated by response bias (RB). RB is a general term for a wide range issues which lead respondents away from valid, reliable answers. Whether intentional or unintentional, RB creates distorted data. RB is unavoidable in research which involves collecting data using self-reported questionnaires. RB creates a high level of noise or variance in the data. This leads to difficulties when interpreting responses (Paulhus 1991). So, consideration of the impact of RB is essential to aid the analysis and interpretation of the results of this study.

Social desirability bias may have contaminated the data. This refers to the tendency of respondents to answer questionnaire items falsely, in a manner that makes themselves or their organisations look good, rather than giving accurate and truthful answers. Social desirability bias usually takes the form of respondents consistently over-reporting ‘good’ behaviour or events and under-reporting or evading ‘bad’ behaviour or events (Holtgraves 2004, Thompson and Phua

2005). Some respondents deliberately stress desirable issues, and purposely neglect adverse issues, because they want to safeguard their jobs, or protect the interests of their organisation (Zikmund, et al. 2010).

Acquiescent response bias (ARB) and extreme response bias (ERB) may also have distorted the data. ARB is the tendency of some respondents to give positive, agreeable, or optimistic answers to most questionnaire items, irrespective of whether their answers are true. Some may respond to the items mindlessly, without weighing up the options. ERB could also be a limitation. ERB refers some respondents being inclined consistently to provide polarised answer patterns to questionnaire items; at one end of the item scale or the other. ARB and ERB are communication styles known to be prevalent among Middle Eastern Arab respondents (Baron-Epel, et al. 2010, Minkov 2009, Minkov and Hofstede 2011, Smith 2004).

One must also look to the GLOBE survey of 17,300 managers at 951 companies in sixty-two countries (House, et al. 2004a) (table 4-7). This strongly inferred that characteristics of managers are contextually embedded in organisational norms, values, and beliefs of their own culture. The GLOBE survey showed many Arab managers possibly provide biased responses to certain types of questionnaire item. This underlines their self-protective traits, including self-centredness, status-consciousness, face-saving, and reliance on formal procedures. The responses to the questionnaire items may also reflect Hofstede's cultural dimensions of the Arab World (table 4.6) (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005). These include high levels of 'power-distance'; the extent to which many Arabs accept that their society divides power unequally. They also involve 'Uncertainty Avoidance'; the extent to which many Arabs are intolerant to insecurity and ambiguity. These cultural dimensions create a position in which some Arab managers bias their questionnaire responses. This is to underline their power and authority, to reinforce their leadership and control and to avoid uncertainty. For example, HRDs' answers to question QA9 showed legal codes and laws are the main or only source of HR practices. Neither the content of the practices; most of which do not appear in the law, nor their previous responses support this.

In this study, statistical analysis controls RB. The researcher only developed LVs from valid and reliable item-scores. He deleted all other items from the model. In measurement theory, compositing (combining) questionnaire item-scores is essential. This reinforces the valid and reliable components of a latent variable, while simultaneously reducing bias caused by inconsistent components (Allen and Yen 2002).

The researcher assumed each latent variable consisted of one factor, defined by principal components factor analysis. The researcher evaluated factorial validity; the extent to which a latent variable measured a unifying construct, by examining the factor loadings of those indicators which contribute to each latent variable. The researcher then tested convergent validity; the degree to which the item-scores converged on a single factor, by computing the average variance explained (AVE) in each factor. The researcher evaluated internal consistency reliability; the degree to which multiple items produced uniform scores using Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Bryman 2008; pp.151-153, Cronbach 1951). Cronbach's alpha normally increases from a minimum of 0 (no reliability) to 1 (perfect reliability) as the inter-correlations among test items increase. When all items measure the same construct, this maximises inter-correlations. Cronbach's alpha signals the degree to which a set of items uniformly measures a unidimensional construct (Tavakol and Dennick 2011). According to Chin (1998a), the quality criteria used to validate the measurement model are:

1. Strong factor loadings (≥ 0.5);
2. AVE $\geq 50\%$; and
3. Cronbach's alpha ≥ 0.6 .

The researcher also excluded any LVs which did not satisfy the stated quality criteria. He further excluded those indicators with low factor loadings or those which contributed to low Cronbach's alpha. The advantage of this validation process is the researcher can exclude every inconsistently measured item from the model. The model then includes only those items which contribute uniformly to factorial validity, convergent validity and internal consistency reliability of each

latent variable. The disadvantage is that consistent, uniform items does not always imply that LVs measure the truth. Respondents may have provided consistently wrong answers to several items which formed some LVs. Nevertheless, research theory suggests it is better to be consistently wrong than constantly inconsistent (Grant and Hunter 2011, Knight 2001).

4.11.5 Evaluating the Structural Model

Evaluating the structural model is the final stage of PLS-SEM analysis. The researcher achieves this by interpreting path coefficients (β) and the R² values computed by Smart-PLS. The path coefficients define how much multidimensional variance is partitioned between the LVs, assuming the researcher can explain all variance. The magnitude of each β weight shows the relative strength and direction (positive or negative) of the relationship between two LVs. Each β weight measures the partial correlation between two LVs after the analyst removes or ‘partials out’ conjoint correlations between all other variables. If the root cause of a correlation between two variables is their joint correlation with another variable, then the partial correlation is reduced in magnitude.

The β weights are standardised. These account for different units of measurement. Afterwards they range from -1 to +1. The researcher then interprets them in the same way as the standardised regression coefficients in a multiple linear regression equation. The R² value measures the size of the effects, showing the proportion of the variance explained. One assumes an R² value \geq 25% represents a substantial effect size. This reflects a significant predictive relationship with practical importance (Wetzels, et al. 2009).

The researcher estimates the statistical significance of each β weight by bootstrapping. This involves drawing 1000 random samples repeatedly from the data matrix with at least thirty cases in each sample. The software computes the mean and standard error of each β weight. The researcher then conducts a series of one sample t-tests where $t = \beta \text{ weight} / \text{standard error}$. He interprets ‘t’ statistics to evaluate if β weights are significantly different from zero at the 0.05 significance level.

4.12 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

This chapter described and examined the research methodology. The chapter first examined the theoretical basis for cross-cultural research methods. This was followed by a restatement of the research aim.

The constantly changing research environment created significant problems for designing and collecting research data. Because of its importance to the research methodology, and its adverse influence over data collection and analysis methods, section 4.4 described and evaluated the changes to the research environment to this project and their implications. The section went on to describe the first part of the evaluation process this researcher used to develop a research strategy (see also 1.8). Reforms led to the need to redevelop the original research objectives accounting for introducing new factors not originally envisaged. These factors potentially created significant noise in the data collected for the main purposes of the research. Section 4.5 lists the revised objectives.

The chapter then turned to the methodological choices this researcher made after re-evaluating the research strategy. Section 4.6 describe the theoretical base from which to develop an exploratory study. Reliability and validity of data that lie at the heart of any research project. This section described the steps taken to improve both.

Next, section 4.7 turned to examination of the overall research population. Given the circumstances, this also was problematic. For practical reasons and based on this researcher's personal experience of previous reform programs, the entire research population could not be used. Instead, this researcher was compelled to restrict the research population to only those executives likely to be aware of the details of reforms in their ministry. The section described the reasons for choosing the sampling frame and what that sampling frame comprised. This section describes the difficulties of choosing such a population, and the statistical problems created by the population and sample size.

Section 4.8 return to the main theme this research - HRM reforms, and examines the foundations of QA and QB. This leads to section 4.9 which discusses the design of both QA and QB in detail. This section also discusses methods of data collection.

Given the circumstances, data analysis was a major problem because of necessary variations in the six individual datasets. Section 4.10 describes issues around data analysis and types of data. This section tables each of the six datasets. Then, having collected these data, this researcher underwent major efforts to trial alternative statistical methods. This section also tables these. Eventually, he chose an adapted form of SEM, Smart-PLS, as the most practical method. This section describes how SEM could provide a limited form of data analysis able to produce hypotheses for future research, and how Smart-PLS became the software of choice during analysis.

4.13 THE NEXT CHAPTER

Chapter 5 is the presentation and discussion of the findings.

Chapter 5 - Presentation of the Results

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of data gathered in the fourteen ministries surveyed in this project. This includes a partial analysis of Law No 8 of 2009, the law which governs people management in Qatar's public services. Because Law No. 8 contained a set of analysable sections, this researcher placed his analysis in this chapter as the most logical place for it. The chapter also presents and analyses the descriptive statistics gathered from surveys of the HRDs and from executives using Questionnaires A (QA) and B (QB). The chapter goes on to present results of statistical analysis using SEM found in the previous chapter and presents eight hypotheses for use in future research. The chapter compares these findings to the cross-cultural, leadership and HRM studies reviewed in earlier chapters. Finally, the chapter describes how they represent fulfilment of the aims and objectives of the study.

5.2 LAW NO.8 OF 2009

In April 2009, the State of Qatar introduced Law No.8 of 2009 (Law No.8). This ostensibly governed HRM of civil servants in ministries of the governmental agencies, public bodies and institutions (Law 2009) (Appendix 1). Law No.8 replaced and consolidated a series of other laws and regulations passed between 1992 and 2008 (Appendix 10) and added new regulations. Law No.8 now has one hundred and seventy-seven different clauses.

Law No.8 is a comprehensive law for managing people and defining their rights under the law. Closer analysis shows it falls well short of providing the foundation of full HRM practices like those typified by Armstrong (2009). This is important when compared to certain empirical findings gathered from surveys of HRDs in the fourteen ministries surveyed. Law No.8 covers what Beer, et al. (1984; p.3) describe as the "*disjointed activities*" which characterise a standard PM role. Beer *et al* (1984; p.4) describe these as "*staffing (recruitment, placement and promotion), performance appraisal, training, organisational development and health and safety*".

Some articles cover elements found in HRM theory. However, one must remember HRM theory *does* include PM, though as a minor element. Otherwise, in no sense does Law No.8 define people management as HRM, despite some chapter names. If ministries use Law No.8 alone, it would be a poor basis for creating any full HRM system. One could best describe Law No.8 as the foundation of a traditional PM system with minor additions.

Armstrong (2009; p.13) notes, the term 'human resource management' has almost replaced the term 'personnel management' even when, in fact, organisations practice PM rather than HRM. This is certainly the case in Qatar's ministries as QA results presented below show. Instead, almost the entire role described as 'human resource management' bears only a limited relation to modern HRM practice and then mainly only to parts which refer to classic (administrative) PM.

5.2.1. Law No 8 of 2009 - Human Resource Law

At best, Law No.8 (Appendix 1) contains limited elements of HR theory and practice. Law No.8 normally focuses on the necessary contractual and broader legal framework of civil and public service employees. Often, even if the State has adopted claimed HRM practice, it is likely that this adoption relates more to a PM style of people management than any direct links to HRM theory and practice. This section will discuss Law No.8 in more detail because of HRDs' claims in QA they base their own HRM practices on this Law. In this case some articles or chapters actively ignore HRM theory and practice. Some articles may appear in two or more of the following headings. The chapter uses references as in the following examples: C3.A15 refers to Article 15 in Chapter III while C12. A165 refers to Article 165 in Chapter XII. Alternatively, the text refers to specific chapters and gives articles separately as Art. 167 or Arts. 112-17 for a range of articles.

5.3.1.1 Contractual and Broader Legal Articles

Chapter III, which covers recruitment of various types of staff is partly contractual and partly administrative. There is no evidence of any strategic element within the recruitment process.

Various articles depart from Western ideas of equality with differentiation in Art.12 between Qataris and non-Qatari's. Art.14.1 gives preference to Qatari nationals, then to people married to Qatari national, GCC citizens and those of other Arab countries and then to other nationalities. Arts.15-19 are contractual.

Chapter IV (arts.20-52) which deals with staff salary and rewards is mainly contractual dealing with payment of salaries and bonuses. Foundation in HRM theory is low or non-existent. Art.21 refers to scale payments (see also comments in 5.6.1 and Armstrong, 2011; pp.372-77). HRM theory shows clear links between individual performance and contingent bonus pay. Art.23 makes some links though they are relatively crude, often collectively employed. While they link the results of performance appraisals, experience of this research shows that ministries grade employees according to internal politics rather than properly on performance.

Chapters VII, VIII and IX all address contractual functions. Chapter VII clarifies contractually 'promotions' issues in its various clauses (Arts. 75-78) though sometimes, articles give greater emphasis to administering promotions (see also 5.6.1).

Chapter X (Officer's Duties, Prohibited Acts and Discipline - Arts. 122-56) addresses issues of conduct and misconduct. Chapter X thus concentrates on both contractual and administrative issues. These articles are rather traditional PM rather than those contained in HRM theory. Health and Safety is an important issue in HRM (Armstrong 2011 pp.439-48). Earlier, PM also addresses this issue. Chapter XI (Occupational Safety and Health, Arts. 156-58) gives a brief recognition of organisational and individual commitment to health and safety but is so limited in scope that it simply recognises health and safety in its basic form.

Chapters XII (Termination of Employment, Arts. 159-68) are simply contractual and administrative. So too are Chapters XIII (End of Service Gratuities, Arts. 169-70) and Chapter XIV (General Provisions, Arts. 171-77)

5.3.1.2 Administrative Management Articles

Chapter III (Arts. 9-19) addresses recruiting staff, mainly in a way which supports administrative processes. The system of awarding allowances in Chapter IV (Arts.26-32) does not address equality from a Western perspective. Arts. 26 -7 and Arts. 48-51 show bias against non-Qataris though extra allowance are paid for expatriate workers to recognise their need to travel outside Qatar. Chapters VII, VIII and IX all address administrative functions. Chapter VIII (Arts.79-89) mainly addresses the administration ‘transfers, assignments and secondments, though various articles also referred to contractual issues which affect the employee. See also 5.6.1. about Chapters X – XIV.

5.3.1.3 Articles Based on HRM Theory and Practice

Chapter V (Arts.53-61) deals with training and employee develop which are, in principle related to HRM rather than simply administrative practices. Concepts of learning and personal development deeply ingrained HRM thinking (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 1995, Armstrong 2011; pp.274-305, Capps Iii and Capps 2005, Gubbins, et al. 2006, McCracken and Wallace 2000). Nevertheless, the training and development proposed by Law No.8 falls significantly short of practices described in the HRM literature, especially as it focuses on the needs of organisations rather than the needs of individuals.

Chapter VI (Arts.62-74) addresses performance management systems. These intend to align individual and organisational objectives, improve organisational performance, develop a high-performance culture, improve individual performance provide the basis of personal development (Armstrong 2011; p.670 and pp.669-681, Buchner 2007, Durant, et al. 2006, Rizov and Croucher 2008). Art.62 makes some significant steps towards pointing HRDs towards these aims although there is again greater emphasis on organisational rather than individual performance. Nevertheless, Chapter VI addresses performance issues in more administrative way and gives few guidelines for HRDs and senior executives in how improved performance and performance assessment should be achieved. Art. 66 takes a step towards better practice by requiring a model report for process assessment. Indeed, from personal experience this researcher knows that

ministers and senior executives use performance assessments to reward individuals from in-groups much more than giving a true assessment of performance. Management of absence (Chapter IX – Arts.90-121) broadly is something which PM systems manage and to a much smaller extent, HRM systems. In the latter case, many of the roles of controlling absence at devolved to line managers (Dibben, et al. 2001, Huczynski and Fitzpatrick 1989, Paton 2008).

5.3.1.4 Articles Based on Cultural Practices

Some articles directly allow culturally- or societally-based practices. These are many fewer directly under Law No.8 than under previous law. However, Chapter IX still contains several articles which either relate to religious duties (as Art.111 – ‘Leave for the Hajj’ or Art.113 – ‘Bereavement leave for a Muslim Wife’).

Gulf societies strongly emphasise the importance of family and women’s special roles. To some extent Law No.8 recognises this with rights which can be more generous than those in Western countries. The best comparator for Qatar’s public services is with public-sector organisations in the West including the UK. While there is some dispute because of analysis methods (Cribb, et al. 2014, ONS 2014), most commentators suggest public-sector pay and terms and conditions are better than those in the private-sector (Burt 2017, Reilly 2013, Rogers 2012) especially for leave and pensions (Carty 2011, Morley 2016). There are several articles in Chapter IX (Leave) which are more generous than Western HR systems and reflect cultural practice. Art.102 (Long-Term Sickness Absence) and Art. 104 (Work Related Injury and Disease) are more generous, allowing double the periods on full and half pay than most UK contracts. The latter are usually far more generous than in most UK and Qatari private-sector organisations. Qatari society has traditionally focused on the central role of the family in society and the role of women as bearers of, and carers for children. Arts. 108-10 and Arts. 112-17 focus on these needs.

5.3.1.5 Articles Which Actively Move Away from HRM Theory and Practice

Some sections arguably actively move people management practices away from HR principles. From the outset, C1.A1 which contains definitions immediately departs from HRM by referring

to “*grades and salary scales*” which arguably contradicts HRM theory. Modern theory refers to this as PM practices and recommends greater attention is paid to individual bargaining and payment on performance-related criteria (Armstrong 2011 pp.364-84). Large, especially public-sector organisations have long relied on fixed pay scales and grading, including the West and so it is not surprising nor necessarily against HRM principles to see them used. In the West, collective bargaining occurs often with trade union involvement. In Qatar, trade unions are not legal. Experience tells this author instead of reaching collective agreement with employees, the State decides pay and pay increases (C2.A7). However, even from the earliest chapters of Law No.8, payment systems bear limited relations to modern Western reward systems (Armstrong 2011; pp.413-18). Central government places many other functions centrally and outside local responsibility. C2.A4 instead places the responsibility for HRM policy on the Minister of State for Cabinet affairs rather than pulling it under the control of individual ministries and HRDs. C2.A6 also places the ‘annual HR plan’ under the control of central government. The principles used in the article do not accord with principles of strategic planning. These are normally done on an organisational rather than a pan- government basis (Armstrong 2011; p.24, Becton and Schraeder 2009, Fobrum, et al. 1984).

Similarly, individual career planning and development structures are an important element of HRM (Armstrong 2011, Sonnenfeld, et al. 1988; pp.262-68, Weick 1996). C2.A3 focuses on organisational needs rather than both individual and organisational needs even though C2.A2 allows for involving some offices when developing systems of work.

5.3 RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE A

This researcher interviewed the fourteen executives named ‘Human Resource Director’ or the executive in authority (the guiding mind) over the people management role in each ministry. This took the form of a structured interview using QA. There was only one interview in each ministry. Statistical theory (Bell, et al. 2010, Raudys and Jain 1991, Snijders 2005) and an exploratory methodology make descriptive statistics the most suitable method of reporting results (Tukey, 1997).

When describing an entire group of questions, this section and 5.4 uses the convention QA6 or QB2 for example. Otherwise, responses to individual questions use the notation (e.g.) A6b or B2c. QA or QB refer to the entire questionnaire.

5.3.1 Human Resource Directors and Their Professionalism

The first three questions of QA (QA1, QA2 and QA3) addressed ‘professionalism’ among HRDs (table 5-1). Nine of the fourteen were people management professionals (PRPs) with PM experience. This does not necessarily make them specialists in the HR theory and practice. In ministries M01, M03, M04, M10 and M13) HRDs had only previous general management experience (General Directors: GDs).

Table 5-1 - HRDs and Their Professionalism

	Number	Average Years	Median Years	Std Dev	Minimum Years	Maximum Years
ALL HR Directors	14	15.43	17	8.9762	2	30
HR Professionals	9	11.89	7	9.9931	2	30
Generalists	5	19.00	19	4.6368	12	25

Some PRPs said they had always fulfilled an HR role. This seems unlikely for three reasons. First, previous laws in Qatar which related to management of public servants does not support their assertion (Decree-Law 2006, 2007, Law 1992, 2001, 2002, 2004) which Law No.8 replaced. Each previous law was largely administrative and promoted comprehensive HRM principles even less than Law No.8. Second, many of those who hold the title ‘HRM Managers or Officers’ use or are described by the term ‘HRM’ when the role remains old-style PM (Armstrong 2009: 13, Guest 1989, Kerfoot and Knights 1992). Third, it is unlikely that anyone skilled and experienced in HRM would then abandon its underlying principles to revert to old-style PM.

QA6 (fig. 5-1) asked HR directors what they believed were the main purposes of reform. This question had three major purposes:

1. To understand density of practice adoption throughout each ministry
2. To compare the density of practice across ministries

- To compare the views of the HRD with the executive team of [his] ministry

5.3.2 The Purpose of Reform

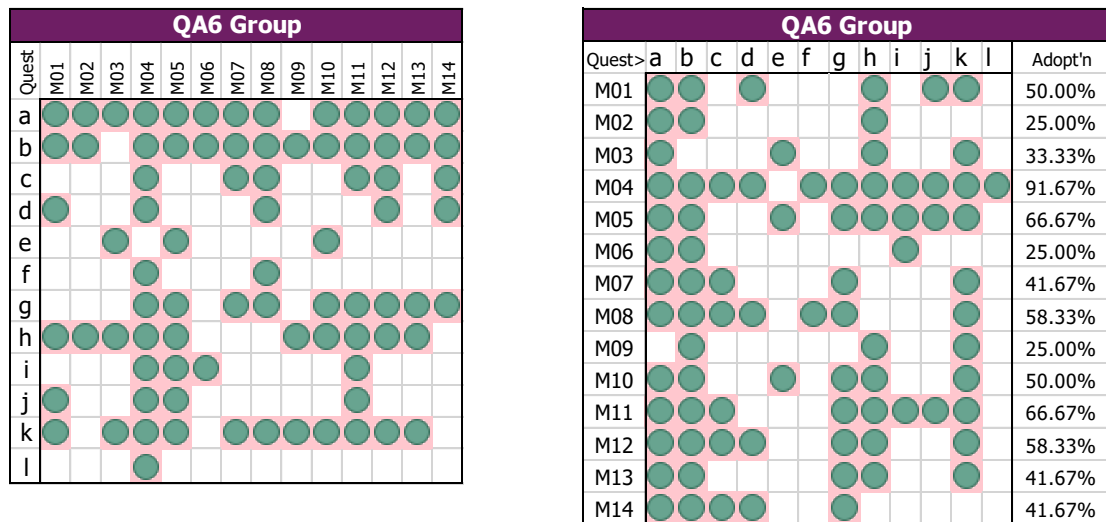


Figure 5-1 - QA6: Reasons for HR Reforms - Percentage of Reasons per Ministry

If HRDs do not understand why the reforms take place, there is direct influence over imposing reforms and then, using of people management practices based on HRM. The density of elements of HRM theory recognised by HRDs signals their level of understanding. Fig. 5-1 shows large variation between ministries and the lack of strategic thinking in many HRDs. Some questions indicate motivation. Mostly HRDs accept top-down thinking; just what one would expect given the high-power-distance of Qatar (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005: 43) compared with the group of Western countries and overreliance on a limited set of laws.

If HRDs used true HRM practices, one would expect to see a significant difference between PRPs and GDs, especially when it came to non-PM functions. Any HR professional would recognise the difference between PM and HRM. In fact, GDs had both highest and lowest HRM practice density scores and appeared throughout different levels of scoring. M04's PRP identified with all but one of the strategic reasons put forward. The one reason it failed to identify with goes to the heart of HRM strategic theory "to serve the needs of employees better" [A6e].

Table 5-2 - Degree of Adoption of Strategic Reasons for Reform (QA6)

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Mean	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
48.21%	45.83%	19.11%	25.00%	91.67%

Overall, less than half of HRDs adopted core principles of HRM (table 5-2) with little consistency across ministries (fig. 5-1). This showed little resemblance to descriptive or normative patterns of HRM theory. Important theoretical and practical reasons such as “to serve the needs of employees better” [A6e] and “to make people easier to manage” [A6f] met with little approval. Just 4 (28.57%) of HRDs believed people are the most important assets of any organisation [QA6j] (Armstrong 2009; p.10, Beer, et al. 1984, Brown 2004; p.3), especially in resource-based models (Bratton and Gold 2007). These are key principles of HRM. This again points to an overwhelming 'PM' mindset. HRM stresses the virtue of treating people as a key resource yet results strongly suggest HR systems did not focus on employees as important stakeholders (Armstrong 2009; p.83).

Culturally, the hierarchical structure of Arab societies supports a top-down decision structure (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Al-Kazemi and Ali 2002, Al-Sadeq and Khoury 2006). If obedience to higher authorities were the norm, one would expect the ‘same HRM system in all ministries’ [A6g] to figure highly. Only around two-thirds (64.29%) of HRDs thought this important. Only 35.71% agreed to the idea improvements would ‘serve policymakers better’ [A6d]. Taken together, these results suggest internal influence is more important than the law or national policies.

Each main model of HRM stresses the need to address every stakeholder. This is true in models of US origin like Harvard (Beer *et al* 1984) or Michigan (Fobrun et al 1984) model, or the UK like the Warwick model (Hendry and Pettigrew 1990). Yet significantly, less than half the respondents found improving service to the public [A6c], or serving policymakers important [A6d]. This signalled HRM theory had low penetration in most ministries and their people management systems represent old-style top-down bureaucratic PM rather than HRM.

Nevertheless, in QA7 HRDs unanimously claimed to embrace each major component of HRM. This suggested a major contradiction in their thinking.

5.3.3 The Question A8 Group

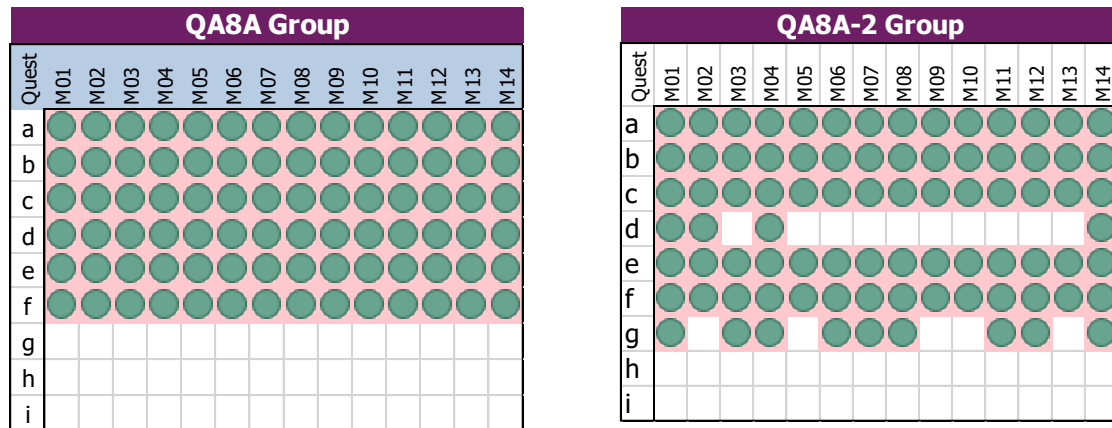


Figure 5-2 - QA8A: Installed HRM Components

QA8 explored individual people management practice in more detail to compare it with systems described in HRM theory and practice. Fig. 5-2 gives a graphic overview of all nine QA8 question groups. Each concern a different area of HRM. A8A-2 is simply a subset of A8A described later in this section.

Fig. 5-2 shows a significant variation between density of practices which involve traditional PM (A8A and A8C) and those which address ‘true’ HRM. Law No.8 made certain provisions mandatory (such as A8Ea, A8Ga and A8Ia). Here HRDs universally adopted them. In other cases of universal agreement across the ministries, other underlying causes are likely. In A8Ic for example, one might infer this is linked to the public-sector’s wealth distribution function in a rentier economy.

Responses to QA8A (fig. 5-2) were in two parts. QA8A refers to formal policies and procedures and QA8A-2 to actual PM practices.

Table 5-3 - QA8A-2: Percentage Adoption of Practices

	M01	M02	M03	M04	M05	M06	M07	M08	M09	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14
Adopt'n	77.78%	66.67%	66.67%	77.78%	55.56%	66.67%	66.67%	66.67%	55.56%	55.56%	66.67%	66.67%	55.56%	77.78%

A8Ad refers to capability procedures, an issue important enough to be mandatory in all EU countries and across most OECD countries. While all ministries said they had formal policies, only four (28.57%) ministries practiced it. The reverse was true for equal gender-based opportunities [A8Ag]. None had a policy, but nine (64.29%) said they practiced it. There is another dichotomy. While Qatar's Constitution guarantees absolute equality for women, Law No.8 takes a different approach, especially when it comes to differential payments for men and women. This reflects cultural practices like "*equal but different*" (Metcalf 2007; p.54). Arab societies view a man as being responsible for providing for the family's material welfare, whether his wife is working or is wealthy. The difference in roles, rather than Western-style equality is prominent in various sections of Law No.8 as well as in HR practice.

In common with other Gulf states, Qatar has a policy of Qatarisation (Forstenlechner 2010, State of Qatar 2009). Gulf states have a high dependence on expatriate labour at all levels of employment. Similar policies in all Gulf states gives a bias towards employing Qatari. This mandates all organisations to employ quotas of Arab citizens and give higher salaries, better employment conditions, greater job security and often shorter working hours as an absolute right for citizens (Forstenlechner 2010). Art. 11 of Law No.8 distinguishes between the appointments of Qatari and non-Qatari civil servants. Art. 14.1 ('Conditions for Appointment') formalises the positive discrimination of Qatari citizens or those with Qatari spouses. This directly impacts various aspects of HRM such as recruitment and selection, education and training, career management, reward systems and employee management.

Responses point to a significant gap between old-style PM and HRM theory when it comes to the role of line managers [A8Ai] (Armstrong 2009; pp.5 & 638, Storey 1992; p.189 a,b, Ulrich and Brockbank 2005) in Qatar's public service sector. Responses indicate no support (0%) for this concept and no ministry (0%) has either adopted this principle or introduced policies and procedures for it. Culturally, the hierarchical structure of Arab societies supports the current non-devolved decision structure (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Al-Kazemi and Ali 2002, Al-Sadeq

and Khoury 2006). Alternatively, one might infer that HR directors remain wedded to the PM approach rather than the HRM approach.

In **QA8B** (fig. 5.3 & table 5-4), thirteen HRDs (92.9%) claimed direct involvement in organisational design [A8Ba], a key strategic element of HRM theory (Armstrong 2009; p.416, Price 2007; p.14). Ten HRDs (71.4%) reported involvement in organisational development [A8Bb]. Nine HRDs (64.3%) reported involvement in both design and development [A8Ba & b]. However, none (0%) reported involvement in change management programmes [A8Bc] despite all but M01 (92.9%) having undergone major reforms.

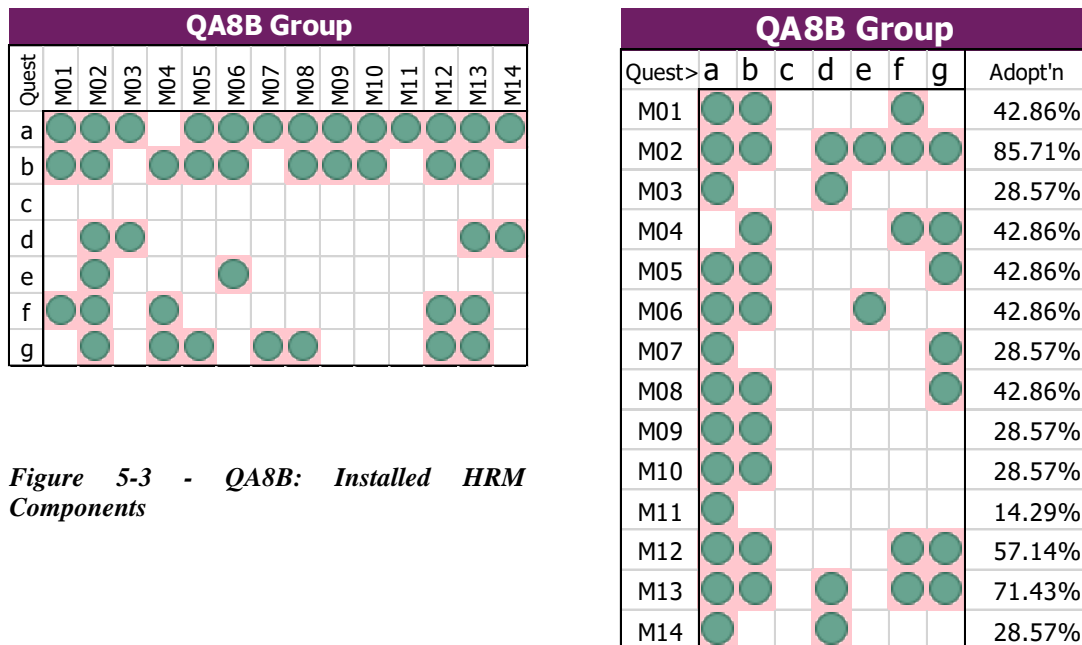


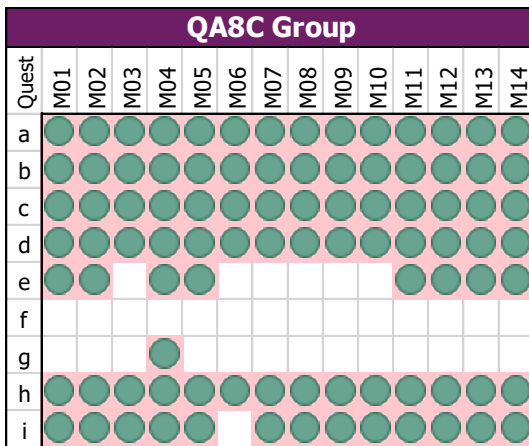
Figure 5-3 - QA8B: Installed HRM Components

Both responses [A8Ba & b] are at odds with answers to the remaining five questions, which again points to lack of theoretical knowledge of HRM.

Table 5-4 - QA8B: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
41.84%	42.86%	18.97%	14.29%	85.71%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
42.86%	42.86%	17.50%	28.57%	71.43%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
42.86%	42.86%	21.60%	14.29%	85.71%

Developing corporate culture [A8Be] is a fundamental part of modern HRM. Yet only two ministries (14.29%) became involved, even after massive organisational changes. Under the doctrine of NPM (Hoque and Kirkpatrick 2000), developing corporate culture is a key part of improving public-sector employees' performance and effectiveness (Bratton and Gold 1999b, Doorewaard and Benschop 2003, Waterhouse and Lewis 2008; p.4). One would also expect a high degree of HRM involvement in change management [A8Bc] (Armstrong 2009; p.437, Price 2007; p.280). Yet there was absolutely none. To exclude the HRM role in change programmes clearly signals a system of top-down control and poor integration of HRM in decision-making



QA8C Group										
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	Adopt'n
M01	●	●	●	●	●			●	●	77.78%
M02	●	●	●	●	●			●	●	77.78%
M03	●	●	●	●				●	●	66.67%
M04	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	88.89%
M05	●	●	●	●	●			●	●	77.78%
M06	●	●	●	●	●			●		55.56%
M07	●	●	●	●				●	●	66.67%
M08	●	●	●	●				●	●	66.67%
M09	●	●	●	●				●	●	66.67%
M10	●	●	●	●				●	●	66.67%
M11	●	●	●	●	●			●	●	77.78%
M12	●	●	●	●				●	●	77.78%
M13	●	●	●	●				●	●	77.78%
M14	●	●	●	●	●			●	●	77.78%

Figure 5-4 - QA8C: Installed HRM Components

Table 5-5 - QA8C: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
73.02%	77.78%	8.40%	55.56%	88.89%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
75.56%	77.78%	9.30%	66.67%	88.89%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
70.83%	72.22%	8.27%	55.56%	77.78%

In QA8C (fig.5-4 & table 5-5), eight ministries (57.1%) use aptitude and psychometric tests [A8Ce] based on Western principles of social and work psychology. These may be of limited value in an Arab society and may be misleading. The International Test Commission produced guidelines about use of such tests (2009; pp.575-76) which inter-alia suggest those who manage tests:

Give due consideration to factors such as gender, ethnicity, age, disability and special needs, educational background and the level of ability in the using and interpreting the results of tests.

(2009; p.576)

One might expect true HR professionals to recognise the limits and so avoid their use in an Arab setting. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether those who applied these tests restricted their use in any way, using them on expatriate employees only, for example. This prevents firm conclusions in this area.

Career management [A8Cg] is significant within HRM theory and practice. It shows planning, valuing of individuals and a strategic approach to HRM in an environment purportedly keen to embed lasting change (Armstrong 2009: pp580 and 591). Nevertheless, only one ministry (7.1%) used career management. No ministry (0%) uses talent management, part of the same process of thinking. Lack of support suggests policies do not focus on employees.

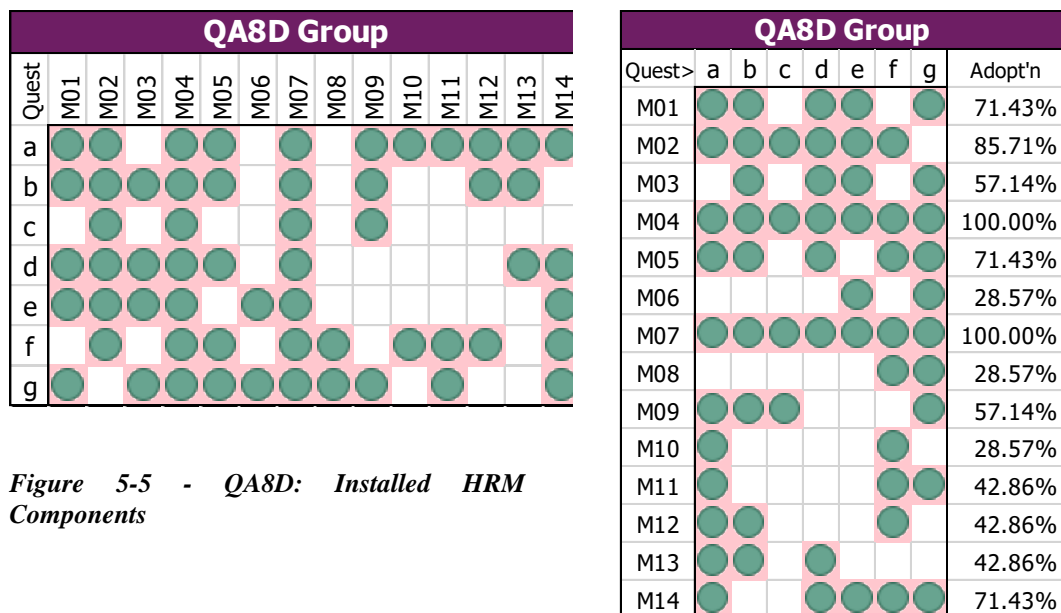


Figure 5-5 - QA8D: Installed HRM Components

Chapter V of Law No.8 and accepted HRM theory and practice both strongly recognise the need for education and training. **QA8D** (fig. 5-5 & table 5-6) Shows the actual density of adoption. Despite the emphasis in Law No.8, there is wide variation between ministries. The pattern cannot

either be explained by adherence to Law No.8 or to lack of a uniform and widespread adoption of HRM theory and practice. Despite Law No.8, just eleven ministries (78.6%) have adopted development programmes driven by ministry needs [A8Da]. There was greater support for executive development programmes [A8Dg] (71.43%) than management development programmes [A8Df]. The heavy emphasis on executive and management training and lack of links between assessment and training imply other causes are at work. One might infer it reflects a power-distance (Hofstede 1980; pp.65-109) effect for cultural reasons. Alternatively, people see training and continuing professional development as a ‘management perk’. The low density also shows non-compliance with Articles 53 and 55-6 of Law No.8.

Table 5-6 - QA8D: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
59.18%	57.14%	24.97%	28.57%	100.00%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
60.00%	57.14%	27.48%	28.57%	100.00%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
57.14%	50.00%	26.45%	28.57%	100.00%

Despite large numbers of foreign and expatriate workers, just eight ministries (57.1%) used knowledge development and retention [A8Dd] for organisational development. This signals a significant lack of strategic thinking in the rest, despite it being an integral part of HRM theory and practice.

The picture across ministries is mixed in QA8E (fig. 5-6 & table 5-7) with wide variation between ministries on most aspects of reward management and low density (mean 50.00%, median 55.56%).

Several HRDs commented that 'individual performance-related pay' [A8Ed] systems did not work effectively and caused conflict with employees. Executives later echoed this in their responses to Questionnaire B [B3H-L]. This bore out findings by Mamman et al (1996), Eisenstein (1999) Ramamoorthy et al (2005) and others. They strongly questioned the aptness of individually calculated contingent pay in collectivist countries compared with using them in individualistic Western countries where such systems developed. Nevertheless, only four HRDs (28.57%) adopted the more culturally-appropriate team-based performance pay.

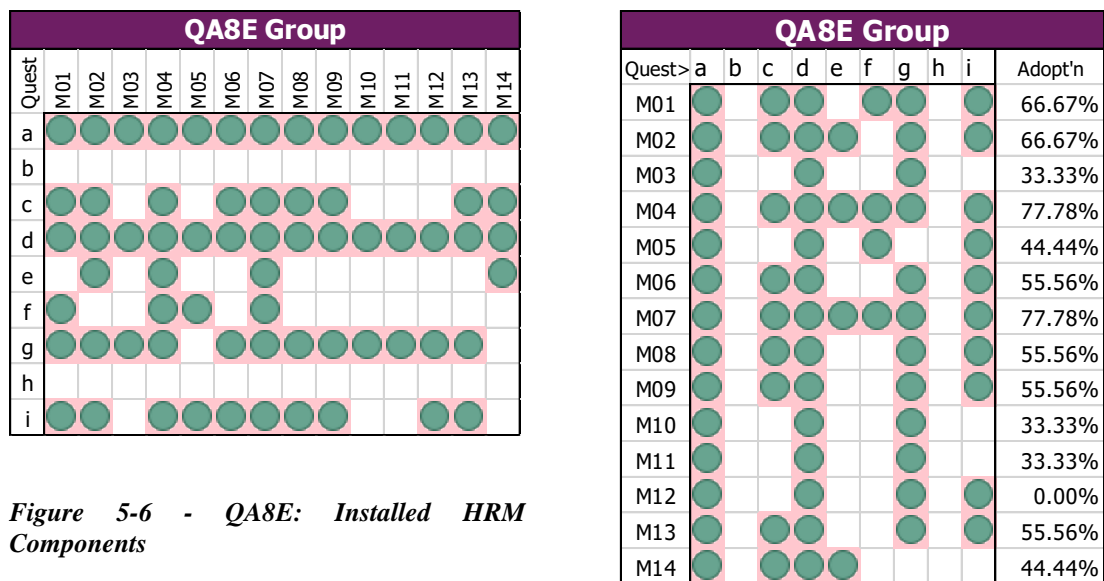


Figure 5-6 - QA8E: Installed HRM Components

Ten ministries (78.57%) noted they employed 'strategic employee benefits' [A8Eg]. Yet Law No.8 contradicts this when employee benefits are laid down in detail, as are 'grade and pay structures' [A8Ec] by nine ministries (64.29%). Non-compliance seems unlikely without ministerial approval, which leads to an inference that leadership, possibly based on culturally embedded principles of favourable treatment of certain groups, may be a cause. This explanation confirms reasons described earlier in 'national culture'. The lack of unanimity in involvement in setting 'grade and pay structures' [A8Ec] is surprising. Law No.8 prescribes pay grades and structures and HRDs should universally apply them.

Table 5-7 - QA8E: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
50.00%	55.56%	20.79%	0.00%	77.78%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
53.33%	55.56%	19.88%	33.33%	77.78%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
48.61%	55.56%	23.71%	0.00%	77.78%

Performance management in **QA8F** (fig. 5-7 & table 5-8) is an important component of HRM (Breul 2006, Fobrum *et al*, 1984). Chapter VI of Law No.8 also requires performance management. There was a low take-up of performance management practice and some significant contradictions. This partly infers it showing the problem described by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2002), where effects of personal relationships in the power structure took primacy over performance. Responses to earlier question A8Ai, showed no (0.0%) delegation of HRM roles to line managers. Nevertheless, in A8Fb 71.43% claim to be delegating performance reviews to line managers.

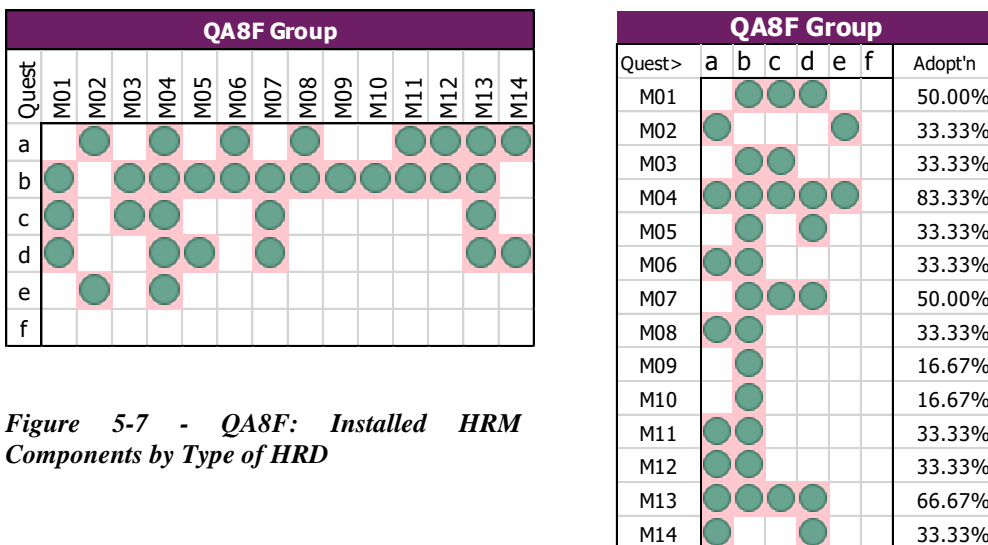


Figure 5-7 - QA8F: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

Table 5-8 - QA8F: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
39.29%	33.33%	18.03%	16.67%	83.33%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
50.00%	50.00%	26.35%	16.67%	83.33%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
33.33%	33.33%	8.91%	16.67%	50.00%

QA8F displays patchy, non-systematic implementation of performance management. Even though Articles 25 & 71 of Law No.8 provide for ministries to put processes in place to deal with underperforming employees A8Fd, just six ministries (42.9%) had them in place. If the Law No.8 was the only driver of HRM practice, one might expect these measures to be in place universally.

HRDs largely did no use peer review [A8Fe] and 360° assessment [A8Ff]. Cultural theory predicts this in a high-power-distance culture like Qatar (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005, p57). No ministry (0%) uses 360° assessment even though HRDs claim heavy emphasis on management and executive training in questions A8Df & ASDg. Nor do any HRDs use 360° feedback. This is despite its high use for supporting learning and development (QA8D), HR resourcing and succession planning (QA8C). Nevertheless, one might infer that 360° reviews are difficult in a cultural context. Arab culture would find it difficult for people to give frank and honest feedback about their superiors and may be under pressure not giving honest feedback (Armstrong 2009; p.646).

Despite support for ‘performance management’ in Law No.8, performance management which follows HR theory is not widespread throughout the ministries with a mean use of less than 40% and a median use of just 33.33%. It is also not evenly distributed, with a wide range of between

16.67% and 83.33%, with standard deviation 18.03%. Two ministries (14.3%) have just one performance management practice in place, while eight of the fourteen ministries (57.1%) have just two. This strongly signals that neither Law No.8 nor central control has much effect and that individual HRDs manage internal control.

QA8G (fig. 5-8 & table 5-9 next page) concerns strategic HRM, a primary differentiator from classic PM. All HRM Directors said they took part in strategic planning [A8Ga]. However other questions in this group tell a different story, except for Ministry 07.

No HRD could carry out most elements of setting strategy in isolation. Twelve of the fourteen (85.7%) HR directors said they involved themselves in people resourcing strategy. Without elements such as environmental scanning (35.71%), formal alignment with organisational strategy (21.43%), and an absence (0.0%) of Market Rate Analysis [A8Gb] this is doubtful. Few Articles of Law No.8 overtly support strategic HRM.

QA8G specifically directed HRD's to think about 'strategy' and elicited significantly different answers from earlier questions. For example, when asked about knowledge management in question Q8Dd eight HRDs (57.1%) said they used this, yet in A8Gf just two (14.3%) said they were. Similarly, when asked about their learning and development strategy in A8Da eleven HRDs (78.6%) said they had one, whereas in A8Ge only three (21.4%) said they had one. What is certain is they are not following the full principles of HR theory

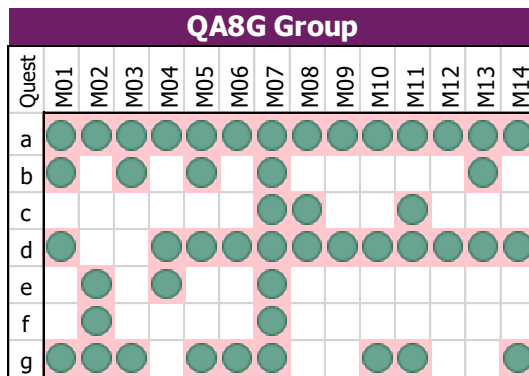


Figure 5-8 - QA8G: Installed HRM Components

QA8G Group								
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	Adopt'n
M01	●	●		●			●	57.14%
M02	●				●	●	●	57.14%
M03	●	●					●	42.86%
M04	●			●	●			42.86%
M05	●	●		●			●	57.14%
M06	●			●			●	42.86%
M07	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	100.00%
M08	●		●	●				42.86%
M09	●			●				28.57%
M10	●			●			●	42.86%
M11	●		●	●			●	57.14%
M12	●			●				28.57%
M13	●	●		●				42.86%
M14	●			●			●	42.86%

Table 5-9 - QA8G: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
48.98%	42.86%	17.46%	28.57%	100.00%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
45.71%	42.86%	6.39%	42.86%	57.14%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
51.79%	50.00%	22.83%	28.57%	100.00%

Strategic HRM stresses the importance of both managers *and* ordinary employees achieving organisational capability (Armstrong 2009; p.480). Yet in top-down, command and control systems such as those found in Gulf states public services including Qatar's, these principles are at odds with national and OC (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a).

QA8H Group														
Quest	M01	M02	M03	M04	M05	M06	M07	M08	M09	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14
a														
b														
c														
d	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
e						●								
f	●	●	●		●		●	●			●		●	●

QA8H Group							
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	Adopt'n
M01				●		●	33.33%
M02				●		●	33.33%
M03				●		●	33.33%
M04				●			16.67%
M05				●		●	33.33%
M06				●			16.67%
M07				●	●	●	50.00%
M08				●		●	33.33%
M09				●			16.67%
M10				●			16.67%
M11				●		●	33.33%
M12				●			16.67%
M13				●		●	33.33%
M14				●		●	33.33%

Figure 5-9 - QA8H: Installed HRM Components

Assigning work to unsuitable or inadequately skilled people reduces effectiveness and defeats strategic intent, particularly when coupled to low levels of learning and development strategies [A8Ge] (21.43%) and knowledge management systems [A8Gf] (14.29%). It is difficult to see how this supports nine ministries (64.29%) claiming strategic knowledge retention systems [A8Gg]

Table 5-10 - QA8H: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
28.57%	33.33%	10.19%	16.67%	50.00%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
26.67%	33.33%	9.13%	16.67%	33.33%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
29.17%	33.33%	11.79%	16.67%	50.00%

QA8H (fig. 5-9 & table 5-10) concern employee relations management. HRDs unanimously do not use collective bargaining systems [A8Ha-c] in any form (0.0%), reflecting the legal position

rather than Western public-sector practice. Indeed, in the West, public services are normally heavily unionised and use collective bargaining widely. Instead, all Qatari ministries (100.0%) claim to have ‘individual communications and appeal processes’ [A8Hd] in place. While nine ministries (64.29%) use collective employee information systems [A8He] only Ministry 07 allows feedback from employees [A8Hd].

In fact, pay levels are centrally dictated and annual rises generous as one might expect in a rentier economy. Employees expect a top-down approach to wage and conditions settings, always provided there is a wide recognition of fair distribution of national prosperity to public-sector jobs (Hertog 2010). Cultural factors significantly overcome any trends of pluralism, collectivism and low trust normally present in bureaucratic organisations (Guest 1987).

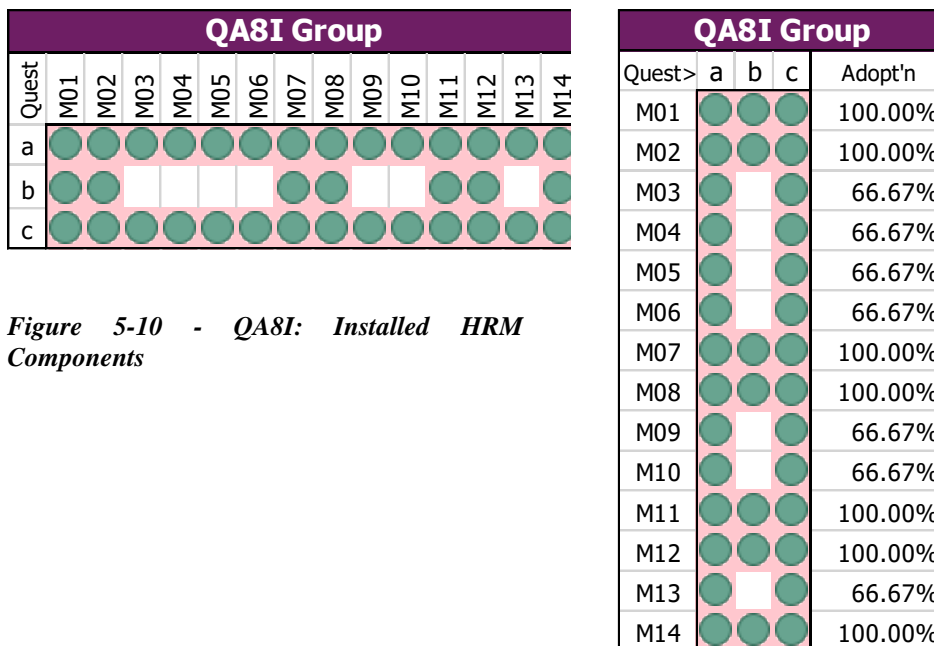


Figure 5-10 - QA8I: Installed HRM Components

Table 5-11- QA8I: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
83.33%	83.33%	17.30%	66.67%	100.00%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
73.33%	66.67%	14.91%	66.67%	100.00%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
87.50%	100.00%	17.25%	66.67%	100.00%

QA8L concerns health and safety. All ministries (100.0%) have adopted ‘formal health and safety systems’ [A8La] and ‘employee well-being systems’ [A8Lc]. Only seven ministries (50.0%) have flexible working and family friendly policies [A8Lb] in place. In theory and Western practice terms this contradicts responses to [A8Lc]. Nevertheless, better terms and conditions lead to the public-sector being the favoured employer in Qatar with 88% of Qatari nationals now working in it (Qatar Statistics Authority 2011). For most Qatari employees, public-sector conditions are now moving towards ideas of ‘Total Rewards’ (Armstrong 2009; pp.743-45). So, it is unsurprising to see universal adoption of these systems.

The drivers of introducing systems are different between Qatar and the West. In the West, especially in Europe, the main recent driver for such systems has been the EU and resulting national legislation although health and safety law has a much longer history. Measures such as employee well-being systems happened because of strong domestic pressures for social change.

The position in Qatar is rather different. With a high percentage of Qatari citizens working in the public-sector, people see good working conditions as sharing state wealth and improved living conditions. For example, while throughout the West, public service budgets and wages were under severe pressure, in July 2011 the Qatar government announced a 60% pay rise for all

public-sector workers. The second reason is based on Islamic principles of social welfare (*sadaqa*, *zakat* and *waqf / awqaf*). Thus, it is not surprising to see such widespread adoption of these practices. Indeed, it would be more surprising if they were absent.

5.3.4 Question Group A9 -Source and Deciders of HRM Theory and Practice

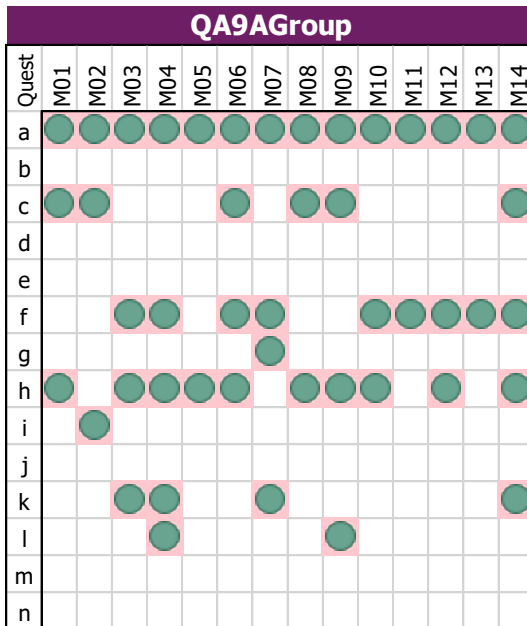


Figure 5-11 - QA9A: Installed HRM Components

QA9AGroup															
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	Sources
M01	●		●					●							21.43%
M02	●		●						●						21.43%
M03	●					●		●			●				28.57%
M04	●					●		●			●	●			35.71%
M05	●							●							14.29%
M06	●		●			●		●							28.57%
M07	●					●	●				●				28.57%
M08	●		●					●							21.43%
M09	●		●					●				●			28.57%
M10	●					●		●							21.43%
M11	●					●		●							14.29%
M12	●					●		●							21.43%
M13	●					●		●							14.29%
M14	●	●				●		●			●				35.71%

Table 5-12 - QA9A: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
23.98%	21.43%	7.20%	14.29%	35.71%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
24.29%	21.43%	8.14%	14.29%	35.71%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
22.32%	21.43%	5.96%	14.29%	28.57%

QA9A (fig. 5-11 & table 5-12) questioned sources of HRM practice. HRDs universally (100.0%) indicated that the principal source of HR theory and practice was the law [A9Aa] (fig. 5-4), particularly Law No.8. Yet from previous responses, clearly this is not so.

Three ministries used only one other source (7.7%) of the thirteen options offered, five ministries used two sources (15.4%), four ministries used three sources (23.1%) and two ministries used four sources (30.8%). Ten ministries (71.43%) used external consultants. Training consultants' activity is high in Qatar and are almost only of Western origin (GSDP 2007). Nine ministries (64.29%) indicated their source of HRM theory and practice included the IAD [A9Af]. The IAD now manages the CBI [A9Ag]. Law No. (6) of 1997 re-established the IAD, although its origins go back to 1964. The IAD stresses its international links, and international input into its training programmes including European and American organisations (Brettel, et al. 2008). Indeed, IAD created a specialist independent cooperation unit' to strengthen overseas links (Lituchy 2008). This strongly infers training offered by the IAD originates in Western theory and practice (Al-Heeti 2008).

Although six ministries (42.86%) said their practices came from SCs [A9Ac] there was no definable pattern in practices from such sources. Five such ministries (83.3% of the six) used external consultants, two ministries (33.3%) used the IAD [A9Af], one ministry (16.7%) used university courses [A9Ai], one (16.7%) ministry used professional associations [A8Ak].

Just four ministries (28.6%) showed their source were 'professional associations'. Of these, two (50.0%) were GDs. Their professional associations are unlikely to specialise in HR. Only two (14.3%) HR directors liaised with other governments over international best practice. Involvement with the CBI was not consistent with responses in QA10.

Surprisingly, judged by Western practice, neither the professional knowledge of the HRD [A9Ad] nor HR staff [A9Ae] were universally (0.0%) showed as being sources of HR theory or practice. None (0.0%) drew on the knowledge from books, professional journals and training courses. The low responses to most questions, and the verbal comments that accompanied them

strongly signalled HRDs were simply following instructions or past practice. Responses to QA1 and QA2 suggest ministries had simply imported 'legacy' systems from previous ministries. Responses confirm this, because apart from sources within the law, older GDs gave most positive answers. If true, new systems came directly from old ones, so the grounds for any real reform of HRM seem slight.

QA9B (fig. 5-12 & table 5-13) questioned 'deciders' of HRM policies and practices. There was universal agreement (100.0%) and comment that legal codes and regulations provided the major legitimacy for HRM practice. As this chapter earlier showed, Law No.8 almost only addresses PM practices. Nine ministries (64.3%) believed Law No.8 was the only source of HRD theory and practice. This supports the view that most ministries used PM techniques and not 'true' HRM systems. Some responses in QA9B contradict with answers in QA9A, raising questions of data reliability.

QA9BGroup														
Quest	M01	M02	M03	M04	M05	M06	M07	M08	M09	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14
a	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
b	●					●		●						
c				●		●		●						
d	●	●						●						
e				●										
f				●										
g														
h														

QA9BGroup									
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	Sources
M01	●	●		●					37.50%
M02	●			●					25.00%
M03	●								12.50%
M04	●		●		●	●			50.00%
M05	●								12.50%
M06	●	●	●						37.50%
M07	●								12.50%
M08	●	●	●	●					50.00%
M09	●								12.50%
M10	●								12.50%
M11	●								12.50%
M12	●								12.50%
M13	●								12.50%
M14	●								12.50%

Figure 5-12- QA9A: Installed HRM Components

Table 5-13 - QA9A: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
20.54%	12.50%	12.60%	12.50%	50.00%
Generalists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
20.00%	12.50%	11.18%	12.50%	37.50%
HR Specialists				
All Ministries			Range	
(Total) Average	(Total) Median	(Total) Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
21.88%	12.50%	14.56%	12.50%	50.00%

5.3.5 Question QA10 – Other Drivers of Change

GSDP issued policy guidance in June 2008 before the public launch of the QNV 2030 (Faulkner, et al. 2002) as part of a separate CBI focused on public service development. Capacity building was a significant part of the original Public-Sector Development Project (Jack, et al. 2008). It aimed to change HRM practice across public service. Supporting documents referred to earlier, made it clear programmes are based on Western HRM theory. The relationship between the CBI and QNV 2030 is unclear, though CBI draws some of its vision (2002; p.8) from national strategy. The CBI is now integrated into the IAD.

Table 5-14 - QA10: Installed HRM Components and Redirects

QA10 - Other Drivers of Change														
	M01	M02	M03	M04	M05	M06	M07	M08	M09	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14
10A	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
10B	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
10C	0		0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0
10D	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10E	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0
10F	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
10G	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
10H		0		1	0				1					
10I				1					1					
10J		0		0	0				1					
10K									1					
KEY	0	No												
	1	Yes												
	2	Don't Know												
		Directed not to answer												

Table 5-15 - QA10: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

Question	%age Adoption	%age Adoption GD	%age Adoption HRD
10A	78.57%	100.00%	66.67%
10B	78.57%	100.00%	66.67%
10C	16.67%	40.00%	0.00%
10D	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
10E	78.57%	100.00%	66.67%
10F	28.57%	20.00%	33.33%
10G	28.57%	20.00%	33.33%
10H	50.00%	100.00%	33.33%
10I	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
10J	25.00%	0.00%	11.11%
10K	100.00%	0.00%	100.00%

In **QA10** (tables 5-14 & 5-15) eleven HRDs (78.57%) said they had read QNV 2030. All eleven believed it directly applied to the work of their ministry and to HRM systems within it. This researcher designed questions A10c & A10d to show how much importance HRDs attach to QNV 2030 principles. Yet, none (0.0%) had translated QNV 2030 into specific goals for people management or issued it to employees. QNV 2030 was prepared on the direct instructions of the Emir so one would expect significant numbers answering ‘yes’ to A10c and A10d given the

characteristics of Qatar's high power-distance culture (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Hofstede 1984, Hofstede and Hofstede 2005). Yet this directly contradicted responses in Q12Ad.

5.3.6 Question Group A11 - Accounting for National Culture

None of the fourteen HR directors would answer **QA11** claiming that the *only* systems they have in place emanated from Law No.8. Each said they had not departed from its provisions and thus this section did not apply. This was clearly not so when one examines Law No.8 itself and compares it with various responses to QA. It leaves no alternative but to draw inferences only from previous responses rather than from expected answers in the section QA11. One may also infer that HRDs wish to avoid any potentially difficult questions about culture.

5.3.7 Question Group A12 – The Reform Process

Fig 5-15 & table 5-16 shows two different features of the change process involved in installing new people management systems.

QA12A (fig. 5-13 next page) examines the timing of reforms. Unanimously (100%) HRDs agreed that they introduced reforms when Law No.8 came into effect. This implied a clear link between installed people management systems and the law, even though Law No.8 is no basis for a 'true' HRM system.

The next largest response connected reforms to the launch of QNV 2030 [A12Ad] even though they had all previously answered negatively to A10d. Despite earlier evidence in QA2 which suggested a greater number having done so, eight ministries (57.14%) indicated they had imported legacy systems [A12Af] and this was simply an evolution of previous systems. Again, this raises questions about the reliability and validity of data provided by the respondents.

QA12A Group														
Quest	M01	M02	M03	M04	M05	M06	M07	M08	M09	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14
a	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
b		●												
c						●								
d	●		●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●
e			●											
f	●				●	●	●	●	●	●				●
g														
h														
i														

Figure 5-13 - QA12A: Installed HRM Components by Type of HRD

QA12A Group											Reasons
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i		
M01	●			●		●				44.44%	
M02	●	●								22.22%	
M03	●			●						33.33%	
M04	●			●	●					44.44%	
M05	●			●		●				44.44%	
M06	●		●	●		●				55.56%	
M07	●			●		●				44.44%	
M08	●			●		●				33.33%	
M09	●			●		●				44.44%	
M10	●			●		●				44.44%	
M11	●			●						22.22%	
M12	●			●						33.33%	
M13	●			●		●				44.44%	
M14	●									11.11%	

There was a low-level response to every section of QA12B (fig. 5-14) dealing with how HRDs introduced changes to HRM. After such a supposed major change to people management on introducing Law No.8, one might expect HRDs to be clear how change took place. Even more so when accompanied by major change programmes in all the ministries except M01. This was not the case.

Figure 5-14 - QA12B: Installed HRM Components

QA12B Group														
Quest	M01	M02	M03	M04	M05	M06	M07	M08	M09	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14
a	●	●			●						●	●		●
b									●					
c	●							●						
d														
e			●		●	●	●							
f				●						●			●	
g									●				●	
h	●		●				●	●	●					
i				●				●						
j														
k														

QA12B Group											Methods	
Quest>	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	
M01	●		●					●				27.27%
M02	●											9.09%
M03				●				●				18.18%
M04					●			●		●		18.18%
M05	●											9.09%
M06				●								9.09%
M07				●				●				18.18%
M08			●	●								18.18%
M09		●						●	●	●		36.36%
M10								●				9.09%
M11	●					●						18.18%
M12	●											9.09%
M13						●	●					18.18%
M14	●											9.09%

Six HRDs (42.86%) said reforms were because of a formal change process [A12Ba]. The next most cited method of reform was that change was introduced by HR managers in five ministries (35.7%) after training from IAD [A12Bh]. This directly contradicts responses to [A8Bc], unless

one interprets it as a change process imposed from outside the HR department. Then it could signal no involvement from the HR department, even though some staff had received IAD training or their minister instructed HRDs to introduce change. This is inconsistent. A picture emerges as one of a relatively chaotic change process across the ministries. Together they cast some doubt about whether the HR Department or HRD had active involvement in introducing change or developing a change process. This leaves interpretational difficulties because change management theory assumes planned and actively introduced change. That is not what has happened here, considering all the responses.

5.4 EVALUATING RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE B

The following conventions have been used in *charts* from this point forward:

1. Questionnaire B (only)
 - a. Binary responses – blue;
 - b. Categorical (Likert scale) responses – purple;
 - c. Mean of total responses – green;
2. Comparative responses
 - a. as shown in the index

In *tables*: Ministries expressing the above average rate of agreement are shaded in red. In comparative tables, above average rates for HRDs are shaded red while those for executives are green.

This thesis described earlier the major recent change programme of public-sector reform which involved all ministries except for M01. This limited opportunities for carrying out meaningful research. This researcher could only survey members of the senior executive team in newly-formed each ministry because they were the only people in full possession of facts about changes occurring. This created problems with population size, which also varied between ministries. This directly affected potential statistical models and their analysis.

This research gathered the opinions and opinions of each ministry's executive team about the success and effectiveness of people management systems. The literature describes these as LVs which need special statistical treatment. LVs are random variables which researchers (and others) cannot directly watch or measure and whose realised values are hidden. Instead, researchers must infer them (Bollen 2002; pp607-11, Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2008). While there is no standard definition of LVs they still allow a researcher to form statistical models and to

provide a degree of abstraction that permits us to describe relations among the class of events or variables that share something in common rather than making highly concrete statements restricted to the relation between more specific, seemingly idiosyncratic variables. In other words, latent variables permitted us to generalise relationships.

(Bollen 2002; p.606)

Latent variable modelling is now an increasing part of mainstream statistics even though they have widely different interpretation in different settings (Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh 2006). In this case, modelling took place using SEM described in the previous chapter. When viewed as descriptive statistics they still can inform the research and cast more light on the results.

Questionnaire B asked executives for their reactions using a Likert scale approach to collect qualitative data though it has the superficial appearance of quantitative data. Data was then reverse coded to make the results graphically clearer (Acock 2008; p.285). All the results in this section referred to reversed coded data. When analysing these data by means of descriptive statistics, there is some validity in expressing cumulative results as quantitative data. This is because one seeks an overall impression of opinion (Freedman, et al. 2007, Stoddard 2011, Tukey 1977). This researcher recognises that for full statistical analysis purposes, Likert scale or ordinal data requires an alternative non-parametric approach. This recognises the difference between non-normal data of this type to that of numeric or continuous data (Agresti 1989, Göb, et al. 2007).

5.4.1 - QB1: The Main Reason for HRM Reforms

QB1's purpose was twofold. The first is to compare responses within each ministry with others. Second, QB1 sought to compare views of executives with their ministry's HRD. These appear later in this section. Like HRDs in QA6, executives could give more than one reason for reforms in their answers.

5.4.1.1 Responses to QB1

Table 5-16 shows mean responses for QB1 about the main reasons executives believe which support HR reforms in Qatari ministries with above average responses shaded pink. Table 5-17 shows the range of responses. On average (table 5-17), executives mildly agree with the propositions that HRM reforms would improve efficiency and effectiveness [B1a], service to the public [B1b] and help align their ministry with government practice [B1k]. They agree that HRM reforms will meet future strategic needs of their ministry [B1g]. While support is relatively weak, it does look partly to the true purposes of HRM. However, their strong disagreement that people are their most important asset [B1i] shows a strong commitment to a command and control structure. Given their disagreement they do not expect their ministry to have the same systems as other Qatari ministries [B1f], respondents clearly expect top-down control localised within their own ministry.

Table 5-16 - Question Group B1 by Ministry

Ministry	Average	Median	Std Dev	Min	Max
Ministry 01	0.376	0.392	0.145	0.569	0.157
Ministry 02	0.404	0.375	0.189	0.800	0.200
Ministry 03	0.425	0.342	0.257	0.842	0.105
Ministry 04	0.315	0.179	0.275	0.929	0.071
Ministry 05	0.362	0.288	0.248	0.923	0.115
Ministry 06	0.329	0.306	0.214	0.722	0.056
Ministry 07	0.469	0.395	0.287	0.895	0.105
Ministry 08	0.477	0.417	0.233	0.833	0.167
Ministry 09	0.321	0.214	0.250	0.714	0.071
Ministry 10	0.311	0.300	0.256	0.733	0.000
Ministry 11	0.338	0.265	0.263	0.765	0.000
Ministry 12	0.292	0.321	0.241	0.643	0.000
Ministry 13	0.385	0.313	0.317	0.875	0.000
Ministry 14	0.439	0.400	0.255	0.800	0.067
ALL (Mean)	0.375	0.342	0.2456	0.000	0.929

Executives' mild disagreement that HRM reforms will serve either the needs of policymakers [B1c] or employees better [B1d] bears this out. As for the remaining questions, executives disagree with the propositions that reforms will make people easier to manage [B1e], give greater functional flexibility [B1h] or improve governance systems [B1j]. These again argue against a 'one size fits all' approach.

Table 5-17 - Question Group B1 – by question

	1A	1B	1C	1D	1E	1F	1G
Ministry 01	0.529	0.490	0.451	0.176	0.275	0.333	0.529
Ministry 02	0.800	0.500	0.200	0.350	0.450	0.200	0.700
Ministry 03	0.842	0.737	0.368	0.263	0.421	0.211	0.789
Ministry 04	0.500	0.714	0.143	0.143	0.214	0.143	0.929
Ministry 05	0.500	0.615	0.269	0.115	0.192	0.192	0.923
Ministry 06	0.611	0.500	0.389	0.389	0.222	0.056	0.722
Ministry 07	0.842	0.895	0.368	0.421	0.211	0.211	0.895
Ministry 08	0.778	0.611	0.389	0.444	0.556	0.333	0.833
Ministry 09	0.714	0.643	0.143	0.286	0.214	0.071	0.714
Ministry 10	0.533	0.733	0.133	0.333	0.200	0.000	0.667
Ministry 11	0.765	0.529	0.059	0.235	0.235	0.000	0.765
Ministry 12	0.500	0.571	0.143	0.500	0.286	0.000	0.643
Ministry 13	0.375	0.750	0.125	0.750	0.000	0.375	0.875
Ministry 14	0.733	0.800	0.200	0.533	0.333	0.067	0.800
Mean	0.645	0.649	0.241	0.353	0.272	0.157	0.770
Median	0.663	0.629	0.200	0.342	0.229	0.168	0.777
Std Dev	0.1542	0.1256	0.1276	0.1720	0.1353	0.1296	0.1162
Min	0.375	0.490	0.059	0.115	0.000	0.000	0.529
Max	0.842	0.895	0.451	0.750	0.556	0.375	0.929

	1H	1I	1J	1K	1L	All Qs
Ministry 01	0.412	0.157	0.373	0.569	0.216	0.398
Ministry 02	0.350	0.400	0.250	0.400	0.250	0.457
Ministry 03	0.316	0.105	0.211	0.632	0.211	0.519
Ministry 04	0.286	0.143	0.071	0.429	0.071	0.398
Ministry 05	0.385	0.115	0.308	0.577	0.154	0.401
Ministry 06	0.222	0.111	0.111	0.444	0.167	0.413
Ministry 07	0.368	0.211	0.421	0.684	0.105	0.549
Ministry 08	0.389	0.222	0.167	0.778	0.222	0.563
Ministry 09	0.214	0.143	0.071	0.500	0.143	0.398
Ministry 10	0.267	0.000	0.000	0.467	0.400	0.371
Ministry 11	0.412	0.294	0.059	0.529	0.176	0.370
Ministry 12	0.357	0.000	0.000	0.429	0.071	0.378
Ministry 13	0.125	0.000	0.250	0.750	0.250	0.464
Ministry 14	0.467	0.200	0.200	0.600	0.333	0.495
Mean	0.326	0.150	0.178	0.556	0.198	0.378
Median	0.354	0.143	0.183	0.549	0.193	0.297
Std Dev	0.0937	0.1133	0.1332	0.1217	0.0931	0.2056
Min	0.125	0.000	0.000	0.400	0.071	0.160
Max	0.467	0.400	0.421	0.778	0.400	0.743

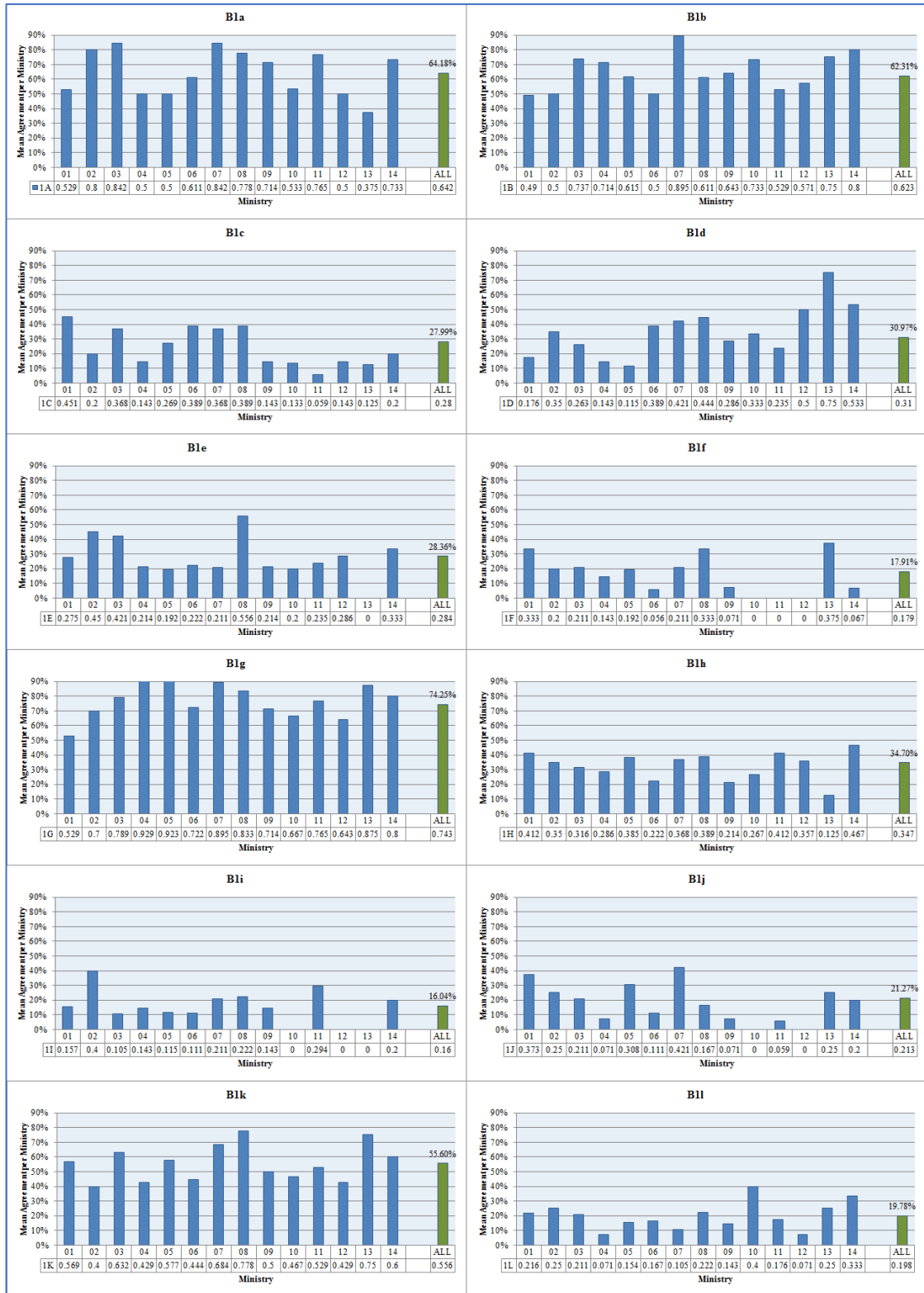


Figure 5-15 - Executives' View of the Main Reasons for Reform of HRM Systems – QB1 Group

Table 5-17 shows reactions to the QB1 ministry by ministry. These measure the strength of support for theories and practices which underlie HRM. The stronger the support the more likely

executives will believe there are benefits from introducing HRM reforms into their individual ministries.

Executives in ministries M01-4, 13 and 14 on average, show mild disagreement to the propositions contained in HRM theory and practice while those in ministries M08 and M09 are broadly neutral. M05, 6 and 9-12 all disagree with the benefits of introducing the key principles of HRM.

5.4.1.2 Comparing Executive Responses (QB1) with HRD's (QA6)

While table 5-18 compares both views graphically using shading, it is difficult to provide a clear comparison between the *single* response from each ministry from the HRD and multiple responses received from executives. Nevertheless, they are indicative and show clear differences between the two groups which vary question by question (table 5-19).

Table 5-18 - Comparing Executive Responses (QB1) with HRDs (QA6): Reasons for HRM Reforms

Ministry	Average		Median		Std Dev	
	HRDs	Executives	HRDs	Executives	HRDs	Executives
M01	44.4%	39.0%	0.0%	41.2%	52.2%	14.2%
M02	11.1%	41.8%	0.0%	40.0%	40.5%	19.1%
M03	33.3%	44.5%	0.0%	36.8%	46.2%	26.0%
M04	88.9%	33.8%	100.0%	21.4%	30.2%	27.7%
M05	66.7%	38.1%	100.0%	30.8%	50.5%	25.1%
M06	11.1%	34.3%	0.0%	38.9%	40.5%	21.8%
M07	22.2%	50.2%	0.0%	42.1%	50.5%	27.6%
M08	44.4%	50.0%	100.0%	44.4%	52.2%	22.9%
M09	22.2%	33.8%	0.0%	21.4%	41.0%	25.6%
M10	44.4%	30.3%	0.0%	26.7%	52.2%	26.7%
M11	55.6%	35.3%	100.0%	29.4%	50.5%	27.1%
M12	44.4%	31.2%	100.0%	35.7%	52.2%	24.2%
M13	33.3%	39.8%	0.0%	37.5%	50.5%	33.0%
M14	22.2%	44.8%	0.0%	46.7%	50.5%	26.5%
ALL - Mean	38.89%	39.07%	35.71%	35.22%	47.10%	24.82%

Agreement between HRDs and executives is uneven, showing the connection between HRM and their organisation is weak as table 5-19 shows indicatively. Again, one must consider the nature of these data, and the small sample size of HRDs per ministry. This shows a significant weakness in people management systems within each ministry. This is because they fail to take full account of the advantages offered by HRM systems with their greater focus on all stakeholders and

strategic linkages, when compared with traditional PM systems (Armstrong 2009, Beer, et al. 1984).

Table 5-19 and fig. 5-16 compare the positive perceptions of HRDs and executives for the principal reasons underlying reform of people management systems in the ministries and showed the clear differences of opinion between the two groups. Nevertheless, one should view the charts in fig. 5-16 with some caution because of the problem of the single response of HRDs in each ministry, which exaggerated their relative importance.

While some comparisons such as A6Ab / B1a and A6h / B1g appear superficially close, analysis of the descriptive statistics in table 5-19 shows some distance between the views of HRDs and executives. One should also consider the limitations in the data for HRDs. For most other questions, the distance between HRDs and their respective executives is clearer, both visually and numerically. One might infer that HRDs are acting in relative isolation without much coordination even though HRDs are members of their ministry's executive team. The results also cast much doubt over the quality of HRDs (fig. 5-19) when one considers mean adoptions. Ministries 02 and 06 refer to less than 20% of HRM principles, and M07 slightly more. In all three cases, HRD understood key HRM principles much less than their respective executive team, and indeed less on average than any executive in any ministry.

Table 5-19 - Comparing Executive Responses (QB1) with HRD's (QA6): Reasons for HRM Reforms

Ministry	Efficiency & Effectiveness		Service & Commitment to Public		Serve Needs of Policy Makers		Serve Needs of Employees		Make People Management Easier		Same System Every Ministry	
	A6ab	B1a	A6c	B1b	A6d	B1c	A6e	B1d	A6f	B1e	A6g	B1f
M01	100.0%	45.8%	0.0%	49.0%	100.0%	38.0%	0.0%	17.6%	0.0%	27.5%	0.0%	33.3%
M02	100.0%	72.9%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	35.0%	0.0%	45.0%	0.0%	20.0%
M03	50.0%	80.6%	0.0%	73.7%	0.0%	36.8%	100.0%	19.2%	0.0%	42.1%	0.0%	21.1%
M04	100.0%	42.9%	100.0%	64.3%	100.0%	7.1%	0.0%	14.3%	100.0%	14.3%	100.0%	7.1%
M05	100.0%	42.9%	0.0%	61.5%	0.0%	26.9%	100.0%	4.4%	0.0%	19.2%	100.0%	12.1%
M06	100.0%	54.0%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	38.9%	0.0%	38.9%	0.0%	22.2%	0.0%	5.6%
M07	100.0%	77.1%	100.0%	82.3%	0.0%	36.8%	0.0%	42.1%	0.0%	21.1%	100.0%	13.9%
M08	100.0%	70.6%	100.0%	54.0%	100.0%	31.7%	0.0%	44.4%	100.0%	48.4%	100.0%	26.2%
M09	50.0%	67.9%	0.0%	64.3%	0.0%	14.3%	0.0%	28.6%	0.0%	21.4%	0.0%	7.1%
M10	100.0%	46.2%	0.0%	73.3%	0.0%	13.3%	100.0%	26.2%	0.0%	20.0%	100.0%	0.0%
M11	100.0%	69.3%	100.0%	45.8%	0.0%	5.9%	0.0%	23.5%	0.0%	23.5%	100.0%	0.0%
M12	100.0%	42.9%	100.0%	50.0%	100.0%	7.1%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	28.6%	100.0%	0.0%
M13	100.0%	30.4%	0.0%	75.0%	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	75.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	30.4%
M14	100.0%	66.2%	100.0%	72.9%	100.0%	12.9%	0.0%	53.3%	0.0%	33.3%	100.0%	-0.5%
All	92.9%	57.8%	42.9%	61.9%	35.7%	21.6%	21.4%	33.8%	14.3%	26.2%	64.3%	12.6%
Median	100.0%	60.1%	0.0%	62.9%	0.0%	17.1%	0.0%	31.8%	0.0%	22.9%	100.0%	9.6%
Std Dev	0.1816	0.1595	0.5136	0.1210	0.4972	0.1274	0.4258	0.1853	0.3631	0.1285	0.4972	0.1181
Min	50.0%	30.4%	0.0%	45.8%	0.0%	5.9%	0.0%	4.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	-0.5%
Max	100.0%	80.6%	100.0%	82.3%	100.0%	38.9%	100.0%	75.0%	100.0%	48.4%	100.0%	33.3%
Ministry	Future Strategic Needs of Public Services		Greater Functional Flexibility		People are Most Important Asset		Improve Governance Systems		Align with Global Best Government Practice			
	A6h	B1g	A6i	B1h	A6j	B1i	A6l	B1j	A6m	B1k		
M01	100.0%	45.8%	0.0%	41.2%	100.0%	8.5%	100.0%	30.1%	0.0%	56.9%		
M02	100.0%	62.9%	0.0%	35.0%	0.0%	40.0%	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	40.0%		
M03	100.0%	71.8%	0.0%	31.6%	0.0%	10.5%	100.0%	13.9%	0.0%	63.2%		
M04	100.0%	85.7%	100.0%	21.4%	100.0%	7.1%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	35.7%		
M05	100.0%	85.2%	100.0%	31.3%	100.0%	4.4%	100.0%	23.6%	0.0%	57.7%		
M06	0.0%	72.2%	100.0%	15.1%	0.0%	11.1%	0.0%	11.1%	0.0%	44.4%		
M07	0.0%	89.5%	0.0%	36.8%	0.0%	21.1%	100.0%	35.0%	0.0%	68.4%		
M08	0.0%	83.3%	0.0%	38.9%	0.0%	22.2%	100.0%	9.5%	0.0%	77.8%		
M09	100.0%	64.3%	0.0%	21.4%	0.0%	14.3%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	50.0%		
M10	100.0%	59.5%	0.0%	26.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	46.7%		
M11	100.0%	69.3%	100.0%	34.0%	100.0%	22.3%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	52.9%		
M12	100.0%	57.1%	0.0%	35.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	42.9%		
M13	100.0%	80.4%	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	17.9%	0.0%	75.0%		
M14	0.0%	80.0%	0.0%	46.7%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	20.0%	0.0%	60.0%		
All	71.4%	71.9%	28.6%	30.6%	28.6%	13.0%	78.6%	13.3%	7.1%	55.1%		
Median	100.0%	72.0%	0.0%	32.8%	0.0%	10.8%	100.0%	12.5%	0.0%	54.9%		
Std Dev	0.4688	0.1284	0.4688	0.0996	0.4688	0.1130	0.4258	0.1229	0.2673	0.1288		
Min	0.0%	45.8%	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	35.7%		
Max	100.0%	89.5%	100.0%	46.7%	100.0%	40.0%	100.0%	35.0%	100.0%	77.8%		



Figure 5-16 - Executive Responses (B1) to HRD's (A6): Reasons for HRM Reforms – By Question

Figure 5-16 (cont'd)

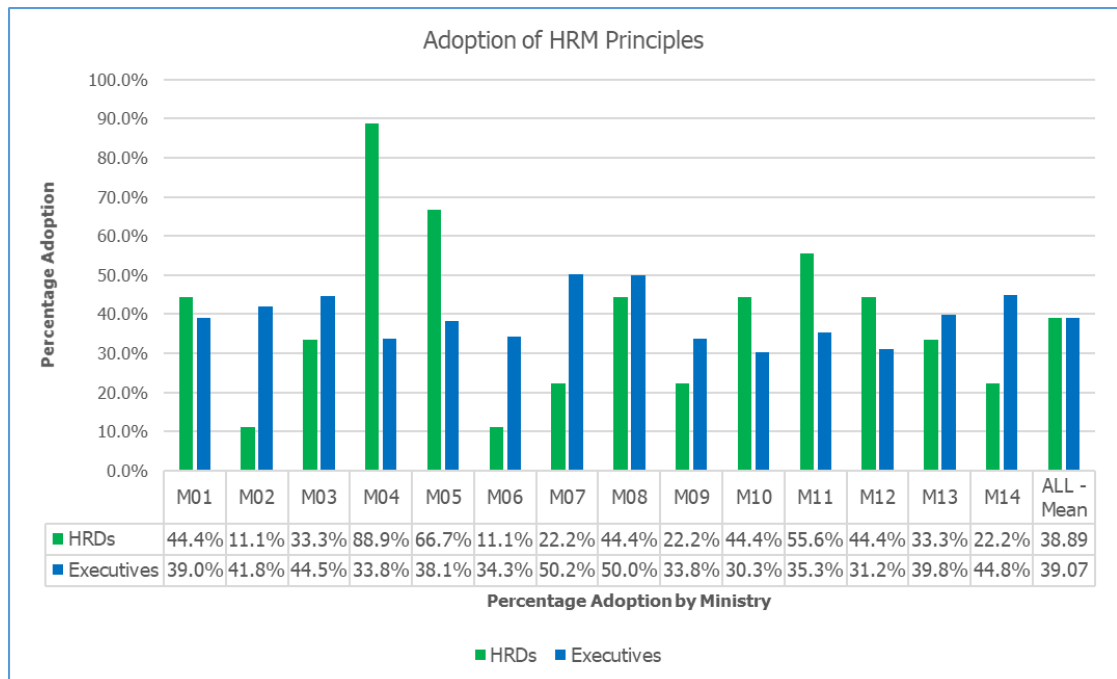
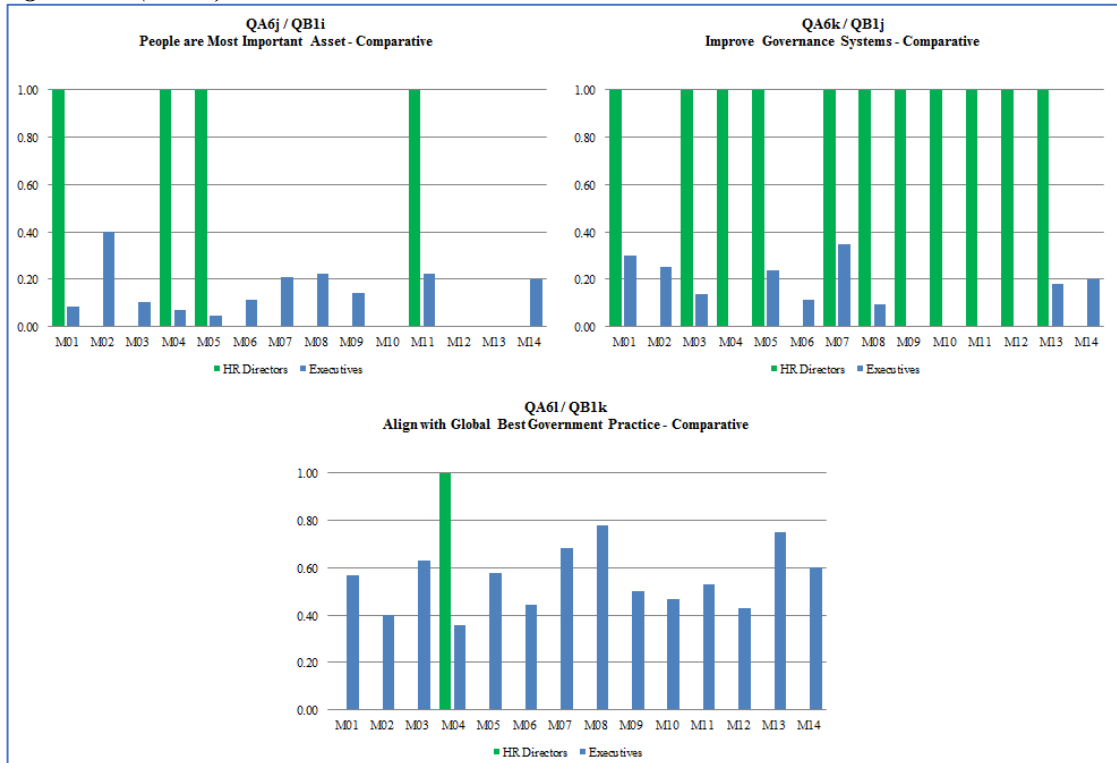


Figure 5-17 - Comparison of Knowledge of HRM Principles by Ministry for HRDs and Executives

Most of the remaining HRDs recognised less than half of HRM’s principles, often significantly less than half. In seven ministries (50%) executives were more knowledgeable in HRM terms

than their HRDs. HRDs only recognised around 60% of HRM principles. This is less than one might expect from senior HRM professionals. Just three HRDs exceeded this level, though with one at more than 90%. What should cause concern is that in none of these three did HRDs' knowledge translate into improved organisational knowledge. Each of their executive teams recognised only around 30% of key HRM concepts. This strongly implies HRDs are failing in their fundamental duty of integrating people management practices with organisational capability (Armstrong 2009, p.29). HRDs should integrate vertical organisational strategies and the individual and collective needs of employees and stakeholders.

5.4.2 - QB2 – Everyday Operations in Ministry Today (Practices)

QB2 (fig. 5-18 & table 5-20) asked executives to give their opinions of everyday operations. QB2 explores views executives hold of the way various policies, processes and systems which affect the behaviour of colleagues and subordinates. These include executives' experience of everyday operations in their own ministries, behaviours, institutional practices and so on. GLOBE describes these as 'practices' (House, et al. 2004a, p.16). While this provides a general view, it also translates into answers to implicit questions. These include questions like "*how does management practices affect me and my goals?*" or "*as an executive, how do I perceive management practices is affecting the organisation?*" The researcher based this approach to questioning on psychological and behavioural theory. This assumes researchers study cultural practices as people they affect interpret them (Segall, et al. 1998). Responses also recognise subordinate behaviour is affected by the perceived quality of leader-member exchanges (Deluga and Perry 1991). Responses show executives' views of the way everyday operations *are* in their ministry using elements of HRM theory and practice as questions. This section evaluates the relationship between '*practices*' today and the way executives would prefer the organisation to behave ('*values*') later in this section [QB6].



Figure 5-18 - The Way Everyday Operations Are in Your Ministry Today – (B2) by Question

On average, the way their organisation behaves satisfies executives. The topmost chart in fig. 5-18 evaluates the mean response to each question, across all ministries. Mostly, satisfaction is qualified, trending towards ‘mild satisfaction’. There is most satisfaction in executives’ belief that ministries can quickly execute instructions of senior managers [B2G]. The weakest satisfaction is about the effective use of resources [B2B]. Effective resource use is at the heart of the resource-based theory of HRM (Armstrong 2009, Grant 1991, Wright, et al. 1993).

Ministry 01 has the uniformly greatest level of satisfaction (table 5-20) for all QB2 questions with a mean Likert scale score of (5.85) compared to the overall (reversed) mean of 4.80. This a pattern mostly seen throughout responses to questions in all QB. One may infer this is a product of settled systems rather than one of legal reforms to managing people. Alternatively, it may be a response to the researcher himself. He was a senior executive in this ministry.

Table 5-20 - QB2 - Mean Satisfaction Scores of Scale Responses by Question & by Ministry

Ministry	2A	2B	2C	2D	2E	2F	2G	2H
1	5.765	5.392	6.275	6.137	5.471	5.706	6.451	5.588
02	4.350	4.100	4.200	4.500	4.300	4.750	4.700	4.550
03	4.474	3.789	5.000	5.105	4.789	4.947	5.737	4.421
04	4.143	4.214	5.500	5.000	4.929	4.857	4.214	4.429
05	4.346	3.269	4.808	4.692	4.269	4.654	5.192	4.538
06	4.278	3.889	5.167	5.222	4.056	5.111	5.778	4.278
07	4.000	4.105	4.474	4.421	4.211	4.737	5.053	4.421
08	4.722	4.778	5.556	5.389	5.056	5.111	5.944	4.778
09	5.429	4.571	4.857	4.786	4.857	4.857	5.500	4.214
10	4.800	4.533	4.667	5.267	4.333	5.733	5.400	4.667
11	5.176	4.765	5.000	4.765	5.059	4.647	5.824	5.000
12	5.214	4.571	5.000	5.000	4.643	4.786	5.643	4.714
13	4.375	4.375	5.000	4.375	4.625	4.875	5.125	4.500
14	3.800	3.933	4.333	4.333	4.067	4.667	4.800	4.200
ALL	4.634	4.306	4.988	4.928	4.619	4.960	5.383	4.593
Median	4.424	4.295	5.000	4.893	4.634	4.857	5.450	4.519
Std Dev	0.5750	0.5230	0.5363	0.4899	0.4285	0.3542	0.5816	0.3624
Min	3.800	3.269	4.200	4.333	4.056	4.647	4.214	4.200
Max	5.765	5.392	6.275	6.137	5.471	5.733	6.451	5.588

Yet, M01 does not have the highest density of HRM practices (see section 5.3.3 and tables 5-4 to 5-11), Those ministries which have high densities, especially M07, also have the lowest scores. However, one should note that variations to population size in each ministry mean that it is not possible to determine either correlation or causation in a statistically significant way. Nevertheless, they do provide useful indicative values.

This shows muted support for individual components of the people management contribution to everyday operations. Most median values fell between neutral (4) on the Likert scale and 5. The only exception was with B2g. Here the median response rose above mildly approval level of 5.

Nevertheless, with approval levels in the relatively narrow series of ranges, support for the current people management ratings is a neutral, tending towards mild approval. There are no clear group differences in the results to mark areas of concern or approval.

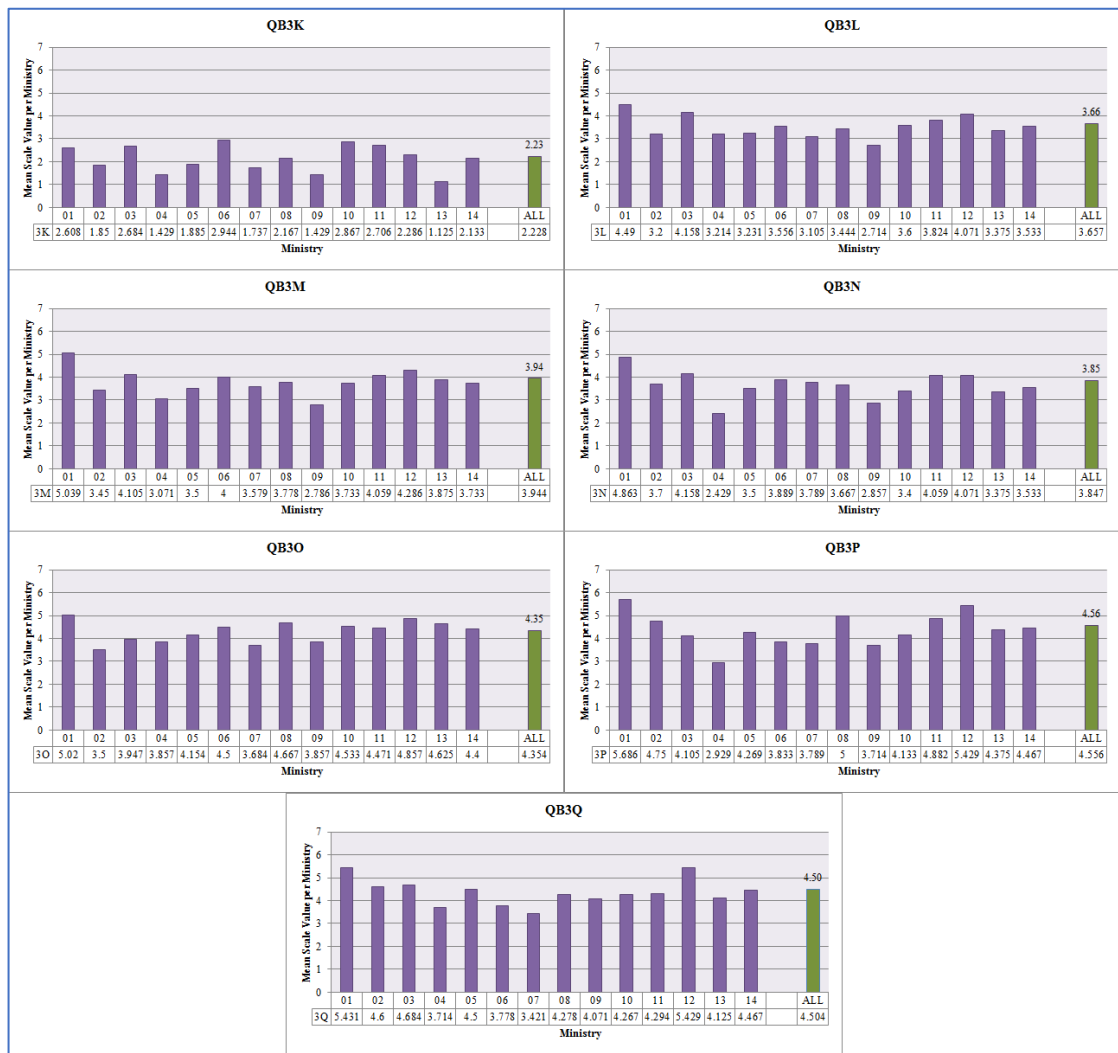
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5.4.3 - QB3 – The Way HR Systems Work Today (Practices)



Figure 5-19 - Responses to Group QB3 Questions: The Way HR Systems Work Today (Practices)

Figure 5-19 (cont'd) The Way HR Systems Work Today (Practices)



QB3 (fig. 5-20 & table 5-21) focused more directly on HRM. QB3 asks questions specifically aimed at expected people management outcomes described by Beer *et al* (1984), Fobrum *et al* (1984) and more recent authors such as Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), Beattie and Osborne (2008) and Armstrong (2009).

The responses showed dissatisfaction with the way each ministry managed respondents across the range of HRM activities. Table 5-21 shows this clearly with an overall mean (reversed) rating 3.736. As with the previous question, the greatest satisfaction appeared in Ministry 01, the only ministry to remain unchanged during the reforms. This supports the earlier inference that satisfaction levels were related to settled systems more than change due to legal reforms.

Table 5-21 - QB3 - Way HR Systems Work Today (Practices) by Ministry & Question (Likert Scale)

Ministry	3A	3B	3C	3D	3E	3F	3G	3H	3I
01	5.275	5.627	4.863	5.059	3.922	4.353	4.902	4.216	3.196
02	3.600	3.950	3.900	3.700	2.800	3.400	3.250	3.300	2.400
03	4.579	4.632	4.000	3.789	3.789	3.789	4.000	4.053	4.158
04	3.286	3.071	3.286	2.571	2.143	2.429	4.000	3.786	2.143
05	4.346	3.885	3.615	3.231	2.538	3.269	3.692	3.038	1.923
06	4.167	4.722	3.833	3.833	3.000	2.944	3.611	4.056	2.944
07	3.579	4.211	4.105	4.158	2.842	3.000	3.263	2.526	2.368
08	4.611	4.556	4.333	4.167	3.111	3.722	3.944	3.222	2.333
09	3.571	3.714	3.714	4.571	3.143	2.786	3.357	3.286	2.143
10	3.933	4.200	3.933	4.267	2.933	3.600	3.400	4.933	4.467
11	4.000	4.412	4.294	4.588	3.529	4.412	4.235	3.471	2.706
12	4.929	4.929	4.500	4.714	3.429	4.071	4.071	4.429	2.571
13	4.375	3.875	3.375	4.375	2.625	2.250	2.750	3.000	1.625
14	3.467	3.600	3.067	3.667	3.000	2.933	3.267	3.133	2.600
ALL	4.276	4.437	4.056	4.138	3.172	3.526	3.877	3.660	2.765
Median	4.083	4.205	3.917	4.162	3.000	3.335	3.652	3.385	2.486
Std Dev	0.5944	0.6392	0.4920	0.6469	0.4868	0.6734	0.5412	0.6612	0.7986
Min	3.286	3.071	3.067	2.571	2.143	2.250	2.750	2.526	1.625
Max	5.275	5.627	4.863	5.059	3.922	4.412	4.902	4.933	4.467
Ministry	3J	3K	3L	3M	3N	3O	3P	3Q	Mean Satisfaction All Questions
01	3.157	2.608	4.490	5.039	4.863	5.020	5.686	5.431	4.571
02	2.350	1.850	3.200	3.450	3.700	3.500	4.750	4.600	3.394
03	3.000	2.684	4.158	4.105	4.158	3.947	4.105	4.684	3.978
04	1.429	1.429	3.214	3.071	2.429	3.857	2.929	3.714	2.870
05	1.808	1.885	3.231	3.500	3.500	4.154	4.269	4.500	3.317
06	2.944	2.944	3.556	4.000	3.889	4.500	3.833	3.778	3.680
07	2.526	1.737	3.105	3.579	3.789	3.684	3.789	3.421	3.276
08	2.111	2.167	3.444	3.778	3.667	4.667	5.000	4.278	3.712
09	1.643	1.429	2.714	2.786	2.857	3.857	3.714	4.071	3.139
10	2.867	2.867	3.600	3.733	3.400	4.533	4.133	4.267	3.827
11	3.235	2.706	3.824	4.059	4.059	4.471	4.882	4.294	3.952
12	2.929	2.286	4.071	4.286	4.071	4.857	5.429	5.429	4.176
13	1.375	1.125	3.375	3.875	3.375	4.625	4.375	4.125	3.206
14	2.067	2.133	3.533	3.733	3.533	4.400	4.467	4.467	3.357
ALL	2.519	2.228	3.657	3.944	3.847	4.354	4.556	4.504	3.736
Median	2.438	2.150	3.489	3.756	3.683	4.435	4.322	4.286	3.537
Std Dev	0.6536	0.5808	0.4703	0.5410	0.5847	0.4606	0.7303	0.5737	0.4642
Min	1.375	1.125	2.714	2.786	2.429	3.500	2.929	3.421	2.870
Max	3.235	2.944	4.490	5.039	4.863	5.020	5.686	5.431	4.571

Even there, with an overall rating of just 4.571, satisfaction did not even reach ‘mildly satisfied’ and were barely above ‘neither satisfied nor dissatisfied’. In ministries such as M07 which QA revealed as having a high incidence of HR practices, overall satisfaction levels were even lower at 3.276. For individual elements of HRM practice, again Ministry 01 displays the highest levels of approval.

There is less consistency for ministries with the lowest levels of satisfaction. Ministries 04 and 13 show the greatest dissatisfaction.

There are some patterns when one examines responses to individual questions. The greatest dissatisfaction is around fixing salary levels [B3i-k]. Respondents also show dissatisfaction with recruitment, talent management and training [B3e&f].

5.4.4 - QB4 –HR Systems and Qatari Culture (Practices)

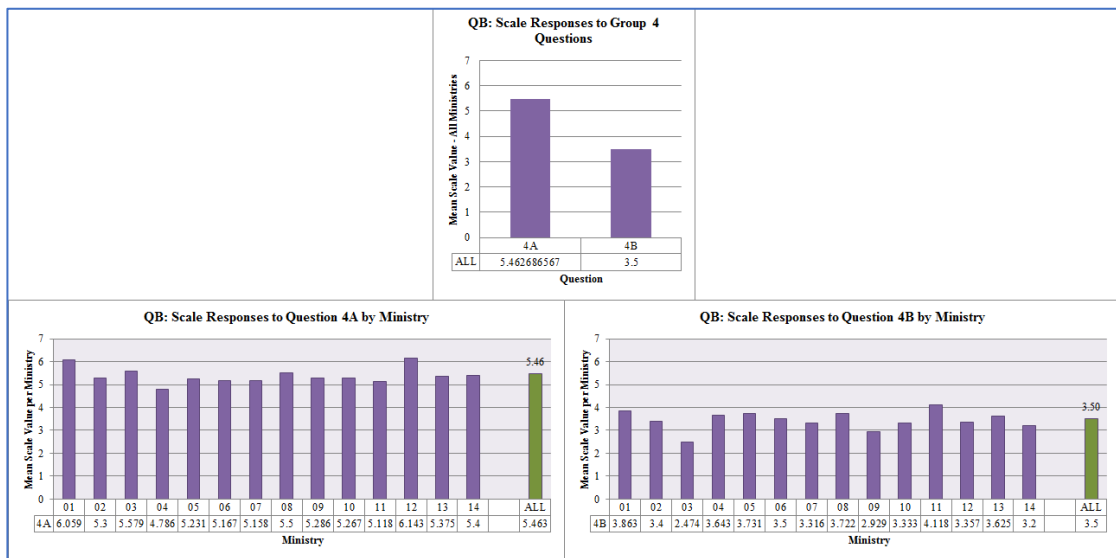


Figure 5-20 - Question Group QB4: HR Systems and Qatari Culture (Practices)

Ministry	4A	4B
01	6.059	3.863
02	5.300	3.400
03	5.579	2.474
04	4.786	3.643
05	5.231	3.731
06	5.167	3.500
07	5.158	3.316
08	5.500	3.722
09	5.286	2.929
10	5.267	3.333
11	5.118	4.118
12	6.143	3.357
13	5.375	3.625
14	5.400	3.200
ALL	5.463	3.500
Median	5.293	3.450
Std Dev	0.3578	0.4085
Min	4.786	2.474
Max	6.143	4.118

QB4 (fig. 5-20 and table 5-22) directly addressed the question of cultural practice in people management. Although most responses show executives being in mild agreement with B4a, results show there is some doubt among executives. Comparing responses to B4A and those to B4B which are, intentionally opposed to one another, certain ministries show conflict in outcomes, especially M01 with a combined result of 9.92. M12, and to a lesser extent M11 and M08 show similar conflicting outcomes. M13 has a fully balanced 9.0 while the rest show a small degree of doubt whether systems are more locally sensitive than Western. M03 has the largest gap with a combined response score of 8.05.

Table 5-22 - QB4: HR Systems and Qatari Culture by Ministry and Question

5.4.5 - QUESTION B5 –HR SYSTEMS AND CORPORATE STRATEGY

From its earlier conception, most HRM theory proposed a clear link between people management and strategy (Beer, et al. 1984, p.177). Resource-based HRM theory goes much further, directly linking the and HRM strategy with organisational or corporate strategy (Grant 1991). Indeed, corporate strategy theory has for decades stressed the match between and organisation’s resources and skills and organisational success. For example, Hofer and Schendel (1978, p.12) define strategy as “*the match and organisation makes between it internal resources and skills and the opportunities and risks created by its external environment*”. Armstrong (2009, pp.56-57) is more specific, calling for integration between organisational characteristic and strategies to achieve a vertical and horizontal fit. He suggests this means convincing top management that linking HR and organisational strategies will benefit both the organisation and its people management role.

This group of questions directly links the two concepts to understand their adoption within Qatari ministries. The State clearly recognises the importance of strategy by developing its own national strategic plan QNS 2030. Responses to this group of questions suggest ministries have been less forward-looking. Indeed, when one looks at the responses to earlier questions, especially question groups B2 and B3, the link described in HRM literature and theory is decidedly weak in most ministries.

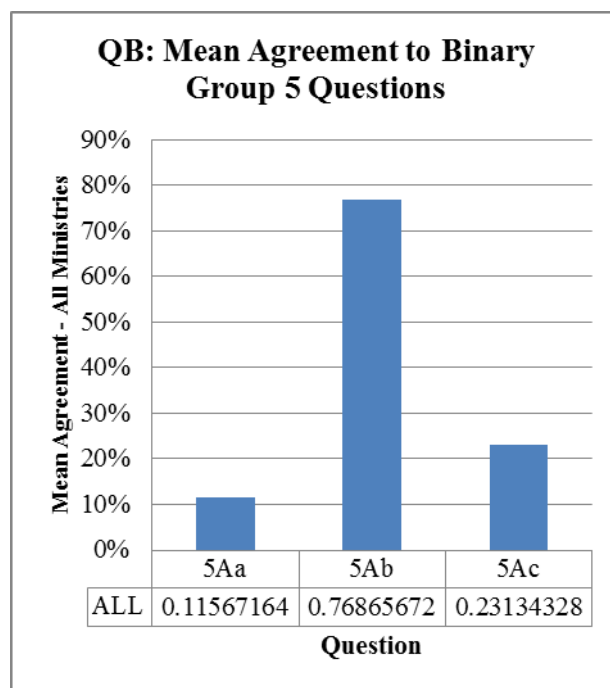


Figure 5-21 - B5a –HR Systems and Corporate Strategy – Seen the HRM Strategy Document?

The first group of questions appeared in QB5A. This is in three parts, each of which produced a binary (yes/no) response (fig. 5-21). If respondents answered ‘Yes’ to B5Aa, showing they had seen the HR strategy they moved directly to B5B. If ‘No’, they were asked to answer questions B5Ab or B5Ac. B5Ab allowed executives to record they believed an HR strategy exists though they had not seen one, while B5Ac recorded those respondents who did not believe an HR strategy existed. All respondents who had not seen an HR strategy then answered B5C. On average, those respondents who had seen an HR strategy accounted for 11.6% of responses (fig. 5-21). This varied from around 32% in M07 who had seen a strategy, while no respondent in either M05 and M13 had seen one (table 5-23). In most ministries, few executives saw an HR strategy.

Table 5-23 - Responses to Group 5 Questions

QB5 Group					
Ministry	5Aa	5B	5Ab	5Ac	5C
01	0.137	6.000	0.863	0.137	5.082
02	0.050	5.000	0.700	0.300	4.200
03	0.158	5.000	0.526	0.474	4.158
04	0.071	4.000	0.571	0.429	4.000
05	0.000	0.000	0.692	0.308	4.423
06	0.056	4.000	0.778	0.222	4.667
07	0.316	3.000	0.684	0.316	2.842
08	0.111	5.500	0.833	0.167	4.111
09	0.071	1.000	0.929	0.071	4.500
10	0.067	7.000	0.933	0.067	3.800
11	0.118	5.000	0.765	0.235	4.471
12	0.214	6.000	0.714	0.286	4.429
13	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	3.875
14	0.200	4.667	0.800	0.200	4.067
ALL	0.116	4.806	0.769	0.231	4.305
Median	0.091	4.833	0.771	0.229	4.179
Std Dev	0.0877	2.2308	0.1355	0.1355	0.5140
Min	0.000	0.000	0.526	0.000	2.842
Max	0.316	7.000	1.000	0.474	5.082

Of those respondents who moved directly to B5Ab, on average, almost 77% said they not seen an HR strategy though they believed one existed (fig. 5-23 - B5Ab). Around 23% said they did not believe one existed. Cumulatively, 79.54% of all executives believed there is an HR strategy while 20.46% did not. Both varied across ministries as table 5-23 and fig. 5-23 show. That around 88.5% of all executives have not seen a strategy document is of significant concern when one considers the weight HRM theory gives to strategic integration (Armstrong 2009, Martín-Alcázar, et al. 2005, Tyson 1997).

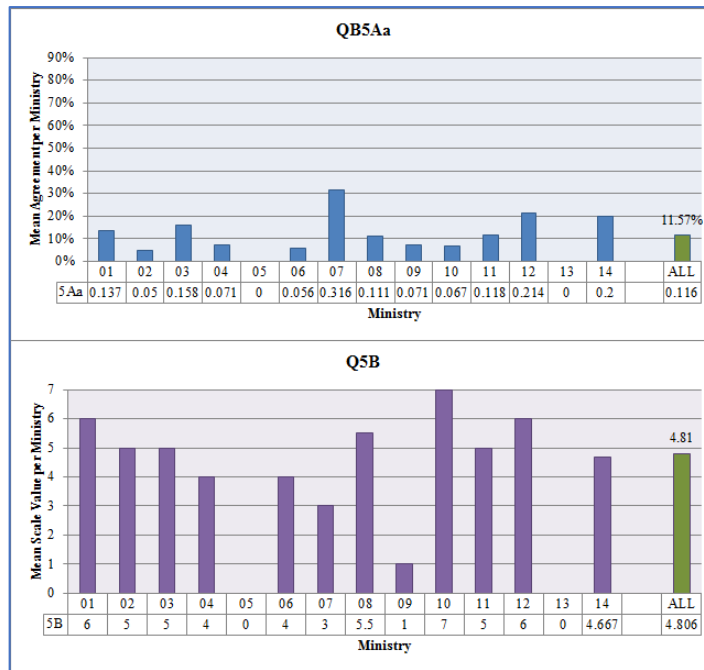


Figure 5-22 - Executives Who Had Seen an HRM Strategy

Of those (88%) who had not seen an HR strategy, 67.97% of executives, although they believe one exists. Not seeing one effectively denies its purpose. It is unlikely their HRD would explain it in enough detail to everyone who saw no document. One might sensibly infer that fewer than 12% of executives were fully aware of the connection between strategies for people management and their organisational strategy - much fewer in some ministries (table 5-23).

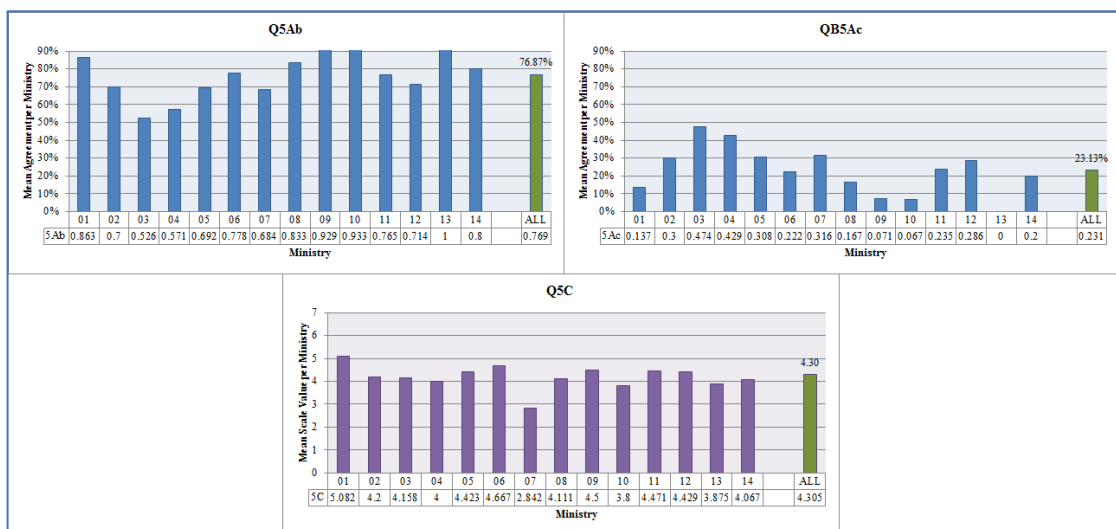


Figure 5-23 - Executives Who Had Not Seen an HRM Strategy

5.4.6 - QB6 –The Way HR Systems Should Work (Values)



Figure 5-24 - QB6 – Values - The Way HR Systems Should Work

Previously QB2 measured executives’ opinions of various working practices in each ministry by asking for views on how they exist today (table 5-24 and fig.5.24). Following the model set out in the GLOBE study (House, et al. 2004a; p.16) QB repeated the same group of questions in QB6. This time QB6 asked what *should be* the outcomes of various practices. This researcher’s approach built on psychological, behavioural and anthropological traditions put forward respectively by researchers such as Segall, et al. (1998) and Kluckhohn (1951). Hofstede (1980) uses a similar approach. Some authors alternatively name views of how practices should be, ‘contextualised values’ to distinguish them from ‘abstract’ values which arise from concepts such as freedom, justice or independence. ‘Contextualised values’ measure executives’ marginal preferences. In section 5.4.7, the researcher compares directly ‘values’ given in QB6 with the institutional ‘practices’ data in QB2.

Table 5-24 - QB6 – Values - The Way HR Systems Should Work

Ministry	6A	6B	6C	6D	6E	6F	6G	6H	6I	6J	Mean (all responses)
01	6.18	6.37	6.35	6.22	6.06	5.82	6.14	6.06	6.25	6.55	6.20
02	6.25	6.65	6.40	6.40	6.40	5.85	6.05	5.80	5.90	6.30	6.20
03	6.00	6.42	6.11	5.53	6.00	5.21	6.11	5.26	6.05	6.16	5.88
04	5.93	6.50	6.36	5.36	5.21	5.57	6.29	5.86	6.00	6.29	5.94
05	6.15	6.62	6.77	6.38	6.31	5.88	6.58	6.35	6.69	6.73	6.45
06	6.17	5.89	6.22	5.50	5.61	5.44	5.61	5.22	6.72	6.44	5.88
07	6.05	6.26	6.58	5.89	6.16	5.63	6.26	5.89	6.47	6.63	6.18
08	6.50	6.39	6.28	5.94	6.06	5.56	6.11	5.67	6.61	6.39	6.15
09	5.86	6.14	6.36	6.21	6.29	5.71	6.00	5.64	6.50	6.36	6.11
10	6.33	6.27	6.07	6.33	6.27	5.80	6.33	5.93	6.40	6.13	6.19
11	5.82	6.12	6.24	5.65	5.76	5.59	6.12	5.71	5.88	5.94	5.88
12	6.21	6.64	6.64	6.71	6.43	6.07	6.43	5.93	6.86	6.79	6.47
13	6.38	6.38	6.75	6.63	6.75	6.25	7.00	6.50	6.38	6.50	6.55
14	6.33	6.53	6.40	6.07	6.13	5.80	6.40	5.93	6.80	6.53	6.29
ALL	6.15	6.38	6.39	6.06	6.09	5.72	6.21	5.85	6.38	6.43	6.17
Median	6.17	6.38	6.36	6.14	6.15	5.76	6.20	5.88	6.44	6.42	
Std Dev	0.2016	0.2199	0.2196	0.4292	0.3803	0.2603	0.3178	0.3476	0.3326	0.2366	
Min	5.82	5.89	6.07	5.36	5.21	5.21	5.61	5.22	5.88	5.94	
Max	6.50	6.65	6.77	6.71	6.75	6.25	7.00	6.50	6.86	6.79	

Nevertheless, this researcher notes that, according to Brewer and Venaik (2010) ‘values’ are probably shaped partly by existing practice. In this case, the researcher first evaluates stand-alone ‘values’ in table 5-24.

Each question in B6 elicits a much stronger response from respondents than seen in those responses to ‘practices in QB2. In this case, responses in QB6 mainly fall between ‘agree’ [6] and ‘strongly agree’ [7]. This is because QB6 questions call for judgement based on executives’ own implicit beliefs, convictions and assumptions about various behaviours. Table 5-25 gives mean values for each question in the group and the mean for each ministry. The table uses shading to show where the greatest and least approval levels occur. Lowest and highest values occur in different ministries. The strongest levels of approval are in M13. B6F shows the weakest agreement on average, followed by B6h. Both questions relate to the external environment of the ministry where B6f asks about improved service and commitment to external organisations. B6H asks about the ministry’s response to the external stakeholder needs and demands on its functions. One can infer that compared with other values, executives feel internal considerations and stakeholders are more important than external ones. Nevertheless, the effect is weak. The belief that an executive’s ministry should achieve better service and commitment to the public [B6c] partly contradicts it. There is contrast in responses B6I and B6j when compared with QB4 and QB5. B6i and QB4 signals improvements in ministries mildly reflect Qatari NC. Closer links of HR and corporate strategy are more desirable than they presently exist. B6j and QB5 There is a problem of internal responsiveness represented by 6G where executives unanimously strongly agreed on the need to more quickly respond to external needs.

5.4.7 – Comparing the Way HR Systems ‘Should Work’ (Values) With ‘As Is’ (Practices) Responses

Fig. 5-25 and table 5-25 present and compare results of responses received to **QB2 and QB6**. These directly show that executives are far more positive when describing how different elements of HR theory and practice *should* work in their ministries (values). This contrasts with the way they worked *at the time* of survey (practices). Table 5-25 also charts the movements of highest and lowest approval ratings for each question. It also shows the movement of highest and lowest ratings from one ministry to another when comparing ‘values’ with ‘practices’. Both charts in fig. 5-25, and table 5-25 show significant differences in the mean and median scores between

each question. This signals how different ministries must focus on changing performance in each of the areas questioned.

This researcher considered correlating the two sets of results. However, the difficulty of using parametric methods and the presence of low numbers of respondents in several of the ministries effectively precluded this. To preserve uniformity of analysis across each of the ministries, this researcher selected executives strictly based on their rank within their ministry rather than numerically. The difference in structure, size and role of the ministries accounted for the low number of respondents in some ministries.

The greatest average differences between scores occurred between B2b and B6b with a mean average score of 2.06. This signalled special concern about people using resources more effectively. The lowest mean differences occurred between B2f and B6f where the mean average score was just 0.77 indicating a relative lack of concern for better service and commitment to external organisations.

The next highest mean differences occurred between B2a and B6a (1.52), B2e and B6e (1.48) and B2c and B6c (1.41). These showed levels of concern among executives about achieving stated goals, better commitment to employees, and better commitment to the public respectively. Mid-ranking differences in means occurred between questions B2h and B6h (1.25) and B2d and B6d (1.13). These showed executives are on average more relaxed about improving issues about satisfying external needs, and commitment to the State and policymakers respectively. One might infer that power-distance between the State and executives in ministries is lower than one might expect from cross-cultural theory (Chhokar, et al. 2007, Hofstede 1990, House, et al. 2004a, Shteynberg, et al. 2009). The second lowest concern is between B2g and B6g. This confirms earlier results that executives were relatively satisfied with the ability of employees to execute instructions of senior managers.

Table 5-25 - QB2/QB6 - Comparing Practices with Values

Ministry	Achieve Stated Goals through People		Most Effective Use of Resources		Excellent Service & Commitment to the Public		Excellent Commitment to State	
	As Is 2A	Should Be 6A	As Is 2B	Should Be 6B	As Is 2C	Should Be 6C	As Is 2D	Should Be 6D
M01	5.765	6.137	5.392	6.373	6.275	6.353	6.137	6.216
M02	4.350	6.250	4.100	6.650	4.200	6.400	4.500	6.400
M03	4.474	6.000	3.789	6.421	5.000	6.105	5.105	5.526
M04	4.143	5.929	4.214	6.500	5.500	6.357	5.000	5.357
M05	4.346	6.154	3.269	6.615	4.808	6.769	4.692	6.385
M06	4.278	6.167	3.889	5.889	5.167	6.222	5.222	5.500
M07	4.000	6.053	4.105	6.263	4.474	6.579	4.421	5.895
M08	4.722	6.500	4.778	6.389	5.556	6.278	5.389	5.944
M09	5.429	5.857	4.571	6.000	4.857	6.357	4.786	6.214
M10	4.800	6.333	4.533	6.267	4.667	6.067	5.267	6.333
M11	5.176	5.824	4.765	6.118	5.000	6.235	4.765	5.647
M12	5.214	6.214	4.571	6.643	5.000	6.643	5.000	6.714
M13	4.375	6.375	4.375	6.375	5.000	6.750	4.375	6.625
M14	3.800	6.333	3.933	6.533	4.333	6.400	4.333	6.067
All	4.634	6.152	4.306	6.360	4.988	6.394	4.928	6.059
Median	4.424	6.160	4.295	6.382	5.000	6.357	4.893	6.140
Std Dev.	0.5750	0.2016	0.5230	0.2341	0.5363	0.2196	0.4899	0.4292
Min	3.800	5.824	3.269	5.889	4.200	6.067	4.333	5.357
Max	5.765	6.500	5.392	6.650	6.275	6.769	6.137	6.714
Ministry	Excellent Commitment to Employees		Excellent Service to External Organisations		Capable of Quickly Executing Instructions		Quick Response to External Needs & Demands	
	As Is 2E	Should Be 6E	As Is 2F	Should Be 6F	As Is 2G	Should Be 6G	As Is 2H	Should Be 6H
M01	5.471	6.059	5.706	5.824	6.451	6.137	5.588	6.059
M02	4.300	6.400	4.750	5.850	4.700	6.050	4.550	5.800
M03	4.789	6.000	4.947	5.211	5.737	6.105	4.421	5.263
M04	4.929	5.214	4.857	5.571	4.214	6.286	4.429	5.857
M05	4.269	6.308	4.654	5.885	5.192	6.577	4.538	6.346
M06	4.056	5.611	5.111	5.444	5.778	5.611	4.278	5.222
M07	4.211	6.158	4.737	5.632	5.053	6.263	4.421	5.895
M08	5.056	6.056	5.111	5.556	5.944	6.111	4.778	5.667
M09	4.857	6.286	4.857	5.714	5.500	5.786	4.214	5.643
M10	4.333	6.267	5.733	5.800	5.400	6.333	4.667	5.933
M11	5.059	5.765	4.647	5.588	5.824	6.118	5.000	5.706
M12	4.643	6.429	4.786	6.071	5.643	6.429	4.714	5.929
M13	4.625	6.750	4.875	6.250	5.125	7.000	4.500	6.500
M14	4.067	6.133	4.667	5.800	4.800	6.400	4.200	5.933
All	4.619	6.102	4.960	5.728	5.383	6.229	4.593	5.839
Median	4.634	6.146	4.857	5.757	5.450	6.200	4.519	5.876
Std Dev.	0.4285	0.3803	0.3542	0.2603	0.5816	0.3351	0.3624	0.3476
Min	4.056	5.214	4.647	5.211	4.214	5.611	4.200	5.222
Max	5.471	6.750	5.733	6.250	6.451	7.000	5.588	6.500

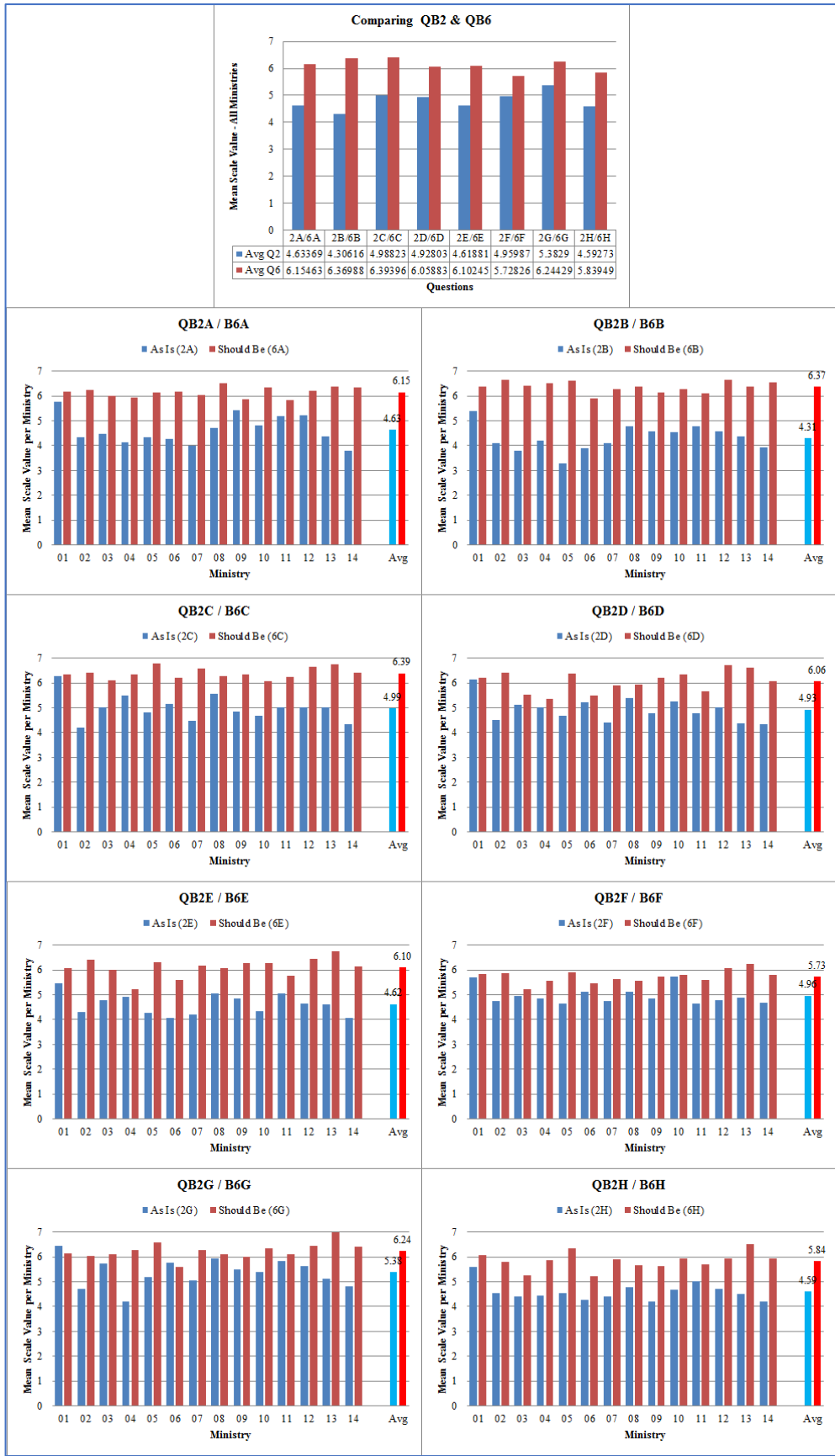


Figure 5-25 - QB2/QB6 - Comparing Practices with Values

Ministries 05, 13 and 14 consistently showed the highest average levels of concern across all questions with differences of around 1.92. M02 (1.79) and M07 (1.66) were also consistent and showed higher levels of concern across each pair of questions. The maximum concern about performance is in M05 in B2b and B6b with an average score of 3.35 for the effective use of resources by employees. M01 showed the minimum (negative) level of concern in B2g and B6b. Executives in M01 and M06 were so satisfied with current performance there were negative differences between ‘practices’ and ‘values’. Taken at face value, this leads to the illogical conclusion the ability of staff to respond to their instructions is better than it should be, casting some doubt on reliability of these responses

5.4.8 - Question B7 – Management and Leadership Styles



Figure 5-26 - QB7 Comparison of Management and Leadership Styles

QB7 (fig. 5-26 & table 5-26) compares various leadership values and examines to what extent executives saw themselves as managers rather than leaders. The researcher derived B7a and B7b from John Kotter's (1990) analysis of difference between managers and leaders. B7c-B7f each describe different classes of 'new leadership' styles developed by Scully, *et al* (1996). The researcher chose this because their descriptions summarise other theorists' work on leadership and combine various leadership styles into just four types.

QB7 Group							
Ministry	7A	7B	7C	7D	7E	7F	Mean (All responses)
01	6.098	6.275	5.647	6.196	6.235	6.137	6.098
02	5.650	6.400	5.050	5.800	5.900	5.200	5.667
03	5.579	5.000	4.579	5.368	5.684	5.105	5.219
04	4.857	5.286	4.571	5.714	5.643	5.643	5.286
05	4.885	5.615	4.808	5.962	6.231	6.231	5.622
06	5.556	5.389	5.278	5.889	6.167	6.056	5.722
07	5.474	5.526	4.737	5.895	6.158	6.474	5.711
08	5.500	5.556	4.556	5.611	6.000	5.889	5.519
09	5.714	5.786	4.786	6.000	6.214	6.214	5.786
10	5.000	5.200	4.067	5.867	6.200	6.000	5.389
11	5.235	5.294	4.235	5.706	5.824	5.588	5.314
12	5.429	5.714	4.857	5.500	6.286	6.357	5.690
13	5.000	5.000	5.250	5.375	5.875	6.250	5.458
14	5.000	4.867	4.000	5.133	5.467	5.133	4.933
ALL	5.459	5.623	4.858	5.799	6.034	5.899	5.612
Median	5.451	5.458	4.761	5.757	6.079	6.028	
Std Dev	0.3680	0.4511	0.4668	0.2905	0.2626	0.4661	
Min	4.857	4.867	4.000	5.133	5.467	5.105	
Max	6.098	6.400	5.647	6.196	6.286	6.474	

Table 5-26 - QB7 Comparison of Management and Leadership Styles

In the first pair of related questions, B7a describes behaviours adopted by managers, while B7b describes those which leaders adopt. While they are important differences, they are not mutually exclusive. However, at times of significant change or reform, one might anticipate a rise in leadership characteristics. The researcher believed this would translate into differences between M01 and the other ministries where significant changes had taken place (Gill 2003). One expects

fundamentally different behaviours from a leader to those of a manager (Huczynski and Buchanan 2007; pp.697-98). Theory suggests that managers concern themselves more with the technical aspects of day-to-day running whereas a leader's main aim is to provide hands-off vision. Leadership and management styles are also culturally bound (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001a, Brodbeck, et al. 2000, Enshassi and Burgess 1991). So, one might expect some effects in outcomes. In practice, there was little difference across ministries between responses in B7a and B7b, with medium values of 5.451 and 5.458 respectively. Each shows agreement with both propositions, trending towards mild agreement.

Outcomes variously signal executives mainly saw themselves as both managers and leaders in broadly equal proportions, with a small bias towards leadership. In three ministries, M03, M06 and M14 this bias is reversed.

The strongest managerial characteristics occur in M03 (0.58) and the weakest in M14 (0.13). Executives in M13 saw themselves as both managers and leaders equally. They were similar results in M07 (0.053), M08 (0.056) and M11 (0.058). The mean difference in remaining ministries is 0.28 biased towards leadership. With a difference of 0.18, M01 falls roughly between the highest and lowest differences (mean 0.14, median 0.07, std dev. 0.3232). One infers the change process had little effect on managerial and leadership characteristics. The greatest differences in results biased towards leadership occur in M02 (0.75) and M05 (0.73).

From the cross-cultural perspective, a previous study in Qatar by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001a) found leaders and managers were “*administratively competent, diplomatic, visionary, having integrity and will performance-oriented and inspirational*” (2001, p.515). Negative characteristics showed leaders and managers to be “*non-participative, autocratic, autonomous, malevolent, face-saving and self-centred*” (2001, p.515). Abdalla and Al-Homoud's (2001) study was part of the GLOBE project. The findings for B7a and B7b confirm the mix is of ‘administrative competence’ and ‘performance orientation’ versus ‘visionary’ and ‘inspirational’.

B7c is about behaviours which Scully, *et al* (1996) described as ‘Strongman’. This characterised an autocratic style. B7d describes a ‘Transactor’. B7e is a ‘Visionary Hero’, and B7e is a ‘Superleader’. Fig. 5-26 and table 5-26 show responses.

On average across the ministries, the strongest characteristic (mean 6.03, median 6.079) was that of ‘Visionary Hero’ closely followed by ‘Superleader’ (mean 5.90, median 6.028). The lowest occurring type of leader was ‘Strongman’ (mean 4.78, median 4.71). While M01 (the unreformed ministry) shows the strongest support by executives for the statements in B7c (Strongman) and B7d (Transactor) these are insufficiently differentiated from other results. They are more likely to be simply a product of the function of the ministry rather than a difference caused by attitudes and behaviours during the reform process.

‘Super leader’ describes an inclusive style. The strength of agreement to this characteristic does not support findings by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001a) but points strongly towards an inclusive, servant leadership style (Greenleaf 1977, Stone, et al. 2004). However, this supports findings by a few researchers which looked specifically at Islamic factors (Al-Buraey 2001, Beekun and Badawi 1999, Faris and Parry 2011).

Given the reforms in the ministries is not surprising to find the highest incidence of leadership type is Visionary Hero (B7E). M01 features strongly in this characteristic as well, when no reforms have taken place. This suggests more of a cultural context than one related to the reform process and so one could infer that this is also present in other ministries.

5.4.9 - Question B8 – Information Factors

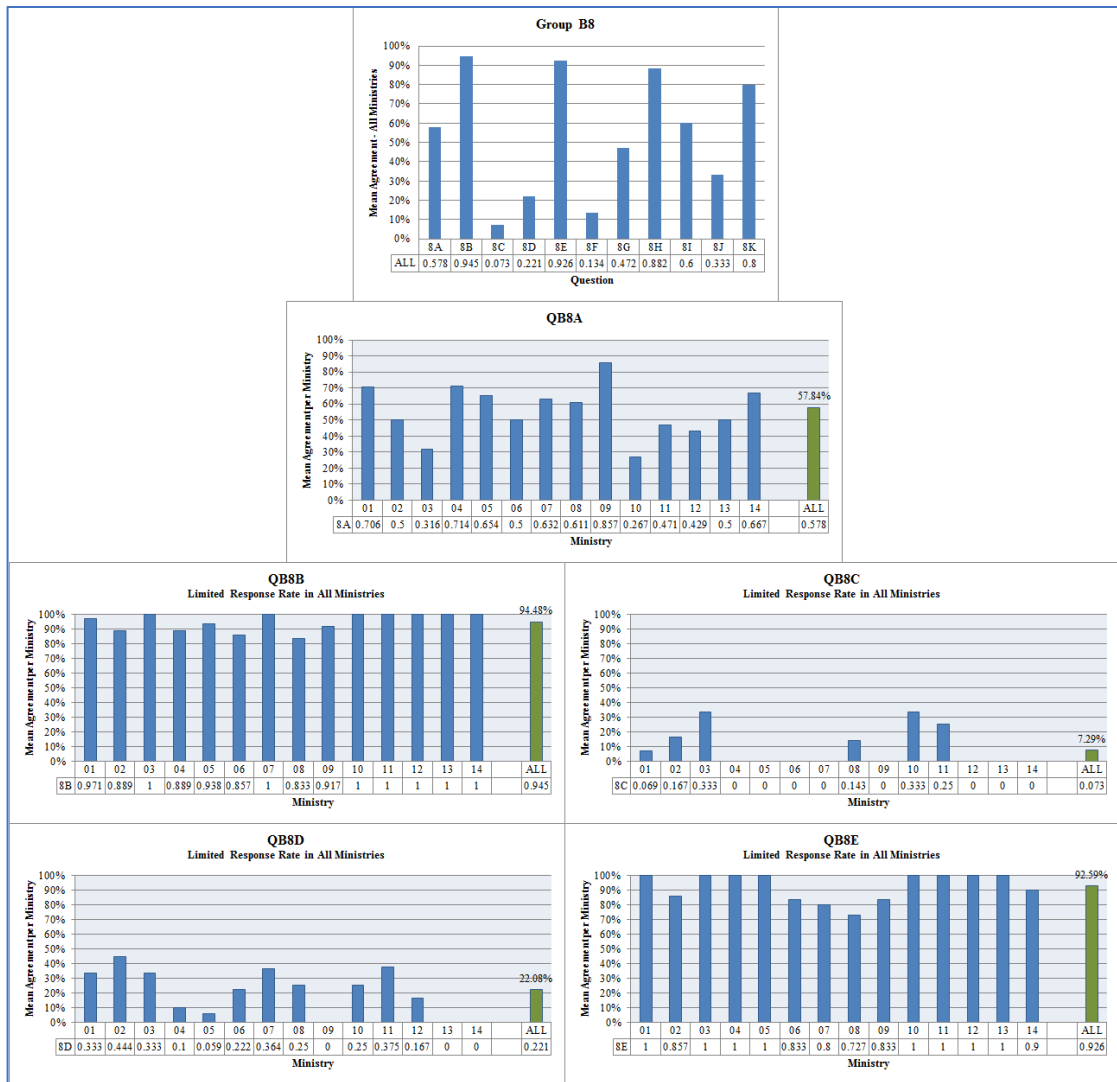


Figure 5-27 - Q B8 – Information Factors – Positive Response to QB8A

QB8 (fig. 5-27 & table 5-27) investigated effects of recent major initiatives concerning national values in the QNV 2030. The present Emir supported and promoted QNV 2030 when Crown Prince. Certain questions in QB8 also addressed the issue of major training initiative launched and widely publicised just before these surveys were conducted; the CBI.

Those respondents who read QNV 2030 continued to answer questions (fig. 5-27 and table 5-27). The questionnaire directed those who had not read it to go directly to B8f (fig. 5-28 and table 5-27). On average, around 58% of executives (median 55.6%) in all ministries said they had read the document. The number who had read the document varied between ministries with

86% in M09 while in M10 only 27% of executives confirmed they had read it. Around 29% on average neither answered positively, nor went on to answer B8G onwards.

Table 5-27 - QB8 – Information Factors

Group QB8											
	Limited Responses					Very Limited Responses					
Ministry	8A	8B	8C	8D	8E	8F	8G	8H	8I	8J	8K
01	0.706	0.971	0.069	0.333	1.000	0.216	0.455	0.800	0.750	0.250	1.000
02	0.500	0.889	0.167	0.444	0.857	0.050	0.000	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
03	0.316	1.000	0.333	0.333	1.000	0.158	0.667	1.000	1.000	0.500	1.000
04	0.714	0.889	0.000	0.100	1.000	0.071	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
05	0.654	0.938	0.000	0.059	1.000	0.192	0.200	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
06	0.500	0.857	0.000	0.222	0.833	0.056	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
07	0.632	1.000	0.000	0.364	0.800	0.105	0.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
08	0.611	0.833	0.143	0.250	0.727	0.111	0.500	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
09	0.857	0.917	0.000	0.000	0.833	0.357	0.800	1.000	0.250	0.000	0.000
10	0.267	1.000	0.333	0.250	1.000	0.067	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
11	0.471	1.000	0.250	0.375	1.000	0.118	0.500	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
12	0.429	1.000	0.000	0.167	1.000	0.143	0.500	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
13	0.500	1.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
14	0.667	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.900	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
ALL	0.578	0.945	0.073	0.221	0.926	0.134	0.472	0.882	0.600	0.333	0.800
Median	0.556	0.986	0.000	0.236	1.000	0.108	0.477	1.000	0.125	0.000	0.000
Std Dev	0.1624	0.0613	0.1295	0.1541	0.0968	0.0944	0.3746	0.4890	0.4847	0.3692	0.4688
Min	0.267	0.833	0.000	0.000	0.727	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Max	0.857	1.000	0.333	0.444	1.000	0.357	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

A high proportion of executives (mean 94% median 98.6%) who read QNV 2030 felt that its principles applied directly to the work of their ministry [B8b]. A high proportion of these positive respondents (mean 93%, median 100%) believed *specifically* (underlined in the questionnaire) applied to HRM [B8e]. Nevertheless, few (mean 22% median 23.6%) felt that it was necessary to translate QNV 2030 into specific goals for the ministry and to tell members of staff [B8d]. Almost none (mean 0.7% median 0%) thought it necessary to distribute it to subordinates [B8c]. When it came to knowledge about the CBI [B8f], only 13% (median 10.8%) of executives had any knowledge of the CBI. The negative respondents went direct to QB9. Of those who knew the CBI, just under half (47%, median 47.77%) had detailed knowledge of the initiative [B8g]. Positive respondents answered the remaining questions. While a relatively high proportion of executives with knowledge of CBI (mean 88%, median 100%) indicated they were taking part in the initiative [B8h], though this only amounted to 6% of the total population. Only 33% (median

0% - 4% of total population) had any plans to take part in the future [B8]. Other questions asked for details for which there was no special pattern or significance.

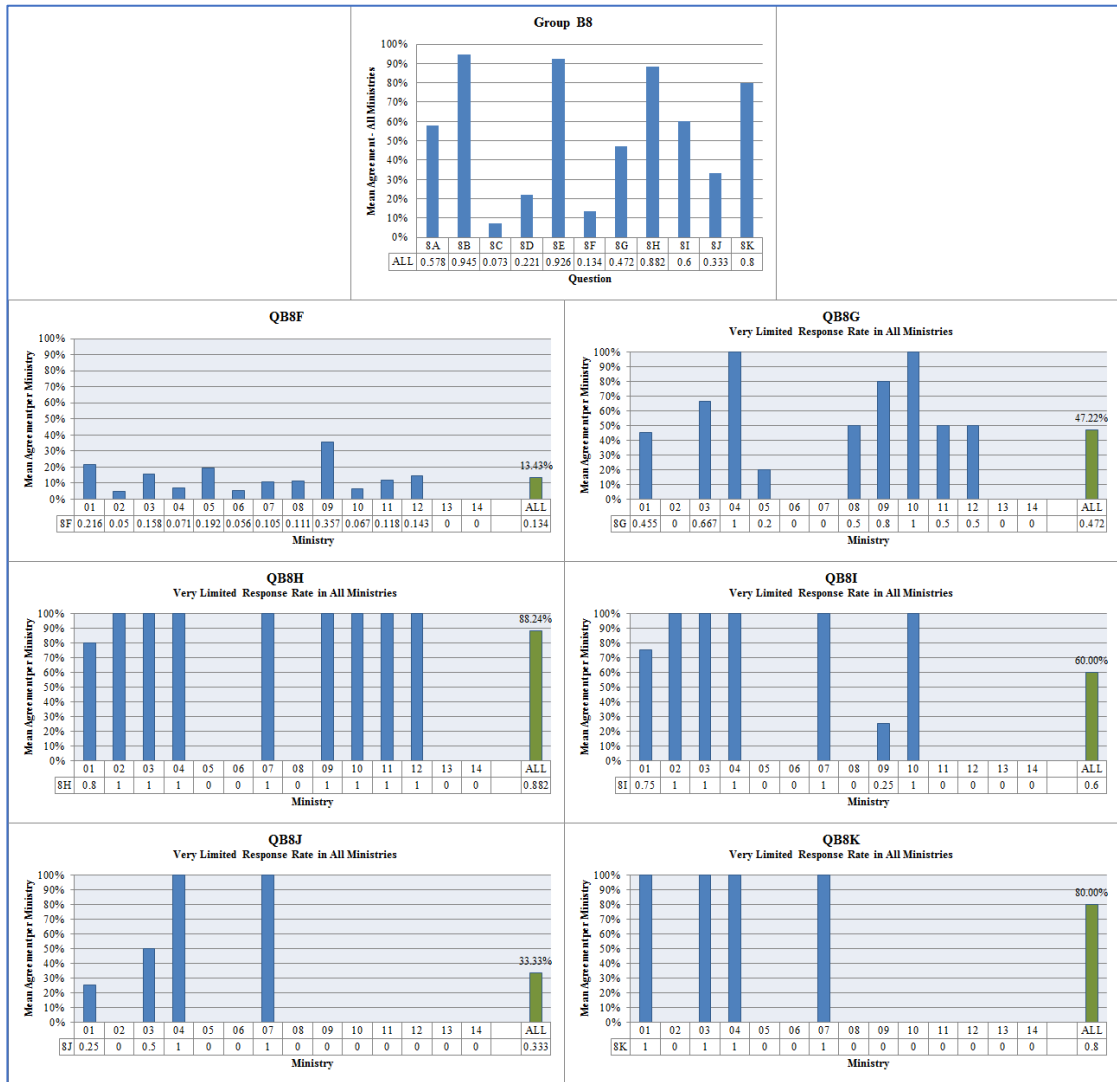


Figure 5-28 - QB8 – Information Factors - Negative Response to QB8A

5.4.10 Organisational Factors

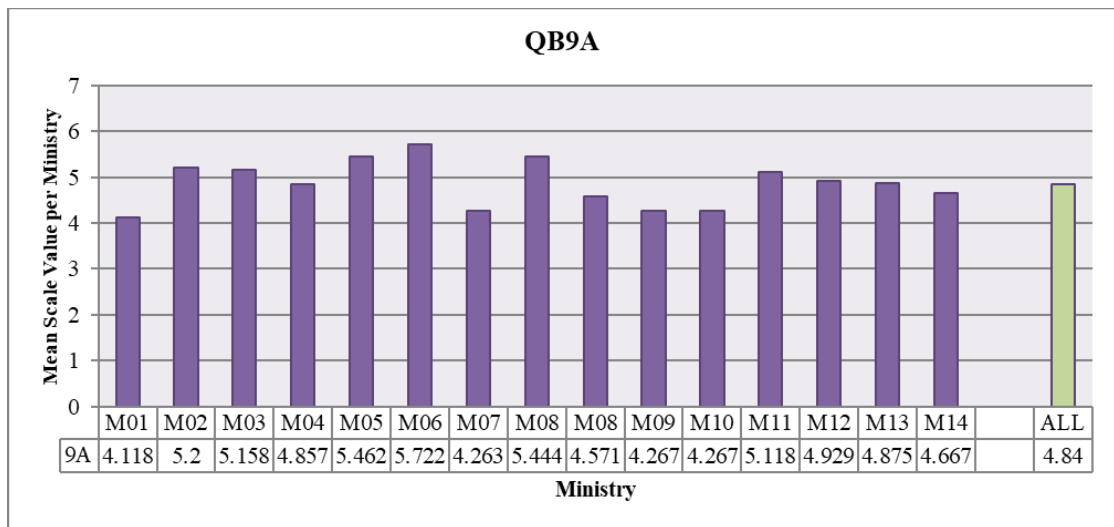


Figure 5-29 - Organisational Factors: Nothing Special Makes This Ministry Different

Table 5-28 - Organisational Factors

Group QB9			
Ministry	9A	9B	9C
M01	4.12	66.7%	37.3%
M02	5.20	30.0%	45.0%
M03	5.16	31.6%	31.6%
M04	4.86	42.9%	28.6%
M05	5.46	34.6%	19.2%
M06	5.72	27.8%	11.1%
M07	4.26	26.3%	36.8%
M08	5.44	50.0%	38.9%
M08	4.57	28.6%	14.3%
M09	4.27	26.7%	20.0%
M10	4.27	26.7%	23.5%
M11	5.12	17.6%	5.9%
M12	4.93	35.7%	14.3%
M13	4.88	37.5%	25.0%
M14	4.67	13.3%	40.0%
ALL	4.84	37.7%	28.0%

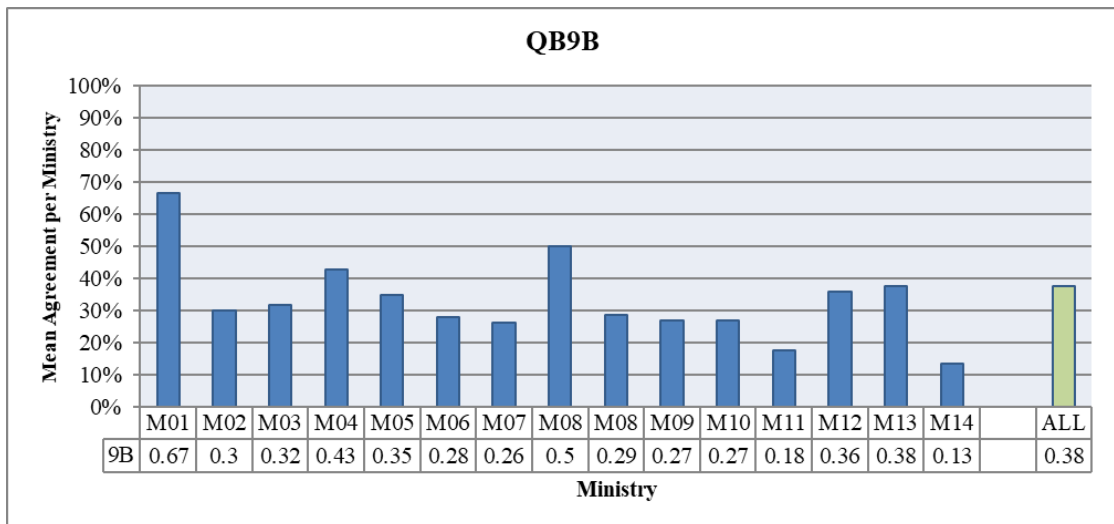


Figure 5-30 - Organisational Factors: Factors Which Made Reorganisation Successful

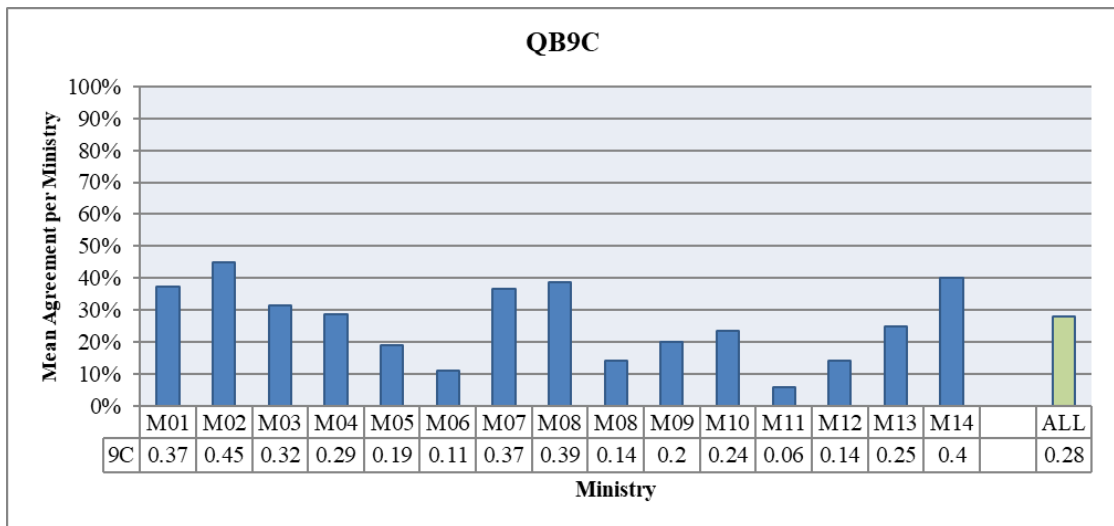


Figure 5-31 - Organisational Factors: Factors Which Made Reorganisation Difficult

5.5 SEM RESULTS

5.5.1 Validating the Measurement Model

Tables 5-29 to 5-34 show the quality criteria for validating the LVs in the measurement model. These exclude reflective indicators with factor loadings < 0.5, or those contributing to Cronbach's alpha < 0.5). The five LVs developed from the reflective indicators all satisfy the minimum quality criteria for a PLS path model. Specifically:

(a) Factor loadings are strong (0.544 to 0.864);

(b) AVE = 48.7% to 74.5%); and

(c) Cronbach's alpha = 0.622 to 0.904.

Table 5-29 - Quality Criteria for Management Style

SEM - Quality Criteria	
Management Style	
Item	Loading
I establish goals and expect subordinates to reach them. I offer rewards for success, I recognise good work but criticise poor performance.	0.781
My main role is to produce order, consistency and predictability.	0.774
I tell my subordinates how to carry out their work. I sometimes criticise them for reasons not connected directly to their ability to do their job.	0.721
	AVE (%) 57.60%
	Cronbach's alpha (3 items) 0.622

Table 5-30 - Quality criteria for Leadership Style

SEM - Quality Criteria	
Leadership Style	
Item	Loading
I provide a sense of purpose and direction, and motivate subordinates to perform beyond their capability.	0.864
My main role is to produce positive and sometimes dramatic change.	0.864
	AVE (%) 74.60%
	Cronbach's alpha (2 items) 0.660

Table 5-31 - Quality Criteria for Way Operations Are

SEM - Quality Criteria	
Way Operations Are	
Item	Loading
I believe this ministry achieves excellent service and commitment to the public through its people.	0.830
I believe this ministry achieves excellent commitment to the State and its policy makers through its people.	0.814
I believe this ministry achieves excellent commitment to employees through its people.	0.810
I believe this ministry uses all of its people to achieve the most effective use of its resources.	0.805
I believe this ministry is capable of quickly executing the instructions of senior managers and executives.	0.748
I believe this ministry is in a good position to achieve its stated goals through its people.	0.748
I believe this ministry can quickly respond to external needs and demands on its functions whatever they may be.	0.729
I believe this ministry achieves excellent service and commitment to external organisations through its people.	0.707
	AVE (%) 48.70%
	Cronbach's alpha (8 items) 0.904

Table 5-32 - Quality Criteria for Way Systems Should Work

SEM - Quality Criteria	
Way Systems Should Work	
Item	Loading
I believe this ministry should achieve even better commitment to the State and its policy makers through its people.	0.782
I believe this ministry should be more capable of quickly executing the instructions of senior managers and executives.	0.756
I believe this ministry should achieve even better service and commitment to external organisations through its people.	0.753
I believe this ministry should achieve even better service and commitment to the public through its people.	0.747
I believe this ministry should be able to more quickly respond to external needs and demands on its functions whatever they may be.	0.739
I believe this ministry should achieve even better commitment to the State and its policy makers through its people.	0.738
I believe HR management systems in this ministry should completely respect Qatar's national and working culture.	0.659
I believe this ministry should use all its people to achieve the most effective use of its resources.	0.650
	AVE (%) 53.20%
	Cronbach's alpha (8 items) 0.884

Table 5-33 - Quality Criteria for Way Systems Work Today

SEM - Quality Criteria	
Way Systems Work Today	
Item	Loading
I believe the systems in place in this ministry are capable of properly assessing the performance of employees generally.	0.823
I believe the systems in place in this ministry are capable of properly assessing the performance of employees generally.	0.761
I believe the systems in place in this ministry are capable of properly assessing and improving the performance of managers and executives.	0.738
I believe that we properly understand the work content of every job and the characteristics of every person needed to do it.	0.719
I believe pay and rewards in this ministry properly recognise the most capable.	0.718
I believe we manage the talent we have in this ministry well, and suitably help develop the careers of those employees with most long-term capability.	0.717
I believe we properly understand the skills, competence and potential of all employees.	0.714
I believe the recruitment system always gets the best person for the job.	0.712
I believe the systems in place in this ministry are effective for negotiating the terms and conditions of employment and resolving conflicts between this ministry and its employees.	0.695
I believe the education and training programmes given to employees meet the exact needs of this ministry.	0.685
I believe information and communication systems with all employees are excellent in this ministry.	0.683
I believe the administration of people in this ministry meets my specific needs.	0.655
I believe that systems are equally fair to all employees, no matter what their gender or nationality.	0.628
I believe pay and rewards in this ministry are able to attract and retain the best employees.	0.622
I believe this ministry has excellent systems for looking after the balance between work and family life for all its employees, both male and female.	0.616
I believe pay and reward systems, including the way increases are awarded are fair to all employees in this ministry.	0.561
I believe pay and reward systems in this ministry are fair in comparison with those available in the private sector.	0.554
	AVE (%) 49.02%
	Cronbach's alpha 0.927

Ordinal variables which contain less than three categories create inconsistent factors (Hair et al., 2010). So, the factor loadings and AVE (%) for the formative variables with dichotomous (i.e., 'Yes' or 'No') does not provide answers. Also, reliability estimates may be misleadingly low (attenuated) for questionnaire items based on dichotomous responses (Brannick, 2005).

Reliability estimates listed in table 5-34 for the formative variables constructed using ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ responses (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.503 to 1.000) showed all but three to be reliably measured enough to construct a PLS path model. The reliability of three components of ‘Practices’; ‘organisational design’, ‘performance management’, and ‘employee relations management’ was poor (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.247, 0.283, and 0.295 respectively). Thus, this researcher excluded these three variables from measuring ‘Practices’. He assumed scores for ‘cultural dimensions’ (tables 4-6 and 4-7) were valid and reliable because they came from a published source (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005, House et al., 2004).

Table 5-34 - Reliability of variables constructed using formative (‘Yes’ or ‘No’) indicators

SEM - Ordinal Criteria		
Reliability of variables constructed using formative (“Yes” or “No”) indicators		
Variable	Number of Items	Reliability
Information Factors	11	0.813
Reasons	12	0.711
Sources	22	0.567
Reform Process	12	0.704
Drivers of Change	8	0.741
Strategy	7	0.613
Practices:		
Personnel management	9	1.000 ^a
Organisational design	7	0.247
Employee resourcing	6	0.507
Learning and development	6	0.503
Reward management	9	0.528
Performance management	6	0.283
Employee relations management	6	0.295
Health and safety/employee well-being	3	1.000 ^a
^a Cronbach’s alpha could not be computed because there was no variance in the responses. Reliability is recorded as 1.000 because every respondent provided the same answers.		

5.5.2 Evaluating the Structural Model

The first stage of evaluating the structural model was to summarise and describe LVs. fig. 5-33 illustrates the frequency distributions of the five LVs operationalised by averaging the scores for the reflective indicators. Data was from 268 respondents using QB. About two-thirds of respondents scored between 3 (Disagree) and 5 (Agree) for the ‘Way Systems Work’. Over half of the respondents scored between 5 (Agree) and 7 (Strongly Agree) for ‘Leadership Style’, ‘Management Style’, ‘Way Operations Are’, and ‘Way Systems Work’. ‘Professionalism’ was

scaled by adding scores. This reflected a wide range of experience from 2 (lowest level of service in HRM) to 6 (highest level of service in HRM).

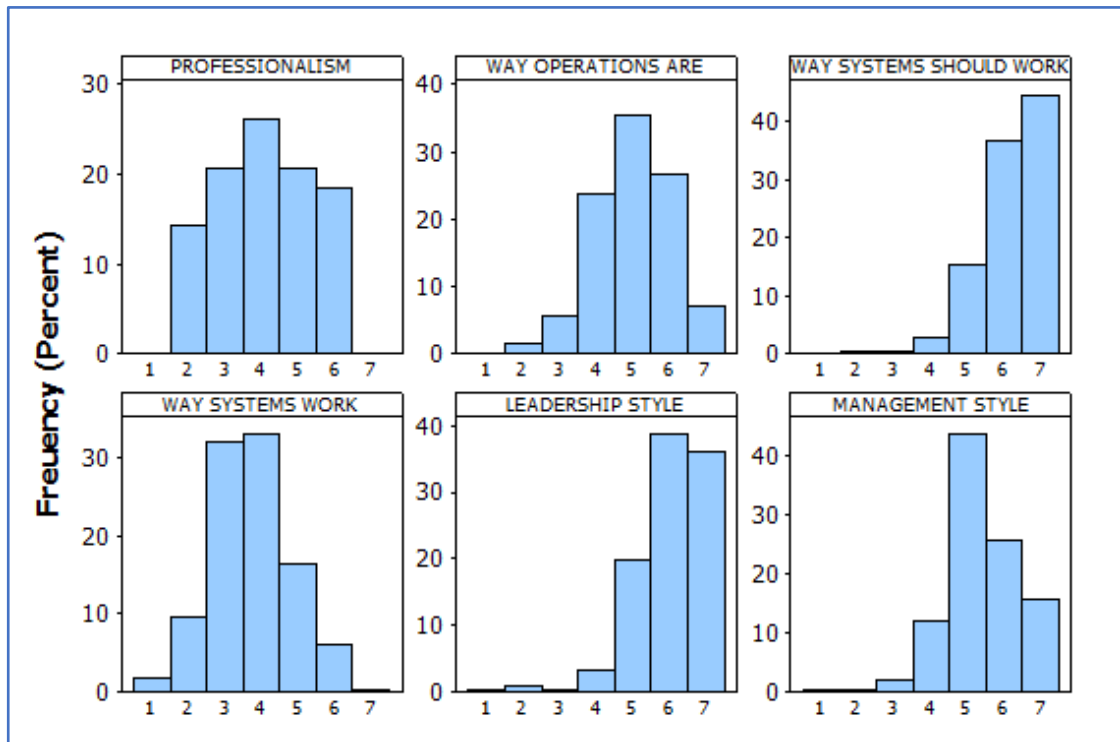


Figure 5-32 - Frequency distributions of variables constructed from reflective indicators

Fig. 5-34 shows frequency distributions of the variables operationalised adding scores (1 = Yes or 0 = No) for the formative indicators reported by the fourteen ministers in Questionnaire A (QA). Frequency distributions reflected the wide variability of ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ replies among the ministers to items on HRM processes and practices.

HRDs reported they:

- used from 0 to 10 ‘Information Factors’;
- had from 4 to 20 Reasons for HRM; and
- used from 2 to 7 ‘Sources of Management Theory and Practice’.

HRD’s reporting of the change process varied, with respondents scoring between 0 to 6 for the components of the ‘Reform Process’ and ‘Drivers of Change’. The scores for ‘Strategy’ ranged from 3 to 9.

HRDs supported a wide variety of management practices, including

- 6 for Personnel Management;
- 5 to 7 for Employee Resourcing;
- 2 to 7 for Learning and Development;
- 3 to 7 for Reward Management; and
- 2 to 3 for Health & Safety and Employee Well-being.

The total score for the diversity of ‘management practices’ ranged from 19 to 29. This implied not all ministries used the same practices except for ‘Way Systems Work’, which approximated a normal distribution. Figs. 5-34 and 5-35 show all the frequency distributions deviated from normality. This implies that parametric statistics are not justified to summarise or analyse the scores.

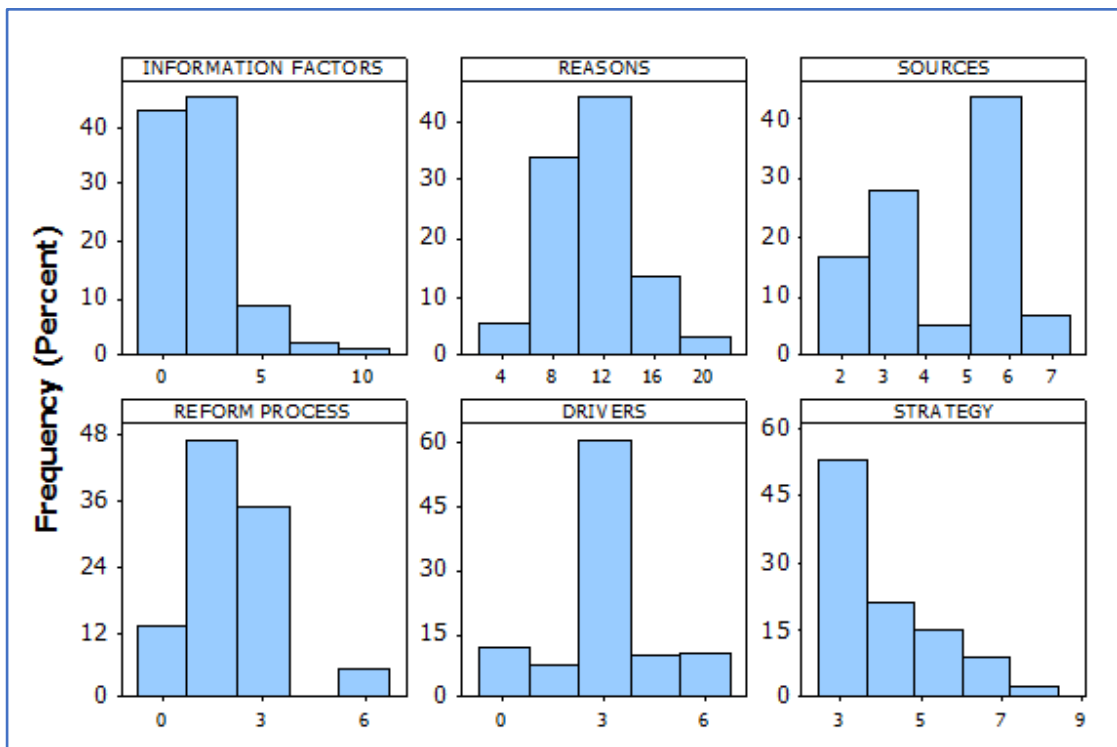


Figure 5-33 - Frequency distributions of variables constructed from formative indicators (1)

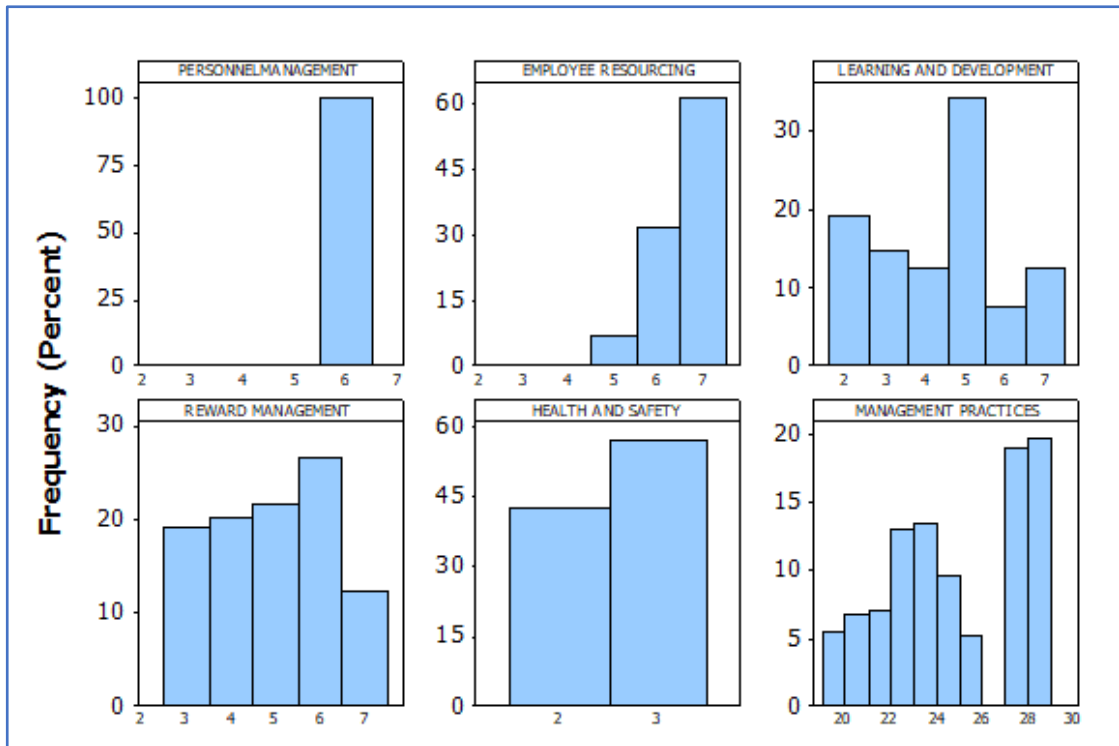


Figure 5-34- Frequency distributions of variables constructed from formative indicators (2)

5.5.2.1 Path Model I

Model I (fig. 5-36) was the first PLS path model modelled during exploratory analysis. Model 1 aimed to measure the effects of the diversity of ‘Information Factors’, ‘Reasons’, ‘Sources’, ‘Reform Process’, ‘Drivers of Change’, ‘Strategy’, ‘Management Practices’ and ‘Professionalism’ on the ‘Way Systems Work’. Fig. 5-36 copies the Smart-PLS output for the structural model. It includes β weights, next to the arrows between the LVs, and the R^2 value in the symbol representing ‘Way Systems Work’. The researcher produced this output using the two Smart-PLS options:

- (a) ‘Hide/Show Measurement Model’ to hide the indicators; and
- (b) ‘Export to Image’ to store the path diagram in a Bitmap image (.bmp) file.

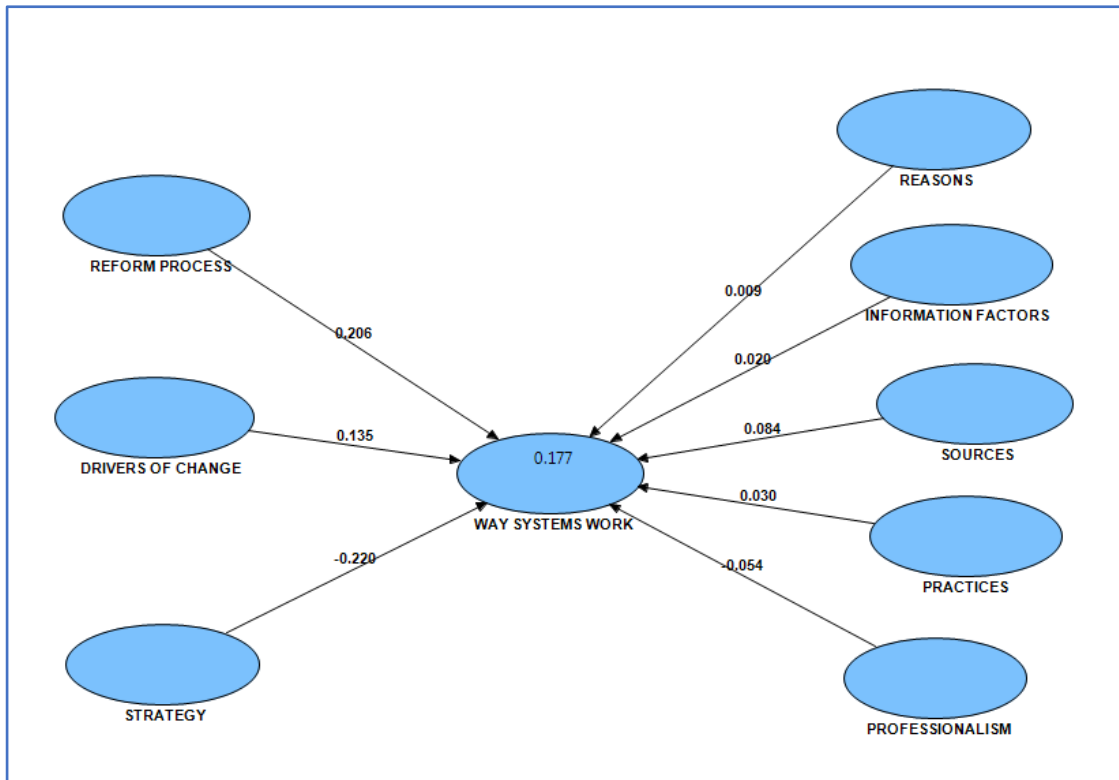


Figure 5-35 - Model I Constructed by Smart-PLS to Predict Way Systems Work

Model I explained a moderate proportion (17.7%) of the variance in ‘Way Systems Work’. On the left-hand side of the path diagram, t-tests indicated three β weights significantly differed from zero. ‘Reform Process’ ($\beta = 0.206$) and ‘Drivers of Change’ ($\beta = 0.135$) had a significant positive effect on ‘Way Systems Work’. ‘Strategy’ had a negative effect on ‘Way Systems Work’ ($\beta = -0.220$). The β weights ranged from 0.009 to 0.084 for ‘Reasons’. On the right hand side of the path diagram, ‘Information Factors’, ‘Sources’, ‘Practices’, and ‘Professionalism’ did not differ from zero significantly.

5.5.2.2 Path Model II

The researcher constructed the second exploratory PLS path model, Model II to explore the effects of ‘Way Systems Are’, ‘Way Systems Should Work’, ‘Management Style’, and ‘Leadership Style’ on ‘Way Systems Work’. Fig. 5-37 is a copy of the Smart-PLS output for the structural model.

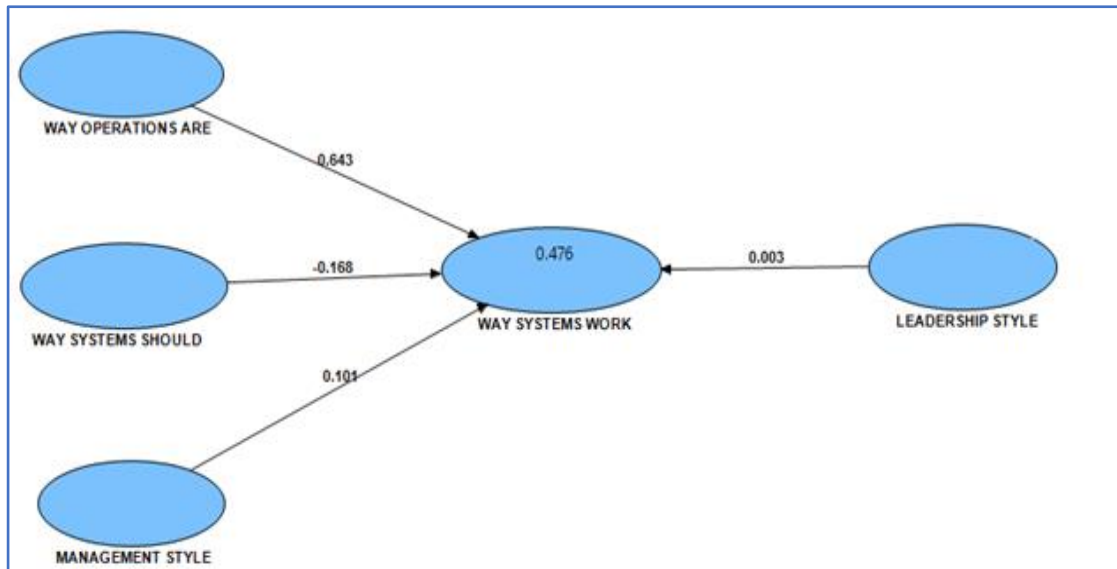


Figure 5-36 - Model II Constructed by Smart-PLS to Predict Way Systems Work

Model II explained a large proportion (47.6%) of the variance in ‘Way Systems Work’. On the left-hand side of the path diagram, the t-tests showed three of the β weights significantly differed from zero. The strongest prediction ($\beta = 0.643$), reflected the highest level of positive correlation between beliefs about the way executives report The Way HR Systems *Work* Today for everyday operations in the ministry, and beliefs about the way HR operations *are* today. The ‘Way Systems Work’ was weakly positively correlated with ‘Management Style’ ($\beta = 0.101$) and weakly negatively correlated with ‘Way Systems Should Be’ ($\beta = -0.168$). There was no significant relationship between ‘Way Systems Work’ and ‘Leadership Style’ ($\beta = 0.003$).

5.5.2.3 Path Model III

This researcher constructed the third exploratory PLS path model, Model III, to explore the effects of ‘Qatari Cultural’ and ‘Western Cultural Dimensions’ on ‘Way Systems Work’. Fig. 5-38 copies the Smart-PLS output for the structural model. Model II explains a moderate proportion (27.3%) of the variance in ‘Way Systems Work’. The t-tests showed three β coefficients were significantly different from zero. There was a significant negative correlation between ‘Way Systems Work’ and ‘Western Practices’ ($\beta = -0.361$). The significant relationship between ‘Qatari Cultural Values’ and ‘Way Systems Work’ ($\beta = 0.430$) was not as strong as that between ‘Western Values’ and ‘Way Systems Work’ ($\beta = 0.580$). There was no significant relationship

between ‘Way Systems Work’ and ‘Qatari Practices’ ($\beta = -0.045$). Together these signal that influences of Western culture on HRM and ways of working is much higher than those of Qatari culture.

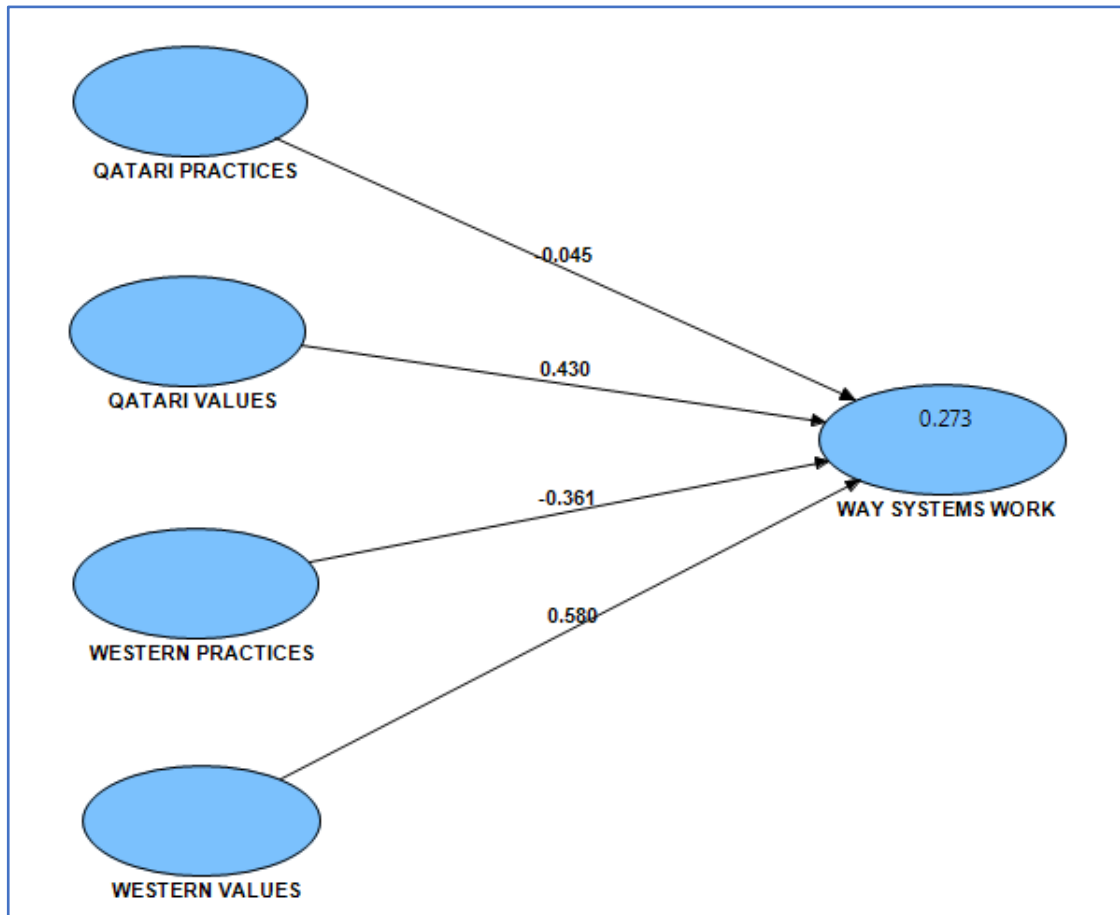


Figure 5-37 - Model III Constructed by Smart-PLS to Predict Way Systems Work

5.5.2.4 Path Model IV

This researcher constructed Model IV, the fourth exploratory PLS path model to explore the effects of ‘Western Values’ on ‘Way Systems Work’. He assumed the statistically significant LVs in Model I and Model II were mediators. These variables were ‘Drivers of Change’, ‘Reform Process’, ‘Way Systems Should Work’, ‘Strategy’, and ‘Management Style’. A mediator is a variable which intervenes between two other variables. Take a hypothesised causal chain relationship between two variables X and Y, where X is a hypothetical cause and Y is a hypothetical effect. A third variable (M) is a mediator if it acts as an indirect link between X and

Y. If full mediation occurs, the mediator eliminates the correlation initially established between X and Y (excluding the effects of M). If partial mediation occurs, the presence of mediator does not eliminate the correlation between X and Y though its magnitude reduces (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In a structural equation model, a triangle of arrows represents the mediator. The mediating variable is at the apex of the triangle (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Fig. 5-39 is a copy of the Smart-PLS output for the structural model including the mediation effects.

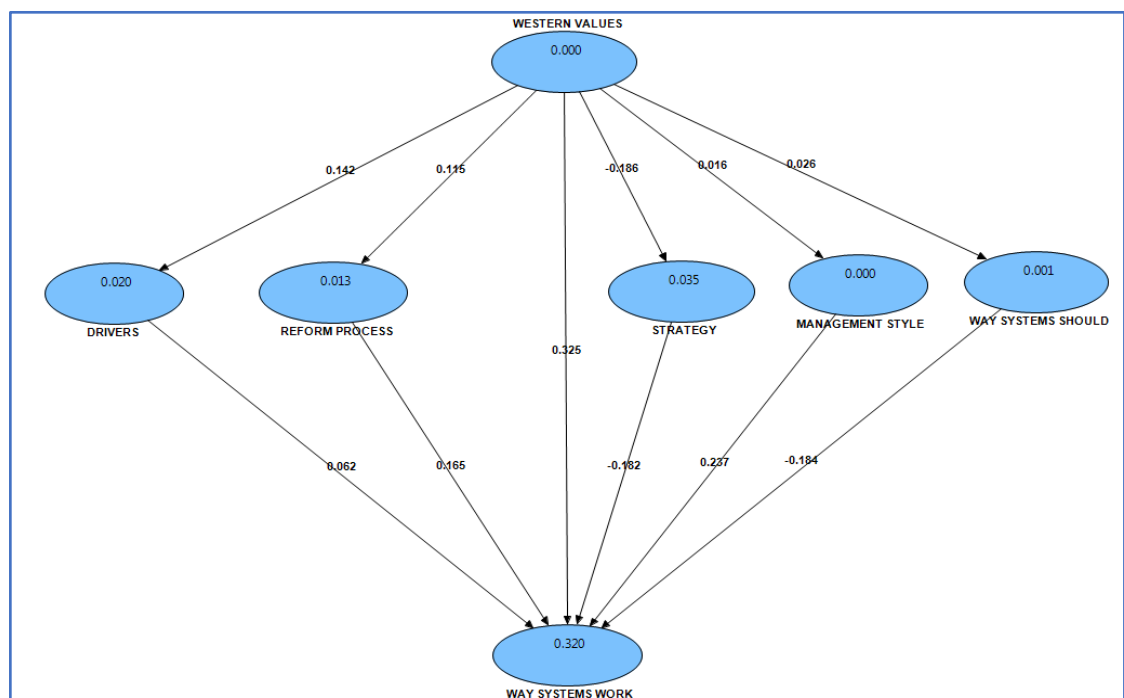


Figure 5-38 - Model IV Constructed by Smart-PLS to Predict Way Systems Work

Model IV explains a moderate proportion (32.0%) of the variance in ‘Way Systems Work’. The t-tests indicated that eight of the β coefficients were significantly different from zero. Compared to $\beta = 0.580$ without mediators in fig. 5-39, the presence of mediators reduced the significant correlation between ‘Western Values’ and ‘Way Systems Work’ ($\beta = 0.325$).

‘Western Values’ had significant positive effects on ‘Drivers of Change’ ($\beta = 0.142$, $R^2 = 2.0\%$) and the ‘Reform Process’ ($\beta = 0.115$, $R^2 = 1.3\%$). The significant effect of ‘Western Values’ on ‘Strategy’ was negative ($\beta = -0.185$, $R^2 = 3.5\%$). The effects of ‘Western Values’ on

'Management Style' and 'Way Systems Should Work' are, however, negligible ($\beta = 0$; $R^2 \leq 0.1\%$).

Under the influence of 'Western Values', the β coefficients were weaker between 'Way Systems Work' and 'Drivers of Change' ($\beta = 0.062$), the 'Reform Process' ($\beta = 0.165$) and 'Strategy' ($\beta = -0.182$) compared to the β coefficients in fig. 5-39. Under the influence of 'Western Values', the β coefficients were stronger between 'Way Systems Work' and 'Management Style' ($\beta = 0.237$) and 'Way Systems Should Work' ($\beta = -0.184$) compared to the β coefficients in fig. 5-39.

5.5.2.5 Path Model V

The researcher constructed Model V exploratory PLS path model to explore the effects of 'Qatari values' on 'Way Systems Work'. He assumed the statistically significant LVs in Models I and II were mediators. Thus, mediators were 'Drivers of Change', 'Reform Process', 'Way Systems Should Work', 'Strategy', and 'Management Style'. Fig. 5-40 is the Smart-PLS output for the structural model. It includes mediation effects. Model V explains a moderate proportion (38.6%) of the variance in 'Way Systems Work'. The t-tests indicated that five of the β coefficients differed significantly from zero. The presence of mediators reduced the correlation between 'Western Values' and 'Way Systems Work' ($\beta = 0.425$ compared to $\beta = 0.580$ in fig. 5-40). 'Qatari Values' had a significant positive effect on 'Drivers of Change' ($\beta = 0.161$, $R^2 = 2.6\%$) and a larger negative effect on 'Strategy' ($\beta = -0.255$, $R^2 = 6.5\%$) but effects of 'Qatari Values' on 'Management Style' and 'Way Systems Should Work' were negligible ($\beta = 0$; $R^2 \leq 0.1\%$). Under the influence of 'Qatari Values', the β coefficients were weaker than under the influence of 'Western Values' for relationships between 'Way Systems Work' and 'Drivers of Change' ($\beta = 0.047$); 'Reform Process', 'Strategy' ($\beta = -0.130$); 'Management Style' ($\beta = 0.214$) and 'Way Systems Should Work' ($\beta = -0.176$).

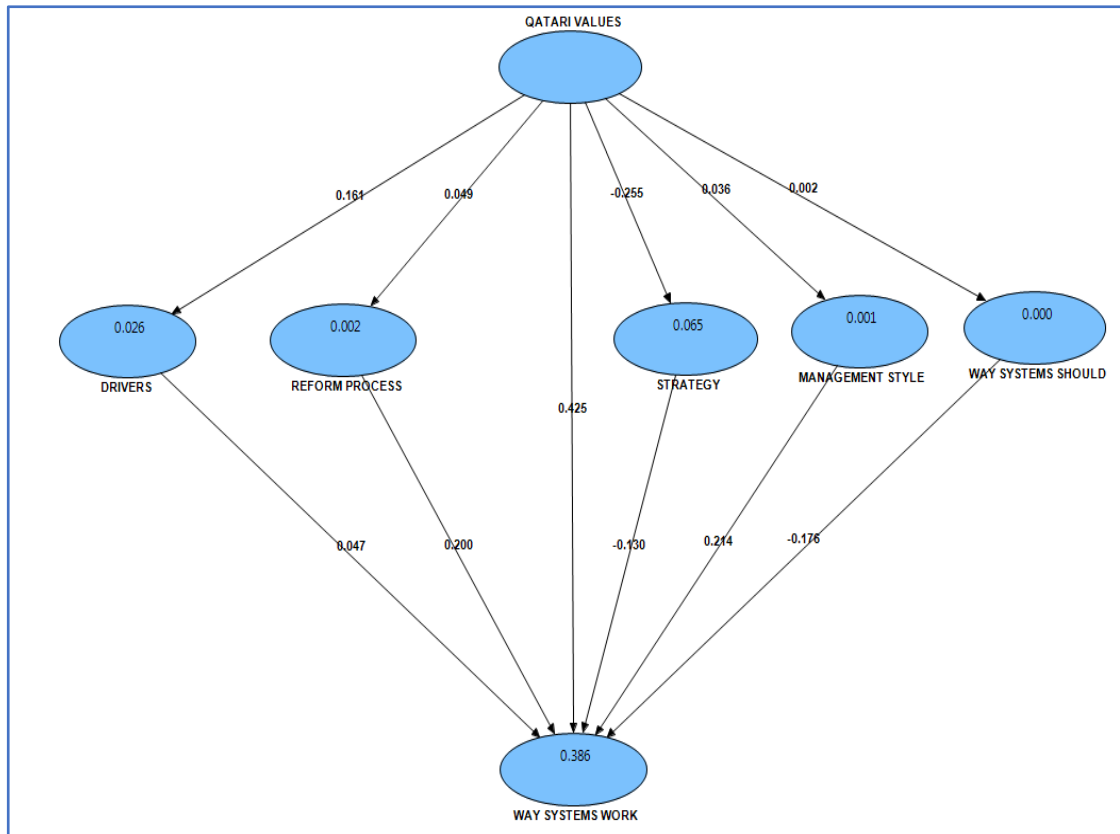


Figure 5-39 - Model V Constructed by Smart-PLS to Predict Way Systems Work

5.5.2.6 Comparison Between Fourteen Ministries

Respondents from a total of fourteen ministries participated in the questionnaire survey. The number of participants per ministry ranged from 8 to 51, with an average of 19 per ministry. It was not possible to construct a multilevel PLS path model (with one model for each ministry), because the sample sizes were too low. A minimum of at least thirty cases is required to construct a PLS-SEM model, because the bootstrapping procedure, to estimate the statistical significance of the β coefficients, does not operate with less than thirty cases. An error bar chart (fig. 5-41) compares scores computed for ‘Way Systems Work’ (means \pm 95% confidence intervals) across the fourteen ministries. Mean scores ranged from 2.9 to 4.5, consistently within the mid-region of the 7-point scale, possibly reflecting ARB. The narrow error bars (95% CI) indicated relatively limited variability in the beliefs of the respondents within each ministry about the ‘Way HR Systems Work Today’. The researcher conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare mean scores for the ‘Way Systems Work’ across all fourteen ministries. Because sample sizes

to compare mean scores between groups should be at least 30 per group (Van Hooris & Morgan, 2007) underpowered ANOVA. The statistical evidence showed no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) between the respondents at each ministry with respect to their beliefs about The Way HR Systems Work Today.

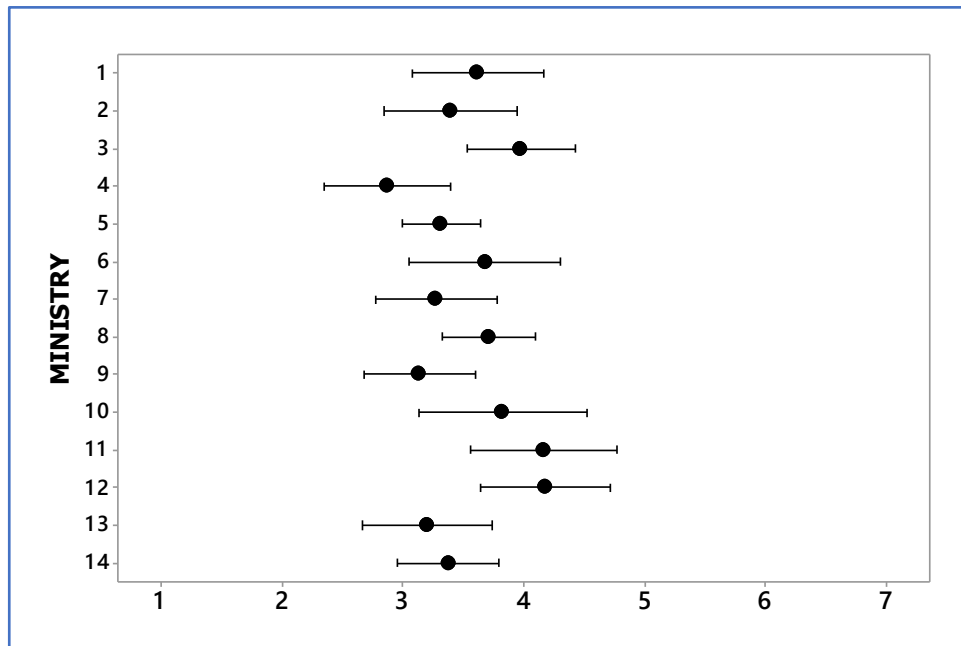


Figure 5-40 - Comparison of Way Systems Work (mean \pm 95% CI) at Fourteen Ministries

5.6 DISCUSSION

5.6.1 Discussion of Analysis of Questions to HRDs (QA)

A main purpose of Questionnaire A was to find out standard HRM practices operating in ministries and how consistently ministries had applied them. These data showed that no consistent pattern emerged based on information supplied by HRDs.

Fig. 5-42 shows the lack of uniformity among ministries when adopting groups of HR practices despite Law No. 8 having central control of HRM under Chapter II (Arts. 4-8). It shows a mixed picture across every question group. The most consistent were for QA8A. This signalled all ministries preoccupation with administrative systems and old-style PM.

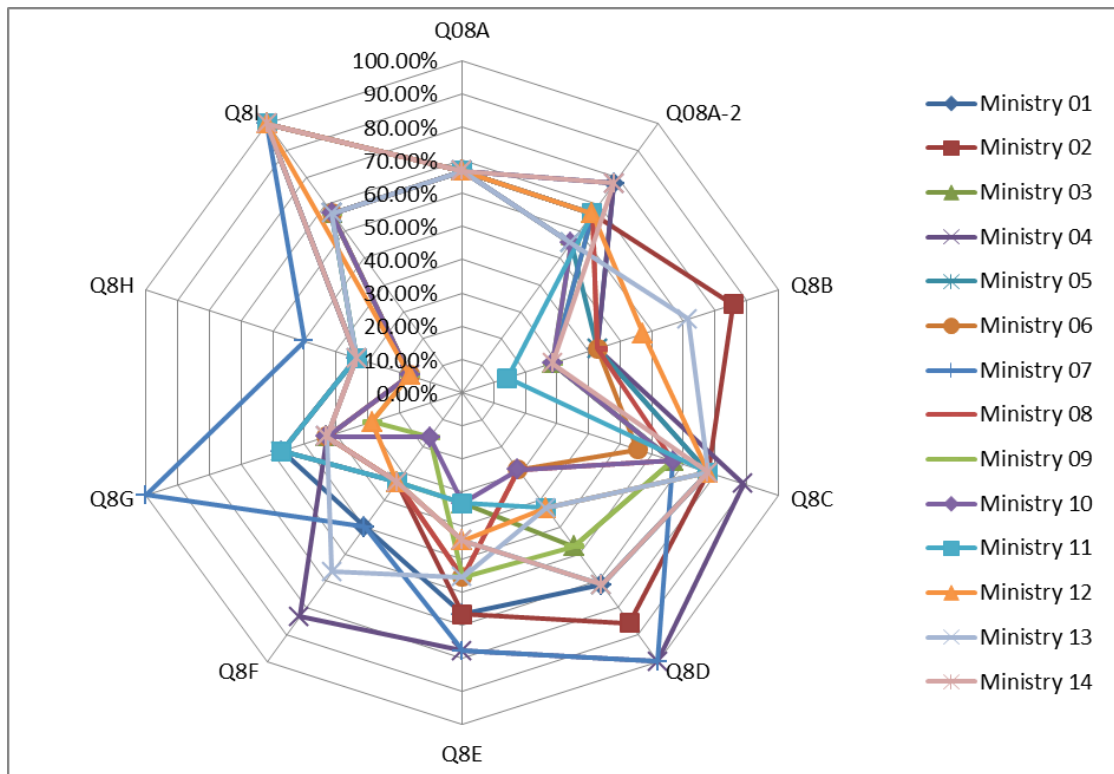


Figure 5-41 - Adoption of HR Practices by Question Group

Even here, NC clearly influenced the failure to adopt certain practices. This was especially true for policies and procedures about gender and nationality equality, and delegating certain HRM issues to line managers. The other major consistency was in QA8I, Health and Safety, and employee well-being. These, too showed influence by socio-cultural factors.

During questioning, HRDs consistently said employment law, especially Law No. 8 heavily influenced them. Yet, as section 5.3.1 shows there is no real evidence of this to the extent claimed. This researcher assumed, based on cultural theory, that top-down control from the centre would be an important factor. This proved only partially supported.

Cumulative analysis of all identified HR practices shown in table 5-35 also shows inconsistency of adoption across the range.

Table 5-35 - Cumulative adoption of all HRM practices

	Average	Median	Std Dev	Min	Max
Ministry 01	64.37%	66.67%	19.36%	33.33%	100.00%
Ministry 02	67.30%	66.67%	21.78%	33.33%	100.00%
Ministry 03	49.52%	50.00%	16.68%	28.57%	66.67%
Ministry 04	66.35%	72.22%	25.30%	16.67%	100.00%
Ministry 05	54.92%	56.35%	15.86%	33.33%	77.78%
Ministry 06	47.54%	49.21%	17.59%	16.67%	66.67%
Ministry 07	70.63%	66.67%	24.28%	28.57%	100.00%
Ministry 08	53.65%	49.21%	21.98%	28.57%	100.00%
Ministry 09	45.87%	55.56%	20.86%	16.67%	66.67%
Ministry 10	42.22%	38.10%	20.35%	16.67%	66.67%
Ministry 11	52.54%	50.00%	25.76%	14.29%	100.00%
Ministry 12	53.41%	50.79%	25.15%	16.67%	100.00%
Ministry 13	57.94%	61.11%	14.44%	33.33%	77.78%
Ministry 14	57.62%	55.56%	24.26%	28.57%	100.00%

Table 5-35 is a relatively crude measure. However, it does show there is wide variation with Ministry 07 having the greatest ‘across the board’ use of HRM practices, despite the HRD been new to HRM. This researcher also notes the ones settled ministry, M01 while fourth in averaging HRM adoption tables, adopted HRM in a patchy way more reminiscent of PM.

When comparing GM’s with long-standing people managers, there was great variation. Sometimes, GM’s scored much higher in adopting HR theory led policies than people managers, though this researcher notes the GM group also had some of the lowest adoption scores. One is left with the overall impression that far from being leaders of HRM practice, most acted administratively and had low or patchy levels of HR theory led practice. This strongly suggests the professional people managers need much greater education and training if they are to adopt HRM principles. It also suggests those officers promoted into an HRD role with no experience of people management were generally as (in)competent as people management professionals. At best, even where they went beyond instructions or Law No. 8 to install HRM practices, their approach was such that they were clearly administrators in the PM sense rather than true HR professionals.

HRDs completely avoid answering Question Group A11. There is little or no surrounding evidence from the answers to Group A8 questions that they adapted what they were doing to take account of cultural preferences beyond those contained in Law No. 8. Of course, this would be explained if they were, as noted, simple administrators in PM styles of management where cultural content is low or does not exist.

Strategic HRM theory suggests that HRM closely integrates with corporate strategy. Few HRDs appeared to liaise or work with their executive colleagues to ensure this happened. Central control should at least have led to not only more uniformity in HRM practices, but greater adoption of government strategy. There is little or no evidence this occurred.

Given poor levels of understanding of true HRM, and the contradictions that occurred in some questions, on further analysis it is increasingly obvious that HRDs were mere administrators with little professionalism in their approach and little understanding of the cultural factors at work when managing people. This is hardly surprising as their only sources of information were either Western consultants, or internal trainers adopting a Western-based HRM approach. The lack of true professionalism is likely to have failed to alert them to cross-cultural difficulties of managing people.

5.6.3 Discussion of Analysis of Questions to Executives (QB)

QB examined opinions of 100% of executives in every ministry above the same stratum in the hierarchy. The researcher's purpose was to explore data mostly different from QA. Executives are, in effect the recipient of HRM both as individuals and heads and deputy heads of major department. The researcher chose the group because, above all, they were knowledgeable about decisions made in their own ministry. The researcher knew from experience that, given the scale of the reforms, people beneath this rank would have little or no strategic experience of HRM. Thus, they were best placed to judge the effects of HRM in their own department and in the entire ministry. Deep involvement of line managers is a major principle in HRM (Armstrong 2011; pp.44, 171,328, 458, Guest 1987b, Guest 1989, Holt Larsen and Brewster 2003, Legge 1995b).

Should the HRDs not having involved them, almost all line managers (i.e. of lower rank) would have little knowledge. Another major purpose of selecting higher ranking executives was according to change theory, leadership theory and HRM theories this group was most likely to provide leadership rather than management. Question group B7 set out to test this.

Most responses produced categorical data from questions based on seven-point Likert scales. While they look like quantitative data, they are qualitative. Statistical theory shows analysis using only descriptive statistics of this type remains able to provide powerful conclusions in principle (Bollen 2002). Also, because this researcher could not directly measure any executive perspectives, they are LVs (Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh 2006). There are further statistical difficulties arising from comparing a single binary outcome variable in the QA data set and multiple latent categorical variables in the QB set. This, too was far from desirable, but imposed by the unusual circumstances of this already difficult case. The project faced further problems in this already difficult research which called in question data reliability. The previous chapter described how there is a tendency to give expected answers especially in Arab communities, rather than those which are necessarily accurate. Previous sections (5.3 and 5.4) identified and highlighted these when discussing several questions. Analysis found various other inconsistencies with answers often found in Arab surveys.

Question Groups B2-B6 directly and indirectly assessed executive experiences with HRM and the relationships which should exist between HR strategy and corporate strategy arising from these experiences. They were at best, weak. These question groups also tested the purpose behind HRM and whether the HRD and HR department was a true partner in achieving the strategic aims of the organisation. Again, the link was at best slight with disagreement between HRDs and executives on what they collectively try to achieve their employees. With such fundamental changes afoot in all ministries, question groups B8 and B9 sought to understand where, if anywhere, executives gained their information and understood what was the state of HRM in their ministry. These questions also showed a merely tenuous link between leadership, general and strategic management and what HRM, and change theory suggests. However, given the

exploratory nature of this research and the research model it is impossible to draw firm conclusions without further work by other researchers.

Whether executives succeeded in providing leadership is further discussed in section 5.6.5 of this chapter.

Analysis can use QA and QB as individual or combined datasets. Questionnaire B also formed part of other combined datasets which incorporated the widely validated Hofstede's (1980) and GLOBE findings (Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004a) as well as results from QA.

Despite these many difficulties, analysis in section 5.3 to 5.5 shows results can still be used and evaluated against various elements of theory to arrive at tentative conclusions on which to base future research. This includes leadership theory, HRM theory, cross-cultural theory and other related theories. Nevertheless, this researcher believes the many problems do not necessarily completely invalidate most findings. This researcher partly addressed and overcame some of the defects using SEM. The next section presents the results of this analysis.

5.6.3 Discussion of SEM Analysis

The main reason for using SEM and the structures chosen was to answer the questions of how to reap the benefits of path analysis or its equivalent when one uses categorical data which is not up to the scale of interval ratio scale measurement (Leik 1976) and response variables are latent. The 'dirty' nature of these data, where the real effects of introducing new HRM systems. Recent major reforms heavily masked them created huge analysis problems. Chapter 4 describes the final approach using SEM after extensive testing of alternative methods of statistical analysis took place.

SEM eventually provided the answer because it used a generalised approach to analysing multivariate data. The relatively comprehensive model used by the SEM technique combines useful characteristics from various statistical approaches and can analyse complex relationships

in a way that OLS regression simply cannot, even if applicable. In this case, these data only lent themselves to non-parametric analysis techniques.

The great advantage of SEM was its flexibility and its capability to deal with latent variable modelling and error and that SEM can test models and theory. Another benefit was that structural equation models can estimate relationships between latent, non-observed variables and then correct for the effects of measurement error. As 4.11 described, SEM is a combination of measurement model and path analysis. SEM tests models overall, including those with multiple dependent variables compared with testing individual coefficients. Much of the data in this case was multilevel and non-normal, exogenous and endogenous. SEM overcame these problems. The conclusions, while appearing simple, disguise the complex nature of SEM and the, programs which use it.

Following a review of the statistical evidence presented in this chapter, SEM generated the following conclusions inductively: These allow this research to put other findings in this chapter into context.

A review of the statistical evidence presented above inductively generated the following hypotheses:

1. Model I (fig. 5-36) signalled the respondents' high-level of agreement for beliefs about the 'Way HR Systems Work Today in the ministry. An example is 'properly understanding the skills, competence, and potential of all employees'. This positively relates to a high diversity of items contributing to the 'Reform Process' and to 'Drivers of Change' such as the QNV 2030 initiative and the formal change process involving all employees and managers. This evidence leads to the following hypothesis:

H1. The change process is an integral part of the way systems work.

2. Model I (fig. 5-36) signalled the respondents' beliefs about the 'Way Systems Work Today' negatively relate to strategic processes. Data showed a high diversity of 'Yes' responses to

questionnaire items about strategy. Examples include; ‘the HR plan’, ‘separate environmental scanning’, ‘formal alignment with organisational strategy’, ‘people resourcing’, ‘manpower planning strategy’, ‘learning and development strategy’, ‘knowledge management systems’ and ‘knowledge and competence retention’. These show a low-level of agreement with the items about the way systems work. This evidence leads to the following hypothesis:

H2: Strategy is opposed to the way systems work.

3. Model II (fig. 5-37) signalled incongruence between respondents’ beliefs about ‘The Way HR Systems Work Today’ and perceptions about the ‘Way That HR Systems Should Work’. This leads to the following hypotheses:

H3A: Respondents do not believe ‘The Way Systems Work Today’ is ideal; and

H3B: Systems could possibly work differently.

4. Model II (fig. 5-37) signalled ‘The Way That HR Systems Work Today’ is a function of a management style rather than a leadership style. Theory suggests managers aim to produce order, consistency, and predictability, including telling subordinates how to carry out their work.

This leads to the following hypothesis:

H4: Executives do not aim to provide a sense of purpose and direction, or motivate subordinates to perform beyond their capability.

5. Model III (fig. 5-38) signalled the respondent’s beliefs about The Way HR Systems Work Today positively related to both Qatari and Western Values; however, Western Values predominated. This leads to the following hypothesis

H5: In Qatar’s Civil Service, Western Values are more important than Qatari values.

6. Models IV (fig. 5-39) and V (fig. 5-40) signalled ‘The Change Process’, ‘Strategy’, ‘Management Style’, and ‘The Way Systems Should Work’ all acted as partial mediators between cultural values and the respondent’s beliefs about ‘The Way HR Systems Work Today’. The mediating effects of the ‘Change Process’, ‘Strategy’, ‘Management Style’, and ‘The Way Systems Should Work’ were not, however, as strong the mediating effects between ‘Western Values’ and ‘The Way Systems Work’. This provides further evidence to support the following hypothesis:

H6: Western Values are more important than Qatari values.

7. Statistical comparison of the responses leads to the following hypothesis:

H7: Respondents across Qatar’s ministries are relatively homogeneous in their beliefs about ‘The Way That HR Systems Work Today’

5.7 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

This chapter presented and discussed the research findings, including the contents of Law No.8 as well as the results of QA and QB. This chapter showed that Law No.8, with some exceptions, was no basis for creating true HRM reform. While Law No.8 does not strictly fall within the term research findings, this chapter showed its importance when considering the responses, especially of HRDs.

There were major differences between QA and QB. QA sought mainly factual, binomial responses from a single person - the HRD. This researcher saw HRDs as the ‘guiding mind’ behind any reforms that might have taken place. QA showed the extent of those reforms and this chapter analysed responses question group by question group. Disappointingly, all HRDs ignored the most important questions (QA11 group) on their approach to accounting for cultural differences. Limits on population size meant this data set could only be analysed using descriptive statistics. Analysis saw that, despite central control under Law No.8, HR systems varied significantly. Variations were independent of the status of the HRD as either person

management profession or a general administrative manager. This section also evaluated certain questions (QA6 & QB1) designed to understand certain differences in strategic evaluation between HRDs and executives and then understand whether strategic outlook coincided between the two groups. In the event, analysis showed poor association between them.

QB sought executive 'opinion' - a latent data which the researcher could not measure directly, from a group of executives above a certain level in each ministry. Again, because of practical limits on population size of this group in each ministry, statistical analysis of QB, except by descriptive statistics was effectively impossible. Again, this chapter evaluated the results question group by question group. To overcome this problem, the previous chapter showed these two datasets combined and analysed using SEM. This chapter discussed the SEM results obtained.

The next section of this chapter discussed the combined results individually for the analysis of QA, QB and the SEM results.

5.8. THE NEXT CHAPTER

The next and final chapter will draw conclusions from the research, summarising questions answered with a detailed reflection on the data and previous research. Chapter 6 also presents and evaluates how this research has informed the debate about the relationship between Western management concepts and Qatari culture. Chapter 6 will discuss findings deductions from the research with practical application and implications. It will recommend practical and effective management reforms as a result. The circumstances imposed many limitations on this research which are highlighted here. Finally, Chapter 6 recommends further research to develop the findings, ideally in more favourable conditions.

Chapter 6 Conclusions

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In late 2006, this project began using an essentially conventional approach to researching the effects of newly introduced HRM systems. The aim was to explore the effects of using HRM largely based on Western cultural practices when used in the significantly different cultural setting of Qatar, an Arabian Gulf state. Then in 2008, came several major announcements of reforms which fundamentally changed the research environment. These included a new national strategy, QNV 2032, to act as a framework for reforms. As well as previously announced HRM reforms, the ruling Emir announced a new civil service “Human Resource Law”; Law No.8 and various other initiatives and measures. Over several years the State dismantled ten of the eleven ministries and created thirteen more as well as several supreme councils over several years, each with a new minister, charged with introducing sweeping reforms. At first, these included female ministers. Qatar was, at the same time also involved in OECD-led governance reforms. Lacking clear details of the reforms for individual ministries and with original data collection incomplete, this researcher had no choice other than to abandon the original research in a climate of major uncertainty.

As reforms unfolded and after reevaluating the project before recommencing, this meant redefining research questions and research objectives without changing the first aims of the project. During reevaluation several important issues emerged which had significant implications for the research design and further progress. HRM reforms no longer stood alone, but became part of a much wider reform process. Any data collected for evaluating effects of culture on HRM reforms would contain considerable noise resulting from each initiative. This noise came from the reform programme, the effects of change management, and the leadership process. As reforms did not happen simultaneously, ministries were each at a different stage of reform, adding further difficulties.

This presented this researcher with several major practical research problems. Not least among these was statistical modelling and data collection. This researcher had many years' senior management experience within ministries in Qatar and knew directly that only senior executives had enough information about changes reforms to comment. This directly affected the size and shape of the research population (Bell, et al. 2010). This researcher adopted an exploratory research approach using methods first proposed by John Tukey (1977). Unlike the original design, this involved collecting multilevel latent data in far from ideal research conditions. This made it far more difficult to model and analyse research data statistically (Goldstein 1995, 2003, Liu and Agresti 2005, Rabe-Hesketh, et al. 2002).

Despite these many setbacks and problems, which included a further change of Emir in 2013 and further reform of ministries, this researcher finished this project. This chapter summarises this thesis and its research findings.

6.2 REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS RESEARCH

6.2.1 Primary Theoretical Focus

HRM and cross-cultural theory remain at the heart of this research throughout. As Chapter 1 showed, neither is covered by a theory which is so universally accepted it forms a 'grand theory'. This is especially the case for HRM, which draws both from academic theory and to a much greater extent, professional and organisational practice. In cross-cultural studies, Hofstede predominates in research literature. However, there are many critics of Hofstede's approach, most of whom suggest that cross-cultural theories are far too simplistic. It is simply logical that for every country, while having broad overall characteristics, one set of dimensions cannot accurately represent every individual, or indeed every region. However, just because there is no grand theory, one cannot say either primary subject area has no academic or professional value. Both clearly have.

Although both HRM and Culture in their various forms have been widely researched, especially since the 1980s, the effects of introducing culturally different practices has remained largely

unexplored, especially in an Arab context. This work evaluated, presented and discussed in detail the entire range of HR practices as well as potential areas of cultural conflict.

6.2.1.1 Human Resource Management

The preceding paragraph touched briefly on the difficulties for research without a grand theory, in a wide range of professional and organisational practice. This means there is no single answer to the question ‘what is HRM?’. The answer must be ‘it varies, sometimes widely’. Nevertheless, there are recognisable key features which differentiate HRM from other forms of people management, especially PM. This researcher approached the subject with an open mind, taking at face value the proposition that Qatar would implement HRM. To discover if this occurred, while carrying out extensive added research, this researcher used work by Michael (Armstrong 2006). It is widely acknowledged his work is a fair view of the practice of HRM and a comprehensive standard reference work for the HR profession. This effectively drew together the various strands of HR theory and practice to more objectively judge the extent of HRM practice installed during the reform process.

Research has shown that, although some systems such as that as in Qatar, are called ‘human resource management’ this does not mean that it is. Thus, while ministries in Qatar have people called ‘human resource directors’ and ‘human resource officers’ this does not mean HRM is in place. This itself is not unusual, for throughout the world, people use such titles while never practising HRM (Armstrong 2009; p.13). If one starts with Law No.8 of 2009, also named ‘Human Resource Management Act’, analysis in 5.2 showed it had minimal HRM content. Law No.8 mainly concerned itself with administrative and contractual matters. Thus, one could have more correctly called it the ‘Personnel Management Act’. This researcher comprehensively rejects Law No. 8 as a source of HRM practice, despite HRDs unanimously claiming it was, in response to question 9A in Questionnaire A.

There are other strong signals that ministries use PM rather than HRM, especially from responses to QA. While traditional PM activities were largely uniform across all ministries, there was wide

variation in the dispersal of true HRM practices. Perhaps oddly, HRDs with little or no experience of people management performed just as well (or as badly) as those who were ‘people management professionals’. Indeed, the highest performers in introducing HRM practices were general managers rather than specialists. Conversely, general managers were also some of the worst performers. Previous experience of people management was a poor sign of professionalism in this field. Conversely, if HRDs were mere PM-style administrators, then this explained why generalist managers could perform equally well in the role. To ‘administer’ needs little knowledge of HRM theory and practice. Other questions from the QA9B group showed HRDs drew their knowledge from limited sources, unlike, for example their British counterparts. Normally, senior HR professionals must undertake continuing professional development as part of their membership of a professional Institute like the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development. Most improve their knowledge from professional journals and magazines or from books and other publications. They might also attend regular conferences. Qatari HRDs simply did not do this normally, as their responses show. Where they enlisted external help from trainers or consultants, most had a Western background.

When Question A7 asked ‘are you imposing X or Y HRM practice?’, HRDs unanimously answered ‘yes’. Yet when questioned on detail on those practices, answers were at best vague and worst contradictory, again showing lack of HRM practice and a PM mindset.

Part of recognising if ministries use HRM depends on involvement, or sometimes a lack of involvement in certain activities which are fundamental to HRM, but which are not present in PM. HRM, as first developed by the Harvard University (Beer 1997, Beer, et al. 1985, Beer, et al. 1984) or Michigan University groups (Fobrum, et al. 1984) led to a fundamental shift in the role of people managers. Other researchers and theorists like David Guest (1987, 1989, 1997), John Storey (1989, 1992), Karen Legge (1995a, b) and others saw the HRM role, not as an overhead or added-cost to an organisation. Instead HRM became a value-adding partner which directly increased the organisation’s efficiency, effectiveness and performance. This meant shedding many of the PM -type roles of the past. Instead of personnel managers, under HRM,

line managers become responsible for many of the daily management functions. This is a precondition of HRM. There was no such delegation evident in Qatar's ministries.

The new HRM role became involved in many more strategic activities including change programmes. It is unlikely that any traditional personnel manager would have such a role. Qatari HRDs and their officers rarely lead reform and change (Rees and Johari 2010). Elsewhere today, HR officers have an increasingly important role in the change process which one could easily interpret as leadership (Doorewaard and Benschop 2003). This is especially true when it comes to communicating change, organisational culture (Waterhouse and Lewis 2008), forward planning of appropriate personnel (Kochan and Dyer 1993, Kowske and Anthony 2007) and training activities (Hockey, et al. 2005, Waterhouse and Lewis 2008). In Qatar and the Gulf, the HRM role also has a role leading Qatarisation or localisation (Forstenlechner 2010, Rees, et al. 2007). Here, one might expect the HRD to take responsibility for potentially culturally difficult reform measures. These would include greater equality for women (Appelbaum, et al. 2003, Rutledge, et al. 2011); stamping out practices which would be unacceptable in the West and other advanced economic countries. These include the frequent use of *wasta* (a type of nepotism) common in most Gulf states (Mahroum 2016, Neal, et al. 2005). There was little or no evidence of this during the study.

One defining factor of HRM theory is a link between HR strategy and organisational strategy (Becton and Schraeder 2009, Boxall and Purcell 2000, Braun and Warner 2002, Fobrum, et al. 1984, Wright and McMahan 1992). A feature of such a strategic link is the early, and then continuous involvement of the HRM role with strategy-makers in the organisation (Fobrum, et al. 1984, OECD 2004, Usopm 1999). This turns the HRM role into being a strategic partner of senior executives rather than the traditional added-cost (Lemmergaard 2009). This is just as applicable to public-sector organisations as those in the private-sector (Kim and Hong 2006). The strategic approach involves several elements including reward strategies (Brown 2001), performance management (Dyer and Reeves 1995) and treating employees as important resources (Boxall and Purcell 2000, Grant 1991, Weiss and Hartle 1997). There was again little

or no evidence in this research that such HR leadership took place. Results signalled a lack of any real HR expertise, even among those with previous people management. Indeed, such was the absence of 'true HR' that it became difficult to fulfil the core aim of the research. There is almost no cultural element to PM-style administration, though there are other local cultural practices going on in the ministries. Some reflect *wasta*, including appointing HRDs themselves. Others arise from Law No.8 as 5.2.1 showed.

If the Emir intended to introduce HRM practices, and the Al-Heeti presentation on the CBI suggests this, then his aim remained unfulfilled. The only real activity was 'administrative PM'. The purpose of the research was not to measure the effectiveness of HRDs in a PM role. With minor exceptions, undoubtedly many are simply administrative managers. Thus, one cannot call any of them 'HR specialists'.

So far as preserving national culture in the way outlined by QNV 2030, no HRDs chose to show how they had accounted for local culture in their practices. Of course, if the only practice in the ministries is administrative PM, there is little to account for.

6.2.1.2 Cross-cultural Issues

This research showed there are significant differences between the cultural characteristics of Arab peoples and people in the West. In both groups, each country shares a strong bond and strong cultural characteristics with the other group members. They are clearly and demonstrably not the same, both in cross-cultural theory and in real life. Other researchers have largely confirmed certain characteristics (dimensions), first described by Geert Hofstede (Hofstede 1984, 1991, Hofstede and Bond 1984). These included those in the GLOBE Project (Abdalla and Al-Homoud 2001, Chhokar, et al. 2007, House, et al. 2004, House, et al. 2001, Javidan and House 2002). While the purpose of the two studies was innately different, they both showed major differences between English-speaking groups and Arabs for power-distance, individualism/collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. Each dimension has a large impact on the way organisations lead and manage people. While it is dangerous to generalise, for clearly not

everyone in every society is the same, one can easily recognise the general characteristics of both groups in real life. As a result of this research, this researcher believes far too little attention is paid to these differences, especially when education and training is becoming so globalised.

Of all management disciplines, HRM is arguably most concerned with people. People are the carriers of culture - whether national or organisational. The purpose of this research was not to compare Arab culture with Western culture, but rather to show if imported HRM had any effect on managing people. As the previous section showed, little 'true HRM' is evidenced.

There are many clear cultural effects in the behaviour of people in public service from the Emir downwards. This is obvious in the law, including Law No.8, QNV 2030 - the National strategy for Qatar, and the behaviour of leaders. On the other hand, it was largely impossible to prove a strong cultural effect for HRM, as HRM largely did not exist. However, HRM or PM are not the only ways the Government manages its people resources. The Al-Heeti presentation (Appendix 11) and publications from the IAD draw directly on Western theory, clearly using material directly from Western sources. At the date of research in each ministry there was little sign the organisation was widely carrying out the CBI during reforms, not least in HRM. Because it was not the direct subject of this study, it is not possible to say whether this was rejection for cultural reasons, or simply an initiative too far.

Wasta is evident in senior executives, where belonging to the in-group may be more important than 'technical' ability. This is a strong feature of Arab society. This has marked effects on managing people. So too does the Qatarisation policy.

6.2.2 Secondary Theoretical Focus

Events which began in 2008, when the Ruling Executives made the first announcement of major reforms to governance systems, substantially changed the direction of this research. A study by this researcher while reforms developed suggested any data collected for the principal study would contain significant noise, especially from leadership affects, public-sector reforms and the change process itself. These three were never the main purpose of this study. However,

evaluating their effects was necessary to help remove noise in the data. The original study only used two theoretical bases; Hofstede's interpretation of national culture and HRM theory and practice. As well as leadership, change and public-sector reform theory, examining two more factors, organisational culture and the specific GLOBE study of leadership became necessary. They were linked because part of the announcement was appointing new ministers/leaders in every ministry (Appendix 10). The Emir charged each new leader with changing organisational culture as part of the reform efforts to make public services more productive, efficient and accountable.

Under normal circumstances, this researcher believes that to widen PhD research so much is undesirable. Given the circumstances, and after discussion with supervisors, this researcher felt compelled to include them. They proved both useful and instructive, though still outside the scope of the core research.

6.2.2.1 Leadership:

Leadership theory has often focused on the apex leader (Eisenbach, et al. 1999, Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006, Kotter 1990, 1995, 1996) though many of them recognise that leaders can occur almost anywhere in an organisation. Certainly, it is part of the HRM role to exercise leadership (Doorewaard and Benschop 2003, Rees, et al. 2007, Waterhouse and Lewis 2008) even though this is scarcely obvious in responses to QA. Public service organisations and ministries are not immune from the need for leadership and HRDs and officers should be closely involved (Karp and Helgø 2008, Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006). Since the 1990s, research literature underlines the role of the entire executive team of leaders of collective and departmental change (Deluga and Perry 1991, Estad 1997, Higgs and Rowland 2001). This often focused on differences between managing change and leading it (Gill 2003, Kotter 1990, Lines 2004). QB question 7 asked a series of questions to establish whether the respondent thought as a leader or the manager. Results showed there was an even division between the two. This suggests that around half of executives see themselves as managers, leaders or both. While this is not in itself unusual, given

the extent of reform in Qatar's public services the lack of emphasis on leadership of change is concerning.

Yet this is far from obvious in either QA and QB whether from individual executives or those working collectively with other executives. In this case, change appeared ill-coordinated by those responsible to executive teams. Many of the replies to QA question 6, were informative because they too indicated little understanding of the role of HRM to the various stakeholders. Far from acting as a strategic partner, HRDs showed little leadership of either change or people management reform.

Change management, leadership and public-sector theories all strongly suggest leadership has an important, if not profound effect. HR theory and cross-cultural theory go yet more to the heart of this research, they too strongly suggest strong leadership effects. Yet this project found few or no effects. Analysis using SEM also found the weak effects of leadership. Taken together, these surprising findings need explanation. In turn, this calls for opinion and further research using different statistical models. If it is indeed true that real leadership is absent throughout the public-sector, then it should be a cause for major concern.

First, one must re-examine what various theoretical bases suggest should be happening. To do this, this researcher broke down projected effects into those from three groups; Apex leaders, HRDs and executives, individually and together. This researcher anticipated each would have different effects. HRDs certainly should lead on HRM issues, guided by individual ministries' strategies and the centrally controlled agenda called for by Law No. 8 (Appendix 1 – Chapter 2). Most clearly did not. If cultural conventions prevented HRDs from exercising HR leadership directly then there must be an effect from executive leaders, especially who historically exert most influence in any Ministry. The third group, HRDs and executives combined should, if working according to theory, have a 'meeting of minds' which would project itself as a leadership effect. Ultimately, the apex leader is responsible, though this may be either the Minister himself, or his Deputy (see Law No. 8). A high power-distance environment makes this more likely.

Nevertheless, this researcher also notes that leadership theory is also culturally bound. This theory first developed in the West. One cannot automatically assume it is reliable or suitable in a different cultural setting for interpreting the actions of those in leadership positions, especially during major change.

6.2.2.2 Change Management

Researchers and theorists have long proposed that good or effective leadership is an essential element of the change process (Argyris 1973, Kotter 1996, Schein 1973, Watson 1983). Change theories emphasise the role of HRDs during the change process. Change theory (Common 2008, Farquarson and Baum 2002, Judge, et al. 2009, Kochan and Dyer 1993, Novicevic and Harvey 2001) also shows the role and competences of the apex executive. Competences should include strategic assessment and planning (Battilana, et al. 2010). Different types of leader apply these, including transformational, charismatic and transactional leaders (Carl and Javidan 2001, Eisenbach, et al. 1999).

Most successful change and reform programs involve the entire executive team to institute and sustain a major process of change (Brooks 1997). The leader and his executive management team should use emotional intelligence suitable for individuals and subordinate groups (Ferres and Connell 2004). It is questionable if this is culturally acceptable, given the high power-distance culture of Qatari society. On the other hand, given the strongly collectivist nature of Qatari society, it should be possible to use the executive group in a more positive way during periods of change.

From the early days of change management theory, the change process called for coordination between different kinds of leaders first seen in the McKinsey 7S model (Watson 1983). Here, some managers would rely on the hard S's of strategy structure and systems, while often lower level executives would master the softer elements of style, skills staff and shared values (Gill 2003, Watson 1983). In effective organisations these are combined between different managers. These often combined to form a 'didactic' style of leadership best achieved between coordination

and different levels (Yammarino 1995). Indeed, Rowe (2006) describes it as a collective process rather than leadership coming from a single person. The high power-distance culture and the apex leaders' bases of power (French and Raven 1958) emanating directly from the Ruler may prevent this from occurring.

When considering to what extent HRM is changing, one question was especially enlightening - QA question 2. This research had deliberately included this question, leaving no doubt the reference was to 'This Ministry'. The question produced interesting answers. Each ministry was newly-formed apart from M01. Thus, responses greater than the time from its formation signalled the likelihood of introducing legacy systems, rather than reformed ones. Unless, of course, reform was merely cosmetic – a matter of simply changing the name above the Ministry door.

6.2.2.3 Public Sector Reform:

This researcher focused mainly on HRM issues rather than the wider issues of governance reform in Qatar. Theorists and practitioners note the importance of HRM leadership roles in public sector reform (Farnham 2004, Kim and Hong 2006, OECD 1995, 1996, Ul Haque 2003) and change programmes (Brooks 1997, Hays and Kearney 2001, Waterhouse and Lewis 2008). HRM has several roles to play, especially those of forming strategic links with senior leaders and executives. Communicating with line managers and staff (Brooks 1997, Farnham, et al. 2003, O'Brien 2002) or training to prepare people for the change process (Truss 2003, Vukovic, et al. 2008) is also vital HRM work. Similarly, senior executive officers regularly become involved in reform and change (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2006, Andrews, et al. 2008, Farnham, et al. 2003, Karp and Helgø 2008, OECD 2003). In this research, there was limited evidence supporting this, just as it was from this author's previous research (Al-Khalifa 2006). Using SEM disappointingly produced the same results, even when using several SEM models. This was despite the Government putting in place systems to build capacity (GSDP 2010) or QNV 2030. Other aims, such as feminising leadership (Al-Lamky 2007) were abandoned even after the short-lived appointment of two female ministers. There is no evidence ministries

introduced new practices to support this, though neither QA or QB asked specific questions on this matter.

As in the private-sector, previous researchers have highlighted the significance of the apex leader (Allison 1984, Javidan and Waldman 2003, Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006). Often the intention is to either create successors to ensure continuity of the change and improvement process (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2006, Hockey, et al. 2005, Lynn 2001). While each ministry used executive training, the evidence suggests it being mainly as a perk for time off or overseas travel rather than fulfil the purposes described in the literature.

6.3 EVALUATION OF RELATIONS BETWEEN WESTERN IDEAS AND QATARI CULTURE

Culture is important to Arab people. Arab culture is arguably one of the oldest in the world when the region now known as the 'Middle East' was the cradle of civilisation. The term 'Middle East' is itself culturally bound to European and Western thinking. Similarly, unlike many Westerners, most Arabs do not call the Gulf, the 'Persian Gulf'. Rather they call it the Arabian Gulf because Iran, formally Persia is part of a different cultural tradition from that of Arabs. Much of the reason it owes its Middle East name to the West is because trade, and more recently oil and gas was Western-centric. Oil and gas have brought huge benefits to the Arabian Gulf region and especially to Qatar. But from an Arab perspective, it has also brought less desirable issues with it. One of these is Westernisation, which so often means Americanisation (Najjar 2005, Zakaria 2001b). To people with a culture stretching back several millennia, the societal changes brought about Westernisation carries with it the seeds of the destruction of Arab culture. Arabs certainly do not dislike the West. Many features of Westernisation are desirable; especially technological progress. But equally Arabs do not wish to copy the West in every respect. Since the seventh century, Islam, born in this region, has been at the heart of Arab culture. Many people see Western secularisation and different ideas of personal identity, family matters, Western-style democracy and political opinions as a direct challenge to Arab culture.

The main research showed little evidence of Western ideas used in people management in Qatar's ministries. This was largely because HRM is hardly present in them rather than because of the rejection of Western concepts. With the volume of Qatari students now studying in the West, it may be only a matter of time before Western ideas become embedded in people management systems. The responses to question group 9 in QA were indicative. Over 71% of ministries used external consultants and training companies mainly of Western origin for the knowledge of HRM while 64% showed the IAD as their source. The presentation (Appendix 11) (Al-Heeti 2008) on the CBI initiative shows a high Western content with little or no acknowledgement of cultural needs. This is hardly surprising given the IAD's international links (Lituchy 2008) and international influence in its training programme (Brettel, et al. 2008). There was no scope to investigate the AID or the CBI project further during this research. However, on the face of it, given the limited information available such as that in Appendix 11, there plainly exists a significant gap between the aims of QNV 2030 and the approach taken in the CBI initiative. On one hand, QNV 2030 wishes to strengthen Qatar's own Arab culture. On the other, the CBI is obviously drawing public services in the opposite direction, with almost no regard to, or consideration of the cultural implications.

The research found potential adverse influences of adopting Western ideas or becoming 'too Western', especially if they cause a cultural rift between the public and ministries. On the other hand, Arab-style management has been far from effective in Qatar and throughout the Gulf (Kalantari 2005). The apparently constant need to reform governance and the public-sector evidenced by the latest public-sector reforms in 2015/16 may be a strong signal that systems are simply not working. Whether this is because of poor Arab-style management and working practices, the incursion into and rejection of Western-style management or some other reason is not clear. Coming so soon after the present Emir came to power it could be that he, like his father before him is anxious to reform the public-sector to reflect his own views. It was beyond the scope of this research to research this further. What does seem probable is that because of the influence of *wasta* and probably the Qatarisation process, people are occupying positions for

which they may not have the necessary professional know-how in several disciplines. Certainly, few of the HRDs interviewed had the degree professional knowledge or used suitable professional methods which one would find in similar positions in the public services of the UK or the West. The scope of this project was by necessity, already wide, and it did not allow further research in this direction. This certainly merits further investigation as the full extent of the problem is unknown.

6.4 FINDINGS AND DEDUCTIONS FROM THE RESEARCH

This research made several major findings:

1. There was scant evidence of any significant HRM present in most of the ministries in Qatar. It made little difference to performance of their role whether they had a people management role or a general management role. This supported findings that HRDs were mainly administrative managers rather than HRM professionals.
2. The evidence suggested instead that PM was the main system of people management in ministries. Because it is a largely administrative role, PM has a low cultural content. So its practice was largely, though not completely unaffected by the cultural foundations of HRM developed in the West. Smart-PLS analysis showed that Western values predominated.
3. Responses and contradictions from most HRDs suggested they had no real knowledge of HRM theory and practice. Thus they were badly placed to lead HRM reform in their ministries. Fundamental features of HRM, except for PM issues were thus absent.
4. HRDs lack of understanding led to their not implementing key strategic and communication roles within their Ministry, nor did they delegate any of their role to line managers - an essential feature of HRM. As a result, there was poor understanding of the true HRM role by executives throughout all ministries.

5. With not only reform to HRM proposed, but those of major wide change and reform throughout each ministry, HRDs did not have enough involvement with the change process. Nor were they able to provide the necessary leadership or communication role.

6. HRDs fundamentally misunderstood the role of various stakeholders. Surprisingly, most found that people were *not* an important resource to their ministry. Nor did HRDs understand their relationship with the wider public, other ministries and the Government. Nor did they understand the importance of the labour market, planning of resources or the roles of pay in improving performance. These findings again suggested that HRDs were carrying out an administrative rather than a strategic HRM role. Some functions were certainly centrally imposed by the Establishment who had complete control over salaries and rewards. Analysis using Smart-PLS confirmed these.

7. Reform of HRM, as it was first initiated suggested that Western-style HRM was proposed and would be introduced through new laws. However, Law No. 8 of 2009 as enacted did not form the basis of any HRM systems. Rather it confined itself mainly to administrative and contractual matters. This itself is not unusual even in the West. Law No.8 was not unlike its counterparts in the West, although, unlike them, Law No.8 lacks supporting law that cover other aspects of good people management practice. Besides this, Western HRM systems depend on the professionalism and knowledge of HR managers and officers. Their absence in Qatar meant the system could not perform effectively using only the limited laws put in place.

8. Analysis of the results using Smart-PLS (SEM), however difficult and limited because of the circumstances of the reforms and changing research environment, produced several hypotheses for use in further research. These were previously listed in 5.6.3 and are shown as recommendations for future research, below.

9. Analysis, mainly using Smart-PLS showed that management rather than leadership was a more important factor. Other results also signal the lack of real leadership. Analysing leadership was not one of the main aims of this study and it was difficult to make firm findings beyond these

aims. Although leadership has been extensively studied in the West, leadership is largely unexplored in Arab societies. These findings merit further investigation and provide insights for future research.

However, this research was not restricted to empirical findings. The circumstances created the need for much greater desk-based research than is normal. The extensive bibliography cited in this thesis remains a small part of the reading which took place. The EndNote record of shortlisted sources in this research's reading list showed a total of 2,128 shortlisted documents. This is apart from those not shortlisted, or those which appear in the extra list of references. Together, these did allow other more deductions to be drawn.

10. The finding of this research shows the fundamental importance of national culture to any people. Importantly this is the case when, as in Qatar and the Gulf, strenuous efforts are now being made to preserve the millennia old culture and yet allow Qatar to function in a globalised 21st-century world dominated by Western culture.

11. This research found large differences between the culture which exists in the Gulf and that in the West. These differences are well described in cross-cultural literature. While Hofstede's work is controversial to many theorists, it has been widely researched and validated. The cultural dimensions Hofstede developed paint a recognisable picture of both Arab and Western culture, although of course these are extremely general. The GLOBE Project casting extra light on the great differences between leadership styles in Arab- and Anglo cluster countries. One cannot lightly ignore this, given the wish of the Qatari people and its leaders to preserve national culture.

What this research found was the traditionally Arab management culture present in Qatar and probably the Qatarisation process means the people in charge of HR reforms bring with them a legacy of old-fashioned PM. They almost certainly lack the means to change, given all the circumstances. Without the means to change and the strong Western cultural content of alternatives, which is often at odds to Arab and Islamic culture, Qatar may find HR reforms difficult. There was no evidence that HRDs and executives were deliberately adapting ideas to

meet Arab cultural ideals, mainly because the systems adopted were without much cultural content. Law No. 8 made provisions which were sometimes contrary with the principles of HR. This researcher observed management systems which contradicted each other in cultural terms. On one hand, people management advanced along traditional administrative lines with managers and executives content to use comfortable Arab styles of management. On the other hand, other parts of the Government were seemingly content to import 'undiluted' Western ideas which had the potential to damage local culture. This does not mean that Western theory and practice should be rejected as unsuitable in all cases. One may deduce it does however call for much greater cultural sensitivity during implementation.

6.5 PRACTICAL APPLICATION AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

If Qatar is not to enter a continuous process of governance reform, it must resolve the conflict of ideas. Research and experience shows Gulf states have great difficulty creating efficient public-sector organisations by managing 'the Arab way' (Al-Khalifa 2006, Kalantari 2005, Neal, et al. 2005). Qatar is fortunate to have major wealth from oil and gas and did not have the same taxpayer pressure experienced by Western governments. The global economic downturn in 2008, and more recently, severe downward pressure on global energy prices have now put pressure on Gulf states to make public services more cost efficient. This will mean constant expensive governance reforms until they 'get things right' by trial and error are a luxury which Gulf states may not be able to afford in the future. The practical implications of this research, while currently inconclusive, merit much further investigation and action. Qatar and its neighbours are now in a position where using the same failing local systems of governance is no more a viable option than importing undiluted foreign systems. Otherwise the cycle of failure of governance systems will continue to occur. Thus, there are serious 'real world' implications and the need to change the approach to gain the benefit of the best ideas and methods the world offers without destroying local culture in the process.

The understanding gained from this necessarily protracted period of both empirical and desk-based research has provided valuable insight both into the management of people and for wider

governance reforms. The implications from the desk research particularly, are that if Qatar is as serious as it appears to be about preserving its culture, whatever new systems and reform principles are introduced, especially those emanating in the West, both the general effects of any such introduction and their cultural implications must be considered and accounted for.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR HR REFORMS

Based on the findings of this research, this researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. There are many benefits of introducing some form of HRM into public-sector organisations. If Qatar is serious about doing this, the State must continuously develop a cadre of Qataris who have full professional training in HRM. However, their professionalism must be soundly based in Qatar's national culture, so they fully understand the implications of any systems they introduce. From this cadre, only the most professionally able people must be selected to occupy the most senior HR positions. Leaders of ministries must thus ensure *wasta* does not interfere with this process to prevent people being promoted mainly based on time served or of belonging to an in-group. Otherwise, future reform efforts will be no more successful than those of the past.
2. To continue the process of HRM reform, it is important that future HR officers of every grade are members of a professional organisation such as CIPD. They must receive annual continuous professional development (CPD) following CIPD recommendations, and at least thirty hours each year.
3. If HRM, or indeed any other reforms are planned, the full cultural implications of any reforms must be understood in advance and then incorporated into the planning for change. This will require a formal system to ensure alien systems which conflict with Qatar's national culture and society's values cannot accidentally enter the system. This includes training under CPD.
4. There must be a change of attitude within ministries achieved through information and training. Ministry leaders and members of executive teams must be educated to recognise the

benefits of using full, though culturally modified HRM in their organisation. They must be made fully aware that HRM, unlike PM can add significant value to the organisation rather than acting as a negative cost centre. This change of attitude should recognise the different role and status of HRM officers.

Although studying leadership, public sector reform and change were incidental to the main research, the research itself, especially desk-based research showed the need for much better leadership in these areas. Because people are involved at every stage, and because the theoretical bases are themselves culturally-based, the cultural implications of changes and reforms must be fully understood.

This researcher makes the following added recommendation:

5. Leadership, public sector reform and change management are each an individual discipline, although in some circumstances they may be combined. So far as was observed, each has a degree of 'amateur' status reliant on the incidental skills of the person appointed. Steps should be taken to professionalise these activities through education and training and through acculturation and CPD as in (3) above.

Although the results seen during this research are far from satisfactory, this researcher is confident that good results will be obtained if recommendations 1-5 are followed.

Warnings:

a) Attention is drawn to the limitations of this current research. While this researcher has provided an input to the conduct of HRM and other reforms in Qatari's public service, further research is also needed. This must be based on sound statistical models and principles which were not possible during this research.

b) The alternatives to not doing this are twofold. First, unless Qatar adopts such systems, change and reform will continue to fail unless the processes and the leaders of those processes are professionalised. Second, unless there is much greater cultural sensitivity, introducing undiluted

systems from any other culture will be destructive to Qatar's national culture, and ultimately Qatari society.

6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This research was conducted under difficult and unusual conditions. This made following any research process other than an exploratory one effectively impossible. This means that results of this research cannot be generalised beyond Qatar's public services. Further research should be conducted when the research environment can be guaranteed stable for the entire three years of a normal research cycle. At that stage careful statistical modelling and following a carefully considered research methodology is essential following the recommendations below. Care should be taken to understand the limitations of the data sets used outlined in section 4.1.1.

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

That further research is conducted on HRM systems ideally incorporating a carefully constructed statistical model. If possible, numerical / quantitative data rather than latent data should be collected using the normal statistical rules on sample size and data normality. Given the difficulties of conducting the research on the entire Qatari public-sector, it is further recommended that a smaller number of ministries is used, perhaps even as small as two.

Following the recommendations in 5.6.3, researchers ideally should use the following seven hypotheses created in this research.

H1. The change process is an integral part of the way HRM systems work.

H2: Strategy is opposed to the way HRM systems work.

Using the same 'practices' ('as is') and 'values' ('should be') approach used in this research and in the GLOBE Project the following hypotheses:

H3A: Respondents do not believe 'The Way [HRM] Systems Work Today' is ideal; and

H3B: HRM Systems could possibly work differently

H4: Executives do not aim to provide a sense of purpose and direction, or motivate subordinates to perform beyond their capability.

H5: In Qatar's Civil Service, Western Values are more important than Qatari values.

H6: Respondents across Qatar's ministries are relatively homogeneous in their beliefs about 'The Way That HR Systems Work Today'

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