STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION, ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND PERFORMANCE IN TURKISH LOCAL GOVERNMENT

BY

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A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Cardiff University

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December 2017

DEDICATION

To my beloved mother and father,

To my dear sister -Zeynep-

And

In memory of my grandparents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my thanks and appreciation to everyone who supported me and contributed to the completion of this thesis.

Above all, I would like to offer my deepest gratitude to my primary supervisor Professor Rhys Andrews. His constant guidance, timely advice and vital feedback helped this work take shape. I will always be indebted to him for his patience and expertise in teaching me how to become a researcher, from his professional approach to his ethical attitude. It's hard for me to find adequate words to express the gratitude that I feel for the help and support he offered throughout my PhD. It was a great privilege to work with and learn from such an inspirational person. I would also like to express my gratitude to my secondary supervisor, Professor Malcolm Beynon, who helped me so much by sharing his valuable insights and constructive comments. His encouragement and optimism also made a significant contribution to my PhD. My third supervisor, Professor Tom Entwistle, showed me different ways to approach my work, and I will always be grateful for the methods he taught me. Special thanks must also go to Professor Rachel Ashworth for her valuable comments and suggestions, which shaped the final steps of the thesis. It was really a great honour to work with such leading scholars at Cardiff Business School.

I would like to thank my sponsor, the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Turkey for giving me this opportunity of turning my dream of undertaking a PhD into a reality.

Special thanks to Professor Hamza Ates for his continuous help and support in improving the quality of my work and helping me to develop my skills as a researcher. Thanks also to Professor Ramazan Sengul for his guidance and help during this process.

My personal gratitude goes to my true friend Melis Mustafa for her support and affection throughout my PhD journey in the UK. I am truly grateful for her moral support and patience, especially when I was going through difficult times.

My love and deepest thanks go to my mother and father and sister for their unstinting encouragement. Thank you so much for your love, patience and endless support.

To all who assisted me whose names are not mentioned here, there are just too many of you to list, but thanks to all of you. You helped me so much.

ABSTRACT

It is widely acknowledged that effective strategy implementation, as one of the most crucial stages of the strategy making process, leads to better organizational performance. In particular, the literature indicates that implementation style is essential for directing strategies towards good organizational outcomes. For public sector organizations, there is a common belief that the implementation of strategies mostly fails in practice. However, there is still very little research addressing whether implementation style is related to better public service outcomes. This study explores the relationships between rational and incremental strategy implementation styles and the performance of public sector organizations. In addition, it investigates the effects of organizational culture, another important organizational characteristics seen as an effective tool for enhancing performance. While there are numerous studies in the literature investigating the relationship between organizational culture and performance in both the private and the public sector, most of this research investigates the direct effects of culture. Here, I examine the separate and combined effects of strategy implementation style and organizational culture on performance by applying the Competing Values Framework, a comprehensive typology which includes four types of culture together with specific organizational effectiveness criteria. By doing so, the current research is intended to contribute to the literatures on strategy implementation, organizational culture and performance. Contextually, the relationships were examined in Turkish local government organizations, specifically in metropolitan municipalities – large multi-purpose public organizations serving many citizens. The study therefore contributes new evidence on public sector strategic management in a non-Western environment.

A mixed method research design is applied using 134 survey responses and 16 semi-structured interviews. Survey data, as the main quantitative component of the study, were analysed using multiple and robust moderated regression models. Qualitative data collection was then undertaken to clarify the relationships uncovered by the quantitative data analysis. The study results confirmed the presence of a significant positive relationship between rational strategy implementation and organizational performance. In regards to organizational culture types, only the hierarchy culture showed a consistently positive influence on performance. Nevertheless, a rational strategy implementation style appeared to strengthen the effects of a hierarchical and a market-based culture on performance, while an incremental strategy implementation style seemed to enhance the effects of a clan-oriented culture and an adhocracy culture on performance. Qualitative data analysis largely supports the quantitative findings on the independent and moderating effects of strategy implementation style and organizational performance. However, it also identified some positive performance effects from a hierarchy culture, a market-based culture, a clan culture and an adhocracy culture. Theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed in the conclusion.

Key words: Strategy Implementation Styles, Organizational Culture, Competing Values Framework, Organizational Performance, Turkish local government.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CVF   Competing Values Framework

HDI   Human Development Index

MMR   Moderated Multiple Regression

NPG   New Public Governance

NPM   New Public Management

OCAI   Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument

OECD   Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SD   Standard Deviation

SPSS   Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TURK-STAT   Turkish Statistical Institute

UN   United Nations

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

Managing people and organizations has become more and more difficult in today's complex and turbulent world. Strategic management ideas and tools have been brought into play to enhance organizational capacities and accomplish organizational goals in the face of such growing complexities. Over the past three decades, numerous researchers all over the world have investigated the antecedents and effects of strategic management practices in the private and public sector, since these practices are considered key means to increase organizational performance.

There are two essential steps in strategic management: the ways in which strategy is formed (the strategy formulation process), and the way strategy is implemented (the implementation process). Two fundamental strategic decision-making approaches are set out in the literature, suggesting that organizational strategies can be determined through rational or incremental ways. The rational approach aims to realize organizational objectives determined at the very beginning of the strategy making process (Ansoff, 1991) in an analytical, logical and formal way (Andrews et al., 2012), whilst the incremental approach enables the more gradual development of strategies through a process of ongoing adjustment rather than radical change (Bailey and Johson, 1997).

A vast number of studies offer valuable insights into the relationship between general strategic management, strategic planning, formulation and organizational performance (Conant et al., 1990; Veliyath and Shortell, 1993; Priem et al., 1995; Hendrick, 2003; Enticott and Walker, 2008, Boyne et al., 2010). Nevertheless, research on strategy implementation, which is considered a critical link between strategy formulation and organisational performance, is still in its infancy (Noble and Mokwa, 1999).

The challenges and problems in implementing strategies and the key attributes of successful strategy implementation suggested by many studies have been identified

in several comprehensive reviews of the literature (Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Bryson and Bromiley, 1993; Kaplan and Norton, 1996; Freedman, 2003; Okumus, 2003; Alashloo et al., 2005). However, very few studies have explored strategy implementation and its links to organizational performance (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Hickson et al., 2003; White et al., 2003; Schaap, 2006; Schaap, 2012), and only a handful have used a public sector context (Van de Ven, 1980; Stewart and Kringas, 2003; Andrews et al., 2011; Andrews et al., 2012). While the relevant literature sets out various ways of implementing strategies, the classification of strategy implementation into rational or incremental styles can be considered as the clearest distinction when examining strategy implementation styles and their relationship to organizational performance (Andrews et al., 2011).

Researchers in the public management field have begun to examine the implementation of strategic management in different settings, so public organization culture has become a central issue which also needs to be investigated. Since strategy implementation is a stage in the strategic management process at which many stakeholders need to interact with each other, it is important to take different organizational cultures into consideration in order to create smooth-running implementation processes (Schwartz and Davis, 1981; Dobni and Luffman, 2003; Lee et al., 2006). Consequently, there is a growing recognition of organizational culture, especially when considering the introduction of new management practices and systems in public organizations (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

Organizational culture is an extremely broad concept, on which a consensus has yet to be reached. It is commonly divided up into shared beliefs, values and assumptions in order to de-construct, understand and explain it in an easier way (Schein, 1985; Green, 1988). From the functionalist perspective adopted here, it is assumed that the culture in which employees in an organization work directly affects organizational effectiveness. Many private sector studies have concluded that organizational culture influences organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975; Zammuto, 1982; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Ostroff and Schmitt, 1993; Juechter et al., 1998), but studies in the public sector are still very limited (Ashworth, 2010). Moreover, within the perspective that views culture as an organizational tool, numerous typologies of organizational culture have been produced (see for example Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Zammuto and Krakower, 1991; Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

Cameron and Quinn (1999) have propounded the most popular typology to date: the Competing Values Framework (CVF), which divides cultures into four types: clan, hierarchical, market and adhocracy. Each culture type is associated with different organizational elements and is more suited to achieving better performances in particular ways. As well as having independent effects on organizational performance, strategy implementation styles and organizational cultures are likely to have combined effects, with different styles of strategy implementation likely to have varying implications for different types of organizational culture and performance. In particular, a rational implementation style may enhance the performance effects of rule-oriented organizational cultures, such as hierarchies and markets, while an incremental implementation style may enhance the effects of mission-oriented cultures, such as clans and adhocracies.

This study empirically investigates the relationships between rational and incremental strategy implementation styles and organizational performance, as well as relationships between different types of organizational culture and performance. It also explores the moderating effects of strategy implementation styles on the relationships between culture types and organizational performance. These relationships are investigated using data from a large-scale survey of managers and semi-structured interviews from a sample of Turkish local government.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The importance of the study can be explained in three main areas. First, it explores the influence of strategic implementation styles on organizational performance in the public sector. Second, it contributes to the growing body of literature on the relationship between organizational culture and performance. It does this by focusing on the CVF, allowing a comprehensive examination of the culture-performance relationship. Critically, the study then brings together the literatures on strategy implementation and organizational culture. Third, the general significance of the work allows the specific empirical analysis of Turkish local government, offering a deeper understanding of the relationship between implementation styles, culture types and performance in a non-Western setting from a hitherto unexplored viewpoint. These factors are explained in more detail over the following sections.

1.2.1 The Importance of Strategy Implementation in the Public Sector

The established literature claims that the phenomenon of strategic management is a well-investigated and universally applicable concept (Joyce and Drumaux, 2014). However, there is an imbalance in the research on different elements of strategic management. The vast majority of studies focus on the strategic planning and formulation stages, and less is known about the strategy implementation phase. Moreover, the research on strategy implementation is heavily fragmented and dispersed within more general management literature, while strategy implementation literature in the public sector is also comparatively limited. As a critical phase of strategy-making where many organizational plans fail, strategy implementation is considered the most difficult part in the policy making process when compared to the formulation - planning and decision-making stages (Nutt, 1998; Hrebiniak, 2005). Therefore, there is a growing sense of urgency to investigate strategy implementation concepts.

Another reason for focusing on strategy implementation is its importance for organizational effectiveness. The successful implementation of strategic decisions is widely considered critical to the achievement of organizational aims and objectives (Elbanna et al., 2015). Boyne et al. (2010) also assert that delivering well-coordinated public services is directly related to achieving the best possible outcomes. Public sector agencies all over the world have begun to prepare strategy documents or plans in order to implement their policies more effectively. Where the process has been carried out in practice, there is a common belief that strategy implementation is a powerful determinant of organizational performance. However, specific theories relating to the significant role of strategy implementation and the ways in which strategic plans can be achieved have not yet been sufficiently developed by public management theorists. This study therefore aims to build on previous studies of strategy implementation in the public sector, and seeks to contribute new evidence on strategy implementation and its effects on organizational performance.

Finally, strategy implementation in the public sector is significant in terms of products and services delivered by public organizations, whose *de facto* aim is to create value for citizens. The services public sector organizations provide include a series of complex tasks ranging from distributive services such as healthcare, education,

infrastructure, public transport, waste treatment and water to corporate services such as monetary services (taxation and distribution as benefits), media, culture and public relations. Executing all these services smoothly requires complex and extensive planning, including directing human resources, providing manager-staff cooperation and the consideration of environmental conditions. Accordingly, implementing policies and strategies in a more effective way has become more significant as the complexities and extent of services delivered by public sector agencies grows and becomes ever more complicated. Successful strategy implementation is consequently considered as one of the most effective ways of gaining public support, public satisfaction and public interest in public sector provision.

1.2.2 The Importance of Organizational Culture

Culture is often regarded as an organization's most fundamental element. Due to its elusive nature, there is no consensus in the relevant literature on how to deal with it most effectively. Some researchers claim that the concept of culture needs to be examined holistically (Meyerson, 1991; Trice and Beyer, 1993), others assert that it is too complicated to investigate as a whole, and claim that its more tangible aspects should be studied in order to integrate it with other organizational components such as personnel, strategy and performance (Denison, 1990; Kotter and Heskett, 1992). By following the latter approach, this study will examine the functional aspects of organizational culture, allowing the topic to be more easily linked with concepts of organizational performance.

Much of the research conducted on organizational culture and performance focuses on the business sector. Although there is a growing body of research into the public sector, investigations are very fragmented and their findings are insufficient in terms of providing any concrete conclusions regarding the relationship between different organizational cultures and performance. The most systematic research on this relationship have been done through the CVF, a process which allows both topics to be examined together. The framework basically conceptualises four different types of culture and links them to relevant characteristics such as the strategic orientation of the organization, effectiveness criteria and leadership style. In this way, the CVF matches each culture type to its most pertinent performance criteria. More specifically, it permits this study to examine the relationship between clan culture and quality

criteria, hierarchy culture and quantity criterion, market culture and citizen satisfaction criteria and lastly adhocracy culture and innovation criterion. This type of examination is important because of its ability to explain and analyse organizational culture types explicitly and logically, and to associate culture as an underlying concept affecting other organizational variables.

A need for cultural change in public organizations has also become a popular topic over the last three decades in public sector literature (Newman, 1994; Ashworth, 2010). Many initiatives have been put forward within the field as well as a variety of practices adopted from the private sector, all of which aim to produce more innovative and better-performing services in order to determine clear strategies and establish a strong human resources team to direct all these changes. Understanding and investigating organizational culture is necessary because it forms the essence of all these initiatives as part of the process of change. The current study therefore aims to investigate the operational side of organizational culture in line with strategy and performance as one of the most crucial but understudied relationships in contemporary public management.

1.2.3 Studying Strategic Management in a non-Western Setting

Turkish local government is an especially interesting context in which to study the dynamics of strategy implementation, organizational culture and performance outside the Anglophone world. In the 1990s, strong administrative culture in Turkey was transformed from a bureaucratic and hierarchical culture to more open, flat and decentralized culture in parallel with developments all over the world. It separated policy-making and service delivery by moving away from traditional public administration models in favour of a more strategic approach to public management. In part, this was a response to an economic crisis, following which the central government sought to address weaknesses and inefficiencies in public policy design, service delivery and the misallocation of resources. Within this context, the Turkish central government brought together key actors from within and outside government to support a range of reforms intended to make the public sector more strategic in its behaviour (Kesik and Canpolat, 2014). Therefore, strategic planning tools and techniques and performance management initiatives, working as cultural reform processes, became significant and were implemented in many public organizations,

especially metropolitan municipalities, which have a degree of financial and operational autonomy from Turkish central government.

1.3 Gaps in the Literature

This study will begin by addressing the gaps in the current literature on the relationship between strategy implementation and organizational performance. A wide range of research has extensively examined strategic management, planning and content and their relations with performance in both the public and private sector. The literature on planning mostly emphasises the importance of rational planning for organizational performance (Barney, 1991; Hyndman and Eden, 2001; Hendrick, 2003; Johanson, 2009). A great deal of strategy content research indicates that innovative and entrepreneurial organizations—referred to as prospectors—can show better performance than defender or reactor organizations (Snow and Hrebiniak, 1980; Evans and Green, 2000; Boyne and Walker, 2004; Andrews et al., 2006). On the other hand, strategy implementation research mostly focuses on successful or failed strategy implementations, or deals more holistically with the relationship between implementation concepts and performance. This study intends to explore the ways in which different approaches to strategy implementation relate to organizational performance, as only a small number of implementation studies have empirically explored this aspect of the problem.

There are numerous approaches to studying strategic management, including the resource-based view, Porter's strategic positioning, the strategic management process framework, game theory, transaction-cost theory, institutional theory and contingency theory. This study uses contingency theory because it recognises that there is no single best way of doing things universally. Strategies and their implementation styles depend on specific internal and external environments in which organizations operate. The implementation of strategies must be tailored to each organization's unique situation in order to maximise the potential benefits of those strategies (Donaldson, 2001). To date, most empirical studies have dealt with the relationship between implementation and organizational performance without reference to the contextual elements which may affect that relationship. This study considers the influence of contingencies on strategy implementation styles and performance relationship in a different research setting.

Secondly, culture is believed to shape behaviour, attitudes, values and beliefs, and can affect the performance of employees, and consequently the organization. A good deal of literature has focused on the relationship between culture and effectiveness by emphasising the functional side of culture in the organizations. But organizational culture is also seen as a critical element which determines how the organization's cultural entity will relate to other organizational components. Here, contingency theory helps explain how a proper match between culture and other conditions can lead to a better understanding of organizational outcomes. Since the organizational culture and performance literature is very fragmented and holistic, one of the best ways of providing this match concerns an examination of different types of organizational culture along with their more relevant performance outcomes. As far as public sector organizations are concerned, it is also crucial to connect appropriate types of culture with specific performance measures, which is a relatively new approach to analysing relationships in this field. Moreover, as well as the disparate effects of implementation styles and culture types on performance, the combined effects of implementation styles, culture types and organizational performance—as different organizational components which need to exist consistently within the organizations—will also be investigated in this research. Until now, few studies have reviewed culture, performance and strategy topics all together, and none of them have systematically examined the separate and combined effects of strategy implementation and organizational culture on the performance of public sector organizations from the contingency theory standpoint.

Lastly, the present study aims to contribute to previous research on strategy implementation and performance in the public sector by exploring its dynamics specifically within a Turkish local government context. There is a growing body of research examining the strategic management, culture and performance of public organizations, but most research on this topic has been conducted in developed Western countries. Much less is known about these contemporary public management topics in a non-Western context. While researchers have shown an increasing interest in the relationships between implementation, culture and organizational performance in Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian countries, there has been no empirical study analysing the dynamics of these relationships within local government in a non-Western developed country such as Turkey. To remedy this important gap in our

understanding of public sector organizations, this study concentrates on management and performance issues within Turkish local government, particularly in the metropolitan municipalities. In doing so, it intends to clarify whether the concepts and theories used in existing studies are applicable in other public management contexts. In addition, the results of the research have the potential to contribute to policy debates concerning the improvement of organizational performance in non-Western settings.

1.4 Research Context: Turkey

Turkey is an important country and significant actor on the world stage due to its historical, geographical, socio-demographic, economic and political positions. Kapucu and Palabiyik (2008) claim that:

> an effective, efficient and inclusive national state government with its local agencies, productive private sector and an active and eligible civil society are key actors participating in this challenging transforming environment (p. 21).

Therefore, the country's potential—as well as its limitations—should be considered by public managers using proper and well-designed policies and strategies in order to make sound decisions. A series of factors can be listed to explain Turkey's significance, especially as a regional actor, the most important of which is its geographical position. Turkey is located where Africa, Asia and Europe meet. As well as acting as a bridge between the West and the East, its close proximity to the Middle East and its attendant conflicts makes the country's location crucial (Balim-Harding and Guclu, 1999). In the light of this, the country unavoidably faces the adverse effects of such a complex and turbulent environment, and needs to be strategically ready for a variety of eventualities, with state and local level policies at each level of government.

Another factor is Turkey's socio-demographic situation. Turkey has the youngest population in Europe, and is the third most populous country in Europe after Germany and Russia.[1] In recent years, there has been considerable migration from the country's rural areas towards its more developed cities and regions (Kapucu and Palabiyik, 2008). According to a Turkstat[2] report released in 2015, 93.3 % of Turkey's population

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[1] The average age in Turkey is 28.3, and half of the country's population falls below this average (Turkstat report, 2016). http://www.turkstat.gov.tr/UstMenu.do?metod=temelist
[2] Turkish Statistical Institute

live within municipal boundaries, with 82.7% residing in areas covered by metropolitan municipalities. Also, the 3 million Syrian refugees Turkey has accepted in the wake of the Syrian Civil War presents a substantial logistical challenge when trying to determine how this urbanized population will be accommodated. When looking at trends in the country's profile on the Human Development Index (HDI) for last three decades, it can be seen that there are no significant differences between each decade. According to the 2015 - 2016 HDI Report (UNDP, 2016), Turkey ranked seventy-first among 188 countries, with a medium level of human development. [3]

Turkey also represents a growing economic power with its acceptance of neo-liberal trends and the inherently influential role of its government in recent years (Kapucu and Palabiyik, 2008). However, the country faced fiscal and economic crises in the beginning of 2000s, and asked for financial aid from the World Bank in order to overcome the consequences of the economic recession. The World Bank loan was given, but with the proviso of executing substantial reformations in the country's financial management system and its public organizations (Erturk, 2003). Following the successful implementation of these initiatives, The Justice and Development Party, which came to the power in 2002, initiated a series of administrative reforms to trigger the European Union (EU) membership process. In fulfilment of the requirements made by the World Bank and the EU, the government has begun to implement a wide range of structural reform processes in many areas in line with its New Public Management (NPM) policy. Public finance became one of the most important areas in which these reforms were implemented. Immediately afterwards, Public Financial Management and Control Law No. 5018 (2003) was instigated:

> …aiming to ensure budget unity, to underline financial transparency and accountability as well as efficient, effective and economic use of public resources and to bring a long term perspective to public management and to establish strategy-focused organizations. (Kesik and Canpolat, 2011, p. 13).

This process of change introduced medium-term programming and planning into the field of public administration, including strategic plans, performance programmes and multi-year budgeting strategies which were tightly linked to strategic management

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[3] When looking at the HDI index in Turkey, from 1990 to 2000, the country's score increased from 0.576 to 0.653. From 2000 to 2015, it increased from 0.653 to 0.767. When considering this against the reform process in the Turkish public sector, it can be seen that there is little significant change during this lengthy timeframe.

understanding. Most public organizations were responsible for preparing a 5-year strategic plan and an annual performance programme along with annual reports showing the outcomes of the strategic management process. Although it was planned to implement the system in all public agencies, the reform process was predominantly seen as a transformation of local government because of central government's concentration on a programme of decentralization (Demirkaya, 2015). Metropolitan municipalities were seen as the main implementers of change in local areas. In this direction, Metropolitan Municipality Law 5216 was introduced in 2004 to regulate the metropolitan municipalities' entities, functions and liabilities and to generate local services suitable for the reformed system (Ozden, 2016).

Turkish public administration has very strong relationships with the fields of law and political science. Here, structural changes in the public sector were constitutionally undertaken under legal amendments (Eryilmaz, 2010). Also, it is widely acknowledged that the existence of a highly centralized public administration culture in Turkey seriously affected the delivery of public services. In consequence, the execution of change initiatives aiming at restructuring open, innovative and transparent public agencies came up against the strong tradition of hierarchical-bureaucratic culture in the Turkish public sector.

The recent process of change and the improvements it brought are crucial in the sense that:

> …more stable and democratic administrative structure, competitive open market economy, steady improvements in living standards, greater efforts for better income, education, health and the environment require substantial changes in the current administrative sphere of the country (Kapucu and Palabiyik, 2008, p. 21).

An investigation of the implementation of policies, the structure of organizational culture and its relations with organizational outcomes in local government are therefore important in helping to define the present situation of Turkish local government, particularly after almost two decades have passed since the initiatives for change began.

1.5 Research Objectives

1) To investigate the relationship between strategy implementation, organizational culture and organizational performance in Turkish local government.

2) To conduct a comprehensive literature review of strategy implementation, organizational culture and performance in the public sector organizations.

3) To examine the effects of different strategy implementation styles on organizational performance.

4) To examine the effects of different types of organizational culture on different types of organizational performance.

5) To analyse the moderating effects of strategy implementation on the relationship between types of organizational culture and organizational performance criteria.

1.6 Research Questions

1) What is the relationship between rational strategy implementation and organizational performance in Turkish local government?

2) What is the relationship between incremental strategy implementation and organizational performance in Turkish local government?

3) What is the relationship between a hierarchy-oriented culture and quantity in Turkish local government?

4) What is the relationship between a market-oriented culture and citizen satisfaction in Turkish local government?

5) What is the relationship between a clan-oriented culture and quality in Turkish local government?

6) What is the relationship between an adhocracy-oriented culture and innovation in Turkish local government?

7) Does a rational implementation style strengthen the relationship between hierarchy culture and performance in Turkish local government?

8) Does a rational implementation style strengthen the relationship between market culture and performance in Turkish local government?

9) Does an incremental implementation style strengthen the relationship between adhocracy culture and performance in Turkish local government?

10) Does an incremental implementation style strengthen the relationship between clan culture and performance in Turkish local government?

1.7 Research Methodology

The current study is situated within the positivist research paradigm. The study used a cross-sectional design because of its suitability for the nature of the study. The target population for this research comprises senior managers in Turkish metropolitan municipalities.

A questionnaire survey was used to collect the primary study data. The English questionnaire was translated into Turkish and a pilot study was conducted with four public managers in branches of Turkish local government. After considering the comments and suggestions of these managers, a number of changes were made to the survey and then it was back-translated into English to check whether the questionnaire gave the same meaning as the original. The resulting Turkish questionnaire was answered by 134 senior managers consisting of department heads, unit heads and deputy general secretaries in 20 metropolitan municipalities. The data were analysed using multivariate statistical techniques and tests for statistical significance. Prior to analysis, the quality of the data and the validity of the constructs to be analysed were rigorously checked.

Meanwhile, qualitative data collection was undertaken as well as the survey data in order to facilitate understanding and augment the study's initial findings. Out of 134 respondents replied the questionnaire, 16 senior managers were chosen for interview. The qualitative analysis was done using the thematic analysis method.

1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This study is divided into eight chapters including this introductory one.

Chapter Two examines the relationship between strategy implementation and organizational performance. The chapter begins by discussing the nature of strategic

management in public sector organizations, then goes on to develop a conceptual framework for researching and understanding organizational strategy. A contingency theory approach for studying the concept of strategy implementation is then outlined and the presence of two key strategy implementation styles in organizations—rational and incremental—is explained with the help of present theories and frameworks. Following that, ideas about the ways in which rational and incremental styles of strategy implementation can influence organizational performance in the public sector are examined, and the principal studies in the related literature are reviewed in order to advance hypotheses about strategy implementation style its relationship with organizational performance.

Chapter Three provides an overview of organizational culture concepts before addressing the four key types of organizational culture identified by CVF theory, namely clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market. The chapter then focuses on investigating the relationship between types of organizational culture and different dimensions of organizational performance. Following that, the potential moderating effects of the two styles of strategy implementation (rational and incremental) on the relationship between the related culture types and organizational performance are explored, before presenting testable hypotheses based on a review of the available evidence from relevant literature.

Chapter Four frames the methodology applied in the research to analyse data in order to examine the study hypotheses. The chapter aims to provide a connection between the conceptual framework developed for this study and the empirical results presented in subsequent chapters. The characteristics of Turkish local government will also be described as the research context for the study and as well as the ethical implications of the study design.

Chapter Five offers an overview of the demographic profile of the survey participants and presents the descriptive analysis of responses to the survey questions. It also examines the reliability and the validity of the data.

Chapter Six analyses the study hypotheses in order to explore the main quantitative findings of the research. Regression analysis of the data is performed to explore direct and moderation effects between different variables.

Chapter Seven consists of an analysis of the qualitative data in order to explain identified and unidentified relationships that have been presented by the main quantitative data analysis.

Chapter Eight represents the concluding chapter of the study. It presents an overall discussion of the research results as well as summarising the contributions and practical implications of the study. The chapter concludes by defining the limitations of the present study and offering directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION AND THE PERFORMANCE OF PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS

2.1 Introduction

Strategic management is seen as an essential tool for improving organizational effectiveness in both academia and the private and public sectors. There is a good deal of research on the relationships between strategic decision making, planning and organizational performance. Nevertheless, the studies investigating the relationship between strategy implementation and performance are somewhat limited. Focusing on strategy implementation, which is widely considered as the 'missing link' in strategic management research, can help improve our understanding of the connection between the overall strategy process and organizational performance. In this chapter, the nature and importance of strategic management in the public sector are introduced before a framework is conceptualized in order to understand the organizational strategy process comprising content, formulation and implementation. This is followed by an evaluation of the approaches theorising strategy implementation in organizations. Next, the nature of incremental and rational implementation styles are presented, before the available evidence from empirical studies of the relationships between two different implementation styles and organizational performance are reviewed. Testable hypotheses are then developed about the likely relationship between rational and incremental implementation styles and the performance of public organizations.

2.2 Strategic Management in the Public Sector

In the last two decades of the twentieth century, the management of public organizations has been subject to a process of radical change process. This change has been given various names: managerialism (Pollitt, 1990); new public management (Hood, 1991); the post- bureaucratic paradigm (Barzeley, 1992); entreprenerial government (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992) and market-based public administration (Lan and Rosenbloom, 1992). New Public Management (NPM), the most common

term used in the field, was principally aimed at transforming the traditional model of public administration by introducing new economic perspectives (such as quasi-markets, transaction cost economics, agency theory and public choice theory) and generic management theory (firm-like corporate governance) within public organizations (Hood, 1991; Kickert, 1997; Pollitt, 2001).

The main reason for this change was that managing the public sector had become more and more difficult as large and monopolistic public bureaucracies were forced to take on new roles and responsibilities that the approaching millennium was bringing in (Andrews et al., 2011). To handle increasing complexities within a public sector context, strategic management grew to become a topical issue over recent decades, as scholars and practitioners have begun to apply business management techniques to the public sector environment. These techniques were brought into play mainly to enhance capacities and standards within public sector organisations, but also to offer better services to citizens by embracing the methodologies used in the business sector (Joyce, 1999).

Traditional public administration tended to be driven by short term goals, mostly through the commands of centralized power, which were administered via hierarcies and rules. Governing public organizations was seen as carrying out tasks and duties given without taking measurements and performance standards into consideration (Pollitt et al., 2007). On the other hand, effective public administration in an age of results-oriented management requires public agencies develop capacity for strategic management. From this perspective, strategic management is necessary to strengthen the long term viability and effectiveness of public sector organizations in terms of both substantive policy and management capacity (Johnson and Scholes, 2001). As such, newer approaches should integrate all other management processes to provide a systemic, coherent and effective approach and also to establish, accomplish, monitor and update strategic aims of public administration (Barzeley and Campbell, 2003). Also, the new type of management system in the public sector requires that organizations now develop their own objectives and priorities rather than merely implementing policies originating from politicians or demanded from above (Hughes. 1998).

Strategic management began to innovate the public sector in the 1980s (Berry, 1994). In the 1990s and 2000s, strategic management concepts and models became commonplace in the public sector in many countries, especially the USA and in Europe. Major contributions were focused on the experiences at the federal level of US government. Consequently, the intellectual foundations they laid out in terms of strategic management in the public sector were North American in nature and scope. But since the mid-1990s, there have been strategic management improvements in many countries; some European governments have required their ministries and local authorities to apply strategic planning, and generally "there has been a growing appreciation of the benefits of strategic capabilities at all levels of government, at a time when many European governments have been changing, reforming and modernizing" (Joyce and Drumaux, 2014, p. xi).

However, public sector strategic management outside Anglo-American countries is relatively little documented. The related literature in developing countries has improved by transferring available knowledge, mostly from Western countries. In particular, Malaysia, Turkey, China, Thailand, India as primary adopting countries have been eager to integrate strategic management ideas in their public sector, often with the encouragement of prominent international institutions (Protherough and Pick, 2002; Sarker, 2006; Diefenbach, 2009).

The changes towards more business-like organizational forms are now well explored in a substantial canon of literature on NPM reforms (Hood 1991; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Ferlie et al., 1996; Dunleavy et al., 2005). Although there is a great deal of literature suggesting that NPM reforms have made public service organizations less distinctive than private organizations (Dunleavy and Hood 1994), most of the public management literature-including that which examines the nature of strategic management both in public organizations and private companies (Perry and Rainey, 1988; Nutt and Backoff, 1993; Moore, 2000; Rainey and Chun, 2005; Rainey, 2009)-assert that there are still substantial differences between strategic management in the public and private sectors (Bozeman, 1987; Allison, 2004).

Business strategy is primarily concerned with how a company competes within a specific industry or market (Grant, 2008). Barney and Hesterley (2006) claim that a company's business strategy is defined as theories on profit maximization. Although

many of the tenets of strategic management in the public sector remain traditionally linked to the methodologies and attitudes of business organizations in the private sector, business strategies are often considered as the preserve of public management scholars "as ways of defeating rivals in competitive markets" (Andrews et al., 2012, p. 1).

Nevertheless, the concepts of organizational and corporate strategy show similarities with the nature of public sector organizations. According to Hitt et al. (2007), organizational strategy is an integrated and coordinated set of commitments and actions that have been planned to enable organizations to benefit from its core competencies. Corporate strategy concept, in the private sector, can also be defined as the pattern of decision-making in a firm that determines and reveals its objectives and goals, shaping the major policies and plans for accomplishing those goals and identifying the range of works the organisation needs to pursue (Andrews, 1980) as well as characterising the scope of the organization in terms of the industries and the environment in which it exists. Allison (1999) identifies three key activities associated with strategic management in public sector organizations which are similar to the corporate strategies of private sector organizations:

- Focusing attention across functional divisions and throughout various organizational levels on common goals, themes and issues.

- Connecting internal management processes and program initiatives to desired outcomes in the external environment.

- Linking operational, tactical, day to day decisions to long term strategic objectives.

Consequently, as far as the public sector is concerned, strategic ideas are more complex than simple business management strategy, where the primary objective is making profits. In the light of the dynamic political and institutional environment within which many public agencies operate, an effective strategic management capability is essential to maintain or strengthen the fit between the organization and its external stakeholders and strategic planning for results within a clearly defined context of mission, mandates, values and vision. (Poister and Streib, 1999).

Whilst the debate on whether NPM models and techniques is suitable for public organizations is still ongoing, it has been claimed that "the NPM era is dated and has

now been succeeded by post-NPM models of New Public Governance" (Newman, 2001; Osborne, 2009). New Public Governance (NPG) emphasises horizontal relationships between governmental agencies and private and non-profit organizations, as well as stressing the NPM-type benefits of efficiency and effectiveness in government agencies that prioritise the participation of key stakeholders in policy making (Osborne, 2006).

Although NPG and NPM appear to be successive concepts in the literature, in fact, they represent transition phases in the necessary transformations needed in the public sector. Osborne (2009) asserts that "the time of the NPM has thus in fact been a relatively brief and transitory one between the statist and bureaucratic tradition of public administration and the embryonic plural and pluralist tradition of the NPG" (p. 419).

Throughout this transition, strategic management, as one of the most popular techniques that have been adapted to the public sector, has become a standard tool for public managers to create value and shape organizations (Mcbain and Smith, 2010). It is also considered that there is no full comprehension of strategic management developments in the public sector, either in theory or in practice (Kesik and Canpolat, 2014; Ferlie and Ongaro, 2015). There are also considerable variations in the impact of management techniques across countries and between sector areas (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011).

Given that the strategy-making process in the public sector faces not only a market environment but also a political one, its main resources are not only money but also public power. It draws not only on internal organizational capabilities but also on the capabilities of external stakeholders, including citizens and civil society organizations (Johnson and Scholes, 2001). It can be concluded that the distinctive characteristics of public strategic management need to be taken into account. At this point, the idea of strategic management can be grounded and well-supported from a broader viewpoint of public management research.

Throughout the development processes in the public sector regarding strategic management, the conclusion arrived at is that strategic management is not merely concerned with economic performance and profit; it also deals with the intention of getting benefits for individual groups of citizens and society as a whole. From this

perspective, this study argues that strategic management in the public sector can be better understood within the NPG paradigm than it can through the NPM processes. That said, when analysing the relationship between strategic management and the performance of public organizations, it is necessary to develop a conceptual framework that facilitates the study of key features of organizational strategy, with specific reference to the public management field. Such a framework is developed in the next section.

2.3 Conceptualising Organizational Strategy

The term 'strategy' in the private sector refers to a set of measures designed and carried out mostly by top management in order to accomplish the goals of an organization in a competitive environment (Chandler 1962; Ansoff 1987; Harrison and Caron 1994; Thompson 1995; Johnson and Scholes 2001). In the public sector, strategy is not necessarily considered as a "weapon" used to defeat rivals in competition (Greer and Hoggett, 1999). Instead it can be interpreted more broadly as a means of improving public services throughout organizations (Boyne and Walker, 2004). Targets are more complicated and ambiguous in public sector organizations, and strategy making processes is more open to outsider influences due to the large number of external stakeholders (Rainey, 2009). Therefore, it is essential to create compatible strategic targets that can work alongside the external environmental conditions of an organization in order to maximize the utilization of resources in relation to objectives (Pettigrew, 1987). Organizational strategy in the public sector, as an all-around concept, should be examined as a set of stages, comprising close-knit (interconnected) elements in order to theorise public sector strategic management using its distinctive characteristics.

In the public sector strategic management literature, there is a tendency to examine the elements of strategic management separately without paying attention to the possible links between these different elements, not only to each other but to the eventual outcomes (Hansen, 2011; George and Desmidt, 2014, George et al., 2017). However, it is important to divide strategic management into its key elements in order to clarify the field of study and develop academic and practical connections (Faulkner and Campbell, 2003; Andrews et al., 2012).

In this direction, many researchers have offered conceptual frameworks for strategic management, comprising content, process, context and outcome factors (Pettigrew, 1987, 1992; Bryson and Bromiley, 1993; Okumus, 2001; Okumus, 2003). A similar framework was also propounded by Dawson (1994) as content, context and operation; by Skivington and Daft (1991) as framework and process; by Miller and Dess (1993) as contextual, system and action and by Andrews et al. (2012) as content, processes and performance. In line with Andrews et al.'s (2012) model, this study conceptualizes a framework made up from the elements of content, processes and outcomes. The study also considers these elements as the intertwined parts of a strategy making process. Over the following sections, content and process—two interwined facets of strategy making—will be examined before dealing specifically with the phases of the strategy making process, namely formulation and implementation. Then, strategy implementation styles—rational and incremental—will be explored together with organizational performance.

2.3.1 Strategy Content

Strategy content can be described as "the patterns of service provision that are selected and implemented by organizations" (Walker and Andrews, 2015, p. 231). The result of this process is the strategy content itself, which is a pattern of action through which an agency sets out to accomplish desired goals (Rubin, 1988, Boyne and Walker, 2004). Strategy content can be conceptualized at two levels. Firstly, it can be seen as a generic notion that defines an organization's approach and how it deals with its surroundings. It can be referred as a "strategic stance," and refers to the broad way in which an organization positions itself to develop or maintain its performance. It is generally considered that this level of strategy is fixed and quite difficult to change, especially in the short term (Zajac and Shortell, 1989). The second strategic level includes the stages through which an organization operationalizes its position. This can be referred to as "strategic actions," and these are more susceptible to change in the short run (Fox-Wolfgramm et al., 1998). To summarise, the strategic stance is associated with the beliefs and values of an organization and its staff which have normally been established over time and are consequently not easy to change, while strategic actions are comprised of short term decisions which can be made while the strategy making process is in action.

The well-known strategic management framework proposed by Miles and Snow (1978) deals with strategy content by concluding that organizational strategy should be consistent with the external environment in order to accomplish its targets. Miles and Snow classify the strategic stance of an organization into four types: prospector, defender, analyser and reactor. A prospector strategy looks towards effecting innovation by taking risks and being the first to offer new services and products, and this may be most successful approach in turbulent or dynamic organizational environments. Defender strategies concentrate on increasing the standard of current provision and restricting unnecessary costs, and will work in environments that are stable and well-defined. Analyser strategies combine these two organizational stances, maintaining current competences whilst searching for new ones that have recently been adopted by innovative organizations. A reactor strategy has no viable approach; it drifts with its surroundings, failing to anticipate or affect new policies or outlooks unless any impetus comes into play from external sources such as financial or stakeholder pressures (Zahra and Shortell, 1990). The main argument of the Miles and Snow framework is that prospector, defender and analyser organizations perform better than reactors, a statement that is backed up by many studies in the private sector (Shortell and Zajac, 1989; Conant et al., 1990) and some public sector research (Andrews et al., 2006).

These four strategic stances have similarities with the outlook and behaviour of some public sector managers. Downs (1967) identifies some bureaucrats types as "climbers" (who search for new opportunities for promotion), "conservers" (those who keep what they have), "mixed-motive officials" (a mix of climbers and conservers), and "statesmen" (those who are affected by social pressures). The behaviour and attitudes of public managers can be effective in determining strategic action styles of the organization, and consequently strategic stances, since they are the two main components of strategy content. Therefore, one possible way of building a solid strategy content pattern could be by providing a congruence between strategic stance and strategic action. For instance, matching the prospector strategic stance with the strategic actions of a climber type of manager can help obtain the best strategy content. By and large, strategic content and its associated elements is important as an initial strategic management stage in one way or another, but will not suffice for long term

planning (Andrews et al., 2012). Linking strategy content with process is also essential in order to understand the organizational strategies from a broader view.

2.3.2 Strategy Process

The strategy making process was originally identified as a sequence of clearly defined phases comprising agenda setting, decision making, formulation, implementation, control and evaluation (Chakravarthy and White, 2002). According to this classic view, strategy process, which comprises a series of distinct phases through which organizational strategies are developed and realized, follows the same cycle for every decision. Contemporary views of strategic management, on the other hand, assert that strategy making is not a linear process as was originally thought, and can occur in a different order, entailing the management of organizations from a strategic perspective on an on-going basis (Barzeley and Campbell, 2003). In fact these different views are marked in public policy making literature by a long debate on the separation or unification of the processes of formulation and implementation (Parsons, 1996).

Many academics in the public management field have recently given more attention to strategy process, characterising it slightly differently. For instance, Poister et al. (2010) describe strategy management process by arguing that it is "a broader process of managing an organization in a strategic manner on a continuing basis" (p. 524). Walker et al. (2010) also claim that the strategy process is formed by strategy formulation and implementation, which involves determining targets, preparing strategies and executing the actual strategy process. Similarly, Bryson et al. (2010) describes the strategy process in more detail by stating that strategic planning and strategy implementation, along with evaluation, together form the strategy making process in order to create value for public as well as accomplishing organizational responsibilities on an ongoing basis.

Leading public management scholars have different perspectives on the strategy process; while Poister et al. (2010) consider it to be an ongoing activity, Walker et al. (2010) see it as a clearly defined stage within a cycle. Bryson et al. (2010) view the strategy process as both an ongoing activity and a definitive process comprising of formulation, implementation and evaluation stages. Given that the different styles of the strategy process can be considered as separate, coexistent or mutually

complementary, the complexities arising from the environmental and organizational factors in today's world are also varied. This means that giving precedence to one style over others might cause problem, and a one size fits for all solution may not be the best option. Therefore, the possibility of using a mix of different styles either together or sequentially should be considered by taking into account special conditions which may affect different implementation stages.

The next section examines the existing literature on strategy formulation, investigating the ways in which strategy is formed. Strategy formulation is examined as part of strategy making process, leading to a more specific analysis of the strategic implementation process.

2.4 Strategy Formulation

Strategy formulation is a stage in which an organization's strategic targets and plans are developed. In the 1960s, there was a strong tendency towards a centrally planned approach to government. However, public administration scholars began to pay closer attention to formulating and planning strategies as soon as strategic management practices entered into the public sector literature (Bryson, 1995; Moore, 1995; Joyce, 1999). Strategic planning in the public sector became a paradigm to the extent where it even took precedence over strategic management ideas (Bryson et al., 2010). The strategy formulation process is overwhelmingly based on strategic planning practices within the government sector. As far as strategy formulation research is concerned, there are many models. Mintzberg et al. (1998) proposed ten different schools of thought on strategy formulation, although rational planning and incrementalism were quickly seen as the two most important and effective models.

In terms of classical or prescriptive schools of strategic management, rational or strategic planning defines an organizational objective in advance, describes the current position of an organization and uses a prescriptive approach to arrive at a desired position by sequentially linking three core areas of strategic analysis, strategic development and strategy implementation (Carr and Harris, 2004). More precisely, strategic planning is the process by which necessary decisions and actions are determined in an organization within a clear framework that shapes and directs "what an organization is, what it does, and why it does it" (Bryson, 1995, p, 20).

Meanwhile the incremental approach to strategy formulation was developed in the public sector literature following Lindblom's (1959) broadly cited article on "the science of muddling through", which proposed that decision making is an incremental process based on the basis of making it up as you go along. This descriptive or emergent approach is charecterised by trial, learning, experimentation and discussion (Mintzberg et al., 1998). It implies that strategy can be formulated and planned in an environment where managers explore, learn, and then come to share a set of behaviours over time. While it is true that such a deliberate procedure will lay down directions and create commitment, emergence allows for flexibility among managers. This school of thought also describes the way strategies can evolve in a more natural manner, using more abstract thinking and non-quantifiable factors.

The rational approach still dominated, although the incremental approach was gradually introduced to the strategy formulation literature. Rational planning provides a systematic process of gathering information about the big picture, using it to establish a long-term direction which can then be translated into specific goals, objectives, and actions (Poister and Streib, 2005). Public sector organizations all over the world are still preparing strategic plans as a part of the strategy formation process. Despite its drawbacks, which are also widely discussed (Yazici, 2014), many scholars conclude that the nature of the public sector organizations is particularly suited to strategic planning approaches (Moore, 1995; Bryson et al., 2010) as a highly structured and appropriate concept of formalization (De Wit and Meyer, 2004). On the other hand, Mintzberg et al. (1998) consider that emergent strategies are more common than planned ones, although they are not as visible, as emergent strategies occur as contingencies within the process rather than being formulated before it starts.

As both types of strategy formulation have a place in public sector management literature, there are a number of studies investigating their relationships with organizational performance. Andrews et al. (2012) examined seven empirical studies showing the effect of strategy formulation on performance, and found that 6 of them examined the relationship between rational planning and performance. The study by Walker et al. (2010) was the exception, where the research investigated the effects of both rational planning and logical incrementalism on organizational performance and found that incremental formulation had no effect on performance.

The empirical findings and the practical implications favor rational planning over formulation, although incremental formulation strategies remains underinvestigated as a newer style than rational formulation. The literature also claims that an effective formulation system requires both rational planning and incremental strategy formulation to be linked with other strategic management processes, including strategy implementation (Poister and Streib, 2005). In this direction, strategic planning is an action-oriented planning approach that is useful only if it is carefully linked to implementation. Meanwhile, incremental formulation is also relevant to implementation processes because it is realised within the process, mostly during the strategy implementation stage.

2.5 Strategy Implementation

Implementation is a well-known topic and represents a crucial stage in public policy implementation that focuses on the relationship between an expression of proposed intent and its realisation (O'Toole, 2000). From a more conventional viewpoint, it has been defined as "the process by which strategies and policies are put into action through the development of programs, budgets and procedures" (Wheelan and Hunger, 2002, p. 16). Sabatier (2007) claims that the process involves a complex set of elements that interact over time with multiple levels of actors, including national and local governments as well as the agencies and citizens.

In the face of the increasing uncertainty and complex economic and political circumstances that define today's world, the idea of implementing policies strategically has been brought into play by governments to enhance capacities and performance standards (Bryson, 2011; Ferlie and Ongaro, 2015). Strategy implementation is the process of putting strategies into practice, which includes planning and delivering services, developing the efficiency and effectiveness of operations, and designing organizational structures, evaluation systems and cultures required to fit the new strategy (Hill and Jones, 2008). It is considered as a difficult task that demands persistence, draws attention to details and prepares the organization for the future (Joyce, 1999). Jenkins et al. (2003) consider that the implementation of a strategy in an organization is akin to fighting a long and bloody battle.

Strategy implementation is seen as the most difficult phase of the whole strategy process. There is often a concern that strategic management will fail during the implementation phase. It has been also claimed that less than 50% of formulated strategies are actually implemented (Hambrick and Cannella, 1989; Mintzberg, 1994; Nutt, 1999; Miller, 2002). The challenges and problems faced in implementing strategies and the key attributes of successful strategy implementation have been widely investigated (Alashloo et al., 2005; Elbanna et al., 2015). One of the most important reasons that makes this phase so problematic is the "implementation gap", in that formulating strategies and implementing them are frequently considered as entirely distinct processes (Noble, 1999). Most top managers are capable enough to create strategic documents that analyse existing situations and describe reasonable strategic practices for their improvement, but since key formulators of strategic decisions mostly play no active role in the implementation phase, the gap in implementation inhibits the acquisition of effective implementing strategies.

Research by Pettigrew (1988), Mintzberg (1994) and Miller (1997) on emergent strategies highlight the way that strategies are actually implemented within organizations as being critical to their success, as well as the actual content of those strategies and the way in which they were initially formulated. In the same line, Hrebiniak and Joyce (1984) consider that implementation, as a challenging activity, takes a longer time than formulation, involves more people and greater task complexity, and implies the need for sequential and simultaneous thinking on the part of managers responsible for implementation.

So why do strategies fail in the implementation stage, and what are the determinants of the successful implementation? There is a growing body of research on strategy implementation type and performance relationships in private sector organizations (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; White et al., 2003), but only a handful of empirical analyses have examined strategy implementation style as a significant determinant of organizational outcomes in a public sector context (Van de Ven, 1980; Andrews et al., 2011). The following section focuses on the literature examining the phases that lie between strategy implementation styles and public service performance.

2.5.1 Strategy Implementation Styles and Organizational Performance

An implementation style forms part of an organization's administrative routine, which has long been recognized as crucial to understanding the dynamics of implementation (Hill and Hupe, 2009). It reflects the taken-for-granted routine of putting strategies into practice, and can be described as "the way we do things around here". An organization's implementation style tends to become institutionalized and established over time. Nutt's (1987) study shows that managers often develop a particular style of implementation and stick with it. However, researchers argue that organizations might apply different implementation styles for distinct purposes; for example using a more flexible approach to create innovative solutions to problems in service delivery, whilst adopting a much more formalized approach to initiating an "efficiency-focused strategy" (Andrews et al., 2017).

It is extensively acknowledged that no matter if a strategy is emergent or deliberate, planned or unplanned, it will have little effect on an organization's performance until it is implemented (Mintzberg, 1994). This means that the successful implementation of strategies depends on the particular style of implementation that an organization decides to adopt, which in turn has important implications for organizational performance. Conceptual studies have developed alternative frameworks for categorizing different approaches to strategy implementation. An examination of existing implementation styles indicates that there are a number of core elements, such as the extent to which responsibility is centralized or decentralized, and whether formulation and implementation are distinct sequential activities or are interwined and represent a distinction between more or less planned styles of implementation (Cespedes and Piercy, 1996; Thompson, 2000; Long and Franklin, 2004). In this direction, a number of methods and styles of implementing organizational strategies can be presented; Bourgeois and Brodwin (1984) claim that examples of implementation style are commander, change, collaborative, cultural and crescive. Hart (1992), Hart and Bambury (1994) and White et al. (2003) use command, symbolic, rational, transactive and generative as terms to illustrate strategy implementation styles. Bailey et al. (2000) categorize implementation styles into six distinct styles; command, planning, incremental, political, cultural and enforced. Nutt (1987) classifies implementation as intervention, participation, persuasion and edict styles. Thompson (2000) synthesizes these models to produce a spectrum of

approaches to implementation with rational/command at one end and incremental/generative at the other, as do Cespedes and Piercy (1996). Andrews et al. (2011) identify two distinct implementation styles at either end of the spectrum—rational and incremental.

In line with strategic decision-making theories, the last implementation styles—rational and incremental—are applied to frame this study because they focus directly on the selection of whatever strategy implementation style is best for the needs of organizations (Nutt, 1998; Hickson et al., 2003). Theories on strategic decision making concentrate on two fundamental implementation styles in order to understand what works and when in terms of executing organizational strategies: "a rational or planned style of implementation; and an incremental or ad-hoc style of implementation" (Andrews et al., 2017, p. 2). A number of studies claim that rational implementation, which involves making strategic and action plans and is visualised through controlling and top-down hierarchical implementation, is more criticial to successful implementation (Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Pinto and Prescott, 1990; Chustz and Larson, 2006). Another significant body of work has been built on the incremental approach to implementation, which has become more prominant with the adoption of new public management (NPM) techniques such as decentralization, learning, participation, staff involvement. Incremental implementation is consequently also considered relevant to organizational success (Veliyath and Shortell, 1993; Bantel, 1997; Stewart and Kringas, 2003). It is therefore vital to assess both implementation styles in order to identify which style leads to good performance. In the rest of this chapter, the existing literature and empirical evidences are reviewed in order to develop hypotheses on rational and incremental implementation styles and organizational performance.

2.5.1.1 Rational Strategy Implementation and Performance

References to the initial stages of rational strategy implementation in terms of the public sector can be found in the traditional policy implementation literature. Early policy implementation theories and decision-making models were straightforward, and administrators were expected to implement policies formulated by politicians using a top-down approach (Smith, 1973; Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; Hood, 1976; Mazmanian and Sabatier, 1983; Sabatier, 1986). Early rational models were

based on the simple idea that implementation was about getting people to do what they are told while maintaining control over a sequence of phases in a system. The process was aimed at implementing and developing a programme of control which would minimise conflict as well as preventing deviation from the goals set by the initial policy hypothesis. However, it was widely believed that effective and successful implementation would need little more than a good chain of command and a capacity to coordinate and control (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1984). This early rational top-down model has been criticised in that an implementation process based only on hierarchical control is not enough to obtain the desired outcomes.

Classical policy implementation in the public sector has given way to more systematized and planned approaches with the application of strategic management. This approach places primary emphasis on the appraisal of the external and internal situation, uncovering threats and opportunities in the environment and revealing the strengths and weaknesses of the organization by subscribing to a number of basic elements. Sharp distinctions are made in this approach between the formulation of strategies and their implementation, clearly separating thought from action. Strategic management is often connected with strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analyses, a school of thought that upholds the principle of systematic analysis of the requirements for making strategic objectives a reality through analysing internal capabilities (Alford, 2001; Farjoun, 2002). Accordingly, strategies should be fully formulated and the external and internal conditions should also be taken into account so that implementation leads to better outcomes (Dettmer, 2003).

The simple and informal strategic management model has become an elaborated sequence of steps in the planning process. This planning has been seen as the most influential approach to strategy making process (Carr and Harris, 2004; Choo, 2005; Johnson et al., 2005), especially for public sector organizations which have predominantly applied rational planning over the last 50 years in various settings[4] (Boyne et al., 2004). A rational implementation style prioritizes getting staff to follow

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[4] In the public sector, the 'modern' interest in rational planning generally dates back to the Planning Program Budgeting Systems (PPBS) in the Department of Defense in the US in the early 1960s, using Zero Based Budgeting (ZBB) and Management by Objectives (MBO). In the UK it can be traced back to the use of initiatives to plan and evaluate public expenditure through the Public Expenditure Survey Committee (PESC) between 1973 and 1979 and Program Analysis and Review and later Best Value (BV) regime from 1999.

precise procedures for the introduction of new policies and strategies and the use of systems that can ensure that such organizational changes occur in distinctly planned steps (Parsa, 1999). According to strategic planning theories, organizations applying a predominantly rational strategy implementation style are likely to take advantage of the greater control that they are able to exert over strategies (Hrebiniak, 1984).

From a rational perspective, strategic management is a deliberate policy that takes shape in a chronological sequence culminating in the attainment of the strategic targets set out at the start of the process (Andrews et al., 2017). Strategies are deliberately formulated and implemented following the classic rationale of *diagnosis followed by prescription*, although prescriptions need to be controlled and can be adjusted at the every stage of the treatment if necessary. Fernandez and Rainey (2006) emphasise that an essential factor for the successful implementation of change is the provision of a plan that can stand as an organizational roadmap. This characteristics of rational strategy implementation is that it makes it easier for planned strategies to be reviewed during the implementation process as well as using pilot studies before putting larger-scale plans into practice (Hart, 1992). Ansoff (1991) argues that the rational approach employs analytical and evaluative techniques to maintain clear strategic directions in response to environmental change during the implementation stages. Many researchers also assert that formal methods such as action plans, activity reports and monitoring, which allow planners to deal with the strategic targets in the short run, are crucial for maintaining a successful implementation process (Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Pinto and Prescott, 1990; Chustz and Larson, 2006). Consequently, an emphasis on rational implementation seems to result in better organizational performance, because the clearly defined organizational goals on which it rests allows ongoing review, control and the smooth integration of activities.

Rational implementation is the most conventional and popular style, and there are examples that prove the success of this strategy type, especially in the private sector literature (Hart, 1992; Hart and Bambury, 1994; Parsa, 1999; Woodside et al., 1999). Poister and Van Slyke (2001) criticised of existing research, arguing that although there is considerable literature on strategic management process in the public sector, there has been very little empirical research to synthesize theoretical leaning into empirical practice in government, in order to evaluate the outcomes that they generate.

In this direction, a systematic literature review was made using the Web of Science search engine. This study explores rational and incremental implementation styles and organizational performance, as well as different approaches to implementing strategies and relevant performance measures within both public and private sector studies. A search was then performed to look for performance, effectiveness, efficiency, equity, improvement, outcome, output, quality, satisfaction, innovation, strategy implementation, strategy execution, implementation styles, planned implementation, emergent implementation, rational implementation style and incremental implementation style in the titles, abstracts or key words of the articles. The resulting academic papers are summarised in Table 2.1. The search revealed eight studies examining the relationship between rational implementation style and performance. These studies concentrated dominantly on private sector organizations (e.g. Parsa, 1999; Schaap, 2006; Thorpe and Morgan, 2007; Schaap, 2012). Only two studies examined public sector organizations exclusively (e,g, Van de Ven, 1980; Andrews et al., 2011), whilst two other studies examined organizations in both sectors (e.g. Miller, 1997; Hickson et al., 2003).

Author(s)/Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Van de Ven, 1980	USA	Quantitative (Survey)	14 childcare community	Efficiency, Community acceptance	Practicing formal planning model has higher levels of efficiency.
Miller, 1997	UK	Case Study	113 informants; 6 organizations; 4 private and 2 public organizations	Managers' perceptions of completion, achievement and acceptability of strategy	Specificity and accessibility were critical to success.
Parsa, 1999	USA	Case Study	141 franchise organizations	Sales per year	Collaborative model had best performance
Hickson et al., 2003	UK	Quantitative (survey)	55 decisions in 14 organizations, 6 manufacturing, 5 services and 3 public organizations (university, municipality and water services)	Planned and Prioritized	Practicing planned and prioritized approaches work better. None of them least effective.

Author(s)/Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Thorpe and Morgan, 2006	UK	Quantitative (survey)	115 service-based organizations in telecommunication ,transport and financial services	Managers' perception of effective strategy execution and strategy meeting targets	The findings show whether the firm displayed an implementation environment characterised by hierarchical structures and strong top-down influences, in which case marketing strategy implementation will be more effective.
Schaap, 2006	USA	Quantitative (survey)	71 senior level leaders in private organizations	Effectıve senior level leadership	Top-down process more important for organizational performance.
Andrews et al., 2011	UK	Quantitative (survey)	90 local government services in 2002 62 local government services in 2003	Managers' perception of effectiveness, efficiency, equity, innovation, customer satisfaction, quality and quantity of outputs.	There is no consistent style of implementation that is likely to lead performance. Rational implementation is unrelated to performance.
Schaap, 2012	USA	Quantitative (survey)	890 senior level leaders in private organizations	Effective senior level leadership	Clearly developed, indicating particular tasks for individuals, with clear-cut time frames, and identifying the people responsible for task completion are required for successful performance.

Table 2. 1: A Summary of Empirical Studies on the Link between Rational Strategy Implementation and Organizational Performance

Most of the evidence suggests that a rational implementation style is associated with better organizational performance. Schaap (2006) addresses the question of how the behaviour of senior management (as perceived by themselves) contributes to the success or failure of strategy implementation. The sample size for this study included 71 senior-level leaders, and concluded that successful implementation required clearly developed plans as well as determining tasks and time frames, and allocating responsibilities for task completion to specific members of staff. Schaap (2012) showed that the top-down attitudes of senior management are positively related to organizational performance in the implementation phase. Miller (1997) applied a case study approach examining 6 public and private organizations in the UK. Her evidence indicated that strategic planning was positively related to better performance, whereas elements of flexibility more closely related to incremental implementation is found less important. Van de Ven's (1980) study based on longitudinal design on US childcare organizations also found that the implementation of strategic planning is associated with better outcomes. Parsa (1999) applied the comprehensive implementation models in US franchise organizations. The study results suggest that the collaborative models of implementation, seeking long term goal achievement and seen as semi-formalized versions of formalized strategic planning, also have a positive effect on organizational performance. Thorpe and Morgan (2006) found that strategy implementation in organizations with a convenient environment characterised by hierarchical and strong top-down structures can be more effective and successful.

On the other hand, two studies could find no relationship between rational implementation and organizational performance. Hickson et al. (2003) explored the association between implementation and performance in a sample of public and business organizations. The study examined the implementation approach applied in 14 public and private organizations in the UK, and concluded that there was no clear evidence relating strategy implementation styles to performance. Andrews et al.'s (2011) study on Welsh local government organizations found that rational implementation is unrelated to performance. Overall, rational implementation appears relevant to organizational performance, based on well-developed theory, as well as the growing evidence from widely acknowledged merits of rational planning in the public sector.

As a result of this evidence, one hypothesis can be suggested:

Hypothesis 1a: A rational approach to implementation is positively related to organizational performance.

2.5.1.2 Incremental Strategy Implementation and Performance

Incremental strategy implementation, as an alternative model to the rational approach to decision-making, was introduced in Charles Lindblom's (1959) publication *The Science of Mudding Through*. Lindblom claimed that the limited nature of rationality and capacities of human cognition, together with constraints on time and resources, do not allow planners to follow a rational type of reasoning, particularly when dealing with complicated issues (Lindblom, 1959). However, rational decision-making theory asserts that precise values and objectives should produce different results when compared to alternative methods and a means-end unity by considering all elements relevant to the decision. Nevertheless, it is widely acknowledged that incrementalism was not necessarily formed as a completely contrary model to rationalism (Pal, 2011). In fact, it can stand as a subsequent process which enables strategies to be implemented in a different way (Quinn, 1978).

The learning school of thought, which mainly originated from Lindblom's seminal paper, emphasised the elements of incremental strategic decision making processes based on a chain of small, gradual and unplanned changes taking place over time (Quaye et al., 2015). Unlike the planning school, which emphasises the importance of deliberate and pre-planned strategies, the learning school evaluates the concept of emergent strategies as "a pattern of action which develops over time in an organization in the absence of clear mission and goals; or sometimes despite mission and goals" (Griffin, 2013, p. 207). Quinn (1978) argues that even with a well-developed strategic planning system, major strategic decisions are taken outside that planning framework because targets are often ambiguous, making their implementation complicated to measure (Hill and Hupe, 2009).

The learning school also proposes that the environment of any organisation is too complex to be systematically analysed, since many actors become involved, all of whom may have an influence on decision making, implementation and results (Sabatier, 1999; Kearns, 2000). The complex and unpredictable nature of the organization's environment frequently requires outward looking analysis to adjust organizational strategies in the face of changing knowledge. Strategy implementation

should therefore take the form of a learning process focusing on continous adaptation in order to adapt to new situations and possible scenarios arising from the external environment (Kearns, 2000).

The incremental approach to the strategy making process proposes a much looser distinction between formulation and implementation than the rational approach (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985). Hambrick and Cannella (1989) and Mintzberg (1994) consider that the separation of formulation and implementation is the most fundamental reason for implementation failure, since it considers implementation as an entirely administrative process, ignoring the effects of strategy decision makers. However, incremental strategy making occurs as a learning process, which automatically makes formulation and implementation identical, thereby minimising the possibility of implementation failure (Hambrick and Cannella, 1989). Dealing with the two processes together increases the involvement of the organization's members in both the development and the implementation of strategies (Andrews et al., 2012) and generates more effective organizational learning, which in turn increases responsiveness to environmental effects (Mintzberg, 2000; Montgomery, 2008).

Incremental implementation styles can be seen as more applicable in the increasingly fragmented and uncertain nature of public management in this century. This is even more relevant following the adoption of the public governance concept (Kickert, 1993; Osborne, 2006), which enables numerous interactions betwen a wide range of actors in decision-making, implementation and service delivery. With its fluid nature and external focus, the incremental approach to strategy implementation is expected to succeed via learning, sharing and disseminating rather than solely being result-oriented (Mintzberg, 1998). This is particularly true of the public sector (Steward and Kringas, 2003).

As previously mentioned, a systematic literature review was performed on the related themes. The literature on incremental implementation and organizational performance is comparatively limited, but a positive connection between elements incremental implementation and organizational performance have been found in a number of studies. Table 2.2 demonstrates the empirical research on the incremental implementation and organizational performance.

Author(s)/Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Veliyath and Shortell, 1993	USA	Quantitative (survey)	406 hospitals CEOs	Profitability	Prospectors plan implementation more than reactors. Prospectors who perform best did less implementation planning than other prospectors.
Bantel, 1997	USA	Quantitative (survey)	166 technology firms	Managers' perceptions of future prospects, financial stability, growth rate and profitability	Employment participation is an important factor for performance. (empowerment)
Miller, 1997	UK	Case study	113 informants; 6 organizations; 4 private and 2 public	Managers' perceptions of completion, achievement and acceptability of strategy	Flexibility was not critical to success,

Author(s)/Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Parsa, 1999	USA	Quantitative (survey)	141 franchise organizations	Sales per year	Higher sales lead to better performance.
Stewart and Kringas, 2003	Australia	Case study	6 Australian public organizations	Staff and manager perceptions	Negotiation and participation are related to performance
Andrews et al., 2011	UK	Quantitative (survey)	90 local government services in 2002 62 local government services in 2003	Manager perception of effectiveness, efficiency, equity, innovation, customer satisfaction, quality and quantity of outputs.	There is no consistent style of implementation that is likely to lead performance. Rational implementation is unrelated to performance Incremental implementation is negatively related to performance.

Table 2. 1: A Summary of Empirical Studies on the Link between Incremental Strategy Implementation and Organizational Performance

There are only six empirical studies examining incremental implementation style and performance. Parsa's (1999) empirical study on 141 private sector organizations suggests that applying an incremental implementation style leads to higher sales. Stewart and Kringas (2003) applied a case study approach to examine six Australian public agencies and found more staff involvement in the implementation process. Finally, they found that negotiation can lead to more incremental style, and can consequently be related to higher performance. Miller's (1997) study based on public and private managers' perceptions in the UK found that flexibility as an element of incrementalism is not associated with organizational success. Bantel (1997) examined 166 high technology companies in the USA, focussing on employee empowerment as one of the components of incremental implementation. Her study found that employment participation, as measured by growth rate, is an important factor in enhancing organizational performance. Veliyath and Shortell (1993) conducted a study with the CEOs of 406 hospitals in the USA. Their evidence showed that prospector organizations which performed best implemented fewer implementation plans than other prospector organizations. Finally, Andrews et al.'s (2011) study on Welsh government found that incremental implementationan style is related to worse performance, whereas a rational implementation style is not related to organizational performance. Overall, the incremental approach looks relevant to organizational performance, but evidence is less strong than for the rational implementation.

As a result of this evidence, another hypothesis can be suggested:

> *Hypothesis1b: An incremental approach to implementation is positively related to organizational performance, but less so than a rational approach.*

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has examined the relationship between two strategy implementation styles and organizational performance in public organizations. Firstly, the concept and relevance of strategic management within the public sector was covered, before analysing strategy content and processes. Strategic formulation and implementation

were then reviewed in order to evaluate the relationship between strategic implementation styles and performance.

The studies presented here provide an important step in understanding the effects of different implementation styles on performance in the public sector, and to develop hypotheses on this relationship. Prior evidence examining the links between implementation styles and organizational performance is largely limited to private sector studies, therefore the current study examines both public and private sector research to explore this relationship. As far as empiricial analyses on the relationship implementation style and performance are concerned, it is hypothesised that rational implementation is positively related to organizational performance. In line with previous research, incremental implementation style is also suggested to be positively associated with performance, but less so than rational implementation.

Implementation, as a critical element of strategy, is believed to have a significant impact on performance, although existing studies assume that both rational and incremental implementation styles can have positive or negative relationships with organizational performance, depending upon different parameters such as strategic stance, culture, middle manager involvement, political influence and context. Organizational culture may be especially important because it can have an impact on the characteristics and outcomes of strategic management in the public sector (Korosec, 2006; Wynen and Verhoest, 2013). However, the related literature does not offer a clear cut answer to this issue (De Wit and Meyer, 2004). In the next chapter, organizational culture and its relation with organizational performance will be extensively discussed.

CHAPTER 3

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

3.1 Introduction

Whilst numerous studies over the last few decades have focused on how public service organizations and their staff can perform better, it has also become essential to work out the importance of culture in terms of the performance of public sector organizations. In the 1980s, organizational culture in the public sector began to transform from a traditional bureaucratic culture (rule-based, hierarchical and process-driven) to a business-like culture (competition-based, marketised, results-oriented). The main driver of change in the public services was the arrival of neoliberal right-wing governments in the UK and the USA, which basically drove the need for more efficient public services (Gamble, 1988; Pollitt, 1990; Hay, 1999; Dingwall and Strangleman, 2007). This reform movement was widely referred to as New Public Management (NPM), and spread to other countries mostly because of international organizations such as the World Bank, OECD and the UN (Hood, 1991; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Lovell, 1995; Newman, 1998; Protherough and Pick, 2002; Boyne et al., 2003; Sarker, 2006; Diefenbach, 2009; Van de Walle and Hammerschmid, 2011). As a result, the culture of public organizations became a topical issue. These early reforms were followed by modernisation initiatives that brought network types of culture into the public sector, which were aimed at adaptability, negotiation and innovation as opposed to bureaucratic and market cultures. The driving force of network culture was again pro-reform governments and politicians (Newman, 2005), who attempted to enable advanced and efficient public services through technologies and and collaborative governance (Osborne, 2009).

Although shifts in the public sector from a bureaucratic to a market culture and then to a network culture over recent decades appeared to follow a linear process, all types of culture still coexist within public sector organizations. In fact, it is claimed that different types of culture can to a degree exist both separately and together in contemporary organizations (Olsen, 2005; Cameron and Quinn, 2011). In this study,

it is important to ask how the adoption of various cultures has been a key element of public service improvement, since governments across the world regard culture as a means of transforming and improving public service organizations (Newman, 1994). Hence, the question of which cultural types will lead to better performing public sector organizations has become very significant.

This chapter aims to examine organizational culture in the public sector and address the ways in which it influences organizational performance. Firstly, the definition and evolution of organizational culture in the literature is examined and three main perspectives on organizational culture—functionalist, symbolic and postmodern—are presented. This is followed by an examination of the Competing Values Framework (CVF), which is comprised of four types of organizational culture (clan, market, adhocracy and hierarchy). The relationship between organizational culture and performance is then addressed before the four types of organizational culture are examined in the light of specific performance measures. The available evidence from empirical studies on the relationship between organizational culture types and their related organizational performance indicators are reviewed and testable hypotheses developed about the likely relationships between the organizational cultures and performance styles of public organizations.

3.2 Defining Organizational Culture

The concept of organizational culture has attracted increasing attention from researchers in the last decades, although the notion has been applied as an organizational phenomenon since the early 20th century. According to Kroeber and Kluchholn's (1952) study, there are more than 150 definitions of the concept of organizational culture in the literature, but it has been acknowledged that there is no consensus about the generic definition of the term.

In the broadest sense, there is a level of agreement on the most basic element of the definition of culture which sees it as a system of elements shared by members (Schwarts and Davis, 1981; Broms and Gahmberg, 1983; Bate, 1984; Lorsch, 1985; Posner et al., 1985; Trice, 1985). It is defined as "traditional way of thinking and doing things, which is shared by all its members" (Jaques, 1951, p. 251); a "dependable constant system of shared beliefs" (Burns and Stalker, 1961, p. 103); "basic

assumptions and beliefs shared by members of an organization" (Schein, 1992, p. 12); "as a system of collectively accepted meanings" (Pettigrew, 1979, p. 574); "a collective phenomenon" (Trice and Beyer, 1993, p. 2) and "shared meanings, norms, values and knowledge" (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006, p. 4). Scholars predominantly seem to agree that culture is a collective mind comprising common values and practices of an organization's members.

However, there are different paradigms regarding the nature of organizational culture. Some researchers view organizational culture from a subjective viewpoint, emphasising the tacit aspects of the concept. Alvesson (2000) defines it as "primarily ideational in character, having to do with meanings, understandings, beliefs, knowledge and other intangibles". He also adds that the concept is a "holistic, intersubjective and emotional rather than strictly rational and analytical" (p. 3). Meyerson (1991) claims that "culture was the code word for the subjective side of organizational life..." (p. 256). Selznick (1957) defines culture as a contrast to earlier mechanistic conceptions of Taylor's scientific management approach by arguing that it captures the "socially dynamic aspects of organizations" (p. 135). Weick (1979) identifies it as a pattern of cognitive processes found within organizations. These researchers assert that the organization itself and its invisible attributes—including values, beliefs, assumptions and meanings—are the main components of the definition of the culture concept (Blau and Scott, 1962; Mohr, 1982; Arogyaswamy and Byles, 1987; Trice and Beyer, 1993).

In contrast, other researchers address the idea of culture as a practical tool, emphasising its more tangible aspects (Camerer and Vepsalainen, 1988; Petty et al., 1995). Denison (1990) identifies culture "as the underlying values, beliefs, and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviours" (p. 2). In the same direction, Kotter and Heskett (1992) claim that corporate "culture is a much related concept to long term economic performance." Steele and Jenks (1977) refer to organizational culture in terms of its physical arrangements, such as interior decor, dress codes and architecture. These researchers describe culture as a system in which to execute rational actions objectively by virtue of the observable properties of the organization, including its objectives, rules and regulations.

Schein's (2004) three levels of culture model stratifies the different elements of organizational culture, and is seen as one of the most elaborate and applicable models in the literature. The model systematically disentangles the complexity of different elements of culture into three levels of culture: artefacts, beliefs and values, and underlying basic assumptions.

Three Levels of Culture

Artifacts — Visible organizational structures and business processes

Espoused values — Strategies, goals, vision

Assumptions and beliefs — Unconscious beliefs, perceptions, thoughts and feelings - ultimate source of values and action

Figure 3.1: Schein's Level of Cultures Model (1992)

The organization's artefacts, underpinned by its values, are defined as its most tangible features or creations, and consist of the physical and social environment in which the organization exists. Symbols, slogans, uniforms, logos, overt behaviours of members, ceremonies and stories can be illustrated as examples of cultural artefacts in organizations. Espoused beliefs and values represent less visible facets of culture that are based on employees' collective opinions and past experiences. This level of culture can be defined as strategies, goals, ethical and moral codes and organizational ideology. Underpinning these organizational attributes is the most invisible layer of organizational culture, which can be summarized as its underlying basic assumptions. These basic assumptions are hidden beneath artefacts and values, and are tacitly accepted as the organization's standard way of perceiving, although these factors are

hard to access (Linstead et al., 2004; Clegg et al., 2006). The underlying assumptions are the organization's basic sources of values and artefacts and include accepted beliefs, perceptions, thoughts, and feelings.

These three levels of organizational culture essentially set out the idea that organizational culture is composed of such elements as values, beliefs as assumptions as intangible features and artefacts as tangible ones. Schneider and Barbera (2014) claim that many researchers define culture in the same way (Barney, 1986; Swidler, 1986; Detert et al., 2000). For instance, Detert et al. (2000) identify culture as "some combination of artefacts, beliefs, values and underlying assumptions that organizational members share about appropriate behaviour" (p. 851). The current study adopts Shein's (1985) organizational culture definition, as:

A pattern of the deeper level of basic assumptions, values and artefacts that are shared by members of an organization that describes in a taken for granted way an organization's view of internal integration and environmental adaptation.

This broad definition enables the researcher to address all the aspects of organizational culture discussed above, while its comprehensiveness facilitates an appreciation of how culture varies across organizations. The following section focuses on the different stages of organizational culture literature throughout its development.

3.3 Evolution of Organizational Culture Research

The concept of organizational culture first entered into organizational literature with Elliot Jaques' *The Changing Culture of Factory* (1951). However, relevant literature shows that traces of the idea behind organizational culture can be found in several early initiatives attempting to set out the concept of organisational theory. Thompson (2003) indicates that the origin of organisational culture can be dated back to studies in Scientific Management and Human Relations schools founded by Taylor (1911) and Mayo (1933) respectively (Hawthorne studies). Whilst Taylor aimed to create a culture based on effectiveness and productivity (Kanigel, 1997), Hawthorne studies discussed a culture that prioritized employee inclusion and fostered a sense of belonging. (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1946; Rose, 1988; Gillespie, 1991). Eventhough these studies did not explicitly address organisational culture, it can be said that the concept was clearly an underlying factor.

Following these early initiatives, two different views appeared in the organizational culture literature. The first was formed by researchers who believed that the study of culture should include holistic approaches about systems of meaning, values, and actions derived from antropology into organization studies (Ashkanasy et al., 2000). From this approach, organizations can be seen as "socially constructed systems of meaning", the "intersubjective realities" of which could heavily influence organisational dynamics (Barley et al., 1988, p. 32). On the other hand, supporters of an opposing view believed that organizational culture comprising organizational assumptions, values, beliefs and their reflections in staff behaviour and attitudes could be harnessed to obtain effective outcomes (Denison and Mishra, 1995). This approach mainly focuses on notions of culture as a means to accelerate organizational improvement.

The 1980s saw a sharp increase in the amount of academic and practical research on the concept of organisational culture. Three bestselling books on organizational culture were published in the USA: Ouchi's *Theory Z* (1981); Deal and Kennedy's *Corporate Culture* (1982) and Peters and Waterman's In *Search of Excellence* (1982). These made the organizational culture a substantial talking point in management research. Ouchi (1981) explored the achievements of Japanese organizational culture (typically clan culture) as applied to successful American companies. Peters and Waterman (1982) discussed the potential impact of organizational leaders, founders, stories, mottos and myths that employees recounted about their organizations in terms of organizational effectiveness. Deal and Kennedy (1982) stated that organizational culture was one of the few fields in which organizational scholars had beaten practicing managers in the identification of a crucial factor affecting organizational performance. This increasing interest was followed by special issues of *Administrative Science Quarterly* (1983)[5], *Journal of Management Studies* (1986)[6], and *Organisational Dynamics* (1983)[7] which concentrated on themes of organisational culture. These publications presented organizational culture as a basis for improving organizational attainment. In essence, the main reason why these types of studies were undertaken was to help the economy recover from recession at the beginning of the

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[5] https://www.jstor.org/stable/i341320
[6] http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/joms.1986.23.issue-3/issuetoc
[7] http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/journal/00902616/12/2

1980s, a situation that necessitated a renewed concentration on organizational productivity and profitability (Hopkins, 2009). It could therefore be claimed that the proliferation of publications on organizational culture research in this period emphasised the functional perspective on organizational culture.

In the following section, three main perspectives upon which most organizational culture studies are based will be discussed and the chosen perspective for the current study will be identified and rationalized.

3.4 Perspectives on Organizational Culture

Palmer and Hardy (2004) assert that 'the frameworks or perspectives used to identify culture shape what is perceived to be culture' (p. 126). They can also encourage researchers to adopt an integrated approach when studying organizational culture. There are a variety of approaches and schools of thought for studying organisational culture in the literature (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Smircich, 1983; Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984; Meyerson and Martin, 1987; Martin, 1992; Martin and Frost, 1996; Martin, 2002; Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006; Martin et al., 2006).

This study will apply Hatch and Cunliffe's (2006) approach explaining the notion of organizational culture from three different perspectives—functionalist, symbolic and postmodernist. This approach is adopted because it posits the concept of organizational culture systematically within generic organization theory. The functionalist perspective deals with organizations as independent organisms whose function is to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of system performance. The symbolic perspective claims that organizations are maintained by human interaction, and are regarded as places where meanings are collectively created and coded. The postmodernist perspective, on the other hand, challenges entrenched elements of the organizations by claiming that all knowledge of of organizational culture is the product of power relations within organizations.

Much of the debate in the literature is between functionalist and symbolist perspectives. This debate basically discusses whether culture should be seen as an artefact or as a root metaphor. In other words, is it something the organization *has* or something the organization *is*, and can it be managed (Smircich, 1983). Whilst the debate between the two perspectives is still on the agenda, postmodernism has

criticised both by challenging the pragmatic construction of culture as a variable and the theoretical construction of culture as a metaphor, claiming that "they are both trapped in the modernist claims for depth, uniqueness and meaningful actions" (Schultz, 1992, p. 16).

The three perspectives will be examined in more detail over the following sections.

3.4.1 Functionalist/Modernist Perspective

Functionalism is a doctrine which asserts that all social phenomena can be understood according to the ways in which they function within the system of which they are a part (Gioia and Pitre, 1990). Functionalism mainly aims to develop knowledge of causal relationships in order to manipulate and control variables for the sake of accomplishing desired outcomes (Schultz and Hatch, 1996). In other words, it can be said that functionalist approach is based on the assumption that rational evaluation and the practice of knowledge production will lead to social progress and growth in the system (McAuley et al., 2007).

The functionalist/modernist approach is the earliest perspective in the literature on organizational studies (Hatch, 1997; Livari, 2002). Basically, it sees organizations as mechanisms—similar to biological organisms—which primarily pursue organizational survival by carrying out necessary functions (Parsons, 1951; Burnell and Morgan, 1979; Scott, 1992; Schultz, 1995). Shein (1992) argues that any organization must fulfil two basic conditions in order to achieve its objectives: firstly "survival in and adaptation to the external environment", and secondly "integration of its internal processes in order to continue to adapt and survive" (p. 51). Put more simply, functionalist organization theorists believe that organizations can survive if they can understood how and why organizations function the way they do, and how their functioning is influenced by different environmental conditions (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). As such, the existence of a precise instrument upholding all these processes is debateable.

Organizational culture is the answer many functionalist researchers give when asked which instrument can be best applied to accomplish organizational processes (Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983; Barney, 1986; Barley et al., 1988; Saffold, 1988; Ott, 1989; Denison, 1996). Smircich (1983) argues that culture is conceived as an independent variable

that influences the development and reinforcement of values as well as the attitudes and actions of an organization's members. In addition, Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) maintain that culture is an organizational instrument which helps workers to overcome the problem of satisfying basic needs through work. Broadly, the functionalist perspective defines organizational culture as the products of the group's collective process of learning and problem solving as a purposeful way to survive both within the organization with necessary adaptation to external conditions (Schultz, 1995). This detailed definition can be more simply formulized as a relationship between *means, ends* and *processes*. Here, the means refers to culture, the end is the attainment of organizational objectives and the processes are the internal and external contingencies that help or hinder the relationship between the means and the end.

The functionalist perspective above all sees culture as a means of fulfilling specific functions in organizations (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Chua, 1986; Schultz, 1995; Hatch, 1997). Sackmann (1991) argues that culture represents the way in which an organization's members carry out tasks. It is therefore a beneficial mechanism under which leaders can run the processes of the organization more easily (Beugelsdijk et al., 2009). From the functionalist point of view, managers in organizations and their staff consider culture in terms of how an organization sets strategy, improves targets, measures progress and defines products and markets (Petty et al., 1995), and how it settles into behavioural approaches and produces mission and vision statements (Babnik et al., 2014). Culture, from this perspective, is a tool which aims to accomplish organizational objectives by the best use of organizational artefacts.

The functionalist approach also sees organizational culture as a facilitator, enabling the organization's aims and helping it in the conditions necessary for survival (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Chua, 1986). Therefore, congruence between the means adopted and the end desired is essential to attaining the intended result. This means that researchers are particularly interested in investigating what type of culture would be most effective in reaching relevant outcomes. For instance, Garnett et al. (2008) found that organizations with a mission-oriented culture prioritize objectives and results, whilst those with a rule-oriented culture prioritize compliance, structure and regulations. It is therefore believed that different cultures can become essential tools in attaining different organizational objectives, but that these differential effects are contingent on other elements and processes within the organization.

Internal and external processes around which organizations revolve can also influence all of these interactions. As indicated above, organizational integration and external adaptation are key elements in achieving organizational targets by means of culture. In other words, well-established links between the means and the end are crucial, but so are existing internal and external dimensions that are included within an organization. Deshpande and Webster (1989) labelled this approach as a form of contingency management embedded in functionalist sociology in line with traditional contingency frameworks which challenge best organizational practice. Those who support this approach claim that the most appropriate way of designing and managing an organization will depend upon the characteristics of the situation in which the organization finds itself (Donaldson, 2001; Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). To obtain optimum results, both the internal organizational characteristics and the external situation in which the organization exists should be consistent with organizational culture. In consequence, the functionalist perspective claims that culture is a vital instrument affecting organizational outcomes.

3.4.2 Symbolic/Interpretive Perspective

The symbolic/interpretivist perspective on culture began to attract attention in the 1980s (Hatch, 1997; Livari, 2002). Its roots can be found in social construction theory, which claims that humans and their social worlds can only be understood from the point of view of those who directly experience such things in a particular environmental setting (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Livari, 2002). Interactions between people and social worlds produce both "individual identity and experienced reality" (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006, p. 45). McAuley et al. (2007) argue that the subjective understanding of reality is formed through the interpretation of symbols, which allow people to create meaning. Each person may have a unique understanding of reality filtered by their own unique experience (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). Nonetheless, the primary aim of the symbolic/interpretive perspective is to generate shared meanings via symbols as well as tangible and intangible elements from its specific understanding.

Symbolic orientation perceives organizations as human systems which express patterns of symbolic action and focuses on how organizational members make

meaning through negotiation and interaction. The aim of these orientations is to evaluate the shared interpretations of situations as a subjective and intersubjective experience so that coordinated action is possible in a specific context (Smircich, 1983; Alvesson, 2002). The symbolic perspective investigates "how is organisation accomplished or what does it mean to be organised" (Smircich, 1983, p. 353).

From the symbolic standpoint, organizational culture refers to "organization members, as social actors, actively participate in the construction of organizational reality through organizational symbolism" (Mumby, 1988, p. 12). This construction of organizational reality uses artefacts such as language, symbols, myths, stories and rituals; however, these are not regarded as functional elements of the organizations in themselves, but as generative processes which form shared meanings and basic characteristics of the organizations. From this perspective, culture is embedded in the organization itself and it is hard to separate culture and organization from each other, as opposed to the view that defines culture as a separate functional tool (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006).

Although there may be shared meanings within the organization's culture, their interpretations vary (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). Even strategies, written mission statements and objectives as artefacts of the organization can be interpreted differently from person to person, and this applies to an even greater extent to the intangible assets of organizational culture, such as symbols, beliefs, actions and interactions.

Context also plays an important role in shaping the way situations and events are interpreted by those who experience them (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) assert that history, past leadership and the contemporary actors under whom the organizations interact can also influence the creation of values and meanings. Organizational members are therefore dependent on the context in which they exist, and this can shape their personal interpretations and meanings. From a symbolic perspective, culture can be used as a way of comprehending how organization members develop meanings and multiple interpretations in contextual situations.

3.4.3 Postmodernist Perspective

Postmodernism claims that it is impossible to develop a rational and generalizable basis for scientific inquiry that can explain the world from an objective standpoint (McAuley et al., 2007). There can be no objectively definable social reality; everything people know is relative to the moment of their experience (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006).

Postmodernism has attracted the interest of organizational theorists since the 1990s (Gergen and Joseph, 1996). As a critical approach, it aims at "deconstructing organizational texts, destabilizing managerial ideologies and modernist view of organizing; revealing marginalized and oppressed viewpoints" (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006, p. 14).

The main objective of approaching organizational issues from this perspective is not outcomes and results or subjective meanings, but liberation from constrained thoughts and actions. Postmodern philosophy in terms of organizational culture concentrates much more on critiquing and deconstructing existing settings and relationships than constructing new ones.

This novel way of perceiving organizations requires a transformation of the existing culture in the prevalent setting, which means that the postmodernist perspective is inherently relevant to culture within organizations. Postmodernism generates new ways of understanding and researching organizational culture with an increasing role in shaping and defining the nature of social relations (Hancock and Tyler, 2001; McAuley et al., 2007). Alvesson (2006) asserts that postmodernist organizational culture provides insights into organizational life that may contribute to liberating thought from its traditional patterns and the repressive aspects of culture.

For Schultz (1992), postmodernism rejects deep-seated presuppositions about culture by seeing it as a series of futile rituals. It basically concentrates on the 'darker' aspects of the organization which have not previously been considered in any depth—such as language, discourse and power—and the way that functionalist and symbolist perspectives undermine organizational authenticity.

Many researchers portray organizational culture as a fragmented concept, and regard organizations as being continuously constructed and reconstructed due to human interactions and environmental change (Cohen et al., 1972; Becker, 1982; Meyerson

and Martin, 1987; Huczynski and Buchanan, 2007). However, the postmodernist perspective goes beyond this fragmented view and claims that reality, and therefore culture, 'is an illusion and just one more way for those in power to veil their manipulation and to be dominant over others' (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006, p, 15).

By and large, it can be said that the postmodernist approach primarily investigates the negative characteristics of organizational culture and helps to counteract the tacitly accepted beliefs and values that may limit personal autonomy. There is no real consensus as to whether postmodernism represents something new or whether it is just a sophisticated form of neo-modernist analysis (McAuley et al., 2007).

3.4.4 Cultural Perspective Adopted for This Study

As discussed above, there are radically different approaches to the exploration of organizational culture. At one end of the spectrum, there is the functionalist view that each organization possesses a particular culture, and at the opposite end postmodernism claims that organizational culture is highly fragmented and dispersed. The symbolist perspective, located roughly at the midpoint of these two extremes, considers the organization to be a culture in itself, emphasising the meaning rather than the function of the organization. This study adopts the functionalist approach, according to which culture is seen as one of the key aspects of organisational operation that can impact on organisational outcomes.

Organizational researchers have addressed the relationship between culture and function (Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983; Barney, 1986; Barley et al., 1988; Saffold, 1988; Ott, 1989; Denison et al., 1995) and the way it is connected to organizational improvement and performance. Here, performance refers to the actual outcomes for both employees and organizations as measured against intended outputs (goals and objectives). From the functionalist perspective, the organization's performance can be improved through the manipulation of concrete elements including goals, objectives and strategies, and by triggering the functional characteristics of organizational culture. The functional aspects of organizational culture can therefore be applied using this approach in order to evaluate organizational effectiveness.

Symbolic and postmodern perspectives are not considered appropriate approaches for the current study in terms of their coverage in the literature or the subjects this study deals with. Unlike the symbolic approach, the current study does not seek to understand what culture and performance mean for the people in the organization from a subjective point of view, nor does it approach these concepts through a critical examination of the cultural discourse within organizations in a postmodernist way. Since the study concentrates on the relationship between the operational side of culture and the performance of the organizations, symbolic or postmodernist perspectives appear contrary to this type of research. Much of the existing literature examining this relationship has adopted a functionalist rather than a symbolic or postmodernist approach, and the approach taken by this study will reflect this.

Within the chosen perspective, the literature proposes a variety of culture typologies that can be used to investigate the relationships between cultural types and other relevant elements of organizations. In the next section, the cultural typologies available in the literature will be briefly discussed.

3.5 Organizational Culture Typologies

Organizational culture researchers in the functionalist tradition have identified various cultural types and have characterized their distinct features (Hofstede, 1980; Ashkanasy et al., 2000). In this regard, it can be argued that the gradual changes in the organizational culture over time have generated different cultural types. For instance bureaucratic or hierarchical types of culture are traditional ways of understanding organizations, predominantly focusing on internal processes. Later, with developments in management areas focusing more on profitability and effectiveness, market-oriented culture was recognised before digital government appeared in parallel with the latest changes at the beginning of 21th century (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Osborne, 2009).

These conceptual developments and changes in organizational culture research were followed by the production of different typologies. It is widely believed that the complexity of the cultural concept could be reduced by identifiying and conceptualizing it within an overarching framework (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Based on this belief, organisational culture corresponds to a range of ideal types that

include different sets of dimensions (Hofstede, 1980; Sathe, 1983; Gordon, 1985; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Martin, 1992). Scholars began to create a variety of typologies in order to categorise various cultural types (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Handy, 1982; Scholz, 1987; Cooke and Rousseau, 1988; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Zammuto and Krokower, 1991; Schneider, 1994; Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Some of the better known and most accepted frameworks are presented below.

One of the first typologies was Harrison's (1972) four dimensional framework, which was later modified by Handy (1978). Harrison constructed four different types of culture: Apollo (role culture), Zeus (power culture), Athena (task culture) and Dionysian (atomistic culture). Later on, Deal and Kennedy (1982) also set out four types of culture, characterised under their own headings as tough guy (fast feedback/high risk), bet your company (slow feedback/high risk), work hard-play hard (fast feedback/low risk) and process culture (slow feedback/low risk).

A variety of different authors identified typologies with different nomenclatures but similar meanings: Rational/internal process/open system/human relations cultures (Quinn and Rohbaugh, 1983); rational/hierarhical/developmental/group cultures (Denison and Spreitzer, 1991); competence/control/cultivation/colloboration cultures (Schneider, 1994); market/hierarchy/adhocracy/clan cultures (Cameron and Quinn, 1999); and achievement/bureaucratic/adaptability/clan cultures (Daft, 2005).

From those typologies, the Competing Values Framework (CVF) presented by Cameron and Quinn (1999) is chosen for the current study. Before presenting the rationale behind its selection, the framework will be examined closely with reference to its general features and the four types of culture that exist within it.

3.5.1 The Competing Values Framework Approach to Organizational Culture

The basis of this framework was originally constructed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) as the Competing Values Approach. It was then improved by Cameron and Quinn (1999), becoming the Competing Values Framework. Quinn and Rohbaugh (1981) aimed to produce a consistent model comprising opposite views on effectiveness. They determined four different effectiveness criteria formed by human relations, open system, internal process and rational goal models. Expanding the

Competing Values Approach, Cameron and Quinn (1999) later set out a framework that included four distinct types of organizational culture consistent with their organizational effectiveness criteria, which were then used to analyse how organizations function in different ways. They referred to the result as the Competing Values Framework (CVF) because it is not possible for organizations to fully adopt even two of these models at the same time, as each one contains contradictory criteria to the others.

The CVF principally proposes a model formed by four types of culture. These dominant culture types can be depicted as four quadrants of a table (Figure 3.2), which represent clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchy cultures. The core axes along which organizations are classified in the CVF depend on whether the organization has a predominantly internal focus/integration or external focus/differentation and whether they aim for flexibility or discretion or stability and control (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).
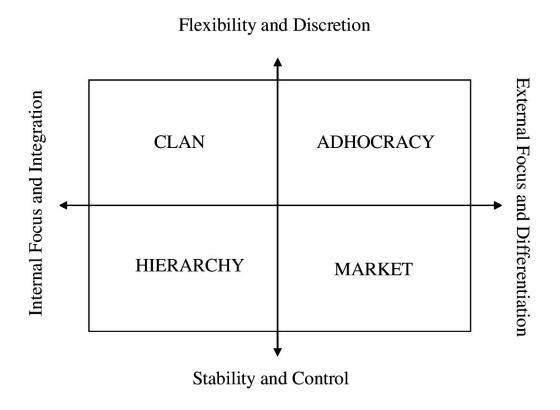
Figure 3.2: Competing Values Framework by Cameron and Quinn (1999)

The focus dimension, located on the vertical axis of the CVF, refers to an internal emphasis on people within the organization and an external focus covering where organization interacts (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). While organizations with an internal focus prioritize smooth-running within the organization, organizations which have an external focus give precedence to the exogenous environment over internal concerns. The structural dimension (on the horizontal axis) represents the contrast between stability and control and flexibility and discretion (Hartnell et al., 2011). An emphasis on control signifies the importance of rules, regulations and coordinated practices. Flexibility, on the other hand, emphasises decentralized and flat organizational structures. These dimensions play an essential role in shaping the characteristics of each type of organizational culture. For example, internal focus and stability together create a control-oriented culture, whilst an emphasis on external focus and stability generates a competition-oriented culture.

The focus dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that stress internal orientation, integration and unity from criteria that emphasises external orientation, differentiation and rivalry (Hartnell et al., 2011). While some organizations are regarded as effective if they have harmonious internal characteristics, others are judged to be effective if they concentrate on interacting or competing with others outside their boundaries. Studies conducted in the public sector claim that hierarchical culture will lead to improved organizational performance because of the internal focus required to manage public organizations effectively (Moynihan and Pandey, 2004; Acar et al., 2014). However, some research—particularly in the private sector—claims that adhocracy culture (which has an external orientation) will perform better because of its innovative outputs (Durendez et al., 2011; Prajogo and McDermott, 2011). Furthermore, a study performed in Turkish pharmaceutical companies using the CVF found that workers prefer a clan culture within their organizations, rather than their existing hierarchical culture (Demir et al., 2011). Since the CVF quadrants clearly show that clan and hierarchy cultures focus on internal integration, changes in those organizations could see a shift in structure from strict control to something more flexible. Here, structure re-orientation within the framework is as important as focus orientation when determining a specific culture type.

The structural dimension mainly differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasise flexibility, discretion and dynamism from criteria that emphasise order, stability and

control (Hartnell et al., 2011). This means that some organizations are viewed as effective if they are changing, adaptable and organic; others are viewed as effective if they stable, predictable and mechanistic. For example, innovation-oriented workplaces such as research and development units are expected to adopt a flexible form of culture in order to succeed, in the same way as Japanese organizations are typically known as having a traditional clan culture. Military forces adopt a strong hierarchical control culture by necessity in order to achieve their targets.

Culture type	Assumptions	Beliefs	Values	Artefact (behaviours)	Effectiveness Criteria
Clan	Human affiliation	People behave appropriately when they have trust in, loyalty to, and membership in the organization.	Attachment, affiliation, collaboration, trust, and support	Teamwork, participation, employee involvement, and open communication	Quality
Adhocracy	Change	People behave appropriately when they understand the importance and impact of the task.	Growth, stimulation, variety, autonomy, and attention to detail	Risk-taking creativity, and adaptability	Innovation
Market	Achievement	People behave appropriately when they have clear objectives and are rewarded based on their achievements.	Communication, competition, competence, and achievement	Gathering customer and competitor information, goal setting, planning task focus, competitiveness, and aggressiveness	Customer Satisfaction
Hierarchy	Stability	People behave appropriately when they have clear roles and procedures are formally defined by rules and regulations.	Communication, routinization, formalization, and consistency	Conformity and predictability	Quantity

Table 3. 1: The four culture types of the CVF (Adapted from Hartnell et al., 2011)

Moreover, the means-ends dimension as a theoretical basis for CVF addresses how and why different cultural types are related to distinctive effectiveness criteria. This dimension draws attention to artefacts and behaviours arising from beliefs, values and assumptions, which are the basic elements of culture (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Meglino and Ravlin, 1998), as presented in Table 3.1. This examines how the specific and tangible means of each culture type (participation, creativity, consistency and competitiveness) represent the driving forces in attaining the specific ends of organizations (quality, innovation, efficiency and productivity). For instance, conformity and predictability as tools of a hierarchy culture are related to pursuing timeliness, smooth functioning and efficiency and clan culture with teamwork, participation and open communication, achieving service standards, quality and internal satisfaction. Meanwhile, novel products, creative ideas and real solutions can lead to product and service innovation. Effective organizational performance in organizations with an adhocracy culture (such as competitiveness and accomplishing goals) can result in customer satisfaction and an increased market share in market type of organizations.

Cameron and Quinn (2011) argue that each continuum addresses a core value that is opposite from the value at the other end of the continuum—flexibility vs stability, internal vs external, and so forth. The dimensions therefore produce culture quadrants that are both distinctive and contradictory. The four types of culture in the CVF and their basic characteristics will be illustrated and discussed at greater length over the following sections

3.5.1.1 Hierarchy Culture

Hierarchy culture emphasizes stability, predictability, efficiency and coordination. Motivating factors for the staff are those that produce a smooth-running organization through security, order, procedures, rules and regulations (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). The leaders of this type of culture are inclined to run a well-coordinated, well-organized and conservative workplace. Success in the organizations is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low cost. As a formalized and structured location, the organization is held together by formal rules and policies. Here the long term concern is stability and performance, as well as efficient and smooth operation (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The earliest and most enduring form of organization in the modern age is considered to be Max Weber's bureaucratic model (Walton, 2015). The main problem in public bureaucracies is how to supply goods and services efficiently and fairly in a highly complex environment. Weber (1947) put forward seven main features of bureaucracy that help enable this: organizations should be rules-based, specialized, meritocratic, hierarchical, separate ownership, impersonal, and accountable. These features were essential to the achievement of targets in organizations whose main purposes were to create efficient, reliable, smooth-flowing, predictable output. Even though government organizations can be taken as a prototypical examples of hierarchy culture, large private organizations are also inclined to adopt a hierarchy culture, since standardized rules, procedures and hierarchical levels are needed to integrate activities (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The hierarchy culture of CVF is at the lower left side of the frame, and is characterised by two dimensions, namely internal focus/integration and stability. With its controlling orientation, a stable structure and an internal focus create organizations that run smoothly under formal rules and policies. The hierarchy culture type is internally oriented and supported by an organizational structure driven by control mechanisms. As Table 3.1 shows, a basic assumption in hierarchical culture is that control, stability, and predictability result in efficiency. A core belief in hierarchy cultures is that employees meet expectations when their roles are more clearly identified. Consequently hierarchical cultures value precise communication, routine, formalization, and consistency (Quinn and Kimberly, 1984) which also affect behaviours that emanate from these values—namely conformity and predictability. These means in turn are expected to promulgate efficiency, timeliness and smooth functioning (Denison and Spreitzer, 1991; Hartnell et al., 2011).

3.5.1.2 Market Culture

Market culture is characterized by accomplishment and competitiveness, external satisfaction and efficiency. Leaders are inclined to be directive, goal-oriented, instrumental and results oriented (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Ferreira, 2014). The main motive for the staff in this rational type of organization is the achievement of measurable goals and targets. The long term focus is on competitive actions and success is defined in terms of market share and penetration (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991).

This form of organizational culture became popular during the late 1960s as organizations began to experience new competitive challenges. The term refers to the sort of organization that works as a market itself, as it is related to the external environment. It basically concentrates on transactions with external partners such as suppliers, customers, contractors, licensees, unions and regulators. The main suppositions of the market culture are that the external environment is adversarial rather than safe, and that consumers are selective and primarily interested in value. Hence, a market-oriented organization will aim to increase its competitive advantage in an environment where customers have the freedom to select the service they buy. It also considers that an explicit objective and an aggressive strategy will bring profitability (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The market culture in CVF is at the lower right side of the frame, and is characterised by two dimensions—external focus and stability. With its competing orientation, stable organizational structure and external focus, market culture emphasises winning, outpacing the competition and increasing its market share. Basic underlying assumptions in the market type of culture are that a focus on achievement produces competitiveness and aggressiveness, resulting in productivity, external satisfaction and shareholder value in the short and immediate term (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, Helfrich et al., 2007). The main belief of market culture is that clear targets and contingent rewards motivate employees to perform aggressively and meet stakeholders' expectations. Market-oriented organizations value communication, competence and achievement. Behaviours associated with these values comprise planning, focus on tasks, centralized decision making and the articulation of clear

objectives. Such approaches will allow an organization to beat its competitors, meet its targets and increase its market share and profitability (Hartnell et al., 2011).

3.5.1.3 Clan Culture

Clan cultures are characterized by teamwork, loyalty, trust and support (Demir et al., 2011), in which the organisation is often likened to an extended family. Clan culture organizations care about human resource development and involvement more than regulations and rules of hierarchies; the competitiveness of markets or risk taking and experimentation of open culture. The main duty of leaders and management in this culture is to empower staff and encourage their participation, commitment and loyalty. Leaders are therefore seen as mentors or parents. The staff are offered rewards for their achievements as a team rather than as individuals and the goal of quality promotes staff to offer advice on how to develop their own work. At the same time the external focus for employees and organizational performance is stressed (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

The roots of clan culture can be traced back to the Human Relations School, and the subject has been researched for more than half century by scholars of this movement (McGregor, 1960; Argyris, 1964; Likert, 1970). Japanese firms showed great success in building and managing clan culture in the workplace, and this was later adopted and developed further by western countries in the late 1970s and 1980s. At the time it was thought that organizations with a clan culture could easily adapt to rapidly changing environments due to the fact that the glue holding the organization together—such as shared values, beliefs, and goals—will make companies more adaptable (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

The clan culture in the CVF is at the upper left side of the frame and is characterised by internal focus/integration and flexibility. With its collaborative orientation, flexible organizational structure and internal focus, organizations with a clan culture show a high degree of commitment, cohesion, loyalty and tradition. The assumptions underlying clan culture are that human affiliation generates favourable affective employee attitudes which are oriented towards the organizations (Hartnell et al., 2011), including teamwork, participation and open communication as organizational attributes and behaviours (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Ultimately, these are expected

to produce outcomes of commitment, satisfaction and better quality work (Cameron and Ettington, 1988).

3.5.1.4 Adhocracy Culture

The adhocracy culture is characterized by flexibility, change and openness. This culture emphasizes rapid growth, creativity, innovation, experimentation and risk taking (Hartnell et al., 2011). Leadership styles are visionary, innovative and risk-oriented. The staff are rewarded for their success by means of self-realization, individual ingenuity and freedom, and are expected in return to be enterprising and creative. Such organizations care about innovation, which they see as having the inherent ability to produce new resources and higher profits, as opposed to more conventional working cultures that rely more on procedures, centralized power, authority relationships or collectiveness (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

It is claimed that organizations with an adhocracy culture can adapt to hyper-turbulent and ever-changing conditions more easily because the organization is held tighter on the basis of uncertainty, ambiguity, and impermanence, to which it must react on an ad hoc basis. In an age of technological development, mass communication and governance, adhocracy in today's organizations is more of a necessity than a preference, as this approach will help organizations survive in this challenging and complex environment. Public sector organizations have also moved towards an adhocracy culture because of the increasing public demand from environment that demands effectiveness, openness and accountability (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

In the CVF, the adhocracy culture is situated in the upper right of the frame and is characterised by an external focus and flexibility. With its creative orientation, flexible organizational structures and an external focus, organizations are created that specialize in experimentation, readiness for change, innovation and openness (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). According to the CVF, a basic underlying assumption in adhocracy culture is that change will encourage eclecticism by creating or acquiring new solutions and sources. A fundamental belief in adhocracy culture is that an idealistic and innovative vision will encourage individuals within organizations to be creative and take risks (Helfrich et al., 2007; Hartnell et al., 2011). Adhocratic organizations are considered to value growth, stimulation, variety, autonomy and

attention to detail (Quinn and Kimberly, 1984). Behaviours and artefacts that arise from such values involve risk taking, creativity and adaptability. Eventually, these means are expected to foster innovation and ground-breaking outcomes (Denison and Spreitzer, 1991).

3.5.1.5 Rationale for Choosing the CVF

The CVF was selected for use in this study for two principal reasons: Firstly it has a solid theoretical background and secondly it is still the most widely used typology by researchers interested in the empirical relationships between organizational performance and culture (Hajnal, 2004; Prajogo and McDermott, 2011; Grabowski et al., 2015; Landekic et al., 2015).

The framework evolved from Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Approach, a study analyzing the relationships between the different values associated with different dimensions of organizational effectiveness. The CVF considers that culture types consist of a combination of focus and structural dimensions that refer to the basic means and ends within different organizations. The framework therefore suggests that culture types are expected to relate to different organizational effectiveness indicators as a function of their basic assumptions, values and structures (Hartnell et al., 2011). As this study examines organizational culture and performance from a functionalist perspective, the CVF is well-suited to the objectives of the study.

The measures of organizational culture that directly and indirectly assess the CVF have been administrated in over 10,000 organizations globally (Cameron and Quinn, 2011), predominantly in business sector companies, public and private healthcare settings as well as public administration research such as Hajnal's (2004) study on Hungarian ministries and Moynihan and Pandey's (2004) study on the US government administration. However, very little research focuses on the culture types in the CVF and their relations with organizational performance in the public sector (Wilderom et al., 2000; Ostroff et al., 2003; Hartnell et al., 2011) and there is no consistent validation of the CVF in local government organizations. Within the Turkish context, the framework has only been applied in one paper examining culture and performance relationships in healthcare organizations (Acar and Acar, 2014). For

these reasons, this study aims to make a contribution on the relationship between CVF and organizational performance in both the generic and more specifically the public sector literature. In the following section, the literature on organizational culture and performance which underpins the Competing Values Framework will be discussed.

3.6 Organizational Culture and Performance

The topics of organizational culture and performance have been of central importance to organization and management studies since the 1980s. The actual number of relevant publications has increased sharply from the 1980s to the present, and we can conclude that a solid empirical foundation has been developed on this topic. The literature indicates that organizational culture and performance research are no longer limited to countries such as the USA and the UK—where the most of the primary research was conducted—and that there are now many relevant contributions appearing in a variety of Western and Eastern countries. As a result of these developments, it is widely acknowledged that better levels of performance are more likely when they are aligned with an organization's culture (Lim, 1995; Ogbonne and Harris, 2000; Wilderom et al., 2000; Scott et al., 2003a; Lee and Yu, 2004; Mannion et al., 2005c; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Taylor, 2014).

The research into this area began with a systematic literature review using the Web of Science search engine. Although the current study examines organizational culture and performance, different dimensions of these vital areas of study are considered relevant to this research. For this reason, the search looked for aspects of performance, effectiveness, efficiency, equity, improvement, outcome, output, quality, satisfaction, organizational culture, innovative culture, clan culture, market culture and hierarchy culture in the titles, abstracts or key words of the articles.

The research exploring culture and performance has become increasingly globalized (Sackman, 2011). The studies show that the USA (44) is the country where most of the 139 existing studies were performed, whilst 39 studies were conducted in European countries including the UK (13), Canada (1), the Netherlands (7), Portugal (3) Germany (1), Greece (1), Norway (1), France (1), Hungary (1), Spain (1), Italy (2), Crotia (1), Romania (1), Slovenia (1), Georgia (1), Estonia (1), Serbia (1) and general west European studies (1). 28 studies were performed in Asian countries including

China (6), Hong Kong (3), Malaysia (4), Singapore (3), Korea (3), India (3), Taiwan (2), Japan (1), Indonesia (1), Fiji (1) and unspecified Asian areas (1). Research was also collected in 16 other countries, including Australia (5), New Zealand (1), Turkey (2), Canada (1), Israel (1), Russia (1), Bahrain (1), South Africa (1), Jordan (1), Qatar (1) and Iran (1). Data collection for eight studies was conducted in different Eastern and Western countries. While 3 studies do not specify any specific country by name, one study used meta-analysis. In terms of time, 25 of the studies were conducted before 1999. After that there was a great deal more interest in the subject, and 73 further studies were undertaken between 2000 and 2009. 41 further studies have performed on the relationship between organizational performance and culture from 2010 to the present.

Sackman (2011) considers that investigations into culture and performance have become more specialized. Many researchers examined only directs link between culture and performance (Fey and Denison, 2003; Chan et al., 2004; Lee and Yu, 2004; Flamholtz and Kannan-Narasimhan, 2005; Van Bentum and Stone, 2005; Tsui et al., 2006; Nazir and Lone, 2008; Yilmaz and Ergun, 2008). However, a growing body of research began to explore other variables—such as leadership, human resource practices and innovation—that mediate and moderate the link between culture and performance (Wilderom et al., 2000; Chan et al., 2004; Chen, 2004; Deshpande and Farley, 2004; Chew and Sharma, 2005; Kwantes and Boglarsky, 2007; Hussein et al., 2016). A substantial amount of studies also focused on associations between specific types of culture and their combined effect on performance, such as market culture and innovation/service quality/staff satisfaction (Hamborg and Pflesser, 2000; Lee et al., 2006; Akroush et al., 2015); innovative culture and market-oriented performance/internal efficiency (O'Cass and Ngo, 2007; Park et al., 2016); learning culture and financial and non-financial performance/knowledge performance (Skerlavaj et al., 2007; Song and Kolb, 2012).

Furthermore, the link between culture and performance has been examined in a wide range of organizational settings, specific industries and different sectors (Scott et al., 2003b). While 81 of the 139 studies listed above focus on private firms (such as financial services, manufacturing, fast food restaurants and technology), 43 were performed in public sector settings including healthcare, education and central and local government organizations. Four studies were also carried out in non-profit

organizations, while eleven did not specifiy the setting in which the research was conducted. Regarding the policy areas in which the public sector studies were performed, the vast majority of studies in the public sectors were focussed on healthcare (33). Six studies were on education, and two looked at more than one sector.

The research methodologies, research design and statistical analyses have also become more sophisticated. A vast majority of the studies (131) apply quantitative methods, with only one study using qualitative data (Grabowski et al., 2015). While three studies focus on mixed methodology (Martin et al., 2006; Davies et al., 2007; Beugelsdijk et al., 2009), four use the case study method (Mannion et al., 2005a; Mannion et al., 2005b; Bititci, 2006; Grabowski et al., 2015). Most research tested hypotheses derived from theoretical models, frameworks or existing theories, and employed regression analysis and structural equation modelling for hypothesis testing. Overall, based on all the progressions in the field, it can be safely concluded that the interest in the relationship between organizational culture and performance is continuing to grow.

However, despite the range of research, there are substantial difficulties not only in examining the integration of performance and organizational culture, but also in dealing with the two concepts as separate entities. Most definitions in the literature on organization culture tend to be holistic, encompassing commonly held beliefs, values, norms and practices. However, such definitions are difficult to translate into measurements of culture (Sackman, 2011). Performance, on the other hand, is as complicated as culture, and can encompass both individual and organizational levels. Individual level outcomes may include employee relations, job satisfaction, personal effectiveness, communication and goal achievement. Organizational level outcomes consist of financial factors (return on investment, revenue and growth rate, budget and controllable expenses) and non-financial performance measures (effectiveness, productivity, competitiveness, innovation, improvements in quality and customer satisfaction) (Sackmann, 2011). Even when definitions of the concepts of culture and performance are clear, the nature of any causal linkages is not studied using a single well-defined approach.

The relationship between these two somewhat opaque concepts is commonly investigated based on the effect of the strength of culture on performance (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Denison, 1990; Ogbonne and Harris,

2000). However, it was claimed that this viewpoint was unlikely to hold (Gordon and Di Tomaso, 1992; Wilson, 1992), since researchers were not able to describe cultural strength properly (Saffold, 1988). The first reason for this problem is that each organization must determine for itself the degree of cultural strength required to render it effective in a specific environmental setting, rather than searching for a recipe for a strong culture more generally (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). It is considered that cultural strength in itself might not carry sufficient weight to predict the full effectiveness of any of the criteria (Quinn and Kimberley, 1984). However, many studies indicate that types of culture show close links with particular facets of effectiveness (Zimmerman et al., 1993; Jackson, 1997; Garnett et al., 2008). Different cultural types profoundly affect such diverse levels of organizational performance as financial, non-financial, individual and organizational. The CVF, in this sense, offers a good approach to exploring contingent relationships between dominant cultures and specific aspects of performance (Gerowitz et al., 1996; Gerowitz, 1998). For instance, the CVF suggests a strong adhocracy culture for organization in which survival and organizational improvement depend on flexibility, innovation, creativity and entrepreneurship. Other organizations may need a more balanced culture, noting the extent to which each element of culture is required for organizational success.

It can thus be asserted that focusing on the relationship between particular aspects of organizational culture and performance guarantees a more solid theoretical background. Accordingly, the next section will look more closely at cultural types and their relations with organizational performance in the public sector.

3.6.1 Organizational Culture Types and Performance in the Public Sector

Administrative culture in the public sector traditionally possesses a common set of characteristics, including a system of rational rules and procedures, structured hierarchies, and formalized decision making processes (Bozeman, 1979). This bureaucratic-hierarchy culture was believed to lead to greater effectiveness, efficiency and stability using monitoring and coordinating processes. However, conventional public administration culture under-emphasised other developmental and rational aspects of organizational culture because it lacked sufficient orientation towards adaptability, change or risk-taking (developmental culture), or towards outcomes such

as productivity and efficiency (rational culture) (Parker and Bradley, 2000). A series of reforms since the 1980s has therefore been proposed that is designed to overcome the deficiencies of bureaucratic culture and provide a basis for increased productivity, efficiency, adaptability and creativity in the public sector (Metcalfe and Richards, 1992; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; MacCarthaigh, 2008).

Attention to the nature of public sector organizational culture provides a foundation for explaining and assessing the appropriateness and the results of reforms. More precisely, Ates (2004) claims that change in the culture of public sector organizations has had a crucial effect on organizational performance in most industrialized and developing countries. There are 43 studies in public sector literature that explore the relationship between organizational culture and performance, many of which have identified a positive relationship between organizational culture and performance (Argote, 1989; Gerowitz, 1998; Brewer and Selden, 2000). More recent research has also begun to assess relationships between different types of culture and organizational performance, rather than simply examining links between culture and performance, since public sector organizations have started to adopt different types of culture. Hussein et al. (2016) found that an organizational learning culture in the Public Institution of Higher Education in Malaysia was associated with better organizational performance. Similarly, Verbeeten and Spekle's (2015) research in 443 municipalities in the Netherlands show that a results-oriented culture is positively related to performance. Acar and Acar (2014) suggest that a hierarchy culture is positively related to organizational performance in the Turkish public health sector.

It is widely acknowledged that public service institutions are not single organizations, but rather multi-faceted collections of diverse entities with distinct mandates and different scales of operation. Wilson (1989) considers that visualising a single culture or a common bureaucratic culture across the entire public sector would be a significant mistake. Public sector cultural reforms are connected to beliefs, values and practices along with notions of what constitutes effectiveness criteria, outcomes and results. In this sense the CVF, with its broad coverage, can help evaluate the effects of cultural types on organizational outcomes and performance. Lindquist and Marcy (2014) claim that the CVF was introduced into the public sector as an efficient way of analysing different public sector reform movements (Norman, 2008; Talbot, 2008; Lindquist, 2010; Gill et al., 2011). The reform and management of the public sector has continued

to cast up different types of culture under new labels and reform initiatives. The usefulness of the CVF here is that it provides a checklist of sorts to show how balanced the reform initiatives and cultural changes are. There are 45 studies available in the public sector literature that investigate the CVF, most of which focus on healthcare, education or government administration. However, not all of these studies investigate performance. The related studies on the CVF and public service performance were therefore discovered by analysing each available study in greater depth.

There are 18 studies available on the relationship between organizational performance and the CVF in public sector organizations. The majority of the studies were conducted in the USA (9) and the UK (2). The rest were done in different countries including Turkey (1), Hungary (1), the Netherlands (1), Portugal (1) and Italy (2) while data for one of the studies was collected from three different countries (the UK, USA and Canada). In terms of sectors, 14 of the studies were performed in the healthcare sector, two in government administration, one in higher education (Cameron and Freeman, 1991), and one in a variety of public sector organizations (i.e. Ferreira, 2014). Three studies were done before 2000, nine between 2000 and 2009 and six after 2010.

Each of the studies examined direct and indirect relationships between the types of organizational culture and performance. While Shortnell et al. (2000) found no relationship between culture and performance, the other studies found various sorts of associations, either between specific types of culture and overall performance or specific types of culture and specific dimensions of organizational performance such as financial services, effectiveness or perceived performance (Davies et al., 2007; Jacobs et al., 2013; Acar and Acar, 2014) this is in line with the CVF model.

In general, the empirical literature shows that performance and culture, as two indistinct concepts, have been explored from a variety of aspects. As far as public sector organizations are concerned, relationships between performance and culture have taken a prime position, particularly alongside the adoption of new culture types as well as existing ones following recent reform initiatives. These relationships have been analysed according to data from various countries, sectors and organizations using different approaches, methodologies and measurement criteria. However, it appears difficult to develop a rigourous and consistent canon of empirical literature

given such dispersed data. Here, the CVF offers a clear cut model with which to approach the relationship between specific types of culture and their related performance outcomes both in the generic literature and in the public sector. 49 studies in the public sector literature have dealt with the CVF, 18 of which have specifically focused on the CVF and its relationship with organizational performance. As such, we can conclude that a culture-performance relationship has previously been hypothesised, which is therefore relevant to public sector organizations.

Four hypotheses will be presented on the relationships between culture types and public service performance. The CVF, along with existing public sector literature, suggests that a hierarchy-oriented culture should be aligned with timeliness and quantity of services. Meanwhile, a market-oriented culture in public sector organizations is expected to produce citizen satisfaction when compared to other culture types. Lastly, while an alignment between clan-oriented culture and public service quality and standards can be seen, adhocracy-oriented culture may fit best with public service innovation in line with the CVF.

From here, we can go on to hypothesise a relationship between hierarchy culture, market culture, clan culture, adhocracy culture and their respective performance outcomes, following the examination of the literature for each type of relationship. Table 3.2 below presents the existing empirical studies on the relationship between the CVF and organizational performance in the public sector. It summarises the name(s) of author(s), the publication year, the country where the study was conducted, the research method used, the sample size, the measure of performance and the findings that were obtained.

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Cameron and Freeman (1991)	US higher education	Quantitative	334 higher education institutions 3406 responses	Management perception of effectiveness	Cultural type more important in accounting for effectiveness than congruence (cultural fit) or strength.
Gerowitz et al. (1996)	US, UK and Canada healthcare	Quantitative	265 hospitals- 120 in the USA, 100 in the UK and 45 in Canada (Response rate 52 %, 34%, 75% respectively)	-Employee loyalty and commitment, -External stakeholder satisfaction, -Internal consistency, -Resource acquisition.	Cultures of top management teams were positively and significantly related to performance for clan, market and adhocracy cultures.
Gerowitz (1998)	US healthcare	Quantitative	120 hospitals 271 responses (43 % response rate)	Managerial perceptions of adaptability and global performance	Culture is related to performance but that total quality management interventions are not linked to culture or performance change.
Shortell et al. (2000)	US healthcare	Quantitative	16 hospitals, 3045 patients	-Clinical outcomes, -Functional health status, -Patient satisfaction, -Cost measures.	Variation observed but association between culture and performance nor supported.
Goodman et al. (2001)	US healthcare	Quantitative	276 responses (32.8 % responses rate)	Quality of work life measures	Clan culture is positively related to commitment, job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction and negatively related to intent to turnover. Hierarchy culture is negatively related to commitment, job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction and positively related to intent to turnover.

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Shortell et al. (2001)	US healthcare	Quantitative	56 medical groups, 1797 respondents.	Evidence-based care measures derived from informants	No relationship between culture and evidence-based care due possibly to amorphous nature of physicians associations.
Hajnal (2004)	Hungarian ministries	Quantitative	290 responses from 6 ministries (32.1 % responses rate)	-Perceived overall organisational performance, -Perceived quality of workgroup co-operation, -Job satisfaction/morale, -Perceived quality of management.	A clan centred culture seems to improve, while hierarchy culture tends to deteriorate performance. Clan culture which has a statistically significant, albeit weak, relationship with job satisfaction. Such dimensions of organisational performance are in a strong, negative relationship with the hierarchy culture. The relationship between performance and the presence of adhocracy culture is weaker but still statistically significant; market culture has a minimal relevance to performance.
Moynihan and Pandey (2004)	US government administration	Quantitative	274 responses (Response rate 53 %)	Managerial perceptions of effectiveness.	Evidence that culture does matter for performance. Organizations with adhocracy cultures (focus on organization, growth, flexibility, and resources acquisition) are likely to achieve to achieve significantly higher levels of effectiveness, according to their employees. No evidence of relationship between market, hierarchy and clan cultures and performance.

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Shortell et al. (2004)	US healthcare	Quantitative	41 organizations (47% of the 88 eligible organizations). 40 teams participating in the national evaluation of the Improving Chronic Illness Care Program.	-Patient satisfaction, -A team champion, -Team composition, -Perceived team effectiveness.	Patient satisfaction, the presence of a team champion, and the involvement of the physicians on the team were each consistently and positively associated with greater perceived team effectiveness. Perceived team effectiveness, in turn, was consistently associated with both a greater number and depth of changes made to improve chronic illness care.
Mannion, R. et al. (2005)	UK health care	Quantitative and qualitative	197 acute trusts (60 % response rate) plus 6 acute case studies 6 Primary Care Trust case studies	-NHS ratings, -Primary care organizations (PCO) indicators.	Acute trusts with adhocracy cultures more likely to be rated highly. Trusts with hierarchy cultures were more likely to perform well on waiting times, clan cultures scored better on satisfaction.
Zazzali et al. (2007)	US health care	Quantitative	52 medical groups 1.593 physician responses (38.3 % responses rate)	Individual perception of physician satisfaction	Clan culture is positively related to satisfaction with staff and human resources, technological sophistication, and price competition. Market culture is negatively associated with satisfaction with staff and human resources, and price competition. Hierarchical culture is negatively associated with satisfaction with managerial decision making, practice level competitiveness, price competition, and financial capabilities. Adhocracy culture is not statistically significant relationship with any of the satisfaction measures.

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Gregory (2009)	US health care	Quantitative	99 hospitals 354 responses (52.3 % response rate)	-Controllable expenses -Patient satisfaction	A hospital's clan culture score would be positively related to its patient satisfaction and controllable expenses. Balanced cultures achieved higher levels of patient satisfaction than unbalanced cultures.
Van Beck and Gerritsen (2010)	Netherlands health care	Quantitative	11 Dutch nursing home 248 staff members (63% response rate)	-The perceived quality of care, -The observed quality of care on the units.	Organizational culture was related to both perceived and observed quality of care on the units. Units that are characterized by a clan culture provide better quality of care, both in the eyes of the nursing staff as in the eyes of customers8. In contrast, units with a market oriented culture provide less quality of care. No relationship was found between hierarchy or adhocracy culture and quality of care.
Jacobs, et al., (2013)	UK health care	Quantitative	i)2001/2002 with responses from 899 managers from 187 acute hospitals; ii) 2006/2007 with responses from 826 managers from 143 hospitals; iii) 2007/2008 with responses from 739 managers from 140 hospitals.	NHS star ratings.	The changes over time across all performance measures are towards a more blended culture, with a single dominant culture becoming less prominent. The shift towards a more blended culture encompasses a significant move out of clan towards market cultures. Higher performing organizations tend to be clustered in the adhocracy culture. Those high performing hospitals with greater financial and managerial autonomy tend to be increasingly clustered in the market culture. The clan and adhocracy cultures also tend to be the specialist hospitals with the notion of these organizations being more innovative and entrepreneurial. The clan culture is also strongly associated with smaller organizations where cohesion and staff morale may be easier to maintain.

Author(s)/ Year	Country	Research Method	Sample Size	Measure of Performance	Findings
Prenestini and Lega (2013)	Italian health care	Quantitative	11 healthcare organizations 80 senior managers (36% response rate)	Population health, Regional policy targets, Quality of care, Patient satisfaction, Staff satisfaction, Efficiency and financial performance, Overall performance	Clan culture is associated with staff satisfaction. Adhocracy culture is oriented toward the satisfaction of external stakeholders. Hierarchy culture has a strong internal focus and is less influenced by external stakeholders. It is also negatively related to efficiency and financial performance. Hierarchy culture also showed no particular superiority in any of the assessment dimensions. Market culture also correlated with better performance in the quality of care compared to the average of other cultures.
Acar and Acar (2014)	Turkish health care	Quantitative	62 public hospitals 480 responses	Perceived performance, Service performance, Financial performance	Although, the effects of market culture on financial performance are not seen in public hospitals, Turkish healthcare industry has hierarchy culture, followed by market and clan cultures. The study suggests that it is hard to achieve better performance in services or financial performance aspects under a clan culture.
Ferreira (2014)	Portuguese technological sector, healthcare, several service areas (banking, transportation, electric)	Quantitative	401 responses (78% response rate)	Dimensions of intellectual capital (customer, structural, human)	Adhocracy culture has a significantly stronger positive relationship with structural capital than clan, hierarchy and market cultures. Clan culture has a more positive relationship with higher perceptions of investments in human capital than the other cultures. There is also a negative relationship between human capital and market culture but a significantly positive relationship with customer capital.
Calciolari, et al., (2016)	Italian health sector organizations	Quantitative	529 responses (52.7% response rate)	-Financial performance -Competitiveness	Dominant hierarchical and clan cultures are associated with better financial performance compared with dominant rational cultures. Dominant rational culture is consistently associated with better competitiveness compared to the other organizational culture types, with the exception of clan culture, which does not have a statistically significant coefficient

Table 3.2: A Summary of Empirical Studies on the Link between Competing Values Framework and Organizational Performance

3.6.1.1 Hierarchy-oriented Culture and Public Service Performance

Hierarchy cultures are oriented by stability and driven by values such as routinization, formulation and consistency (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Hartnell et al., 2011). In this type of culture, the employees' values lead to a specific set of characteristics which emphasise conformity and accountability (Weber, 1947; Denison and Spreitzer, 1991). The components of hierarchy culture prioritise efficiency, timeliness and smooth functioning (Cameron and Ettington, 1988, Ferreira, 2014). This means that managers in hierarchy culture are expected to care about finishing tasks on time and performing better. It is widely agreed that public sector organizations are traditionally associated with this type of culture, which relies on formal rules and procedures as control mechanisms to ensure conformity and predictability (Zammuto and Krakower, 1991). Processes in the public sector are executed mostly by rational planning, which allows the work to be completed in a smooth and timely manner. The CVF also suggests that this culture type focuses on internal control, which means putting a system of checks and balances into place to ensure that given or planned tasks are accomplished. This means that hierarchy culture is the one which best matches output quantity performance criteria among the four types of culture shown in the CVF.

The literature on this relationship is quite varied. Acar and Acar (2014) discovered that in Turkish hospitals, hierarchy culture is more positively related to organizational performance than market or clan cultures. Similarly Gerowitz et al. (1996) found that hospitals with a dominant hierarchy culture gave significantly more importance to internal consistency, predictability and rules than clan, market or adhocracy cultures. Davies et al. (2007) suggested that health organizations with a hierarchy culture are more likely to deliver shorter waiting times but have a worse star-rating, meaning that hierarchy cultures are more likely to perform well in terms of output, but worse on overall effectiveness. On the other hand, few studies found a negative relationship or no relationship between a hierarchy culture and different performance dimensions in CVF. Cameron and Freeman's (1991) study found that hierarchy culture did not score highest on any of the effectiveness indices (i.e. satisfaction, personnel development, openness, resource acquisition) they addressed, but they considered that the reason for this could be that none of the performance dimensions they assessed could be directly related to hierarchy culture.

Hajnal (2004) suggests that individual perceptions of quality of management, of team work, organisational performance, and job satisfaction as dimensions of performance have strong negative relationship with the hierarchical nature of the organisation's culture. Van Beek and Gerritsen's (2010) study showed no relationship between hierarchy culture and quality of care. Zazzali et al. (2007) found that hierarchy culture was negatively related to staff satisfaction in terms of managerial decision making, practice level competitiveness, price competition and financial capabilities. Presentini et al.'s (2013) study suggests a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and financial performance, compared to other types of culture. Shortell et al. (2001) suggested that there was a negative relationship between hierarchy culture and evidence-based care in the US healthcare system. Moynihan and Pandey's (2004) study also suggests that hierarchy culture did not have a strong relationship with organizational performance.

Three studies examining the above phenomena (Gerowitz et al., 1996; Davies et al., 2007; Acar and Acar, 2014) show that the relationship between the hierarchy type of organizational culture and control, predictability and service efficiency is more positive than the associations between clan, adhocracy and market cultures and these dimensions. On the other hand, other relevant studies on CVF in the literature have investigated the relationship between hierarchy culture and different dimensions of performance such as quality of care (Van Beek and Gerritsen, 2010), team work, organisational performance, job satisfaction (Goodman et al., 2001; Hajnal, 2004) and evidence based care (Shortell et al., 2001) and found no relationship. It can be said that hierarchy type of culture can be associated with diverse performance criteria. A reason for this could be that different moderating elements in alternative settings could be effective in determining the relationship between culture and organizational performance outputs (Lusch and Laczniak, 1987). Consequently, as the empirical evidence is diverse and mostly measures different performance dimensions, hierarchy-oriented culture, in the line with CVF, can be aligned best with the elements of service quantity in terms of public sector organizations when compared to clan, adhocracy and market types of culture.

As a result of this evidence, one hypothesis can be suggested:

Hypothesis 2a: Hierarchy-oriented culture is more positively related to quantity than other types of culture.

3.6.1.2 Market-oriented Culture and Public Service Performance

In terms of public sector organizations, market-based culture is a comparatively recent concept, which was adopted as a new organisational model that was designed to be less bureaucratic and more efficient. With the adoption of market-based initiatives in the government sector, executing and delivering public services became more closely connected with better performance as well as satisfying citizen's needs (Macedo and Pinho, 2006). Fundamental tenets of market culture are not considered identical between public and private sector organizations which are profit and competition oriented. Nevertheless, the main resource acquisition tool in the public sector is collecting tax from citizens. In this way, the payment of taxes gives citizens their rights, one of which is that government departments are transparent, "accountable and responsible to the people for the policies they adopt and the manner in which they implement them" (Bourn, 1992, p. 197). In this direction, a large canon of literature shows that market-based culture and resource acquisition can be also considered in the CVF as being citizen-oriented in the public sector. Cameron and Freeman's (1991) research in the field of US higher education suggests that market culture scored highest in terms of ability to acquire resources from the external environment among the CVF's four culture types. Similarly, Gerowitz et al. (1996) found that the cultures of top management teams were positively and significantly related to resource acquisition. He also found that hospitals with a dominant market culture performed above average in areas related to resource acquisition, market share and competitiveness, and also performed significantly better in comparison to clan and hierarchy cultures. Jacobs et al. (2013) suggest that high performing hospitals with greater financial and managerial autonomy tend to be increasingly associated with market culture. Ferrira (2014) also found that market culture is significantly and positively associated with customer capital.

Prenestini and Lega (2013) concluded that a market culture is associated with better performance in quality of care compared to clan, hierarchy and adhocracy cultures. However, Gerowitz et al.'s (1998) findings concluded that total quality management interventions are not associated with either performance or change in culture. Van Beek and Gerritsen's (2010) study on health care services in the Netherlands also found that units with a market-oriented culture provided worse levels of quality of care compared to clan culture. Rodrigues and Pinto (2010) assessed the relationship

between market orientation and performance, dividing it into internal and external environments in local government organizations. They found that the external environment was focused on the organisation's position and citizen needs, while the internal environment sought to develop and reinforce better quality services. Market culture in the CVF table is located in the external focus dimension, which requires outward-looking attitudes rather than an inward focus. The relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction is considered positively when using the CVF framework.

Overall, the evidences suggests that market culture performs better in terms of resource acquisition, market share, competitiveness and customer satisfaction than clan, adhocracy and hierarchy cultures. Some studies also concentrated on market culture and quality output, although the relationship in those studies was more internally oriented, unlike the position of market culture in CVF. These findings from different organizational settings indicate that particular contextual factors might influence the culture-performance relationship. The remaining studies in the public sector found either negative statistically significant results or no quantifiable links between market culture and performance (Hajnal, 2004; Moynihan and Pandey, 2004; Zazzali et al., 2007; Acar and Acar, 2014). Consequently, in the line with the related studies, we can conclude that market-oriented culture can be more successfully connected with citizen satisfaction in public sector organizations compared with other culture types, since market culture is located in the externally focused side of the CVF.

As a result of this evidence, we can suggest a further hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 2b: Market-oriented culture is more positively related to citizen satisfaction than other types of culture.*

3.6.1.3 Clan-oriented Culture and Public Service Performance

A clan culture, oriented towards human affiliation, is driven by values such as trust, colloboration, empowerment and attachment (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). The values associated with this type of culture lead to a specific set of behaviours defined by teamwork, participation, employee involvement and commitment (Cameron and Ettington, 1988; Hartnell et al, 2011). Leaders in clan-oriented culture encourage personnel to involve themselves in work to create a mutual trust in the organizations.

In this type of culture, common values generated within the processes are expected to be embraced by all the members of the organizations along with a sense of belonging. As personnel feel attached to organization as well as responsible to other personnel, they will be inclined to produce better quality work. In this direction, the current study examines the relationship between clan culture and service quality output within the CVF model.

In public sector organizations, all related research on group / clan culture and performance in the CVF was conducted after 1990s, and a vast majority of it was based on the human resource concerns of the organization, including personal satisfaction and development and motivation (Gerowitz et al., 1996; Davies et al.'s 2007; Zazzali et al., 2007; Gregory et al., 2009; Jacobs et al., 2013; Prestini et al., 2013). There are other studies dealt with the relationship between clan culture and quality output in the public sector literature (Goodman et al., 2001; Gifford et al., 2002). However, they also considered the issue from a more personal satisfaction aspect by assessing the quality of nurses' working lives in the US hospitals.

Some studies used different performance parameters. One found that there was no significant relationship between clan culture and evidence-based care standards in US healthcare (Shortell et al, 2001). A study by Acar and Acar (2014) on Turkish public health services found that it was difficult to improve financial performance under a clan-based culture. Moynihan and Pandey's (2004) study examining the US government administration suggested that clan culture did not prove to have a strong relationship with organizational performance as a dependent variable.

This study mainly investigates the service outputs of the public sector organizations under each culture type, rather than examining internal organizational elements and performance relationships. It analyses how and in what ways services are offered and how these service types could be best matched with different organizational cultures. Therefore, organizations adopting such values and practices as clan culture, teamwork, cooperation and colloboration are expected to offer better quality services. Hoegl et al. (2001) claim that artefacts of group culture including communication, coordination, mutual support and solidarity also have an effect on quality performance (Coskun, 2002). Isaak (2014) argued that service quality and teamwork could be more

important, and showed that teamwork has significant positive effect on an organization's service quality.

Regarding the relevant research applied to the CVF, two studies found statistically significant relationships in the public sector. Van Beek and Gerritsen's (2010) study on healthcare organizations in the Netherlands found that units that are identified by a clan culture have better perceived and observed quality of care from the viewpoint of patients. Hajnal's (2004) study on Hungarian ministries found that clan culture has a statistically significant relationship with perceived quality of management Here, it also shouldn't be ignored that there may be certain organizational determinants which could interact with the relationship between organizational culture and performance types, as the relevant literature discussed (Deshpande and Webster, 1989).

Overall, while the studies mostly analysed relationships between clan culture and issues related to human resources, a few of them suggested a significant relationship between quality of work and clan culture. However, the current study will examine this relationship because it is designed to assess relationships between service-related performance measures and organizational culture. Accordingly, service quality is found to fit best with a clan-oriented culture compared to other culture types.

As a result of this evidence, a further hypothesis can be suggested:

> *Hypothesis 2c: Clan-oriented culture is more positively related to quality than other types of culture.*

3.6.1.4 Adhocracy-oriented Culture and Public Service Performance

Adhocracy cultures are oriented towards change and are driven by values such as growth, new ideas, autonomy and stimulation (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Hartnell et al., 2011). The values of this type of culture encourage risk taking, creativity and adaptibility (Ferreira, 2014). These components of adhocracy culture prioritise service innovation, which can lead to improvements in performance (Hartnell et al., 2011). The CVF framework also suggests that the higher level performance of adhocracy culture is positively related to innovation.

Managers in public sector organizations strive to accomplish service performance against the pressures coming from within their organization and from the external

environment in the age of technological breakthroughs, governmental reforms and governance (Walker et al., 2011). In order to cope with these changes and improve services, public sector organizations should be outward looking, open and flexible. However, since government bodies inherently favour low-risk taking and stability, a need has been identified for them to adopt a culture which enables change, improvement and innovation in their services (Manimala et al., 2006). Adhocracy culture has therefore become much more relevant to public sector organizations, especially in relation to innovation and performance. Most empirical research in the CVF has found a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and innovation and related performance measures. Moynihan and Pandey's (2004) findings on culture showed that culture is important to performance. Organizations with an adhocracy culture are likely to achieve significantly higher levels of effectiveness and be more inventive than more traditional organizational forms oriented towards hierarchy, market or clan cultures. Jacobs et al. (2013) discovered that the data from analysing the relationship between culture type and effectiveness showed that higher performing organizations tend to follow a culture of adhocracy. Hospitals which have an adhocracy culture are also inclined to be specialist organizations, which are more innovative and entrepreneurial. Ferreira (2014) also suggested that an adhocracy culture has a stronger positive link with structural capital (mostly in terms of new procedures, learning proactively and taking risks) than clan, hierarchy and market cultures. In their empirical study on the educational sector, Cameron and Freeman's (1991) study found that the adhocracy culture is more effective than the cultures on dimensions relating to the external environment such as student academic development, professional development, quality of the faculty system, openness and community interaction. Supporting this study, Gerowitz et al. (1996) found that the cultures of senior management teams were positively and significantly related to performance under an adhocracy culture. The study also added that hospitals with a dominant adhocracy culture performed positively and significantly above the mean in terms of external stakeholder satisfaction in comparison to clan and market cultures. In the same line, Prenestini and Lega (2013) suggested that adhocracy culture is oriented toward the satisfaction of external stakeholders. Davies et al.'s (2007) analysis on English NHS acute hospitals suggested that adhocracy culture is much more likely to be rated above clan and hierarchy cultures, whilst Hajnal's (2004) study

showed that the relationship between organisational performance and adhocracy culture is weaker but still statistically significant.

On the other hand, there are some studies which could find no relationship between the concepts. Zazzali et al.'s (2007) study did not find any significant association between adhocracy culture and staff satisfaction, and the study performed by Van Beek and Gerritsen (2010) suggested no relationship between adhocracy culture and quality of care. All the study findings above, which were acquired from different settings, assessed adhocracy culture with distinct performance dimensions. In this direction, the literature also assumes that contextual determinants could moderate the relationship between organizational culture and performance outcomes (Dobni and Luffman, 2003).

The studies examined here indicate that adhocracy culture has a significant relationship with innovation and development. Shortell et al. (2001) concluded that group and hierarchy oriented cultures are unlikely to trigger change, and can even resist innovation rather than promoting it. Most of the research above shows that adhocracy culture is more innovative than market culture.

As a result of this evidence, another hypothesis can be suggested:

> *Hypothesis 2d: Adhocracy-oriented culture is more positively related to innovation than other type of culture.*

3.7 The Moderating Effect of Strategy Implementation

It is widely acknowledged that there is a mutual relationship between organizational culture and organizational strategy. They represent two essential elements, each of which has having a role in successful organizational performance. Nonetheless, there is also a tendency in the literature to consider both concepts as synonymous. Weick (1985) uses strategy definition terms which are commonly associated with describing organizational culture. He asserts that organizational culture and strategy arise from the collected efforts of organizational actions and decisions taken in the short and long terms by people within the organization itself. In the same vein, Narver et al. (1998) claim that organizational strategy can be smoothly implemented without considering the culture of the organization because of the inherent overlap of concepts. However,

organizational culture and strategy each has a distinct and well-established background in management and organization studies. Greiner (1983) claims that they are both "deeply ingrained patterns of management behaviour" (p. 14). Schwartz and Davis (1981) assert that an organization's strategy and culture should be well-balanced and internally coherent. The current study therefore acknowledges the complementary nature of the two concepts, but does not treat them as interchangeable.

Culture is basically described as "the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and thus provides them norms for behaviour in the organization" (Deshpande and Webster, 1989, p. 4). As discussed above, organizational culture comprises separate layers including values, norms and behaviours. Schein (1992) expands these layers by adding a different constructs of organizational culture, which he describes as artefacts. Cultural beliefs and values can be referred to as strategies, goals, vision and mission in organizations, while symbols, uniforms, logos and stories can be given as examples of artefacts of culture. On the other hand, organizational strategy is defined as a complex set of activities, processes and routines involved in the design and execution of policies and practices (Zheng et al., 2010). The strategic orientation of an organization defines the basic focus of its long-term goals and objectives, all of which are related to actions and behaviour.

Putting organizational culture and organizational strategy together, it can be more easily seen that organizational culture relates a set of common beliefs and values forming a basis for the operations of an organization, whilst organizational strategy refers to actions and behaviours which occur at the actual operational stage. The functionalist perspective asserts that organizational culture is a distinct concept which affects organizational functioning, and should therefore influence other variables such as organizational goals, systems, structures and outcomes (Deshpande and Webster, 1989). Pascale and Athos (1981) also suggest that research on strategy implementation and organizational performance have begun to consider organizational culture as a variable, especially when trying to explain specific features of the organizations. The contingency approach is frequently applied to organizational culture from a functionalist point of view, and claims that organizational culture, strategy and structure have to be consistent with each other (Miles and Snow, 1978; Lusch and Laczniak, 1987; Dobni and Luffman, 2003). Despande and Webster (1989) state that this consistency can be achieved by means of artefacts representing tangible

components of organizational culture. These cultural artefacts, such as an organization's vision, mission statements, activity plans and regular meetings "can be used to build organizational commitment, convey a philosophy of management, rationalize and legitimate activity, motivate personnel, and facilitate socialization" (Smircich, 1983, p. 345). This means that artefacts can be used as a leverage to provide harmony between strategy and culture in organizational processes—especially during the execution of the strategy—in order to ensure that the organization works better. Consequently, it can be said that these arguments provide a basis for the congruence between culture and strategy by emphasising the separate values of each concept.

There is a well-established canon of literature focusing on the fit between strategy and culture. Organization theory generally considers that organizational strategy and culture should be intimately connected, insofar as culture can influence strategy and vice versa (Yarbrough et al., 2011, Warrick, 2017). Dobni and Luffman (2003) also claim that the specific characteristics of an organization's culture must align with its organizational strategy, and that any changes in either of these must facilitate the other in order to ensure a well-functioning organization. For instance, to determine a market-based strategy for an organization, the culture of the organization should create an environment necessary to implement competition-based, goal and product-oriented strategies to achieve market-based outcomes such as customer satisfaction and profitability (Lee et al., 2006). In the same way, innovative strategies can be accomplished as long as culture enables these innovative behaviours into the organization's environment. Brenes et al. (2008) conclude that 86% of successful organizations regard the alignment of strategy and culture as highly significant. For instance, to make decisions on strategic goals and objectives, it is necessary to select the optimum values for this strategy-making process, and that in order to improve organizational performance at the end of the process, strategic decisions must be in keeping with employees' values within the organization (Camerer and Vepsalainen, 1988; Day and Wensley, 1988; Schein, 1997, Arayesh et al., 2017). On the other hand, organizational culture implicitly regulates how employees and managers behave and work, and how their collective beliefs correspond to the strategic targets which directly affect the functioning of the organization (Scholz, 1987; Quinn, 1988; Deshpande et al., 1993; Schein, 1997; Weber and Camerer, 2003). As discussed above, culture and strategy can affect each other in similar ways. However, the question of which one is

superior in effectiveness and strength over the other is also fundamental. The vast majority of researchers emphasise that organizational culture contains deep-rooted elements of the organization and is the most resistant to change. Therefore, it would be more plausible to argue that the fit between strategy and culture can be altered depending upon the strength of the organizational strategy. If a precise strategy has been determined by the organization, then it is possible to detect a misalliance between imposed culture and that strategy (Scholz, 1987). Therefore it can be concluded that the requirement for a match between culture and strategy is most apparent when there is an explicitly determined strategy in the organization.

Accordingly, some researchers assert that strategy-culture congruence becomes most apparent and prominent during the strategy implementation phase (Bates et al., 1995; Pearce and Robinson, 1997). Alamsjah (2011) discovered that middle management can implement strategies more successfully when organizational culture fits with their own outlook. Bates et al. (1995) indicate that well-structured and well-implemented strategies can affect organizational culture positively by means of the practices, regulations and processes in which organizational strategies are practiced. Other research also concluded that one of the most important barriers to strategy implementation is an unaligned organizational culture (Heide et al., 2002; Alashloo et al., 2005).

Hynes (2009) argues that the main variable in understanding the strength of this relationship can be explained by looking at organizational performance. Numerous studies have approached concepts of strategy and culture as having separate effects on organizational performance, whilst studies examining the joint effects of both variables have been relatively few. Related research supports the idea that organizational culture is likely to affect the strategic orientation of the organization in order to increase organizational performance (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983; Dobni and Luffman, 2003), especially during strategy implementation (Narver and Slater, 1993; Day, 1994). Lee et al. (2006) explain that the relationship occurs when overall strategies have to be planned and executed, meaning that organizational culture affects the desired organizational performance. The best way to instigate such a process should be through strategic planning. Following that, strategic implementation enhances the visibility of organizational culture, showing the significance of its effect on organizational performance (Narver and Slater, 1993).

Ahmadi et al. (2011) make similar claims, saying that "whenever the strategic objectives of the organization achieve, they make symbolic meaningful outputs which showcase the heavy effect of culture on organizational achievement". We can therefore conclude that strategy implementation is influential on the relationship between culture and performance.

Bates et al. (1995) suggest that differences in strategy implementation can be associated with different types of organizational culture. Hynes (2009) also points out that every organization has a certain degree of fit between the way strategies are implemented and the culture within the organization. Organizational performance cannot be entirely achieved without ensuring some degree of realignment between the organization's culture and strategy (Dobni and Luffman, 2003). To examine how well the planned and implemented organizational strategies and organizational culture are fitted, the effect of this relationship on outcomes requires the simultaneous consideration of multiple characteristics of the organization (Doty et al., 1993). Yarbrough et al. (2011) concludes that organizational culture, as a very broad concept, should be considered with all the potentially different dimensions and characteristics that could be applied to adjust any type of organizational culture.

Management and organization studies commonly use the CVF to examine organizational culture and performance. For the purposes of understanding their complementarity with rational and incremental implementation styles, the culture types identified in the CVF can be divided into two main types: developmental and rational (Zammuto and Krokower, 1991). Garnett et al. (2008) also suggest mission-oriented and rule-oriented cultural dimensions by describing the former as primarily focusing on outcomes and related concepts such as participation, open communication, innovativeness and development, while the latter concentrates on reconciliation and is associated with rules, regulations, rational decisions, processes and lack of conflict. Garnett et al.'s study explores the relationship between mission-oriented and rule-oriented cultures and organizational performance in public sector organizations by examining their moderation and mediation effects in conjunction with other variables. This is an area that needs further investigation, especially in terms of the moderation effects of strategies and their implementation on the relationship between organizational culture and its related outcomes (Garnett et al., 2008). The current study therefore classifies the four types of culture under these two dimensions

in order to match them with rational and incremental strategy implementation styles, which have similar features (see also Su et al., 2011).

From this perspective, a rational implementation style, which emphasises regulations, rational decisions, plans and stability, complements hierarchy and market types of culture, which are control orientated. As Despande and Webster (1989) argue, it can be claimed that the artefacts of hierarchy and market types of culture under controlled orientation should be in close proximity with the above-mentioned characteristics of rational implementation styles in order to achieve better performance. Accordingly, a moderating effect of rational implementation can be hypothesised on the relationship between hierarchy- and market-oriented cultures and organizational performance. Likewise, incremental implementation, which emphasises continuous monitoring, changes, cooperation and openness, can be more easily associated with clan and adhocracy cultures, which are directed by orientation towards flexibility and their related outcomes. Meanwhile, the flexibility oriented artefacts of clan and adhocracy cultures are expected to align themselves with the features of incremental implementation styles in order to achieve optimum performance. Consequently, the moderation effect of incremental implementation can be suggested on the relationship between clan- and adhocracy-oriented cultures and organizational performance.

Based on these assumptions, four more hypotheses can be suggested:

> *Hypothesis 3a: A rational implementation style strengthens the relationship between hierarchy-oriented culture and performance.*

> *Hypothesis 3b: A rational implementation style strengthens the relationship between market-oriented culture and performance.*

> *Hypothesis 3c: An incremental implementation style strengthens the relationship between clan-oriented culture and performance.*

> *Hypothesis 3d: An incremental implementation style strengthens the relationship between adhocracy-oriented culture and performance.*

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the relationship between organizational culture and performance in public organizations. The chapter began by reviewing the concept of organizational culture and its development before positioning the study in the functionalist perspective. Following that, the CVF was introduced along with the four types of culture which make up its framework. The association between culture and performance in organizations was reviewed before specifically focusing on organizational culture types and performance in the public sector. Finally, the studies discussed here and the hypotheses developed on their relationships provided an important step in understanding the effects of different culture styles on organizational performance in the public sector.

It is widely believed that organizational culture has become more relevant to the concept of organizational effectiveness (Denison and Mishra, 1995; Sackmann, 2011). Although the literature on management and organization is divided on the concepts of culture and performance, the CVF brings a very solid theoretical basis into the culture-performance relationship, enabling researchers to posit that certain types of organizational culture correspond with particular types of performance measurement.

There are few studies exploring the relationship between hierarchy culture and related performance variables including internal consistency, stability and rule orientation. Most of the studies conducted attempted to review hierarchy culture with different performance variables including service quality, job satisfaction and teamwork, which are not generally seen as the direct outcomes of hierarchy culture. Therefore, as the CVF suggests, this study aims to extend the existing literature on the relationship between the hierarchy culture and service quantity as a performance variable.

Moreover, there has been very little research testing the effects of market culture on organizational performance. Most of the relevant studies concentrated on the relationship between market culture and a variety of performance measurements including service quality, customer satisfaction, research acquisition and competitiveness, and produced very contradictory results. In line with the CVF, this study therefore aims to extend the existing literature on the relationship between market culture and customer satisfaction as a performance variable.

The literature on clan culture and performance in the public sector shows no positive relationship between clan culture and performance in government administration organizations in spite of the fact that studies show a positive relationship in the public healthcare and education sectors. The present study suggests that the relationship between clan culture and organizational performance is based on service quality, when compared with adhocracy, market and hierarchy cultures.

The vast majority of research investigating the relationship between adhocracy culture and innovation as a performance variable also shows a strong mutual association. In the same direction, the present study also proposes a positive relationship between adhocracy culture and service innovation.

Regarding the literature on the moderating effects of strategy implementation styles on the culture-performance relationship, a rational implementation style is proposed to moderate the relationship between hierarchy culture and performance as well as market culture and performance. Incremental implementation is also proposed with its moderating impact on the relationship between clan culture and performance and adhocracy culture and performance.

In the next chapter, the chosen research methodology for this study will be examined, and the research design, research context and method of data collection will be presented in detail.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

Research methodology relates to the choice of analytical strategy and research design which underpinning any academic inquiry. This chapter outlines the methodology that will be applied in this study. It will form a basis for the overall research and link the theoretical background of the study with the empirical findings explored over the following three chapters. First of all, the research paradigm is presented along with the specific choices of ontological, epistemological and methodological positions of the study. Following the description of the research design, Turkish metropolitan municipalities will be investigated as the research context of the study. Next, data collection methods and sampling design will be identified. After that, common methodological biases are addressed, as they may be problematic in terms of the quantitative research in studies such as this. This will be followed by a presentation of the selection of control variables. Finally, data analysis methodologies and ethical considerations of the research are investigated.

4.2 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is a "set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed" (Kuhn, 1962, p. 45). This reflects the idea that a particular philosophy shapes the main structure of a piece of research and it creates or accords with an area of common ground for researchers who share similar research ideas and approaches (Denscombe, 2010). It is essential for researchers to construct a solid basis for their research in order to strengthen the conclusions of their argument (Becker, 1982; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders et al., 2009). Most researchers work under research philosophies that consider the elements of research paradigm under three main headings: ontology, epistemology and methodology.

4.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is "the science or study of being" (Blaikie, 2010, p.8). In research, ontology refers to the researcher's beliefs and perceptions about the nature of reality. Guba and Lincoln (1994) claim that this encapsulates ideas relating to the study of our existence and the fundamental nature of reality or being. Bryman (2012) suggests two fundamental ontological perspectives: objectivism and constructionism. While the former approach implies that social phenomena and their meanings exist in a reality that is independent of social actors, the latter claims that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being created through the perceptions and actions of social actors (Saunders et al., 2009). The current study adopts an objectivist approach by considering that phenomena exist separately from social actors.

4.2.2 Epistemology

Cohen et al. (2007) consider epistemology as representing the nature and forms of knowledge. Epistemological assumptions are concerned with "knowing how you can know" and how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006, p. 42). Blaikie (1993) and Chia (2002) describe epistemology as enabling the acquisition of the knowledge of reality through a set of methods and standards which satisfy certain standards of knowledge construction.

The fundamental epistemological approaches most commonly applied in social science research are positivism and social constructionism (Thomas, 2004), although other perspectives such as realism and pragmatism have been developed more recently. These four approaches will be discussed in more detail below.

Positivism is an epistemological stance that deals with the credible data which can be observed and measured. Data collected in this way can produce law-like generalizations and frameworks (Remenyi et al., 1998). Accordingly, Mertens (2005) considers that social science research can be elucidated by means of a cause and effect relationship in the same way as other scientific methodologies. To create this relationship, existing theories are applied in order to develop hypotheses. Positivist epistemology considers theories as the paths along which systematic knowledge about

the related issue can travel, and that hypotheses derived from the theories should be either accepted or rejected to better understand the knowledge of reality and the logic underlying it (Saunders et al., 2009). Positivism underscores the idea of explaining important social phenomena by testing the relationships among and between them. This process should be value-free, causal and testable in different environments (Creswell, 2013). The main epistemological question underlying positivism is whether a hypothesised relationship in one piece of research remains applicable when studying it in a different context. The answer to this question can show the acceptability of knowledge acquired throughout the study strengthening it for generalised use. Also, this form of questioning can help to improve the finer points of the theory which can be tested in future works (Saunders et al., 2009). Experiments, quasi-experiments and surveys are the most typical types of positivist research strategies used in social science research (Thomas, 2004).

Social constructionism is another epistemological approach, which unlike the positivist perspective considers the importance of human interaction and its role in the research. Social constructionism basically claims that the social world is far too complicated to arrive at a generalizable conclusion in the same way as natural science can (Saunders et al., 2009). This approach sees the world as formed before it is experienced and analysed by humans from their own set of understandings (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). To discover how people understand the world, researchers using the social constructivist perspective have the opportunity to obtain unique knowledge directly from the participants (Bryman, 2001; Farzanfar, 2005).

This method of inquiry aims to acquire first hand meanings for the phenomena studied. However, because people understand phenomena in different ways, various meanings are created based mostly on cultural or historic perceptions (Crotty, 1998). In this sense, researchers need to explore the meanings constructed by participant's different perspectives in order to gain deeper insights into and greater understanding of a particular issue (Creswell, 2013). Unlike positivist analysis, social constructionism does not apply theory initially, producing theories instead from the results obtained. The most frequently used social constructionist research strategies in social science studies are ethnography, action research and case study (Thomas, 2004).

Critical realism has emerged as a middle ground between social constructionism and positivism (Krauss, 2005). It consists of recognising the reality of the natural world and identifying discourses and actions that shape the social world (Bryman, 2012). Bhaskar (1989) claims that researchers can only ascertain what is happening in the social world depending upon their understanding of the social structures that the phenomena have shaped. He continues his argument by saying that critical realism suggests that we should disclose the observable knowledge of reality subject to the existing social conditions and also suggests that knowledge should be derived the knowledge through social actors. The critical realist approach also concerns itself with multi-level studies at individual, group and organizational levels. Knowledge—which can be produced throughout interactions between various procedures, processes and structures—belongs to all these levels, and can offer a unique perspective for the researcher (Saunders et al., 2009). Critical realism applies both positivist and social constructionist methods such as unstructured/semi-structured interviews, case studies and various types of statistical analysis.

Pragmatism considers that prioritizing epistemological and ontological positions over what the research exactly questions is meaningless in practice (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The most important element of pragmatist research is to adopt any approaches or methods which can help to answer the research question best. Here, it is more convenient to see the research philosophy employed as a continuum rather than opposite positions (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Hence the pragmatist view refuses to embrace any specific philosophical position in determining research methods; instead it concerns itself with offering practical and useful solutions to problems examined under specific circumstances in unique situations (Mertens, 2005; Creswell, 2013).

4.2.2.1 Epistemological Stance of the Study

The researcher believes that positivism is the best approach to the study. Firstly, the positivist approach is deemed suitable for business and management research (Thomas, 2004). Positivist view of research also enables the researcher to explore causal relationships between a set of conceptualised variables under a suitable theoretical basis. The current study investigates the relationships between various

public management concepts, namely strategy implementation styles, types of organizational culture and performance. The study undertakes this examination employing decision making theories, the Competing Values Framework and contingency theory. Secondly, research findings derived through positivist modes of investigation can reveal contradictions between the theories applied and hypotheses constructed in the study. This procedure offers a better opportunity for the researcher of this study to refine relevant theories by presenting novel results by testing the hypotheses developed. Thirdly, the positivist paradigm minimises any contamination which can occur in the research process, as well as any bias on the part of the researcher, by defining and reducing organizational and social issues to more simplified descriptions (on numerical or hypothetical levels). Since the study examines the perceptions of senior managers of their departmental performance, as well as culture and strategy implementation which might be considered as sensitive organizational and personal information, it is thought that less interaction between researcher and participants could generate more reliable results. Finally, as positivistic epistemology allows us to test theories and models in different settings, its application to this epistemological position would enable the establishment of generalizable knowledge that could also be applicable in a wider context.

By choosing positivist epistemology, this study deviates from the other alternative epistemological approaches explained above. Social constructionism mainly regards phenomena subjectively from the perspective of the researcher, and associates issues with a certain socio-cultural context with no aim of generalizing the study results. This epistemology allows to develop new theories instead of testing existing ones by determining a range of hypotheses. However, the current research standpoint does not conform to the social constructionist approach because it aims to produce research results that are free from any bias or subjectivity as well as testing established theories and models concerning the related concepts. In addition, constructionist epistemology fits in well with research that aims to make an in depth analysis of a smaller population, unlike the current study which intends to investigate a larger population across a wider area, namely the 30 metropolitan municipalities of Turkey. Therefore, compared to social constructionism, positivism fits in better with the aims and nature of this research.

Critical realism was also not considered a suitable epistemology for the current study. This approach asserts that social structures and the knowledge produced in them are the most fundamental determinants in understanding the world, which needs to be seen externally from the critical realist point of view (Bhaskar, 1989). Although critical realism includes elements of positivist epistemology—such as being to some extent objective and applying its methodologic tools—it mainly employs inductive reasoning with the aim of building theory. Further, if a researcher adopts a critical realist approach, s/he should focus on how power relations work, and how knowledge, mechanisms and social structures interact with each other as well as relevant actors (Saunders et al., 2009). This study, however, undertakes an analysis to predict a number of relationships between the concepts studied using a deductive approach without specifically investigating mechanisms, structure, knowledge and discourse in the research context.

Lastly, the pragmatist approach does not necessarily prioritize one epistemological approach over others, and aims to offer practical solutions to the problems in a specific time and context. However, this study grounds its methodological and theoretical positions on a solid and explicit epistemological standpoint. It also explores existing relationships between concepts within the organizations rather than solely intending to make pragmatic implications or suggestions.

4.3 Methodology

Methodology refers to an action plan or a research strategy which explains the selection and application of a specific method (Crotty, 1998) driven by the researcher's ontological and epistemological stance (Sarantakos, 2005). Methodology deals with the practices, rules and procedures that direct the researcher's methods of data collection and analysis (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Marczyk et al., 2005).

There are two main methodological approaches: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research adopts a research strategy that aims to explore phenomena by collecting and analysing the numerical or quantifiable data in order to consider social realities objectively (Wilson, 2010). Bryman and Bell (2011) argue that quantitative methods incorporate the practices and principles of objectivist ontology and of positivist epistemology. Self-completion questionnaires, structured interviews,

structured observation and psychological tests are most typically used quantitative research methods (Thomas, 2004).

In contrast, qualitative research is based on a research methodology that mostly emphasises meanings and social practices rather over numerical data (Sarantakos, 2005). It also claims that social realities are created and formed continuously (Bryman, 2012). It rejects the practices and principles of the natural scientific model and emphasises the interpretation of social world from a viewpoint of social constructionist epistemology and subjectivist ontology (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The most frequently applied qualitative research methods are unstructured interviews, participant observation and personal records by the observer (Thomas, 2004).

These fundamental methods are not free from deficiencies. Examples of the advantages and disadvantages of both methods are summarised in Table 4.1 below. After considering the benefits of all relevant methodologies, the current study adopts a mixed-methods approach which will be discussed in detail.

METHODOLOGY	QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	QUALITATIVE RESEARCH
ADVANTAGES	Draws conclusions for large population. Analyses data efficiently. Investigates relationships within data. Examines probable causes and effects. Controls bias. Appeals to people's preference for numbers.	Provides detailed perspectives of a few people. Captures the voices of participants. Allows participants' experiences to be understood in context. Is based on the views of participants, not the researcher. Appeals to peoples' enjoyment of stories.
DISADVANTAGES	Is impersonal, dry. Does not record the words of participants. Provides limited understanding of the context of participants. Is largely researcher-driven.	Has limited generalizability. Provides only soft data (not hard data, such as numbers). Studies few people. Is highly subjective. Minimizes use of researcher's expertise due to reliance on participants.

Table 4. 1: Advantages and Limitations of Qualitative and Quantitative Research (Source: Creswell, 2013)

4.3.1 Mixed-Methods Methodology

The mixed methods approach basically means using more than one method, including the application of demographic analysis, surveys, observations, and social mapping techniques (Hesse-Biber, 2010). The earliest mixed methods research were the social research projects dating back to the 19th century. They were practiced by LePlay (1855) and Booth (1891) in Europe and included more than one methodology such as the application of demographic analysis, participant surveys and observations and social mapping techniques (Hesse-Biber, 2010). In the second decade of the 20th century, the concept was re-discovered by researchers in the USA. The Chicago School of Sociology particularly emphasised the importance of integrating quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Hesse-Biber, 2010). After early initiatives there was a considerable debate about the relative merits of quantitative and qualitative

methodologies, and bringing together both types of research tradition as a third methodological approach was suggested by many researchers (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, Blaikie, 2010). A mutual agreement on conceptual identification was constituted over the years. Different nomenclatures have been proposed by different researchers: Multi trait/multi method research (Campbell and Fiske, 1959); triangulation (Denzin, 1970); mixed strategies (Douglas, 1976); combining methods (Reichardt and Cook, 1979); combining data (Bryman, 1988); multi-method research (Brewer and Hunter, 1989); combined research (Creswell, 1994) and mixed methodology (Tashakkoria and Teddlie, 1998). Eventually, Mixed Methods as an umbrella term has been decided by most seminal research (Bryman, 20011; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, handbooks such as Tashakkoria and Teddlie, 2003a; Bergman, 2008, and journals such as the *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*[8] founded in 2007).

Regarding the definition of the mixed methods concept, various researchers focus on different components of mixed methodology in order to identify it. For instance, Greene et al. (1989) deal with the concept in terms of methods and philosophy, defining mixed method designs as the collection of qualitative and quantitative data by dealing with them in a specific research paradigm. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) regard mixed methods as a methodology of study which combines both qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Recently, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) broadened their definition of mixed methods by considering methods, philosophy and research design together: Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) offer an elaborated definition:

> Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methodological inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies… In terms of research design, it combines the processes that direct the plan for performing the research (p.5).

In the same direction, the current study applies mixed methods not only in terms of the methods and philosophy used but also as a tool shaping the research design of the study.

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[8] http://journals.sagepub.com/home/mmr

Collins et al. (2006) note that there are many benefits in using mixed methods: increasing instrument validity, inclusion of suitable participants, integrity of data processing and enhancing the significance of the results. Bryman and Bell (2011) consider that the advantages of applying mixed methodology are that quantitative and qualitative methods will benefit from each other, and that the phenomena studied can be examined from different angles. Blaikie (2010) justified the use of mixed methods particularly when a series of research questions were included in the study. To answer these research questions, social science research may need to use specific strategies and methods for different purposes during various parts of the study.

However, some researchers have reservations about the mixed methods. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) claim that research becomes complicated when data gathered from different sources present opposite ideas on the same phenomena. Bryman (2012) considers various points about the rationale of using mixed methods. He concludes firstly that it is better to consider different methods as related components in mixed methods research, since inadequate integration between the methods will result in weak results from a mixed methods study. Secondly, researchers should always justify cases in which mixed methods used, to ensure they are appropriate to the research questions and the area of study. The researcher should not collect data from different sources just because they think that using more data and different approaches is better. There should be a carefully explained rationale underlying the preference of the researcher for the research method used. Creswell (2015)[9] offers a workable approach to justifying mixed methodology by suggesting that combining the strengths of qualitative and quantitative methods helps compensate for any inherent weaknesses in each approach. Accordingly, the choice of mixed methodology design for a study depends on the specific nature of the research area.

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[9] Creswell (2015) identifies five ways to undertake mixed-method methodology design;
- To attain two different perspectives gathered from qualitative and quantitative data.
- To attain more detailed data and perspectives on the research problem than one of either approach can provide.
- To complement qualitative information (environment, place and context of individual experiences) with quantitative information (instrument data).
- Performing an initial qualitative study to make sure that elements of the quantitative study are appropriate to understand the participants and environment involved in the study.
- Supporting quantitative research by adding the qualitative data and performing follow-up to elucidate further results.

The strategy implementation literature—which the present study deals with—is overwhelmingly based towards quantitative methodology. Nevertheless, mixed methods approaches have seen a growing importance in recent years. According to research conducted by Molina-Azorin (2012) based on the articles in the *Strategic Management Journal* published between 1980 and 2006, total citation rates for articles applying mixed methods are higher than single method research. Gibson (2017) investigated articles published in other management and organization journals between 2009 and 2014, and concluded that the average number of the papers using mixed methods research is 6%, while the number of mixed methods research papers in the *Strategic Management Journal* is 15%. We can therefore conclude that mixed methods investigations have become a much more commonly used methodology in strategic research.

The topic of organizational culture is very broad and fragmented, and there is no consistent applied methodology in this area. The current study adopts the CVF, which is used in the vast majority of quantitative organizational culture research compared to other typologies. As previously discussed, there are three studies examining the CVF and performance using mixed methods (Martin et al., 2006; Davies et al., 2007; Beugelsdijk et al., 2009).

This study uses mixed methods to explore the relationship between styles of strategy implementation, types of organizational culture and organizational performance in the metropolitan municipalities of Turkey. The methodology is suitable for several reasons. Firstly, the use of different conceptual and theoretical frameworks in mixed methods research is very common (Creswell, 2015). The current study mainly applies decision making theory, CVF and contingency theory. In this direction, a quantitative approach is appropriate in order to test theories and models in order to reach generalized conclusions. Secondly, if quantitative data collection and analysis are conducted first, qualitative data collection can then be performed (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011) and its results analysed against the quantitative findings. In this study, the quantitative data is used to analyse how different styles of strategy implementation and organizational culture influence organizational performance. While outcomes gathered from the quantitative investigation provide a generic picture of the research problem, the participants for the second stage of the investigation were chosen systematically. This means that qualitative data collection and analysis can be

undertaken to gain a deeper insight into relationships between specific types of implementation, culture types and organizational performance. The statistical results of the study, acquired from quantitative data analysis, are evaluated with the help of the participants' personal views gathered through the qualitative data collection and analysis.

4.3.2 The Positivist Stance in Mixed-Methods Methodology

There are different world views determining the epistemological and ontological positions of mixed methods research (Creswell, 2015). The single paradigm approach (also called the alternate paradigm stance) argues that quantitative and qualitative methodologies can fit under a single paradigm in a study (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In such a situation, a study either mainly uses quantitative methodology (based on a positivist world view), or applies a qualitative one (grounded in social constructionism). It is also possible to apply an a-paradigmatic perspective that does not consider paradigms at all, or a multiple paradigm approach that applies more than one paradigm.

Hall (2008) argues that the single paradigm approach is the most defensible one, as it enables researchers to mix different methodologies under the heading of a single paradigm. The current study applies this single paradigm approach by combining quantitative and qualitative methodologies under the positivist paradigm. Although positivism is more strongly associated with quantitative methodology, this does not mean that it rejects the application of qualitative methodology entirely. It is often used as a complementary viewpoint to elucidate issues that the quantitative analysis has failed to explain (Creswell, 2009). Since mixed-method methodology within positivism is now a well-recognised way of conducting research into management studies (Grafton et al., 2011; Jogulu and Pansiri, 2011), it can form an appropriate standpoint for this study.

4.4 Research Design

Research design comprises an overall framework or strategy intended to associate a research problem with related empirical research (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002). It represents a generic plan for the collection and analysis of data that allows research objectives to be achieved in an optimum way (Wilson, 2010).

Saunders et al. (2009) assert that there must be valid reasons for all research design decisions based on the research questions and objectives as well as remaining consistent with the research philosophy. The first issue concerning research design is to determine the nature of the relationship between theory and research. There are two main approaches to this: deductive and inductive.

The deductive approach demands the development of a conceptual and theoretical framework prior to its empirical evaluation through scrutiny (Gill and Johnson, 2002). The approach mainly involves developing hypotheses based on available theory before moving on to determine a research strategy to test the hypothesis (Bryman, 2004; Wilson, 2010). Deductive reasoning aims to approve or reject causal relationships between variables and the study should construct a detailed and structured methodology in order that it can be replicated in other contexts (Gill and Johnson, 2002). Lastly, this approach is based on scientific principles, which assert that the researcher should be independent of the research undertaken (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002; Saunders et al., 2009).

Inductive approaches, on the other hand, are more concerned with collecting data and developing a theory from the data analysed. In contrast to the deductive approach, theory is constructed throughout the research process (Gill and Johnson, 2002). This perspective may also be more applicable in situations where access to data is constrained or where there is insufficient previous knowledge in the research area (Saunders et al., 2009).

This study will follow a deductive approach, because there is enough evidence and theory in the related literature to develop and test research hypotheses.

Mixed methods studies begin by choosing a specific type of design and a reason to employ the direction that best fits the problem and the research questions involved

(Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Greene et al. (1989) propose five main types of mixed methods research design: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion. Triangulation studies aim to direct different methods onto a study in order to strengthen the results. Complementarity studies apply a second type of method in order to help elucidate, illustrate and elaborate the results that were collected using an initial methodological approach. In development studies, the first method is employed to assist and develop the formulation and direction of the second method. Initiation studies aim to explore something which is unknown, paradoxical or uses novel perspectives by reshaping questions or forming conclusions around a question. Lastly, expansion studies extend the scope and type of an investigation by applying a variety of methods to different elements of the investigation.

This study follows a complementarity approach which is applied firstly through survey-based quantitative methods, before conducting semi-structured qualitative interviews to clarify and elaborate the results of the initial analysis.

Another important aspect of mixed methods research design is determining the order and the priority of the methodologies. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) claim that there are two ways in terms of ordering the implementation of the methodologies: sequential and simultaneous. A sequential study design allows the researcher to perform methodologies one by one. In a simultaneous design, all methodologies used in the study are implemented concurrently. As far as the priority of implementing the methodologies is concerned, equal priority can be given to quantitative and qualitative approaches or it can be quantitative-dominant (QUAN, qual), or qualitative dominant (quan, QUAL) (Molina-Azorin, 2012). In order to delineate these design elements more fully, there are frameworks available to document the methodologies used in a mixed method design. Morse (1991) set out the most popular typology, whereby the dominant methodology is identified by capital letters (QUAN or QUAL) and that the complementary methodology is set in lowercase (quan or qual), depending upon the study design. In addition, while the plus '+' symbol indicates the methodologies adopted for the study are performed simultaneously, the arrow symbol '->'shows that the methodologies are implemented respectively.

In terms of mixed methods design classification, almost all scholars using mixed methods design follow a conceptual model (Greene et al., 1989; Morse, 1991; Morgan,

1998; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Morse and Niehaus, 2009). One of the models presented by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) identifies three basic research designs: convergent, explanatory sequential and exploratory sequential. The convergent design involves the separate collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. The intent here is to merge the results of analyses of both types of data. The explanatory sequential design aims to begin with a quantitative strand and then conduct a second qualitative strand to explain and expand upon the initial quantitative results. The exploratory design also sets out to explore a problem through qualitative data collection and analysis, then develops an instrument or an intervention and follows this with a third quantitative phase.[10]

Among the three main mixed methods research designs shown in Table 4.2, the current study employs a sequential explanatory research design. The main methodology—the numerical data collection and analysis—was performed first, and then qualitative data collection and analysis was undertaken subsequently in order to identify and illustrate the quantitative findings acquired during the first stage of the research. As this study attempts to test related theories and framework, it applies quantitative methodology to test and generalize the results. Once a generic view on the research problem has been presented through quantitative analysis, additional qualitative data collection and analysis was undertaken to refine quantitative findings by interviewing respondents who completed the questionnaire.

There are two ways of implementing research in terms of time orientation; these are longitudinal and cross sectional studies. Longitudinal studies collect data on at least more than one occasion (Bryman, 2012). Longitudinal research design is not often applied because of the time scale and cost involved. Cross sectional studies involve a specified sample of the population measured at a given point of time (Bryman, 2012). The present study used a cross sectional design because it presented a snapshot of variables that were collected simultaneously. The data in cross sectional studies is chosen to be representative of a known population (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002;

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[10] As well as the basic research designs indicated above, there are three advanced types of research designs proposed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2015). Intervention design intends to study a problem by conducting an experiment or an intervention trial and adding qualitative data into it. Social justice design is studies a problem within an overall social justice problem. The researcher adds to the basic design by threading this framework throughout the mixed methods study. Multi-stage evaluation design conducts a study over time that evaluates the success of a program or activities implemented into a setting.

Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011) and its collection is cost effective and less time-consuming (Levin, 2006). Furthermore, cross sectional studies provide room to test the hypothesised relationship between variables on a specific subject. Lastly, cross sectional research has been the most frequently applied research design in public organizations, thereby increasing the generalizability of the findings (Bryman, 2012).

Table 4. 2: Mixed-Methods Research Design (Sources Morse, 1991; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011)

	Convergent Design	Explanatory Design	Exploratory Design
Notation	QUAN + QUAL	QUAN → qual	QUAL → quan
Description	Collecting both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time, analysing them separately and bringing both results together	Quantitative data collection and analysis first, then subsequent qualitative data collection and analysis	Qualitative data collection and analysis firstly then subsequent quantitative data collection and analysis
Rationale	To develop a clearer grasp of a topic	To elucidate and interpret initial quantitative results	To test and generalize initial qualitative results
Priority of strands	Equal emphasis	Quantitative dominant	Qualitative dominant
Timing of the strands	Concurrent	Sequential: quantitative primarily	Sequential: qualitative primarily
Common variants	Parallel databases Data transformation and validation	Follow-up explanations Participation selection	Theory and instrument development

4.5 Research Context: Turkish Metropolitan Municipalities

Data for this study were drawn from an email survey of managers in Turkish local government. This study specifically focused on metropolitan municipalities, which represent the largest locally elected bodies in Turkey. They operate in territorially bounded geographical areas, receive just over half of their income (52.2%) from Turkish central government and generate the remainder (48.8%) from their own revenues. Metropolitan municipalities are publicly elected entities established in thirty Turkish provinces, each with a population of over 750,000. These metropolitan municipalities have considerable administrative and financial autonomy and are multi-purpose governments that deliver local public services in the areas of public health, policing, fire protection, leisure, culture, transport, waste management, town planning and community safety development.

To investigate the relationship between strategy implementation and the performance and culture of Turkish metropolitan municipalities, a questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews were designed to capture the views of municipal managers on relevant concepts within their organizations.

4.6 Data Collection Methods

As a mixed methods research study, this research makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection methodologies, and also collects control variables data. The justification for applying these methods and the processes followed throughout the data collection will be examined below.

4.6.1 Quantitative Data Collection Method

4.6.1.1 Survey

Quantitative methods in the social sciences principally deal with measurements and quantifiable data gathered social aspects of society. There are four types of data collection methods: Questionnaires (self-administrated), structured interviews, structured observation and content analysis of documents (Blaikie, 2010). The most commonly applied quantitative data collection method used in the social sciences is the questionnaire survey. There are advantages to using survey methods in research. One is that it facilitates the examination of relationships between variables in order to

understand conceptual linkages (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Following this line of enquiry, surveys are prepared in a structured way which allows them to be replicated in other contexts to acquire comparable results (Saunders et al., 2015). The method is inexpensive and allows researchers to collect a large amount of unique data (Denscombe, 2010). Surveys also enable the quantification of participants' attitudes and an analysis of their perceptions of social and organizational issues (Baruch and Holtom, 2008). Finally, questionnaires can be prepared so that participants can respond to them without help or interference from the researchers (Blaikie, 2010), which in turn helps to preserve the objectivity of the study (Saunders et al., 2015).

Questionnaire survey was considered to be the most suitable method of quantitative data collection for the objectives of the current research, which investigates different causal associations in a societal context. An inferential survey method, designed with the purpose of identifying relationships between the variables, was used in this study. A web-based survey method—now the most convenient type of data collection available—was applied, directing each potential respondent to a webpage where the survey appears, and collecting all the data into an online database, making statistical analysis easier (Easterby-Smith, 2008).

4.6.1.2 The Process of Questionnaire Development

The current study adopts the questionnaire development procedure proposed by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002):

STEP 1 • Specify the Information Needed

STEP 2 • Specify the Type of Questionnaire and administration method

STEP 3 • Determine Content of Individual Questions

STEP 4 • Determine the Question Structure

STEP 5 • Determine Wording of Each Question

STEP 6 • Arranging items in Proper Order

STEP 7 • Determine Form and Layout of Questionnaire

STEP 8 • Reproduce the Questionnaire

STEP 9 • Eliminate Bugs by Pre-testing

Figure 4.1: Questionnaire Development Process (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002)

Step 1) Specify what information will be sought

The initial phase of the questionnaire development process involves identifying the information which needs to be acquired. This process is performed by considering the hypothesised relationships among the concepts examined. The demographic questions in the survey are also prepared to find out how staff answer the questions according to their demographic profiles.

Step 2) Determine type of questionnaire and method of administration

The first version of the survey used was a sample questionnaire sent to four managers from a metropolitan municipality to acquire generic comments on the questions. After suggestions were taken from the managers, the final version of the survey was produced. The questionnaire covered 57 questions divided into 4 sections (strategy implementation, culture, organizational performance and personal details). Responses to all the items, except personal details questions, were arranged on a seven-point Likert scale. The survey takes approximately 10 minutes to fill in.

Step 3) Determine contents of individual items

This step helps to determine what to include in individual questions in order to contribute to the information needed or to serve other specific purposes. Researchers must keep in mind that every question should be necessary and should be presented in an unambiguous manner.

All items constructed to explain the main variables in this study were previously validated in the sample research. Three groups of items (strategy implementation, organizational culture and organizational performance) defined the research variables and formed the structure of the survey. All groups of main items corresponding to the measurement scale are explained;

Strategy Implementation refers to "the process by which strategies and policies are put into action through the development of programs, budgets and procedures" (Wheelan and Hunger, 2002, p. 15). Strategy implementation was measured by applying the questions constructed by Andrews et al. (2011). All the items below were measured by applying a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION (SI)

SI1)	When implementing strategies we have clearly defined tasks.
SI2)	We have weekly – monthly plans to implement strategies.
SI3)	We have precise procedures for achieving strategic objectives.
SI4)	When implementing strategies we regularly review progress against targets.
SI5)	We implement strategies by piloting them initially and then implementing them in full.

SI6)	During the implementation process, we amend our strategies if necessary.
SI7)	To keep in line with our environment during the implementation process, we make continual small scale changes to strategy.
SI8)	New strategies are introduced in a very similar way to those that have already been implemented.
SI9)	Our strategy develops through a process of ongoing adjustment while implementing.

Organizational culture refers to "a pattern of the deeper level of basic assumptions, values and artefacts that are shared by members of an organization that describes, in a taken for granted way, an organization's view of internal integration and environmental adaptation" (Schein, 1985, p. 35). According to Jung et al.'s (2009) systematic review of instruments used to measure organizational culture, there are more than 70 instruments and approaches identified for investigating and assessing organizational culture both in public and the private sector literature (see Appendix C). Since the applications of the instruments are as confusing as the concept itself, Jung et al. (2009) proposed two criteria to determine an appropriate research instrument; the first criterion is the purpose of assessment, and the second one is the expected results which will be obtained end of the research. The purpose of assessing organizational culture in the current study is to address its relationship with performance measures and to understand how different types of culture interact with different strategy implementation styles in influencing performance. Therefore, the CVF, comprising four different types of culture (hierarchy, market, clan and adhocracy), was chosen because of its comprehensive formulation, which can easily match other concepts of the study, such as strategy implementation (rational and incremental) and performance (quality, quantity, citizen satisfaction and innovation). Accordingly, building a solid construct within the study variables will enable the research to achieve the expected result. Considering these factors, the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI), constructed on the basis of the CVF by Cameron and Quinn (1999), was found to be the most suitable instrument for capturing the cultural concepts dealt with in this study. The OCAI is mainly formed using 24 different items which can help assess four different types of organizational culture under six assessment criteria;

1. Dominant Characteristics

2. Organizational Leadership

3. Management of Employees

4. Organizational Glue

5. Strategic emphases

6. Criteria of success

The cultural assessment criteria above are considered to be directly and indirectly interconnected with strategy and performance concepts, and also act as a useful tool to integrate them. Moreover, as the hypotheses developed for organizational culture in the current study show a perfect consistency with the elements of the OCAI, they are expected to generate consistent results. In addition, as Jung et al. (2009) suggest, the original items of the OCAI were modified with regard to the contextual elements of the case this study explores, i.e. Turkish local government.

The OCAI was originally prepared to divide 100 points over a total of four descriptions in each different sets of items. Various studies have employed the seven point Likert scale method in the same way it is used in the current (Kalliath et al., 1999; Helfrich et al., 2007). Diefenbach et al. (1993) also consider that a seven point Likert scale is the best way of estimating the beliefs, attitudes, values and related attributes in reference to the concept of organizational culture. Therefore, all the items below were measured using a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (OC)

OC1)	My department is a very personal place. It is like an extended family.
OC2)	My department is dynamic and entrepreneurial. People are willing to take risks.
OC3)	My department is results oriented. People are competitive and achievement focused.
OC4)	My department is a place that has top-down control and strong hierarchy. Rules generally govern what people do.
OC5)	The leadership in my department is mentoring, facilitating and nurturing".
OC6)	The leadership in my department is entrepreneurial, innovative, and risk taking.
OC7)	The leadership in my department is no-nonsense, aggressive, and results-oriented.
OC8)	The leadership in my department is coordinating and organizing.

OC9)	The management style in my department is based upon teamwork, consensus, and participation.
OC10)	The management style in my department is based upon individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.
OC11)	The management style in my department is based upon competitiveness and high demands.
OC12)	The management style in my department is based upon security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.
OC13)	The values that hold my department together are loyalty and mutual trust.
OC14)	The values that hold my department together are commitment to innovation and development.
OC15)	The values that hold my department together are the emphases on competitive achievement and goal accomplishment.
OC16)	The values that hold my department together are formal rules and policies.
OC17)	My department emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation are targeted.
OC18)	My department emphasizes increasing revenue sources, acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.
OC19)	My department emphasizes results. Achieving challenging targets and being the best among the municipalities are dominant.
OC20)	My department emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.
OC21)	My department defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.
OC22)	My department defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest services.
OC23)	My department defines success on the basis of outpacing the competition.
OC24)	My department defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.

Organizational performance, in this study, refers to "managers' perceptions of criteria of organizational effectiveness" (Walton and Dawson, 2001). There are many studies in the literature measuring organizational performance from the managerial viewpoint of effectiveness (Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Gerowitz, 1998; Moynihan

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and Pandey, 2004). Regarding the measurement criteria for performance, Andrews et al. (2010) suggest using "a set of measures" to explain organizational performance since "it is impossible for any single measure to meet all of the relevant criteria" (p. 4). The current study uses quality, quantity, citizen satisfaction and innovation as performance measures because they fit well with strategic implementation styles and culture types that are applicable in the context of Turkish local government. Organizational performance variables in the current study were adopted from Andrews et al. (2011). All the items below were measured by applying a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7):

ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE (OP)

OP1)	Quality of output (e.g. reliability of service delivery).
OP2)	Quantity of output (e.g. volume of service delivery).
OP3)	Citizen satisfaction
OP4)	Innovation.

Step 4) Determine the Question Structure

There are two types of survey questions; open-ended and closed. Open-ended questions do not force respondents to answer from among a predetermined set of responses. On the other hand, a closed question means an answer must be selected from a number of choices given (Wilson, 2010). In this study, the vast majority of the questions are closed, although a few open-ended questions formed part of the demographic profile section.

This study gains the benefit of both sort of questions: Bryman and Bell (2011) claim that open-ended questions can reveal answers which the researcher might not be able to obtain. Therefore, this study used open-ended question type to obtain views on the municipalities and departments where the respondents worked. In contrast, closed questions are easier to answer, analyse and code, and also show the relationship between variables more straightforwardly (Morrow et al., 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2011). Since the current study deals with associations between the variables, it is thought that closed questions are better suited to the nature of this research. Although

closed questions are sometimes criticized because they force respondents to answer questions with which they may not agree, this study tries to eliminate this potential disadvantage by offering respondents the choice to leave the question blank.

A seven point Likert scale was used in the closed questions in order to offer respondents a wide range of answers. The items investigating the demographic profile of the respondents were also obtained through multiple choice and open-ended questions.

Step 5) Determine Wording of Each Question

Bryman and Bell (2011) indicate that there are general and specific rules that need to be followed in order to paraphrase questions in a proper way. As a general rule, the researcher should bear in mind that each question should be relevant to the research questions of the study. The questions of current study were prepared with this in mind.

Bryman and Bell (2011) also indicate that researchers need to follow certain principles when designing the wording of the questions. In this direction, ambiguous terms in questions were excluded from the survey in this study. Also, double-barrelled questions (asking about two different things in the same question) were avoided, so that respondents could not be unsure about the best answer. Moreover, leading questions were also not used (Easterby Smith et al., 2008). In addition, very general questions were not included in the study to make sure that the questions were all precise and to the point. Finally, the questions containing negatives were avoided in the current research.

Step 6) Arranging items in Proper Order

Presenting items in a proper order is one of the essential steps when designing a questionnaire (Wilson and Mclean, 2011). Sequencing questions in a complicated way may result in biased responses and may have an adverse effect on the response rate (Rea and Parker, 2005).

There are other rules which the current study must consider when designing the questionnaire. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) suggest that the questions at the beginning of the survey should be easy to answer and simple to understand in order to get the respondents started, build their confidence and make sure they do not abandon

the process. Questions which are related to similar concepts should be under the same section and arranged logically (Wilson and Mclean, 2011). Finally, more sensitive questions in the survey should be placed towards the end so as not to deter respondents from answering them (Synodinos, 2003; Wilson and Mclean, 2011). This study begins with a section comprising ten fairly simple questions, and presents similar questions grouped under different headings in the same pattern. The questions relating to the demographic profile of the respondents were asked at the end since they are more personal and potentially sensitive.

Step 7) Determine the Form and Layout of the Questionnaire

The layout and the appearance of a questionnaire is essential to attract the respondent's interest and involvement in the survey, whilst at the same time making it easy to understand (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002). The questionnaire used in the current study was an online survey prepared in Qualtrics software, using features to design the questionnaire in a professional way. More specifically, the survey was divided into sections; each of which was presented in an easily identifiable way. Each question was numbered to guide the respondents throughout the survey. Considering that the length of the questionnaire is important as a physical characteristic, the current study kept the questions short and as simply worded as possible. A covering letter was attached at the beginning of the questionnaire explaining the nature of the study and the purpose of the research, along with the contact details of the researcher and statements regarding the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants.

Step 8) Refine the Questionnaire

Refining the questionnaire is a fundamental step in the questionnaire development process (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002). After completing all the steps above, the researcher re-examined the entire questionnaire in order to ensure there was no step missing. The final revision also ensured that the questionnaire was ready to distribute.

Step 9) Eliminate Bugs by Pre-testing

Pilot studies are useful in helping to sharpen focus on the area of interest and to fine-tune initial ideas about conceptualising the implementation processes and analysing the outcomes. The pilot study method also serves as a preliminary test for a

questionnaire, and is designed to reduce response errors by clearing up ambiguities and keeping questions precise.

A pilot study previews the methodology used in order to test the types of questions asked and to affirm the research design. In this case, the pilot study was specifically designed to examine three aspects: the relevance of the questions to the organisation and its principal industry, whether the respondents might have any difficulty in understanding the meanings of the questions and if those questions could be made clearer by rephrasing them.

A pilot version of the survey was sent to four managers from metropolitan municipalities to pre-test it. Based on the responses to the pilot process, a revised and amended version of the survey was created. Since the survey was conducted in a non-English speaking context, the questionnaire was first translated from English into Turkish, since the majority of potential respondents were unlikely to be fluent in English. Thereafter, as per Brislin's (1970) recommendations for cross-cultural research, the Turkish version of the questionnaire was back-translated into English and the two versions were compared for equivalency in meaning. Following this, further amendments were made to the Turkish questionnaire to address important discrepancies between the original English version and the back-translation of English version.

Respondents in the pilot study—individuals representative of the population to whom the questionnaire is addressed—were asked to complete the questionnaire and then give feedback to the researchers. After completing the questionnaire, they were asked if they had experienced any problems with the meanings of the questions or if anything was confusing or difficult to understand. Based on their feedback, changes were made to the questionnaire to make it easier to understand.

The output of the pilot questionnaire and interviews with the respondents can be summarised under two headings:

Modifying the questionnaire

In the pilot survey, the respondents were given the opportunity to offer suggestions for improving the questionnaire further. Three responses were received, one of which provided suggestions for modifying the questionnaire. The pilot interview schedule

helped the researcher test and reshape the survey questions in order to avoid using theoretical terms (such as policy cycle, formal procedures etc.) or jargon with which most of the interviewees would be unfamiliar. One interviewee suggested the researcher change the focus of the questions to more relevant areas in the field of local government in order to increase the understanding of managers. More sensitive documents which are not available to the public were also offered to the researcher in the course of the pilot study to help understand the research setting better. The information from archival records and documentation provided useful prior input, helping the researcher understand the current situation and prepare the survey questions accordingly. Based on the responses received from the managers in the pilot study, a number of changes were made to the questionnaire.

Format, language and ethics

The respondents were asked whether the questions were easy to read and understand, and if there were any formal or linguistic problems which might have prevented full comprehension. None of the interviewees raised any concerns about the formatting of the questionnaire, the sequence and scaling of the questions or the duration of the survey, and no problems were expressed regarding the ethical side of the survey.

In summary, the pilot study was a very useful tool for spotting drawbacks and establishing the strength of the study in its early stages. Piloting the questions also enhanced the validity and relevance of the data collected during the later stages of the research, according to the pilot interview feedback. The pilot study gave the researcher different insights into understanding how the context of the study might affect the conception and implementation of the terms. The interviewees also suggested that the researcher simplified the language of the survey to make the questions clearer to all target respondents. Other than these suggestions, the interviewees informed the researcher that they had experience little difficulty in reading the questions and that they had no problems associated with the formal features of the survey.

4.7 Qualitative Data Collection Method

As mentioned before, this study followed up the questionnaire survey with semi-structured interviews to gain a more comprehensive and clearer understanding of the issues being examined. In accordance with sequential research design, the qualitative

data were collected after the quantitative data had been collected and processed in order to interpret the survey results from a deeper perspective.

4.7.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

The semi-structured interview is the most commonly applied interviewing method. It facilitates a more focused conversation between the researcher and interviewee. The researcher has a set of questions to pose and themes related to the subject to discuss, but mostly the interview process follows the flow of conversation rather than the exact outline of the interview guide (Bryman, 2004). Also, additional questions can arise during the course of the interview which can help further investigate of the issues discussed (Saunders et al., 2009). This type of interview enables a more flexible approach to analysing the collected data than structured interviews, which use a predetermined, standardised set of questions that are expected to be asked in the pre-established format (Creswell, 2013).

It is normally expected that interviewers will try to gather information that reflects the themes determined in the interview guide so as to obtain consistent analysable data (Saunders et al., 2009). The questions in the semi-structured interview are open-ended, and the interviewer refers to specific types of issues and expects the answers in the same line. However, the direction of the interviews are shaped by to the responses of the participants (Gillham, 2000). Bryman and Bell (2011) argue that giving the interviewees more freedom about subject matter can uncover other relevant issues. It also provides a high degree of validity through the elaborative and in-depth data gathered during the interview process (Creswell, 2013).

The rationale behind employing the semi-structured interview method for the current research can be explained in terms of specific points. Research questions have already been prepared for the quantitative data collection process of the current study. Applying semi-structured interviews as a complementary method is a good approach because this method "allows for in-depth probing while permitting the interviewer to keep the interview within the parameters traced out by the aim of the study" (Berg, 2007, p. 39). The results gathered from the quantitative data analysis also generated further questions which helped shape the contents of the questionnaire. This meant that the research questions of the questionnaire and the implications that came from

the survey results helped cover all relevant areas during the course of the semi-structured interviews. The open-ended questions in semi-structured interview also allowed the interviewees to voice their ideas as well as decreasing the interviewer's influence (Creswell, 2013). For these reasons, semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to gain more insights about the study area. In terms of this study, this was considered a valuable and appropriate supporting methodology.

4.7.2 Data Collection Procedures

Sixteen in-depth interviews were performed in Turkish metropolitan municipalities with senior level managers. A purposive sampling method was applied. The aim of purposive sampling is to sample interviewees strategically so that the participants chosen are directly linked with the questions of the study which are asked (Bryman, 2012). Hence, the participants were selected as the four respondents who gave the highest scores for each of the four types of relationship between implementation style, culture and performance as specified in hypotheses 3a to 3d. If the person who gave the highest score was not willing to take the interview, then person with the next-highest overall score was interviewed. Thirteen interviews were conducted face to face in the municipalities, while the remaining three were conducted by telephone because of the location of the municipalities. The interviews took on average 40 minutes each. The interviewees were contacted by email and phone, and prior the interviews the participants were informed about the objectives of the research, the structure of the interviews, their contributions to the study as well as their rights as participants. The interview questions were prepared beforehand and presented to the participants along with the consent form required for the interviews (see Appendix B). All interviews were conducted and transcribed in Turkish, and selected sections were translated into English to check the reliability of the content.

4.8 Sampling Design

Sampling means collecting data from a chosen cohort which represents a larger population with the aim of getting information for that targeted population as a whole. There are two main reasons for sampling: One is the cost and complexity of including the entire population in the research and the other is the limited timescale of the

research (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002). Both are the valid reasons in terms of the current research.

A five-step procedure proposed by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) for selecting a sample was applied to develop a relevant sample for the current study. The sequential flow of these steps is presented in Figure 4.2. Each step to form a sample is explained more extensively below.
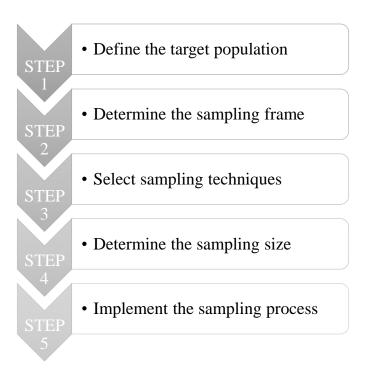
Figure 4.2: The Sampling Design Procedure (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002)

4.8.1 Target Population

As the research focuses on Turkish local government organizations, the best choice for the target groups was managers working in metropolitan municipalities. There are a number of reasons for this. Firstly, at the local level, strategic management plans and performance programmes were introduced by metropolitan municipalities before other local government organizations such as district municipalities or special provincial administrations (Ozden, 2016). The researcher therefore believed that the data gathered from the metropolitan municipalities would be more systematic and the personnel in the organizations would be more experienced in understanding and applying strategic management concepts than those in other local government

organizations. Secondly, the implementation of strategic plans and performance programmes is part of the duties of senior and middle management in Turkey's metropolitan municipalities. The mayor and general secretary of each municipality are effective in strategy making, whilst the deputy general secretaries, department heads and unit heads are responsible for strategic implementation. Managers at these three levels of management were chosen for this study. Civil servants holding positions at the lower end of the scale are excluded from the study because they may not be competent in or have experience of implementation issues in their organizations.

4.8.2 Sampling Frame

To ensure the perceptions of performance and strategy implementation of managers at different levels in the organization were captured, the survey was distributed to deputy general secretaries, department heads and unit heads. Deputy general secretaries have various responsibilities in all divisions for service management, delivery and improvement on behalf of the municipal mayor and the general secretary. Department heads are senior managers with responsibility for the delivery and management of principal services (such as the Department Head of Waste Management, Department Head of Finance). Unit heads are front-line supervisory managers focused on management and the process of delivery within specific service areas, such as Unit Head of Planning or Culture and Art.

Questionnaires were sent to all deputy general secretaries, department heads and unit heads in each metropolitan municipality, across a range of core service areas including culture, corporate, back office, distributive, fire, health, finance, police, protection, planning, transport and waste.

4.8.3 Sampling Technique

There are two types of sampling techniques, probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is a sampling method which uses random selection on the condition that distinct target populations have an equal chance of being selected. Although this type of selection is free from bias and offers better-quality samples, in practice it is not always feasible due to limited time, resources and restricted access to participants (Creswell, 2009). As the current study examined 30 metropolitan municipalities (Ankara, Antalya, Balikesir, Bursa, Diyarbakir, Erzurum, Hatay,

Istanbul, Izmir, K.Maras, Kayseri, Kocaeli, Konya, Malatya, Manisa, Mersin, Ordu, Sakarya, Tekirdag, Van, Adana, Aydin, Denizli, Eskisehir, Gaziantep, Mardin, Mugla, Samsun, Sanliurfa and Trabzon), located in seven different regions of Turkey, collecting data from the managers in these diverse areas was a challenging process. Meanwhile, Turkish public sector managers are not familiar with the electronic survey method, and it was difficult to access the public institutions because of their bureaucratic and conservative nature. For all these reasons, the main data collection used a convenience sampling approach.

According to Etikan et al. (2016), the convenience sampling method (also called Haphazard Sampling or Accidental Sampling) is a form of non-probability sampling in which the population targeted is chosen because of "easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study" (Etikan et al., 2016, p. 2). The convenience sampling method mainly aims at selecting participants who are most easily accessible to the researcher. Bryman (2012) suggests that convenience samples are frequently applied in social science studies because they save time, effort and money. Since the research was only based on higher level managers in 30 metropolitan municipalities in the different regions of Turkey, convenience sampling techniques were considered appropriate to use in the quantitative data collection.

Complementary qualitative data collection offered the researcher an opportunity to select the targeted respondents among the survey participants, as limited number of people were selected for interview. Purposive sampling, as a non-probability sampling technique, was applied to choose a target population for qualitative data collection. Purposive sampling, also known as judgement sampling, is a form of selection based on the characteristics of the participants, evaluated by considering their willingness to offer information in relation to their knowledge or experience, and what knowledge is due to be gathered. It is widely applied in qualitative research to determine the participants who can provide extensive knowledge regarding the area of interest (Palinkas et al., 2015; Etikan et al., 2016). Therefore, interview participants were selected purposively from among the respondents of the survey to gain deeper understanding of the existing situation.

4.8.4 Sample Size

The sample size for a survey has to be big enough to enable the researchers to identify statistically significant and meaningful results (Lenth, 2001). Cohen et al. (2013) recommend that researchers determine the optimum sampling size for their survey given limited costs and time, from four factors: significance level, effect size, desired power and estimated variance. The significance level for the statistical model of this study is 0.1, which indicates that any effect that is identified is 90% unlikely to have occurred by chance and A medium level effect size is anticipated, being an effect that is "visible to the naked eye of a careful observer" (Cohen, 1992, p.156). In statistical terms, a medium effect size to test the significance of the correlation coefficient is r = 0.30 and d = 0.5 as far as the difference between means is concerned. In terms of desired statistical power, Cohen et al. (2013) propose fixing the numeric value at 0.80, the recommended value for statistical analysis. Lastly, there are three independent variables of this study: strategy implementation, organizational culture and moderator variables, which will be used in regression models of organizational performance. Based on Cohen et al.'s (2013) statistical power tables, the minimum sample size for this study is therefore determined to be 96.

Also, Elbanna et al. (2015) empirical research on strategy implementation success in the public sector organizations determined response rate as 12 percent. Considering that the questionnaire is going to be sent to 840 people in total, it is very likely that the minimum numbers above will be reached.

In terms of qualitative studies, no particular number is needed to designate an appropriate sample size (Patton, 1990). Nevertheless, Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest the idea of saturation for obtaining an adequate sample size in qualitative research. Morse (1991), in her study based on qualitative and quantitative triangulation, recommended that "the quality of data, the scope of the study, the nature of the topic, the amount of useful information obtained from each participant, the number of interviews per participant, the use of shadowed data, and the qualitative method and study design used" (p. 3) are important determinants in choosing a suitable sample size. As qualitative sample size depends entirely on the subject investigated, it should be focused more on acquiring new and additional information of interest and less on actual sample size. In this study the qualitative analysis, as a further empirical

investigation of the research following the quantitative analysis, drew further information via 16 semi-structured interviews.

4.8.5 Implement the Sampling Process

Email addresses for the entire population of the first three tiers of metropolitan municipalities managers were drawn from municipalities' websites, and Qualtrics survey software was used to send the survey to the respondents. Three weeks after the first emails had been sent to 840 managers, the survey was mailed a further six in an attempt to elicit more responses. Some managers selected the opt out option to prevent any further emails, and they were removed from the sample. A further 21 questionnaires were undelivered. The total number of potential informants was 840 from 30 metropolitan municipalities, and the number of actual respondents was 157 (18.6%), of which 134 (15.9%) were complete in terms of the data necessary for this study. Responses covered 20 metropolitan municipalities in different regions, and the actual responses included 6 deputy general secretaries, 28 department heads and 99 unit heads. The 30 metropolitan municipalities (20 municipalities included in the study and 10 other municipalities not included) are shown in Figure 4.3.

As far as the interview sampling procedure was concerned, 16 interviewees whose responses strongly supported each of the possible four moderation relationships among the variables found via the quantitative analysis were chosen from among the questionnaire respondents. These participants were contacted via email to ask whether they were willing to partake in a further interview, having completed the survey. Interviews were conducted face to face (13) or by telephone (3). The interviewees included department managers (10) and unit heads (6) in five different municipalities.
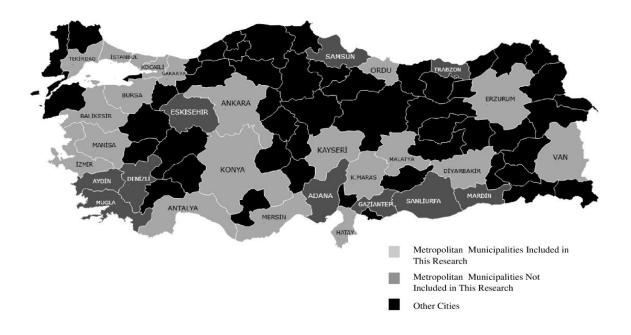
Figure 4.3: Map of Turkey showing the metropolitan municipalities included and not included in the study

4.9 Selection of Control Variables

There are a number of control variables commonly used in public management studies that seek to examine the determinants of local government performance. The current study selected safety departments, distributive departments and regulatory departments, along with data relating to the expenditure of each municipality, its population size, density and the poverty rate of the cities investigated and the number of districts covered by each municipal area.

Firstly, each of the different departments were classified according to whether they were safety, regulatory or distributive in their orientation. This is done because the respondents from corporate departments—departments within the organizations such as back office, finance, and research and development—may be inclined to give more

positive answers to the questions. In order to avoid the potential bias, safety, regulatory and distributive departments were chosen as controls within the dataset.

Municipal expenditure is seen as deeply embedded within organizational performance (Clark et al., 1982; Andrews and Boyne, 2009; Holcombe and Williams, 2009; Andrews and Boyne, 2011). Boyne (1998) discusses the concept of expenditure as the first dimension of performance, by claiming that exceeding spending levels can result in a lower performance in public organizations. Many studies have also investigated the impact of population size and density (mostly together) on measurements of organizational performance (Andrews and Boyne, 2009; Holcombe and Williams, 2009; Andrews and Boyne, 2011). Andrews et al. (2006) examined whether population size affects the performance of English local authorities and found that it had a significant effect on almost 40% of the measurements of local authority performance.

The related literature also argues that the number of municipal districts is an important variable to explain organizational performance. In this respect, Public Choice Theory—which sets out the concept of fragmentation in local government—is frequently applied to explain the relationship between the two. Fragmentation is described as the number of governmental units in a specific territory, which is typically determined by geographic area or population. A fragmented local government system is defined as one in which a large number of local government sectors coexist (Goodman, 2015). Such systems aim to enhance the operations of local services by claiming that when local government gets closer, citizens will obtain more efficient services and products that better match with their needs (Bartolini, 2015), especially in terms of municipal government (Tiebout and Chinitz, 1965).

Finally, poverty rate is also an important variable when predicting performance related models. Andrews et al. (2006) argue that particularly difficult circumstances such as poverty can determine the success or failure of public sector organizations. Bhorat et al. (2012) also discussed the poverty line in municipal areas, concluding that local government organizations, especially municipalities, often face financial difficulties when providing free basic services to local households. Poverty rates should be considered as an important element for organizational performance, because, financially disadvantaged local citizens are not able to reach the services that local

government organizations provide. Williams (2003) also claims that wealthy local people can create co-production by supporting local government organizations, which will in turn enable the smooth running of local government organizations.

The models in this study are tested using robust standard errors, and are clustered by municipality to take into consideration unobserved heterogeneity across all municipalities.

4.10 Managing Common Method Bias

Common method bias (CMB) occurs when variances in responses are caused not by the constructs being measured, but by the measurement method or instrument itself (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is seen as one of the major obstacles to research validity because it has adverse effects on the relationships between variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012). There are ways to deal with common method bias before or after the study, including constructing a well-designed study and evaluating relevant statistical controls.

One of the precautions regarding study design is identifying common characteristics of the independent and dependent variables in order to minimise them. Collecting the responses from more than one source can help to eliminate CMB (Favero and Bullock, 2014). However, this remedy cannot be used in this study, as the data were all collected from senior level managers from metropolitan municipalities. Objective performance measures could not be used for this research since such indicators were only available up to 2013, and therefore predated the survey. Another necessary precaution is making sure there are psychological separations between the measurements to remind respondents that different sections of a questionnaire may not be interconnected (Podsakoff et al., 2012). In this direction, the current study compartmentalised each set of questions into separate sections (Strategy implementation, culture, organizational performance and personal information), and gave separate heading names to each section. Furthermore, the questionnaire was adopted from previous studies, and their suitability to this specific research context were checked by the pilot study in order to eradicate any ambiguities. Lastly, guaranteeing respondents' anonymity and letting them know that there are no right or wrong answers can increase the possibility of gathering unbiased data.

As far as the statistical analysis of CMB is concerned, Harman's one-factor test was carried out, and the results suggested that CMB might be a problem within the dataset—such as the fact that a single factor explains just over 50% of the variance in the data (see Table 4.4). However, there are reasons to suggest that any potential losses in statistical robustness that this implies may not be fatal. Firstly, Harman's test is only marginally rejected, and some researchers (Fuller et al., 2015) suggest that acceptable values of explained variance may be even higher than 50%. Secondly, several of the hypotheses were tested through the analysis of complex interaction effects, which are difficult for survey respondents to predict in advance (Chang et al., 2010). Thirdly, the quantitative analysis is triangulated with qualitative research that examines the same relationships. Fourthly, comparative researchers highlight that statistical robustness may be traded off against convenience in under-studied national settings, where it may be difficult to obtain data from more than one source, as is the case in the current study (Chang et al., 2010).

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.507	50.020	50.020	18.507	50.020	50.020
2	2.532	6.843	56.863			
3	1.878	5.076	61.940			
4	1.633	4.415	66.354			
5	1.460	3.945	70.299			
6	1.226	3.314	73.613			
7	.992	2.682	76.295			
8	.896	2.422	78.716			
9	.825	2.229	80.945			
10	.720	1.945	82.890			
11	.663	1.792	84.682			
12	.564	1.525	86.206			
13	.479	1.294	87.500			
14	.466	1.260	88.760			
15	.424	1.146	89.906			
16	.361	.976	90.882			
17	.347	.938	91.820			
18	.316	.854	92.674			
19	.303	.819	93.494			
20	.283	.765	94.259			
21	.230	.621	94.879			
22	.220	.593	95.472			
23	.199	.539	96.011			
24	.188	.508	96.519			
25	.170	.461	96.980			
26	.157	.424	97.404			
27	.133	.359	97.763			
28	.123	.332	98.095			
29	.112	.303	98.398			
30	.101	.273	98.671			
31	.098	.265	98.936			
32	.090	.243	99.179			
33	.077	.209	99.388			
34	.070	.188	99.576			
35	.064	.174	99.750			
36	.051	.139	99.888			
37	.041	.112	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 4.4: Harman's Test for Common Method Bias

4.11 Methods of Quantitative Data Analysis

The analytic framework of the current study investigates the relationship between one or more independent and dependent variables. Multiple regression analysis was therefore applied in order to predict the relationships between given values of the multiple estimated variables (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002). Control variables were also included in the regression analysis to ensure that sufficient potential influences on the relationships under consideration were accounted for in the analysis. In addition, the design of the study required that multiplicative variables were added to the regression analysis to assess the combined effects of strategy implementation style and organizational culture on performance. Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) was therefore employed to tests hypotheses 3a to 3d. All statistical analyses were undertaken using SPSS 23.0, Stata 22 and Excel.

The relationships between the variables included in the regression analysis were all evaluated using a statistical significance level of at least $p. \leq 0.10$. Although Fisher (1950) considered that a significance level or 0.05 was optimal in his early research, Noymer (2008) suggests that confidence levels of 0.10 may be appropriate for research in new settings, such as is the case here, even though this offers comparatively weak evidence that the null hypothesis should be rejected (Ross, 2005).

4.12 Methods of Qualitative Data Analysis

The current study employed the thematic analysis method, a method which is commonly applied in qualitative data analysis (Bryman, 2012; Guest et al., 2012). Since the research had a construct prepared for quantitative data analysis, a thematic analysis method based on determining and investigating specific patterns was well-suited to the research.

Miles and Huberman (1994) proposed that a process could be realized through data reduction, data display and conclusion/verification. In the data reduction phase, the relevant data were selected from transcribed interviews in order to classify similar patterns together under a single heading. In this way, a great deal of the transcribed data were reduced and categorised into themes associated with the research questions of the study. Data display was also the process that helped visualize the data through

coding so that content analysis could be performed. Finally, the conclusion and verification stages allowed the demonstration and explanation of the final findings. While the conclusion showed results relating to the meanings and patterns in the data, the verification helped explain these results in relation to the findings of the quantitative data analysis.

4.13 Ethical Considerations

Social science research should be designed considering a common set of ethical principles to avoid any potential ethical issues arising. The main reason why ethics is important in research is human participation. Also, the epistemological and philosophical aspects of the research as well as social, cultural, political and other related contextual factors of the settings are crucial aspects of research ethics (Lahman, 2017). Having participants' consent by explaining all the procedures, preserving anonymity & confidentiality are particularly important determinants to be taken into consideration.

This study obtained ethical approval for the pilot study, the main survey and the interview process by following the Cardiff Business School (CARBS) ethical guidelines. With the help of the pilot study, the survey questions initially were modified taking account of the specific parameters of Turkey. Thereafter, the online questionnaire and interview requests were sent to the participants along with the invitation email and the attached consent form. Participation in this study was entirely voluntary, and participants could withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason. Participants were assured that all information provided during the survey and interview would be stored anonymously, making it impossible to trace information or comments back to individual contributors and preserving the confidentiality of the participants at all times.

Overall, Figure 4.5 offers a visual summary of the sequential explanatory design procedures of the current study as a mixed-method research.

PHASE	PROCEDURE	PRODUCT
Quantitative Data Collection	Cross sectional web based survey 840 email sent	134 usable responses
Quantitative Data Analysis	Use of descriptive and inferential Statistics (Regression analysis, Spss, Stata)	Meaningful measures
Case Selection: Interview Protocol Development	Selection of participants purposefully	Interview Protocol
Qualitative Data Collection	Semi-structured Interview from audio recordings	Textual data transcribed 16 semi-structured interviews
Qualitative Data Analysis	Coding - Thematic analysis	Code and themes Thematic structure
Integration of the Quantitative and Qualitative Results	Interpretation and explanation of the qualitative and quantitative results	Discussion and implications

Figure 4.5: Visual model of the current study's mixed methods sequential explanatory design procedures (Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011)

4.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter has explained the research methodology applied to designing the current study in detail. The ontology of the study was founded on objectivism, while the epistemological position was grounded in positivism. A mixed methods approach was employed for this study in order to facilitate the use of different methods together. In this direction, quantitative methodology was used to test the hypotheses examining the relationship between strategy implementation styles, organizational culture and performance. Qualitative methodology was subsequently applied to investigate these relationships from a different angle. Accordingly, the current study can be best defined as a descriptive cross-sectional study based on a deductive approach. The nature of the relationship between key concepts was explored through questionnaire survey data and interviews were carried out with managers in Turkish metropolitan municipalities. The pilot study helped clarify the survey questions and the direction of the study. A series of regression analyses were performed to test hypothesised relationships between the variables. Furthermore, sixteen semi-structured interviews were undertaken with senior managers from a sample of the metropolitan municipalities. Thematic analysis was used to examine the qualitative data results. Selection of control variables and common method bias were explained, before the ethical side of the study was considered to make sure that there were no ethical constraints on the project.

In the next chapter, the results of descriptive analysis of the data collected through the survey will be examined.

CHAPTER 5

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the descriptive analysis of data gathered from the questionnaire. Specifically it presents the demographic profiles of the respondents and the patterns for the study's constructs. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 was used for the numerical analysis. This chapter is divided into three sections. In the first, the response rate, straight-lining issue and non-response bias are presented. The second section addresses the description of the demographic profiles of the respondents, and also the descriptive analysis of responses to the survey items. The final section presents a validity analysis of the data, including reliability analysis and data normality as well as a descriptive analysis of the control variables.

5.2 Response Rate, Straight-Lining and Non-Response Bias

5.2.1 Response Rate

Surveys were emailed to the higher managers of 30 of Turkey's metropolitan municipalities. The total number of potential respondents was 840, and the number of actual responses was 157 (18.6 %), of which 134 (15.9 %) were complete in terms of the data necessary for this study. Responses were received from 20 metropolitan municipalities, and the actual respondents included 6 deputy general secretaries, 28 department heads, and 99 unit heads.

5.2.2 Straight-lining

After eliminating the incomplete questionnaires, the researcher also checked whether the respondents had selected the same response option for a set of items using the same scale (such as strongly disagree or strongly agree). This is referred to as straight-lining, and is commonly seen as an indication of satisficing, the process of "conserving time and energy and yet producing an answer that seems good enough for the purposes at hand" (Schaeffer and Presser, 2003, p. 68). Krosnick et al. (1996) identified three factors which can cause satisficing problems: *task difficulty,* which is a situation where

the respondent is not familiar with the overall language; *performance ability,* which refers to the cognitive work needed to give an accurate response; and *motivation,* which covers whether the respondent is willing or able to give an accurate answer. Even if higher response rates are commonly assumed to increase survey quality, a rise in response rates without taking response quality into consideration may result in an increase of measurement error, especially if it is linked to unwillingness to participate in surveys (Kaminska et al., 2010)

In this survey, straight lining questionnaires (one questionnaire in which all responses leant towards extremely negative answer options and four others which leant towards the extremely positive responses) were removed from the dataset in order to acquire better quality data).

5.2.3 Non-Response Bias

Non-response bias refers to the possibility that respondents' answers may be different from the possible responses of those who did not answer. To deal with non-response bias, Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggest that responses of early respondents to the questionnaire be compared to the responses of late respondents, where late respondents are used to represent non-respondents. The first 10% of the respondents were considered as early respondents while last 10 percent were considered as late respondents. An independent sample t-test was performed in order to find out if there was any significant difference between the responses of these two groups. The analyses showed no significant differences between the groups apart from the first two incremental implementation variables (IIS1 and IIS2) which showed significance values of (0.058-0.059) and (0.035-0.036) respectively. Hence, non-response bias seems unlikely to be a problem for the study.

5.3 Descriptive Analysis of Survey Data

5.3.1 Overall Demographic Profile of the Sample

Table 5.1 indicates the overall demographic profile of the questionnaire respondents. Of the 134 respondents, 92.5% were male and 6.7% were female. In terms of age, almost half of the respondents (42.5%) were between 40 and 49 years old. 26.9% were between 30 and 39 years; 21.6% were between 50 and 59 years; 1.5% of the

participants were between 18 and 29 years and 6,0% were over 60. In terms of educational levels, 67.2% of the respondents had a bachelor's degree, and 30.6% held a master's degree.

When looking at the income level of the respondents, roughly half (53%) had an income of 3001-5000 Turkish liras (tl). 38.8% of the participants had an income of 5001-7000tl, 4.5% earned 7001-10000tl. Just 1.5% of the participants earned more than 10000tl. The largest group of the respondents was unit heads (73.9%), followed by heads of department (20.9%) and finally deputies general secretaries (4.5%).

As far as the length of service in municipal work was concerned, the responses were quite diverse; 31.3% of the respondents had served between 11 and 20 years; 25.4% had served for more than 21 years; 19.4% for between 6 and 10 years and 15.7% between 2 and 5 years; the rest had worked in municipal positions for less than a year. When examining the tenure of office in the public sector, the results were different; 44.0% of the respondents had served in the public sector for more than 21 years; 32.8% for 11-20 years; 13.4% for 6-10 years and 6.0% for 2-5 years.

The last question asked whether the respondents' metropolitan municipalities had realistic mission and vision statements. 83.6% answered "yes", whilst 4.5% said "no". 6.0% of the participants answered "I don't know".

Table 5.1: Overall Demographic Profile of Respondents

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	9	6.7
	Male	124	92.5
Age	18-29 years	2	1.5
	30-39 years	36	26.9
	40-49 years	57	42.5
	50-59 years	29	21.6
	60 years and over	8	6.0
Education	Bachelor Degree	90	30.6
	Master	41	67.2
Income	3001-5000tl	71	53.0
	5001-7000tl	52	38.8
	7001-1000tl	6	4.5
	10001tl and over	2	1.5
Position	Unit Head	99	73.9
	Department Head	28	20.9
	Deputy Secretary General	6	4.5
Length of Service in municipal work	0-1 year	4	3.0
	2-5 years	21	15.7
	6-10 years	26	19.4
	11-20 years	42	31.3
	21 and over	34	25.4
Length of Service in the Public Sector	2-5 years	8	6.0
	6-10 years	18	13.4
	11-20 years	44	32.8
	21 and over	59	44.0
Department	Corporate	9	6.7
	Back Office	14	10.4
	Environmental Services	22	16.4

Community	12	8.9
Engineering	19	14.1
Finance	19	14.1
Fire	4	2.9
Planning	11	8.2
Police	5	3.7
R & D	11	8.2
Transport	8	5.9

5.3.2 Descriptive Analysis of Key Measurement Scales

The main constructs of the study are presented here in relation to the respondents' answers. The dataset was also aggregated by department in order to analyse the items at the departmental level. Departments are not the same across all metropolitan municipalities in Turkey; each municipality has departments which are pertinent to the needs of the area the municipality covers. Therefore, the departments to be analysed in this study were determined according to the responses coming from the participants regarding their departments. To amalgamate the departments of the respondents[11] under similar titles, Entwistle et al.'s (2016) categorisation was deemed appropriate. Eventually, 11 departments were specified: Back office, community, engineering, environmental services, water, finance, fire, planning, police, research & development and transport.

Enticott et al. (2008) argue that multiple informant surveys, aimed at focussing on different people working in a variety of organizational sections, offer much clearer organizational pictures of public management for research. Here, it is crucial to ensure that the data obtained represents consistent and comparable features of the organizations across the units of analysis. In this direction, data aggregation at specific organizational levels is suggested where "organizations have distinct structural elements or where data sets are disproportionately loaded with particular categories of informant" (p. 232). Survey respondents may think differently depending on

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[11] The departments included in this research were: Culture, administrative works, rural services, information processing, press and public relations, human resources and training, editorial works and decisions, fire, health, finance, support purchasing services, strategy improvement, police, environmental protection and control, planning, town planning and urbanization, public works and engineering, planning investment and construction, technical works, transport, waste, water, disabled unit, youth and sport unit.

managerial grade or department, which reflects different views within the organization as a whole. Since the target population of the current study is large and diversified, the survey was constructed around a departmental level data aggregation process comprising of informants from eleven departments across twenty metropolitan municipalities throughout Turkey.

All statistical analyses in this study are made by generating measurement scales formed by the independent variables, including rational implementation style, incremental implementation style, hierarchy culture, market culture, clan culture and adhocracy culture.

Specifically, Table 5.2 demonstrates the mean scores and the standard deviations of each questionnaire item. Responses of the all items are seen to varying across a seven-point Likert scale as it is between 1= Strongly disagree to 7= Strongly agree.

Construct	N	Mean	SD
Rational Implementation (average)		**5.17**	
When implementing strategies we have clearly defined tasks.	84	5.33	1.51
We have weekly / monthly plans to implement strategies.	84	5.15	1.54
We follow precise procedures to achieve strategic objectives.	84	5.24	1.36
When implementing strategies we regularly review progress against targets.	84	5.39	1.39
We implement strategies by piloting them initially and then implementing them in full.	84	4.77	1.50
Incremental Implementation (average)		**5.22**	
During the implementation process, we amend our strategies if necessary.	84	5.41	1.27
To keep in line with our environment during the implementation process, we make continual small scale changes to strategy.	84	5.30	1.26
New strategies are introduced in a very similar way to those that have already been implemented.	84	5.34	1.40
Our strategy develops through a process of ongoing adjustment while implementing.	84	4.84	1.61
Clan Culture (average)		**5.50**	
My department is a very personal place. It is like an extended family.	84	5.51	1.54
The leadership in my department is mentoring, facilitating and nurturing.	84	5.77	1.30
The management style in my department is based upon teamwork, consensus, and participation.	83	5.34	1.52
The values that hold my department together are loyalty and mutual trust.	84	5.34	1.44
My department emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation are targeted.	84	5.63	1.22
My department defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	83	5.46	1.35
Adhocracy culture (average)		**5.21**	
My department is dynamic and entrepreneurial. People are willing to take risks.	83	5.00	1.46

The leadership in my department is entrepreneurial, innovating and risk taking.	83	5.82	1.32
The management style in my department is based upon individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	84	4.91	1.56
The values that hold my department together are commitment to innovation and development.	84	5.50	1.45
My department emphasizes increasing revenue sources, acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	83	5.20	1.60
My department defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest services.	84	4.88	1.53
Market culture (average)		**5.14**	
My department is results oriented. People are competitive and achievement focused.	84	5.14	1.44
The leadership in my department is no-nonsense, aggressive, and results-oriented focus.	84	5.68	1.30
The management style in my department is based upon competitiveness and high demands.	84	5.31	1.49
The values that hold my department together are emphasis on competitive achievement and goal accomplishment.	84	5.12	1.44
My department emphasizes results. Achieving challenging targets and being the best among the municipalities are dominant.	84	5.71	1.32
My department defines success on the basis of outpacing the competition.	83	3.93	1.52
Hierarchy culture (average)		**5.22**	
My department is a place that has top-down control and a strong hierarchy. Rules generally govern what people do.	84	4.52	1.43
The leadership in my department is coordinating and organizing.	84	5.92	1.18
The management style in my department is based upon security of employment, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.	83	5.28	1.50
The values that hold my department together are formal rules and policies.	84	4.65	1.53
My department emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	84	5.78	1.26

My department defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.	84	5.18	1.53
Organizational Performance (average)		**5.75**	
Quality (e.g. reliability of service delivery).	83	5.79	1.17
Quantity (e.g. volume of service delivery).	83	5.70	1.20
Citizen Satisfaction	83	5.83	1.18
Innovation.	83	5.71	1.19

Table 5. 2: Questionnaire Items and Descriptive Statistics

The results in Table 5.2 show that there are 84 different departments that could be included in the statistical analysis. The table indicates that respondents gave moderately high responses for the strategy implementation questions. The mean values of all the items measuring strategy implementation styles were above 5.00 except for two of them, where the mean scores were 4.77 and 4.84 (out of 7). While looking specifically at the mean scores of each strategy implementation style, it can be seen that rational implementation mean values ranged between 4.77 and 5.39 with standard deviations (SDs) between 1.361 and 1.539. Incremental implementation mean scores were between 4.84 and 5.34 with SDs between 1.258 and 1.609. Standard deviations imply that there is variation in the answers of the respondents to this set of questions.

Regarding organizational culture, each type of culture present showed varying mean scores and standard deviations. Clan culture shows relatively high mean score values of over 5.00 for each item (5.34 - 5.63) with SDs of between 1.301 and 1.542. The adhocracy culture mean scores ranged between 4.88 and 5.82 with SD scores of between 1.315 and 1.598. The mean values of the questions on market culture were between 3.93 and 5.71 with variation in SD scores of between 1.301 and 1.523. Finally, hierarchy culture mean scores varied between 4.52 and 5.92. Standard deviations for the hierarchy culture were between 1.183 and 1.533. Clan culture had the highest overall score with 5.50. Adhocracy and hierarchy cultures have very close overall mean scores with 5.21 and 5.22 respectively. Market culture had the lowest average mean score, with 5.14.

With regards to organizational performance, the respondents had moderately high mean scores compared to other items in the research. The mean scores for all four items were in between 5.70 and 5.83 with SD values of between 1.112 and 1.199. The lower standard deviation values of the organizational performance responses show that there were less variations in the answers to the questions.

Looking at the summary scores of the variables, it can be seen that average score of the incremental implementation style (5.22) is a little higher than rational implementation (5.17), although the average standard deviation of incremental implementation is larger than the rational one. These initial results may suggest that incremental implementation may be more common than rational implementation in Turkish local government. Moreover, among all cultural types, clan culture had the highest overall score (5.50) and hierarchy type of culture was the second highest (5.22). It can therefore be assumed that Turkish local government has a dominantly clan and hierarchy culture. Meanwhile, market culture (5.14), with the lowest average score, can be considered as the weakest cultural type in Turkish local government.

5.4 Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis, which determines the internal consistency of the items tested, was conducted on the basis of Cronbach's alpha value. There are different ideas in the relevant literature about the acceptable values of alpha, ranging from 0.70 to 0.95, (Bland and Altman, 1997). However, an alpha of 0.8 is seen as a desirable goal in most the studies (George and Mallery, 2003).

The table below indicates that all the factors in the constructs provided strong internal consistency, with most alpha values above the optimum alpha value (0.8). While the highest internal consistency can be seen in the organizational performance items with the average score of .932, market culture items show the lowest internal consistency (.749) of all the results (see Appendix D for the reliability analysis of each construct).

Constructs And Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Rational implementation style (Ris)	**.889**
Ris1	.865
Ris2	.868
Ris3	.846
Ris4	.858
Ris5	.888
Incremental implementation style (Iis)	**.844**
Iis1	.816
Iis2	.783
Iis3	.775
Iis4	.837
Clan culture (Cln)	**.913**
Cln1	.893
Cln2	.908
Cln3	.886
Cln4	.914
Cln5	.895
Cln6	.885
Adhocracy culture (Adhc)	**.889**
Adhc1	.877
Adhc2	.869
Adhc3	.875
Adhc4	.853
Adhc5	.875
Adhc6	.870
Market culture (Mrkt)	**.823**
Mrkt1	.749
Mrkt2	.795
Mrkt3	.777
Mrkt4	.762
Mrkt5	.782
Mrkt6	.878
Hierarchy culture (Hier)	**.837**
Hier1	.838
Hier2	.803
Hier3	.798
Hier4	.832
Hier5	.787
Hier6	.804
Organizational performance	**.932**
Quality	.903
Quantity	.926
Citizen satisfaction	.915
Innovation	.903

Table 5.3: Reliability Analysis Results for the Survey Items

5.5 Data Normality

As an underlying assumption, normality represents the extent to which the data distribution of the sample conforms to the values of normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010). Normal distribution helps explain the range of values in a dataset, mostly in the middle but also at the extremes of either side (Ozdemir, 2010). Skewness and kurtosis are two main measures used to estimate the normality of the data (Hair et al., 2010). While skewness measures the degree of symmetry around the mean (Sheskin, 2011), kurtosis measures the degree to which the data tails off (Westfall, 2014). Curran et al. (1996) suggest acceptable skewness and kurtosis values for univariate item analysis. Values of less than 2 for absolute skewness and values of less than 7 for absolute kurtosis are acceptable in any the analysis. Regarding the skewness and kurtosis values of current study, the test results assessed the univariate normality for the separate questionnaire items of the study show two parameters (Quality, quantity as performance variables) out of the values suggested by Curran et al. (1996). The same parameters also emerged from the suggested values for the indexed values shown in Table 5.4. Hair et al. (2010) and De Vaus (2002) concluded that the adverse effects of non-normality decrease when sample sizes become larger. Moreover, according to Kleinbaum et al. (1998), data normality is not an issue for a regression model; instead it is necessary for *post hoc* inferences. Considering that there are big enough sample size and few deviations from acceptable values, the data in this research can be seen as normally distributed for the purposes of this study.

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Rational Implementation	84	-1.083	.263	1.072	.520
Incremental Implementation	84	-1.325	.263	2.447	.520
Clan Culture	84	-1.129	.263	2.537	.520
Adhocracy Culture	84	-1.306	.263	1.661	.520
Market Culture	84	-1.214	.263	2.110	.520
Hierarchy Culture	84	-1.838	.263	4.824	.520
Quality	83	-2.082	.264	5.742	.523
Quantity	83	-2.140	.264	5.469	.523
Citizen Satisfaction	83	-1.980	.264	5.593	.523
Innovation	83	-1.824	.264	4.760	.523
Valid N (listwise)	83				

Table 5.4: Data Normality Analysis

5.6 Descriptive Analysis of Control Variables

This study uses a set of control variables to exclude probable alternative explanations for the findings. Expenditure, population size, population density, municipal district and poverty rates are applied in this study as control variables, since many studies focusing on local government performance have used these variables to control the analytical processes. Initially, the relevant data regarding municipal expenditure were found in performance programme reports published in 2016, and were collected from the website of each municipality. For population size, population density, municipal district and poverty rates, the relevant data were collected from the reports released in 2016 by Turkish Statistical Institute (commonly known as Turk-Stat), which is a Turkish government agency commissioned to produce official statistics on Turkey, its population, resources, economy, society and culture. Thus, an extensive table was formed using Excel to show all these control variables for the relevant municipal areas. From this, Table 5.5 was produced to show the abridged results of descriptive analysis of control variables. It basically demonstrates the number of the items observed, the minimum and maximum scores, the mean scores and the standard deviations of each control variable.

When examining the mean scores for each control variable at first glance, it can be seen that Istanbul's metropolitan municipality has the highest expenditure compared to other municipalities included in this study. Since it also has the highest overall scores for population, population density and municipal districts, it can be said that Istanbul's resource allocation is consistent with its population and population density as well as the number of municipal districts it covers. Other mean scores do not offer such a clear-cut explanation; each of them show the scores for different municipalities, and here it is important to investigate whether the mean scores of five control variables regarding the twenty metropolitan municipalities do not have significant differences from the mean scores of all thirty of Turkey's metropolitan municipalities. An independent sample t-test was performed in order to find out if there were any significant differences between the responses of these two groups. The analyses showed that no significant differences between them. It can therefore concluded that the twenty metropolitan municipalities used in this study are representative of all thirty metropolitan municipalities in Turkey.

Variable	Mean	Minimum (City)	Maximum (City)	S.D
Expenditure	199,609,086,428.5	515,844,585,59 (Diyarbakir)	16,100,000,000,00 (Istanbul)	351,821,591,58
Population size	2,450,350.100	750,588.00 (Ordu)	14,804,116.00 (Istanbul)	3,137,730.1646
Population density	292.45	30 (Erzurum)	2,849 (Istanbul)	613.206
Municipal districts	18.7	11 (Tekirdag)	39 (Istanbul)	7.370
Poverty rate	10.69	5.3 (Van)	14.1 (Antalya)	1.969

Table 5.5: Descriptive Analysis of Control Variables (N=20)

5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the descriptive analysis results of the quantitative data research. After eliminating incomplete and straight-lined questionnaires, we were left with a total of 134 responses. Meanwhile, non-response bias did not seem to create a problem for the study. The results of the demographic profile of the respondents were then presented. Most notably, the results showed that most respondents were male managers and unit heads. Furthermore, reliability analysis showed that overall score of each variable in the construct is above 0.8, exceeding the recommended 0.7 threshold (Hair et al., 2010). The data normality test also revealed that the values of skewness and kurtosis of the items were within acceptable parameters and there were no serious violations found in the construct. Lastly, the descriptive analysis of the five control variables were presented along with their mean, maximum and minimum values and standard deviations regarding the cities covered by the metropolitan municipalities. The next chapter will discuss the results of quantitative data analysis.

CHAPTER 6

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical analysis of the survey data collected. It is divided into two sections. In the first section, the analyses presented in the first two tables investigate the direct effects of the variables hypothesised in the study. It presents the results of the regression analyses of the relationships between implementation styles and types of organizational culture as independent variables and two dimensions of organizational performance as dependent variables, including the control variables,. Following that, the results of testing the effects of control variables on each type of organizational performance are explored in detail. In the last section, the moderating effects of implementation styles on the relationship between types of organizational culture and organizational performance are examined. Two way interaction graphs for each hypothesised relationship will be produced to visualise the effects of the moderation variables on the relationships between independent and dependent variables. The Stata 22 software program is applied to perform all analyses in this chapter.

6.2 Direct Effects of Strategy Implementation (SI) and Organizational Culture (OC) on Organizational Performance (OP)

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 present the results of the regression analyses for each variable of the model constructed separately and all together. Rational implementation *(RIS),* incremental implementation *(IIS)*, clan culture *(CLN)*, adhocracy culture *(ADHC)*, market *(MRKT)* culture and hierarchy culture *(HIER)* as the independent variables as well as controls[12] are presented in the rows and the dependent variables—quality *(QUAL)*, quantity (*QUANT*), citizen satisfaction *(CSAT)* and innovation (*INNOV*)—in the columns. The independent and control variables are tested four times with each of

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[12] Population 2016 (pop. 2016), population density (pop. density), municipal districts (mun. dist.), expenditure per 1000 capita (expenper1000cap.), regulatory, distributive and safety.

the dependent variables of interest; at first with only control variables; second with both rational implementation, incremental implementation and controls; and third one with clan culture, adhocracy culture, market culture, hierarchy culture and all controls included, but implementation style excluded. The final model includes the relationship between these two implementation styles and four types of organizational culture with the control variables. Eventually, 16 different models displaying the effects of each set of independent variable and their effects on organizational performance are presented.

PREDICTOR	QUAL	QUAL	QUAL	QUAL	INNOV	INNOV	INNOV	INNOV
RIS		.571***		.291*		.497***		.249
IIS.		.052		-.148		.082		-.119
CLAN			.548	.436			.304	.204
ADHC			-.267	-.166			.091	.177
MRKT			-.097	-193			-.202	-.282
HIER			.528**	.493***			.452**	.420***
REGULATORY	-.206	-.223	-.208	-.231	-.147	-.157	-.160	-.179
DISTRIBUTIVE	-.270	-.236	-.163	-.136	.121	.145	.176	.197
SAFETY	-1.01	-.713	-.584	-.529	-.920	-.654	-.548	-.502
POP.2016	-.157	-.347	-.109	-.268	-.592	-.752**	-.543*	-.678**
POP. DENSITY	-.057	-.180	-.114	-.123	.091	-.021	.047	.038
MUN. DIST	.038	.037*	.022	.030	.068**	.067***	.052**	.059**
POVERTY RATE	.044	.000	.029	.024	.114	.073	.069	.065
EXPENPER1000 CAP.	-1.36	4.85	1.38	3.55	-7.15	-1.60	-3.87	-2.00
CONSTANT	7.48	7.61*	3.38	5.47	11.95***	11.88***	8.49**	10.26**
R^2	0.10	0.42	0.50	0.54	0.16	0.43	0.51	0.54

***$p < 0.01$; **$p<0.05$; *$p<0.1$

Table 6. 1: Strategy Implementation Styles, Organizational Culture Types and Quality – Innovation

PREDICTOR	QUAN	QUAN	QUAN	QUAN	CSAT	CSAT	CSAT	CSAT
RIS		.434***		.199		.452**		.198
IIS		.125		-.074		.151		-.072
CLAN			.519	.430			.352	.262
ADHC			-.055	.010			.115	.181
MRKT			-.336	-.395			-.356	-.414
HIER			.456**	.424**			.539**	.506***
REGULATORY	-.071	-.073	-.054	-.067	-.211	-.210	-.209	-.221
DISTRIBUTIVE	-.139	-.127	-.059	-.046	-.193	-.184	-.129	-.117
SAFETY	-1.20	-.962*	-.794	-.761	-.803	-.543	-.384	-.352
POP.2016	.466*	.333	.447	.341	-.537	-.674*	-.534*	-.640*
POP. DENSITY	-.293*	-.400*	-.315*	-.324*	.154	.040	.129	.119
MUN. DIST	.004	.001	-.007	-.002	.053**	.049**	.038**	.044*
POVERTY RATE	-.011	-.052	-.034	-.039	.102	.057	.059	.054
EXPENPER1000 CAP.	1.18	6.26	4.32	5.83	-4.33	1.04	-6.97	8.01
CONSTANT	0.61	0.29	-2.04	-0.65	11.18***	10.74***	8.15**	9.52**
R²	0.12	0.34	0.43	0.45	0.10	0.37	0.49	0.51

***$p < 0.01$; **$p<0.05$; *$p<0.1$

Table 6.2: Strategic Implementation Styles, Organizational Culture Types, Quantity - Citizen Satisfaction

6.2.1 Quality

The results from a series of analyses under the quality performance dimension are shown in the Table 6.1. When examining the analyses specifically on the strategy implementation styles and quality in the second column, there is a positive significant relationship between RIS and quality (β = 0.571, p = 0.002). Also, there is no direct relationship observed between IIS and quality.

Regarding organizational culture and quality, significant positive relationships are found only between a hierarchy culture and quality (β = 0.528, p = 0.018). Clan, market and adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with quality.

When looking at the results of the analysis including both strategy implementation styles and organizational cultural types, both hierarchy culture (β = 0.493, p = 0.008) and RIS (β = 0.291, p = 0.072) are positively significant on quality. However, it can be seen that IIS and clan, market, adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with innovation in the last model of quality variable.

6.2.2 Innovation

The results for the innovation performance dimension are shown in the Table 6.1. When examining the analysis specifically on the strategy implementation styles and innovation, there is a positive significant relationship between RIS and innovation (β = 0.497, p = 0.003). There is also no direct relationship observed between IIS and innovation.

Regarding organizational culture and innovation, significant positive relationships were found only between hierarchy culture and innovation (β = 0.452, p = 0.015). Clan, market and adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with innovation.

When investigating the results of the analysis included both strategy implementation styles and organizational culture types, it is also seen that a hierarchy type of culture is positively significant on innovation (β = 0.420, p = 0.004). However, IIS and clan, market, adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with innovation in the last model.

6.2.3 Quantity

The results for the analysis of strategy implementation styles and quantity, indicate that there is a positive significant relationships between RIS and quantity ($\beta = 0.434$, $p = 0.008$), but no direct relationship observed between IIS and quantity.

Regarding organizational culture and quantity, significant positive relationship are found only between hierarchy culture and quantity ($\beta = 0.456$, $p = 0.037$), Clan, market and adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with quantity.

The results of the analysis including both strategy implementation styles and organizational culture types highlight that a hierarchy type of culture is positively significant on quantity ($\beta = 0.424$, $p = 0.031$). However, IIS and clan, market, adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with quantity.

6.2.4 Citizen Satisfaction

For the analysis of strategy implementation styles and citizen satisfaction, there is a positive significant relationship between RIS and customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.452$, $p = 0.013$). Also, there is no direct relationship observed between IIS and citizen satisfaction.

Regarding organizational culture and citizen satisfaction, significant positive relationship found only between hierarchy culture and customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.539$, $p = 0.012$). However, clan, market and adhocracy type of cultures did not show any direct relationship with citizen satisfaction.

When examining the results of the analysis included both strategy implementation styles and organizational culture types, a hierarchy type of culture is positively significant on citizen satisfaction ($\beta = 0.506$, $p = 0.009$). However, IIS and clan, market, adhocracy types of culture did not show any direct relationship with citizen satisfaction in the last model.

Overall, it can be seen from the analyses that RIS has a positive significant relationship with four types of organizational performance criteria. Also, positive significant relationships are found between hierarchy culture and all organizational performance criteria. When it comes to the combined effect of strategy implementation styles and

the types of organizational culture on performance criteria, only hierarchy culture and RIS show a significant positive effect on quality. Also, hierarchy type of culture shows a significant positive effect for innovation, quantity and citizen satisfaction criteria.

6.3 Effects of Control Variables

The results of testing the effects of control variables in Table 6.1 and 6.2 on the relationship between independent and dependent variables are presented. The Table 6.3 below shows that safety, municipal district, population 2016 and population density as control variables are related to organizational performance.

Table 6.3: Control Variables and Organizational Performance

Hypothesis	Control Variable Effects
Controls→Innovation	Districts. (β = .068**)
Controls→Quantity	Population (β = .466*) Population density. (β = -.293*)
Controls→Citizen Satisfaction	Districts. (β = .053**)
SI→Quality	Districts. (β = .037*)
SI→Innovation	Population (β = -0.752**) Districts. (β = 0.067***)
SI →Quantity	Safety department (β = -0.962*) Population density. (β = -0.400*)
SI →Citizen Satisfaction	Population (β = -0.674*) Districts. (β = 0.049**)
OC→Innovation	Population (β = - 0.543*) Districts. (β = 0.052**)
OC→Quantity	Population density. (β = -0.315*)
OC→Citizen Satisfaction	Population (β = - 0.534*) Districts. (β = 0.038**)
SI + OC = Quantity	Population density. (β = -0.324*)
SI + OC = Citizen Satisfaction	Population (β = -0.640*) Districts. (β = 0.044*)
SI + OC = Innovation	Population (β = - 0.678**) Districts. (β = 0.059**)

***p < 0.01; **p < 0.05; *p < 0.1

6.3.1 Safety Department

Safety department dummy effect has a single significant effect in the implementation style-organizational performance model. It shows a negative relationship with quantity ($\beta = - 0.962$, p = 0.092).

6.3.2 Population Size

Population (2016) was a statistically significant controlling factor in many of the models. It shows a positive significant effect on the relationship between the control variables and quantity ($\beta = 0.466$, p = 0.091). It shows a negative relationship with both innovation ($\beta = - 0.752$, p = 0.020) and citizen satisfaction ($\beta = - 0.674$, p = 0.062) in the implementation style-innovation model and citizen satisfaction models respectively. Population 2016 and organizational performance shows a negative relationship in culture and innovation model ($\beta = - 0.543$, p = 0.095). Population 2016 also shows a negative relationship with citizen satisfaction in the culture-citizen satisfaction model ($\beta = - 0.534$, p = 0.066).

Population 2016 shows a negative relationship with citizen satisfaction in the implementation style-organizational culture on citizen satisfaction model ($\beta = - 0.640$, p = 0.070). Population 2016 shows a negative relationship with innovation in the implementation style-organizational culture on innovation model ($\beta = - 0.678$, p = 0.048).

6.3.3 Population Density

Population density shows a negative relationship with quantity. When only included the control variables in the analysis with quantity as dependent variable, it show a negative significant effect on quantity ($\beta = - 0.293$, p = 0.098). There is a negative relationship found between population density and quantity in the implementation style and quantity ($\beta = - 0.400$, p = 0.053). Also, population density shows a negative relationship with quantity in the model of organizational culture-quantity ($\beta = - 0.315$, p = 0.054). Finally, population density shows a negative relationship with quantity in the implementation style-organizational culture on quantity model ($\beta = - 0.324$, p = 0.078).

6.3.4 Municipal Districts

Municipal District was a statistically significant controlling factor in all four types of organizational performance variables. Initially, while investigating the relationship between control variables and types of organizational performance, municipal district shows positive effect on innovation ($\beta = 0.068$, $p = 0.017$) and citizen satisfaction ($\beta = 0.053$, $p = 0.037$) respectively. Also, municipal district control variable shows a positive effect in all models. There are positive relationships found between municipal district and quality in the model of implementation style - quality ($\beta = 0.037$, $p = 0.081$).

Moreover, there are positive relationships found between municipal district and citizen satisfaction in the model of implementation style-citizen satisfaction ($\beta = 0.049$, $p = 0.033$) and in the model of implementation style - culture on citizen satisfaction ($\beta = 0.044$, $p = 0.052$).

A positive effect was observed in the culture - innovation ($\beta = 0.052$, $p = 0.018$) and in the culture - citizen satisfaction models ($\beta = 0.038$, $p = 0.043$). Municipal district shows a positive relationship with innovation in the implementation style-innovation model ($\beta = 0.067$, $p = 0.005$) and in the model of implementation style - culture on innovation ($\beta = 0.059$, $p = 0.013$).

6.4 Moderation Effects of Styles of Strategy Implementation

The study hypothesised that strategy implementation styles would positively moderate the relationship between types of organizational culture and organizational performance.

Regarding the moderation effects, four hypotheses were suggested, and the models included types of organizational performance as the dependent variables, organizational culture types as the independent variables, strategy implementation styles as the moderator variables and control variables. Four separate moderator variables were generated by mixing implementation styles with different types of organizational culture.

ModRISHier = (MeanRIS) * (MeanHier)

ModRISMrkt = (MeanRIS) * (MeanMarkt)

ModIISCln = (MeanIIS) * (MeanCln)

ModIISAdhc = (MeanIIS) * (MeanAdhc)

Tables 6.4 and 6.5 below present the regression results of the moderated relationships. Table 6.4 presents the independent variables (hierarchy culture, market culture, rational implementation, moderators and controls) in columns, while showing the dependent variables (quality, quantity, citizen satisfaction and innovation) in rows. Similarly, the second table shows the independent variables (clan culture, adhocracy culture, incremental implementation, moderators and controls) in columns and the same dependent variables in rows.

The regression results on strategy implementation styles, types of organizational culture and performance relationships are shown below. To demonstrate the form of significant moderation terms, the method of the plotting two way interaction effects for standardized variables recommended by Aiken and West (1991) was followed. This is usually done by calculating predicted values of Y under different conditions (high and low values of X, and high and low values of Z) and showing the predicted relationship (simple slopes) between X and Y at different levels of Z (Dawson, 2014). The results are presented here using two-way interaction graphs showing the moderating effects of strategy implementation styles on the relationship between organizational culture types and organizational performance. This specifically helps to visualise how high or low levels of implementation can affect the relationship between types of organizational culture and performance.

PREDICTOR	QUAL	INNOV	QUANT	CSAT	QUAL	INNOV	QUANT	CSAT
RIS	-.138	-.093	-.179	-.140	-.490	-.436	-.571	-.597
IIS	-.115	-.093	-.045	-.046	-.083	-.061	-.010	-.005
CLAN	.479	.239	.468	.297	.475	.239	.469	.303
ADHC	-.173	.171	.004	.175	-.203	.144	-.026	.142
MRKT	-.246	-.325	-.442	-.456	-.899*	-.901**	-1.091**	-1.132**
HIER	.183	.172	.149	.261	.599***	.512***	.528***	.613***
RIS X HIER	.084	.067	.074	.066				
RIS X MRKT					.148*	.130**	.146**	.151**
REGULARITY	-.214	-.165	-.051	-.207	-.128	-.089	.034	-.116
DISTRIBUTIVE	-.088	.235	-.004	-.079	-.042	.280	.046	-.020
SAFETY	-.491	-.471	-.727	-.322	-.488	-.466	-.720	-.310
POP.2016	-.240	-.656**	.365	-.618**	-.160	-.583**	.447	-.530
POP. DENSITY	-.140	.024	-.340**	.106	-.170	-.002	-.371**	.072
MUN. DIST	.027	.057***	-.004	.041**	.022	.052***	-.010	.035**
POVERTY RATE	.018	.060	-044	.050	.004	.047	-.059	.033
EXPENPER1000 CAP.	5.06	-7.93	7.17	1.99	6.27	3.84	8.51	3.56
CONSTANT	6.54	.286	10.36*	11.11**	6.96*	.808	11.03**	11.56**
R²	0.56	0.55	0.46	0.52	0.58	0.57	0.49	0.55

***p < 0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.1

Table 6.4: Hierarchy Culture and Market Culture x Rational Implementation

PREDICTOR	QUAL	INNOV	QUANT	CSAT	QUAL	INNOV	QUANT	CSAT
RIS	.332**	.275**	.232*	.229	.315**	.262*	.219*	.217
IIS	-1.00**	-.677	-.763*	-.735*	-.924**	-.568	-.710	-.714*
CLAN	-.217	-.220	-.094	-.242	.601**	.300	.565	.399
ADHC	-.302	.088	-.098	.075	-1.088**	-.356	-.744	-.582
MRKT	-.233	-.308	-.427	-.445	-.226	-.301	-.422	-.442
HIER	.710***	.561***	.598***	.674***	.696***	.537***	.589***	.674***
IIS X CLN	.159**	.103*	.127*	.123*				
IIS X ADHC					.152**	.088	.124	.126*
REGULARITY	-.119	-.106	.023	-.134	-.152	-.133	-.001	-.155
DISTRIBUTIVE	-.058	.248	.016	-.056	-.071	.235	.006	-.063
SAFETY	-.599	-.548	-.817	-.406	-.590	-.537	-.810	-.402
POP.2016	-.262	-.674**	.346	-.635**	-.236	-.660**	.367	-.613**
POP. DENSITY	-.129	.034	-.329**	.115	-.129	.035	-.330**	.114
MUN. DIST	.024	.055***	-.007	.039**	.025	.056***	-.006	.039**
POVERTY RATE	.057	.086	-.012	.080	.045	.077	-.022	.071
EXPENPER1000 CAP.	6.83	1.36	8.47	3.34	5.65	-7.85	7.55	2.54
CONSTANT	7.83**	1.24	11.35**	11.80***	7.41*	0.92	11.12**	11.38**
R²	0.60	0.56	0.48	0.54	0.59	0.55	0.48	0.54

***p < 0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.1

Table 6.5: Clan Culture and Adhocracy Culture x Incremental Implementation

6.4.1 Moderating Effect of RIS on Hierarchy Culture – OP Relationship

In Table 6.4, a rational implementation style showed no significant moderating effect on the relationship between hierarchy-oriented culture and any performance criteria. To better understand if such an effect may nonetheless be present, Figures 6.1 to 6.4 plot the moderating effects of rational implementation style on the relationship between hierarchy culture and quality, quantity, customer satisfaction and innovation respectively.

6.4.1.1 Quality, Hierarchy and RIS

Figure 6.1 presents the plotted interaction effect of hierarchy culture on quality performance, and shows that it depends on rational implementation style. It mainly shows that relative levels of rational implementation were considerable in conditioning the relationship between hierarchy types of culture and quality. Figure 6.1 also demonstrates that the positive effect of hierarchy culture on quality performance increases with higher levels of rational implementation rather than with lower level of rational implementation. The relevant results imply that the positive relationship between hierarchy culture and quality performance is strengthened by a rational implementation style, as is indicated in the graph where the dotted line is steeper than the solid line showing the impact of a low level of rational implementation style.
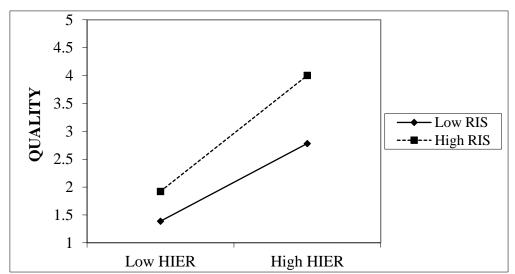
Figure 6.1: 2-way interaction effect of hierarchy culture on quality contingent of rational implementation

6.4.1.2 Quantity, Hierarchy and RIS

Figure 6.2 below shows a plot of the interaction effect of hierarchy culture on quantity performance, contingent upon rational implementation. It basically indicates that the relative level of rational implementation is important in conditioning the relationship between hierarchy culture and quantity. As Figure 6.2 shows, the positive effect of rational implementation on quantity increases as levels of hierarchy culture become higher. The results thus indicate that rational implementation style strengthens the positive relationship between hierarchy culture and performance quantity, as is indicated by the graph, where the dotted line is steeper than the solid line, illustrating the increasing impact of higher levels of rational implementation.
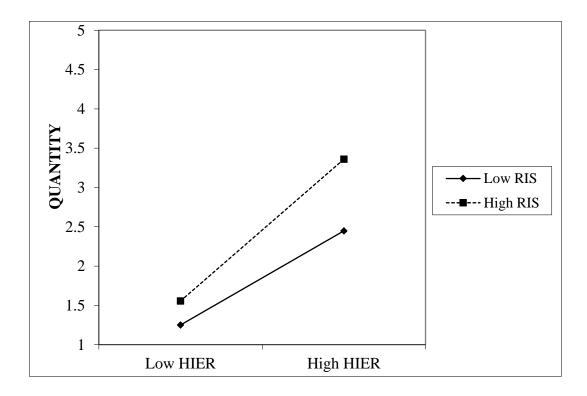
Figure 6.1: 2-way interaction effect of hierarchy culture on quantity contingent on rational implementation.

6.4.1.3 Citizen Satisfaction, Hierarchy and RIS

Figure 6.3 shows the plotted interaction of hierarchy-oriented culture on citizen satisfaction, based on rational implementation. It shows that the relative level of rational implementation is important in conditioning the relationship between hierarchy culture and citizen satisfaction. As Figure 6.3 shows, the positive effect of rational implementation style on citizen satisfaction increases more with higher levels of hierarchy-oriented culture comparing to lower levels. By and large, the results indicate that rational implementation strengthens the positive relationship between hierarchy culture and citizen satisfaction, as indicated by the graph, where the dotted line is steeper than the solid line identifying the increasing impact of rational implementation.
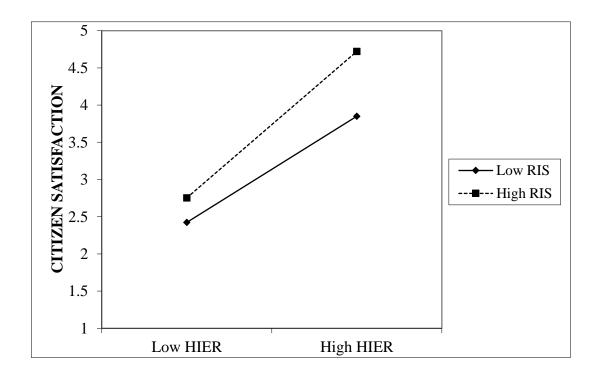
Figure 6.2: 2-way interaction effect of hierarchy culture on citizen satisfaction contingent on rational implementation

6.4.1.4 Innovation, Hierarchy and RIS

The plotted interaction of hierarchy culture on innovation performance contingent on rational implementation is presented in Figure 6.4. It shows that the relative degree of rational implementation is important in determining the relationship between hierarchy culture and innovation. As Figure 6.4 shows, the positive impact of rational implementation on innovation increases with higher degrees of hierarchy culture more than it does with lower degree of hierarchy culture. Overall, the results show that the positive relationship between hierarchy culture and innovation is strengthened by a rational implementation style, as demonstrated by the graph, where the dotted line is steeper than the solid line representing the effect of a low degree of rational implementation.
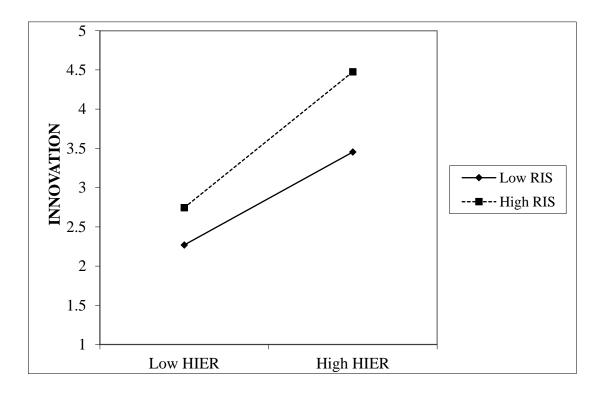
Figure 6.3: 2-way interaction effect of hierarchy culture on innovation contingent on rational implementation

6.4.2 Moderating Effect of RIS on Market Culture - OP Relationship

Table 6.4 indicates that a rational implementation style has a statistically significant positive moderating effect on the relationship between market culture and quality (β = .148, p = 0.060); quantity (β = .146, p = 0.049); citizen satisfaction (β = .151, p = 0.042) and innovation (β = .130, p = 0.050).

Figures 6.5 to 6.8 better illustrate the moderating effects of rational implementation style on the relationship between market-oriented culture and performance criteria of quality, quantity, customer satisfaction and innovation respectively.

6.4.2.1 Quality, Market and RIS

Figure 6.5 presents a plot of the interaction effects of market-oriented culture on quality, depending on rational implementation. It shows that the relative level of rational implementation was important in conditioning the relationship between market culture and quality. As Figure 6.5 shows, when market culture is low, rational implementation makes little difference to its relationship with quality. When market type of culture is high, however, rational implementation style reinforces the relationship between market culture and quality, while a low level of rational implementation weakens that relationship.
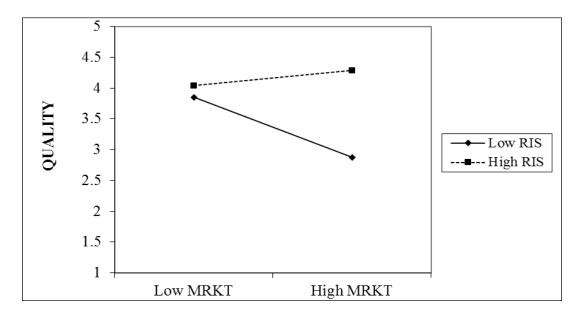
Figure 6.4: 2-ways interaction effect of market culture on quality contingent on rational implementation

6.4.2.2 Quantity, Market and RIS

The interaction effect of market culture on quantity contingent upon rational styles of implementation is shown in Figure 6.6. The figure shows that the relative level of rational style of implementation was important in determining the relationship between a market type of culture and quantity. As Figure 6.6 shows, when market culture is weak, the level of rational implementation does not matter a great deal. However, when market culture is strong, its relationship with quantity is much better if organizations have a rational implementation style than if they do not. Nonetheless, the connection between a strong a rational implementation style and quantity is also weaker in organizations where there is a high level of market culture.
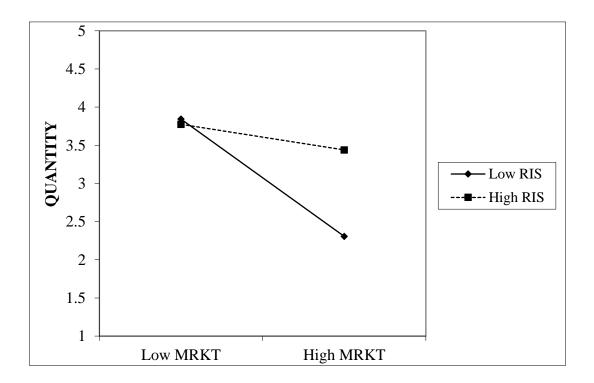
Figure 6. 5: 2-ways interaction effect of market culture on quantity contingent on rational implementation

6.4.2.3 Citizen Satisfaction, Market and RIS

Figure 6.7 shows that the plotted interaction effect of market-oriented culture on citizen satisfaction is contingent on rational implementation style. It also shows that the relative levels of rational implementation is important in conditioning the relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction. As Figure 6.7 shows, when market culture is weak, the level of rational implementation is not important. When market culture becomes stronger, its relationship with citizen satisfaction is much better if organizations have a rational implementation style than if they do not. Again, of the link between performance and a rational implementation style is weaker where there is a high market culture rather than a lower market culture.
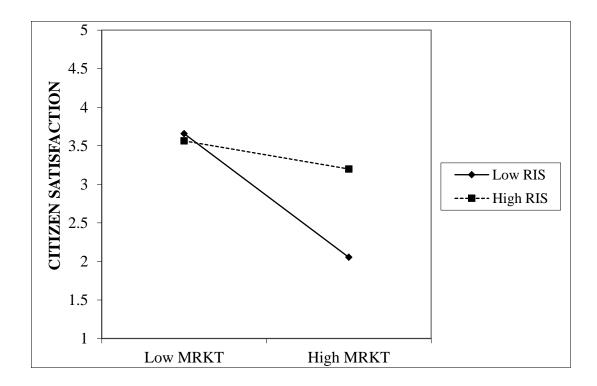
Figure 6. 6: 2-way interaction effect of market culture on citizen satisfaction contingent on rational implementation

6.4.2.4 Innovation, Market and RIS

Figure 6.8 shows the interaction effect of market culture on innovation depending upon rational implementation. It shows that the relative degree of rational implementation style is substantial in conditioning the relationship between market-oriented culture and innovation performance. As Figure 6.8 shows, when market culture is low, the level of rational implementation style is unimportant. When market culture level is high, its relationship with innovation is much better if organizations have a rational implementation style than if they do not. Here, the relationship between strong rational implementation and innovation is little changed by a strong market culture.
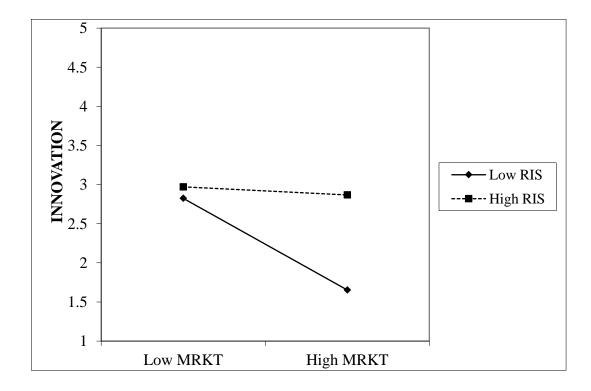
Figure 6. 7: 2-way interaction effect of market culture on innovation contingent on rational implementation

6.4.3 Moderating Effect of IIS on Clan Culture - OP Relationship

Table 6.5 shows that an incremental implementation style has a statistically significant positive moderating effect on the relationship between clan culture and quality (β = .159, p = 0.021); quantity (β = .127, p = 0.078); citizen satisfaction (β = .123, p = 0.079) and innovation (β = .103, p = 0.099).

Figures 6.9 to 6.12 show the moderating effect of an incremental implementation style on the relationship between clan-oriented culture and the criteria of quality, quantity, customer satisfaction and innovation respectively.

6.4.3.1 Quality, Clan and IIS

Figure 6.9 shows that the interaction effect of clan culture on quality depends on the level of incremental implementation within an organization. It shows that the relative level of incremental implementation is substantial in determining the relationship between clan-oriented culture and quality. When clan-oriented culture is weak, quality is higher if there is a low degree of incremental implementation. However, that relationship is reversed when clan-oriented culture is strong. This means that quality is higher if there is a high rather than a low degree of incremental implementation.
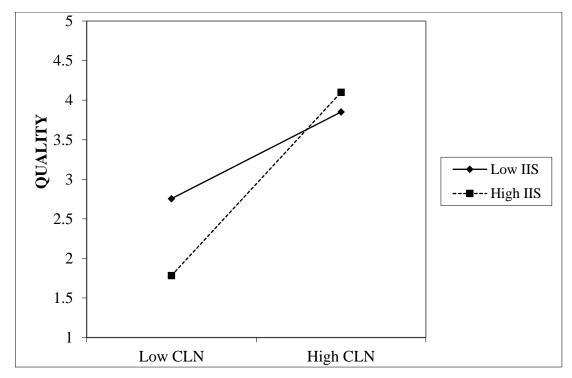
Figure 6. 8: 2-way interaction effect of clan culture on quality contingent on incremental implementation

6.4.3.2 Quantity, Clan and IIS

Figure 6.10 shows the plotted interaction effect of clan culture on quantity, contingent on incremental style of implementation. It shows that the relative degree of incremental implementation is considerable in conditioning the relationship between clan culture and quantity. As Figure 6.10 shows, when clan culture is weak, quantity performance is better if there is a low level of incremental implementation – a pattern that is reversed if clan culture is strong, although the connection between a strong incremental implementation style and quantity also weakens where there is a high clan culture.
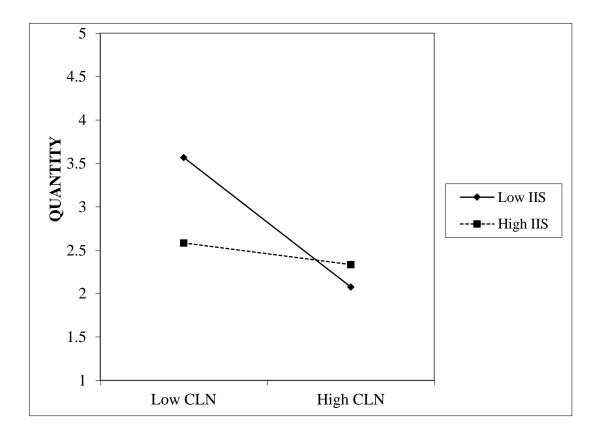
Figure 6. 9: 2-way interaction effect of clan culture on quantity, contingent upon incremental implementation

6.4.3.3 Citizen Satisfaction, Clan and IIS

Figure 6.11 shows the interaction effect of clan culture on citizen satisfaction, contingent upon an incremental style of implementation. It shows that the relative level of incremental implementation is important in determining the relationship between clan-oriented culture and citizen satisfaction. When clan culture is weak, citizen satisfaction is higher if there is a low level of incremental implementation. However, that relationship is reversed when clan culture is strong: citizen satisfaction is therefore higher if there is a high rather than a low level of incremental implementation.


Figure 6. 10: 2-way interaction effect of clan culture on citizen satisfaction contingent on incremental implementation

6.4.3.4 Innovation, Clan and IIS

Figure 6.12 shows that the plotted interaction effect of clan culture on innovation performance is contingent on changes in an incremental style of implementation. It shows that the relative level of incremental implementation is important in conditioning the relationship between clan-oriented culture and innovation. As Figure 6.12 shows, when clan-oriented culture is weak, innovation performance is better if there is a high level of incremental implementation – a pattern that becomes even stronger when clan culture is strong.
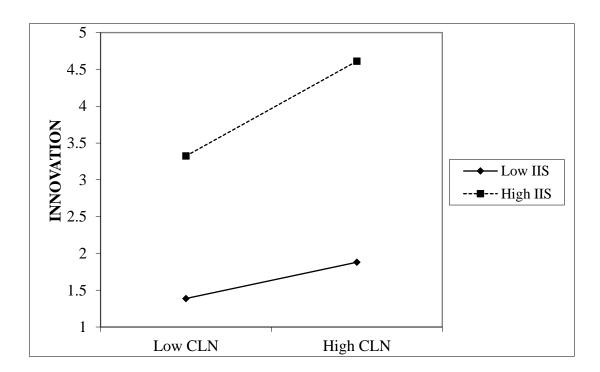

Figure 6. 11: 2-way interaction effect of clan culture on innovation, contingent on incremental implementation

6.4.4 Moderating Effect of IIS on Adhocracy Culture - OP Relationship

Table 6.5 shows that an incremental implementation style has a significant positive moderating effect on the relationship between adhocracy culture and quality (β = .152, p = 0.049) and citizen satisfaction (β = .126, p = 0.095). To explore the potential moderating effects of incremental implementation on the adhocracy and performance relationships further, Figures 6.13 to Figure 6.16 plot those effects.

6.4.4.1 Quality, Adhocracy and IIS

Figure 6.13 shows the interaction of adhocracy culture and quality on incremental implementation. It shows that the degree of incremental implementation is considerable in conditioning the relationship between adhocracy culture and quality. When adhocracy culture is weak, quality is higher if there is a low degree of incremental implementation. However, that relationship becomes reversed when adhocracy culture is strong: quality is now higher if there is a high rather than a low degree of incremental implementation. Nonetheless, the link between a high level of incremental implementation and quality is weakened where there is a high adhocracy culture than a lower one.
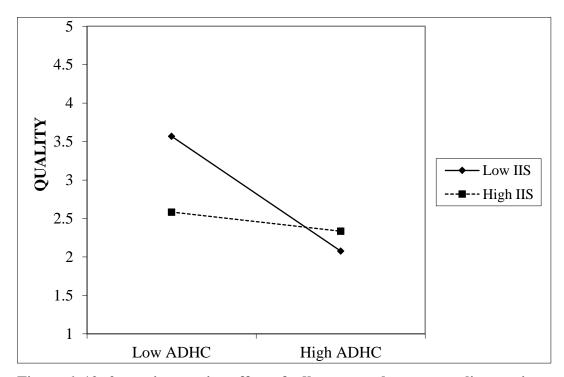
Figure 6. 12: 2-way interaction effect of adhocracy culture on quality contingent and incremental implementation

6.4.4.2 Quantity, Adhocracy and IIS

Figure 6.14 shows the effect of adhocracy culture on quantity, contingent on an incremental style of implementation. It shows that the relative level of incremental implementation is important in determining the relationship between adhocracy culture and quantity. When adhocracy culture is weak, quantity performance is higher if there is a low level of incremental implementation. However, that relationship is reversed when adhocracy culture is strong: quantity grows if there is a high rather than a low level of incremental implementation.
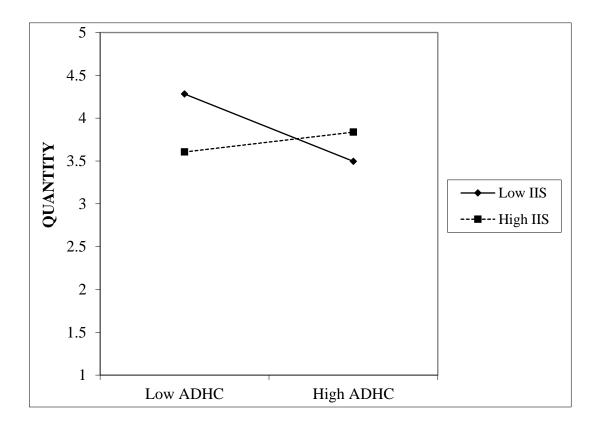

Figure 6. 13: 2-way interaction effect of adhocracy culture on quantity contingent on incremental implementation

6.4.4.3 Citizen satisfaction, Adhocracy and IIS

Figure 6.15 shows that the interaction effect of adhocracy culture on citizen satisfaction is contingent on incremental implementation. It also shows that the relative level of incremental implementation is important in conditioning the relationship between adhocracy culture and citizen satisfaction. When adhocracy culture is weak, citizen satisfaction is higher if there is a low level of incremental implementation. However, that relationship is reversed when adhocracy-oriented culture is strong: citizen satisfaction is now higher if there is a high rather than a low level of incremental implementation.
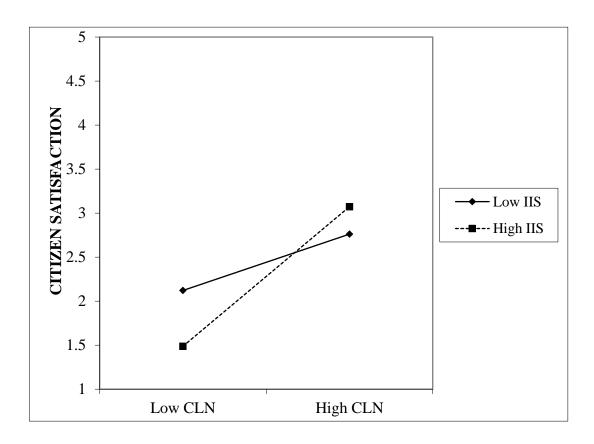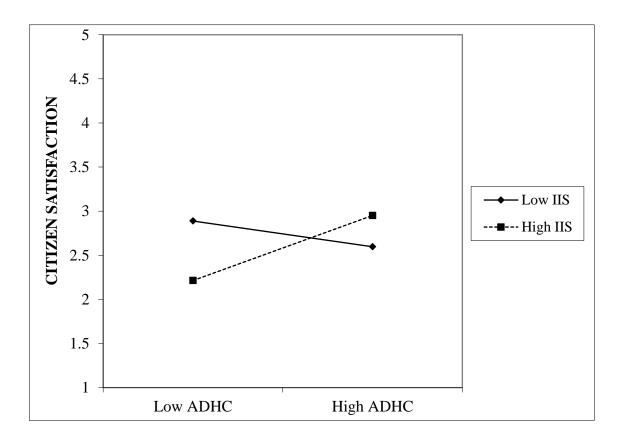

Figure 6. 14: 2-way interaction effect of adhocracy culture on citizen satisfaction contingent on incremental implementation

6.4.4.4 Innovation, Adhocracy and IIS

Figure 6.16 shows the interaction between adhocracy culture and innovation, contingent upon the changes in incremental implementation. It basically shows that the relative levels of incremental implementation is important in conditioning the relationship between adhocracy culture and innovative performance. When adhocracy culture is weak, innovation is higher if there is a low level of incremental implementation. However, that relationship is reversed when adhocracy culture is strong: innovation performance is higher if there is a high rather than a low level of incremental implementation.
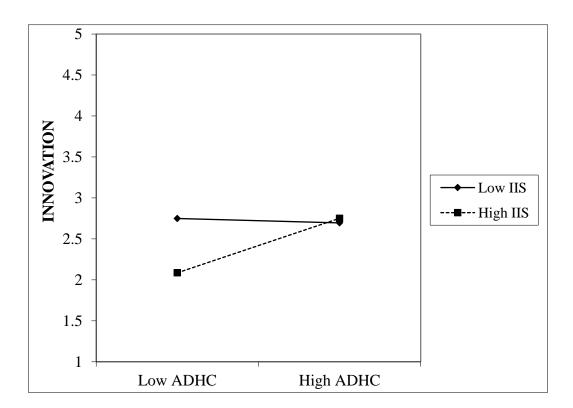
Figure 6. 15: 2-way interaction effect of adhocracy culture on innovation contingent on incremental implementation

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented analyses of the hypothesized relationships between the study variables. The study reveals that rational implementation shows a significant positive relationship with organizational performance, whilst an incremental implementation style does not. As far as organizational culture types are concerned, a hierarchy culture shows a significant relationship with quantity, corresponding to the hypothesis on this relationship. Additionally, hierarchy culture shows a positive relationship with quality, citizen satisfaction and innovation. However, a clan culture has no significant relationship with quality, a market type no relationship with citizen satisfaction and an adhocracy culture no relationship with innovation. So although the hypotheses for the independent effects of rational implementation on performance are confirmed, those for the independent effect of different cultural types on specific performance dimensions are mostly unconfirmed.

As regards the moderating effects of rational implementation style, the results suggested that rational implementation has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between hierarchy culture and organizational performance. Rational implementation style also has a positive moderation effect on the relationship between market culture and performance. Regarding the strength of incremental implementation style on the relationship between types of culture and performance, incremental implementation showed a positive moderating effect on the relationship between clan culture and organizational performance. Incremental implementation also showed a positive moderating effect on the relationship between adhocracy culture and performance. Table 6.6 summarizes the results of the hypotheses tested in line with the study construct.

Following the quantitative data collection and analysis, complementary qualitative data were collected in order to clarify the uncovered relationships in the quantitative data analysis. In the next chapter, the qualitative data will be presented and analysed.

Table 6. 1: **Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results**

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Result
H1a	RIS→ Organizational Performance	Supported
H1b	IIS →Organizational Performance	Not supported
H2a	Hier → Quality	Supported
H2b	Mrkt → Citizen Satisfaction	Not supported
H2c	Cln → Quality	Not supported
H2d	Adhc → Innovation	Not supported
H3a	RIS * Hier → OP	Supported
H3b	RIS * Mrkt → OP	Supported
H3c	IIS * Cln → OP	Supported
H3d	IIS * Adhc → OP	Supported

CHAPTER 7

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will present an analysis of the qualitative data collected. The chapter is structured into four parts. In the first part, the characteristics of the participants, the sample size and the rationale behind choosing the interviewees will be explained. The second part examines the data from transcribed interviews, which is used to develop certain themes and recognise similarities and patterns in the data that are linked to the research questions, as well as identifying themes and mechanisms emerging from the concepts covered by the study. In the third part of chapter, the codified data are displayed in a table for content analysis. In the fourth part, conclusions are drawn and links are identified between the qualitative and quantitative data results by re-examining the research questions and the study hypotheses.

7.2 Interview Participants and Sample Size

The adequacy of the sample size for qualitative data in mixed methods research depends on the specific research design of the study. Generally speaking there is no standard sample size recommended for a mixed methods research. Most researchers claim that interviews should be continued until data saturation occurs. In other words, the sample size should expect to reach a suitable depth of information on the range of concepts the research is dealing with (Small, 2009). Green and Thorogood (2004) claim that new insights can be obtained using 20 interviewees. Crouch and McKenzie (2006) suggest 15-20 participants as an adequate sample size. Guest et al. (2006) consider that the minimum number of interviewees for data saturation should be around 12, and that even basic components and structures begin to emerge after the first 6 in-depth interviews. Johnson and Christensen (2004) suggest that 6-12 participants should be sufficient, while other researchers propose 6-10 (Morgan, 1997; Langford et al., 2002) or even 6-9 (Krueger, 2000) as an optimal sample size. Since the current research adopted a purposive sampling approach, 16 semi-structured interviews were considered a good sample size within the scope of this research.

In sequential mixed method studies, the final sample used in the primary data collection stage was applied as the sampling frame for subsequent data collection. In this study the QUAL strand therefore employed a subsample of the larger QUAN sample. The data obtained through the quantitative data collection helped to identify interviewees with specific features for the qualitative data collection (Creswell, 2006). Mixed method researchers use the same participants for both quantitative and qualitative data collections so that the data derived using two different methodologies can be more easily merged and compared. Since the aim of the qualitative research was to clarify quantitative relationships emerging from the survey, the interviewees for the qualitative research were selected from those survey respondents who gave the highest overall score for each possible type of moderating relationship between strategy implementation styles, organizational culture types and performance variables. Table 7.1 shows the characteristics of the interview participants.

Table 7. 1: Interview Participants

VARIABLES	*RIS X HIER*	*RIS X MRKT*	*IIS X CLN*	*IIS X ADHC*
RESPONDENTS (R)	GENDER/POSITION	GENDER/POSITION	GENDER/POSITION	GENDER/POSITION
QUALITY	**R14)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Finance)	**R5)** MALE/ UNIT HEAD (R&D)	**R1)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Water)	**R10)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Transport)
QUANTITY	**R2)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Finance)	**R15)** FEMALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Planning)	**R11)** MALE/ UNIT HEAD (Finance)	**R6)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Environmental Services)
CITIZEN SATISFACTION	**R8)** MALE / UNIT HEAD (Finance)	**R3)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Corporate)	**R9)** MALE/ UNIT HEAD (Back Office)	**R7)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Finance)
INNOVATION	**R13)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Environmental Services)	**R16)** MALE / UNIT HEAD (Back Office)	**R12)** MALE/ DEPARTMENT HEAD (Corporate)	**R4)** FEMALE/ UNIT HEAD (Back Office)

As recommended by Bryman and Bell (2011), the potential interview questions were constructed beforehand and were set within a standard interview protocol (see Appendix B). All interviews were conducted in Turkish to obtain the best level of insight from the interviewees. After transcribing the interviews, a considerable part of them were translated into English to check and ensure that the codes used in the analysis were consistent with the concepts of the study. Bryman (2012) suggests that if there is a very limited data set, then it is not worth spending time and applying a software programme. The current study therefore used manual coding to analyse the data as the small number of interviewees allow this.

7.3 Data Reduction through Coding

Data reduction is a process by which transcribed interviews can be reduced, taking out the important data without losing any relevant information. Coding is the most popular method in data reduction, and basically enables the researcher to organize raw data into conceptual categories. Miles and Huberman (1994) set out two integrated coding processes, descriptive and pattern coding. Richard (2005) also identifies these two coding types as topic and analytic codes. Descriptive, or topic, codes summarise segments of data, labelling its contents to provide a foundation for later integrated coding. With pattern (analytic) codes, a more inferential coding is used to bring labelled data together into more well-defined and meaningful categories in order to interconnect and conceptualize links between different themes (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

7.3.1 Descriptive Coding

Descriptive coding primarily focuses on identifying and labelling data. It is helpful in the early process of analysis, getting started without need for inference. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that a code list should be drawn up before interviews are conducted because the objectives of the research should be consistent with the data gathered through the interviews. Coding can also be an ongoing process throughout the data analysis, insofar as these codes can be refined, redefined and even excluded during the analyses of transcribed interviews. In this study, the qualitative analysis

was guided by the study's conceptual framework, so it was much easier to determine a precise code list. Table 7.2 presents a list of the codes corresponding to the conceptual framework of the study. The codes basically aim to cover the main themes of the study and the interrelating relationships between them in order to show what elements will be discussed through the analysis.

Table 7.2: List of Codes Used

Code Label	Code Definition
SIS	Strategy Implementation Style
SIS-RIS	Rational Implementation Style
SIS-IIS	Incremental Implementation Style
OC	Organizational Culture
OC-MRKT	Market Culture
OC- HIER	Hierarchy Culture
OC- CLN	Clan Culture
OC- ADHC	Adhocracy Culture
OP	Organizational Performance
OP-QUAL.	Quality
OP-QUANT.	Quantity
OP-C SAT.	Citizen Satisfaction
OP-INNOV.	Innovation

Descriptive coding for this study mainly formulises each element of the analysis in order to facilitate the further analysis, which will be done by connecting these elements.

SIS-RIS

Certain themes and statements are identified as matching the descriptive code headings by examining the interview transcripts extensively. Regarding strategy implementation styles, respondents mostly discussed the elements of a rational implementation style. The vast majority of respondents (15 out of 16) agreed that

targets, plans and programmes are the primary forces of strategies implementation in their departments. Here are some example statements from interviewees:

> *"We implement our agenda here based on 5 years, 1 year, monthly and weekly plans."* (Respondent 5)

> *"We try to foresee necessities and implement our projects in line with these needs. Every department needs to prepare its own strategic targets for the next 5 years in order to prepare it for execution."* (Respondent 10)

> *"I personally execute the work on the agenda according to order of priority determined beforehand."* (Respondent 15)

The importance of budgeting during the implementation process was the next most popular element (Respondents 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11). Three respondents also spoke about rules and regulations as effective factors in the execution of strategies (Respondents 5, 7, 11). Inspection of audit office as an external control mechanism was also mentioned as another relevant factor by four managers (Respondents, 5, 7, 11, 12).

SIS-IIS

Only 5 respondents specifically talked about the style of incremental implementation. The most commonly indicated elements were "emergent situations" (Respondents, 2, 3, 8, 12, 16). Three respondents discussed gaining benefits from "past experiences" during the implementation process (Respondents, 8, 12, 16):

> *"I have been working as a public manager for 25 years. My past experience mostly tells me what needs to be performed."* (Respondent 8)

> *"The strategic plan is a generic target document, however my department implements strategies in the same way that previous strategies were performed."* (Respondent 12)

One respondent mentioned that "adapting the strategies to different environmental situations" is necessary because of unexpected situations:

"Unpredictability is part of the nature of our work. Especially when we work in the field, all plans may be replaced by the contingency actions." (Respondent 2)

Most of the managers confirmed that a rational implementation style is much more common in the implementation of policies and strategies. Although some policies were implemented incrementally, the study concluded that rational implementation generally outweighs incremental implementation.

As regards the four types of culture the current study investigated are concerned, all the managers interviewed were able to define their departmental culture by emphasising that cultural and related values are crucial to the work of their departments. Most respondents talked about elements of clan culture (14 respondents), followed by hierarchy culture (9 respondents). Fewer mentioned adhocracy (5 respondents) and market type (3 respondents).

OC-CLN

In terms of clan culture, while 14 respondents admitted that their departmental culture includes components of clan culture, 7 managers stated that clan culture was dominant within their departments. (Respondents 1, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14). Four managers also admitted that family-like relationships exist in their departments (Respondents 8, 10, 12, 14):

"My relationship with my colleagues is quite warm, one-to-one, and I meet most of my workers in my own time." (Respondent 10)

"The relationships are one-to-one and horizontal here, and the chain of command in this department is not typical." (Respondent 12)

"We like the organization we work in. We are like a big family here. I like my department head like my sister. I have 40 subordinates here and at least 35 of them call me a friend. (Respondent 14)

Three managers indicated that "personnel development" is a valuable mission in their department (Respondents 5, 7, 10). The importance of "cooperation" between managers and staff was also mentioned three times (Respondents 4, 9, 10). Respondents 9 and 10 also talked about "teamwork" as parts of their culture (Respondents 9, 10). Meanwhile, two managers emphasised that they and their staff "manage the department together":

> *"Participation is essential in our department, and every single person has a crucial role in contributing to our work."* (Respondent 10)

> *"Superior- subordinate relationships do not exist in this department. Also, most of the unit heads in my department are older than me, so I can consider that we manage this department together."* (Respondent 11)

OC-HIER

Similarly, whilst 9 respondents discussed elements of hierarchical culture, 7 municipal managers indicated that their department culture has a hierarchical structure and culture (2, 3, 4, 8, 13, 15, 16). The managers' statements mainly focused on upward accountability (2 respondents), top management authority (4 respondents) and superior-subordinate relationships (2 respondents) (Respondents 2, 3, 4, 8, 13):

> *"We have a hierarchical culture. Orders come from top management and lower level managers and their staff have to implement those orders. Top management expects us to implement at least 80% of the orders and also oversees that process."* (Respondent 2)

> *"There is a system here that operates like clockwork thanks to the authority of our general secretary. I agree that the system is somewhat hierarchical."* (Respondent 3)

> *"Hierarchical structure is indispensable in a public organization. I have a crucial role in orientating the personnel. In this way, everyone focuses on the targets."* (Respondent 4)

"My relationship with my subordinates is kind but firm. We have superior-subordinate relationships in this department. I am an authoritarian leader who considers discipline in my department whenever necessary." (Respondent 8)

"Our relationships are a little distant but respectful in this department. This is a political public organization, I must maintain relationships at a certain level." (Respondent 13)

OC-ADHC

No managers gave any indications of having a dominant adhocracy culture. However, when asked directly, some department managers stated that there has been a process of change which has led them to develop a more innovative culture. Overall, they mentioned innovation (4), challenging problems (2) and organizational restructuring (2) (Respondents 3, 4, 6, 7, 10):

"The General Secretary of our organization encourages innovation and he is not the sort of person to remain content with the existing situation. I think we are an innovative organization rather than a hierarchical one." (Respondent 6)

"The old civil servant concept has been gradually changing. Staff in both our municipality and my department in particular are able to take action quickly when faced with an unexpected situation. Top level managers are also ready to face any upcoming problems." (Respondent 7)

"Organizational reconstruction has been experienced over the last five years. By getting help from a consulting company, we have performed necessary surgery and transformed the organization. Big changes do not happen overnight, the consequences will be seen gradually." (Respondent 3)

OC-MRKT

Only four managers spoke about the concepts related to market culture (Respondents, 3, 5, 15). They concentrated mainly on producing more at a lower cost, being efficient as private sector organizations and hiring contract personnel temporarily:

> *"Our department is not as profit-oriented as private sector organizations, but we still seek to produce more work at lower cost to reflect public value."* (Respondent 5)

> *"I know there is a perception that the public sector does not work as efficiently as the private sector. However, we have got over this stereotype in this department by generating an original type of market culture which accommodates public sector practices."* (Respondent, 3).

> *"I believe the market type of understanding must be improved in the public sector, and aspiration actually lies in this direction. Contracted personnel have been employed temporarily over recent years, but civil servants do not perform the same way as private sector workers."* (Respondent 15)

All the managers mentioned the concept of organizational performance. Although most of them stated that their departments considered such performance criteria as quality, quantity, citizen satisfaction and innovation, each manager sets different performance criteria over others.

OP-QUAL

Most of the respondents (12 of the managers) stated that they cared about quality and service standards within their departments;

> *"I do not sacrifice quality in service, even if it can be bought at a cheaper price."* (Respondent 1)

> *"We know that a low quality product will cost us much more if it breaks down, so in the long run, we choose to provide better quality products and services."* (Respondent 2)

"Service standards are our main criteria. We do not just perform in order to overcome deficiencies, we think of ways in which we can supply better quality services." (Respondent 6)

"In our department, we have a sense of quality, we simply try to do our best with the finest available." (Respondent 7)

"It is important to maintain service standards at a certain level as we execute defined tasks according to the rules and regulations." (Respondent 11)

OP-CSAT

Citizen satisfaction was seen as the second most important performance criterion (11 respondents). Respondents talked about the importance of informing citizens about their work and its results:

"I invest for the benefit of the people… You can be considered successful if you let citizens know about developments even if you do not do a great deal." (Respondent 3)

"We perform surveys to measure citizen satisfaction. If your citizens cannot understand what you have done, all your work becomes meaningless." (Respondent 5)

"On the basis of our work, citizen satisfaction is the final aim of our policies." (Respondent 9)

The general consensus of those respondents who cared about citizen satisfaction most was that their departments also consider other performance criteria to make life better and easier for the people living in their service areas.

OP-QUANT

10 managers mentioned the extent to which they considered quantity as a primary performance criterion. The quantity of work matters when there is a legal requirement to complete it. One manager also addressed the fact that considering quantity outcomes will ensure that the work is done more systematically in his department.

> *"Our working numbers are laid out in our 5-year budget plan. We mostly have to perform in line with this system."* (Respondent 2)

> *"Finishing the work on time is extremely important. No one will query the quality that much, but getting your work done quickly in this department is essential."* (Respondent 9)

> *"Whatever is laid down on the performance programme agenda has to be accomplished within a year. It forces me to concentrate on the amount of work. Otherwise, numbers and measures would not really mean that much."* (Respondent 11)

> *"Before considering any other performance criteria, I make sure that a certain quantity of work is completed."* (Respondent 14)

OP-INNOV

The performance criterion mentioned least by the respondents was innovation. Three respondents spoke about signals for change and the adoption of innovation, as is evident from the following responses:

> *"One of my main targets is to modernize the services I offer through this unit."* (Respondent 4)

> *"Ungainliness is a chronic characteristic of public sector organizations. However, full innovation has not been quite possible in this situation. I have started to redesign the format of organization reports differently for*

each year. You might think that this is nothing, but the idea of change must start somewhere." (Respondent 7)

"Innovation is on our agenda. We try to adopt the best European practices." (Respondent 10)

7.3.2 Pattern Coding

Pattern coding, as a higher level of analysis, principally takes data from a descriptive level and moves it to a more integrated level by conceptualizing, interpreting and interconnecting the information revealed in the interview process (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Bryman (2012) describes the pattern coding method as a form of thematic analysis, and his extensive research in 2010 found that most qualitative studies in the literature (in the Social Science Citation Index) use thematic analysis. As a generic strategy, this framework is used to arrange and display data into main themes and from there into subthemes in a matrix for each possible scenario. As the qualitative study in this case was done to support the findings of quantitative data, the results of pattern coding are expected to associate the emerging themes with the generic quantitative study construct. As such, the pattern codes for this research were determined based on the research questions and the conceptual framework of the study, along with the descriptive codes.

7.3.2.1 Rational Implementation Style and Its Relationship with Organizational Performance

As indicated in the descriptive coding section, the majority of the interviewees viewed targets, plans and programmes as the fundamental elements of their rational implementation process. The vast majority of respondents also acknowledged that a rational style of implementation is crucial to the success of the organization's strategies. This means that there is a link between rational implementation style and organizational performance, which comes about via targets, plans and programmes. Some respondents commented on this issue:

"The process of strategy implementation is determined by the strategic plan, and implementation mostly keeps up with performance targets

prepared yearly in order to meet those targets by the end of the year."
(Respondent 6)

"There is no room for coincidence in the implementation process or its expected outcomes, because each department is asked to determine their own agenda during the strategy making process. In the end, the predetermined targets are mostly achieved by each department under my management." (Respondent 5)

"In this department, our implementations are mainly directed by strategic plans, performance programmes and periodic goals as integrated elements… If these did not exist, it would not be possible to succeed" (Respondent 7)

"In this department, we prepare our own work calendar and follow weekly, monthly and yearly schedules within the organization. It is important for us to perform well and it also makes it easier to implement 5-year strategic targets" (Respondent 15)

The revision of targets, plans and programmes is also seen as an important factor in explaining the relationship between rational implementation and performance (6 respondents). Notable comments on such revisions are:

"If we believe that results will be better, we will make changes to the targets laid out by the strategic plan within the implementation process, depending on the agenda behind the changes." (Respondent 6)

"At each two year stage of the implementation process, the strategic plan is reviewed to catch up with any new changes that might have arisen. We have just started practicing this process in order to meet required targets." (Respondent 9)

"Strategic plans and performance target programmes are regularly revised in order to find out whether the targets are going to be reached both at the end of each year and within the longer 5 year strategy."
(Respondent 15)

In general, the managers considered that rules and regulations were essential to the success of strategy implementation. Some typical comments are:

"Ensuring optimal organizational performance is our ultimate goal. The implementations of this department have to comply with the regulations to which our municipality is subject." (Respondent 5)

"There are rules and regulations we need to obey during the strategy implementation process .... It is a very big responsibility. Because the activity reports act as the mayor's scorecards, if the reports can not be passed by the municipal council with at least half the total vote, the mayor can be sued by the governorship on the grounds of organizational ineffectiveness." (Respondent 7).

"There is strict legislation we have to comply with in practice. That's why laws are extremely influential on the success of implementation" (Respondent 11).

7.3.2.2 Incremental Implementation Style and Its Relationship with Organizational Performance

Whilst incremental implementation is relevant to organizational performance, it is far less important than rational implementation. No manager mentioned incremental implementation as the style of choice. However, two respondents admitted that along with rational implementation as a primary style, they also adopted incremental practices when necessary. The link between incremental implementation and organisational performance is present, and emerges through two main themes, namely benefitting from past experience and reacting immediately to emerging situations:

"When a new issue emerges from our plan—this happens quite often in practice—it is vital to find a way based on past experience to get the work done." (Respondent 2)

"Unexpected situations that arise during implementation threaten the success of the projects. Most of us in this department have faced these, which is why we are ready to produce alternative solutions by determining non-standard responses to react to emergent situations as soon as they arise." (Respondent 16)

Public managers from different departments also offered similar responses, claiming that the relationship between rational implementation style and performance is stronger than the relationship between incremental implementation styles and organizational performance (Respondents 5, 6, 14):

"Even if strategies sometimes change during the implementation process depending on the agenda, in this department we have to stick to the schedule to ensure consistent performance outcomes that match predetermined plans." (Respondent 6)

"We have strategic targets set out for the next five years, and in order to perform well we need to focus on implementing these pre-specified targets rather than creating new ones." (Respondent 14)

7.3.2.3 Clan Culture and Quality

Clan culture is positively related to service quality. Six out of seven respondents who indicated that their departments have da predominant clan culture stated that they regarded quality as the key organizational performance variable. These interviewees explained the link between clan culture and quality through managing the department together, maintaining good human relations and developing human resources strongly. Examples of responses within each theme were:

"My team and I have been working together on operationalizing to a quality management system." (Respondent 1)

"Reliability of service is the most important thing in the local government in the long term. As a manager, I am here to support and encourage my staff in order to enable them to produce better quality outcomes." (Respondent 5)

"In this department, open dialogue has been maintained and quality of the staff is also great. I think good human relations indirectly affect the quality of products and services through highly qualified and motivated staff." (Respondent 11)

"Rules are not enough for me to produce better services, good human relations must come into play to be able to motivate the staff… Master-apprentice relationships also exist here; everyone develops by learning from more experienced people. My department is currently undertaking a project focusing on the orientation of human resources to improve the standard of the work we produce." (Respondent 9)

"Human relations are the most important factor here in the accomplishment of our work… Performance is quite a broad concept to define in a word, but we prioritize enhancing service standards in this unit." (Respondent 12)

"I clear the way for my subordinates in order to train qualified personnel who can lead the department in my absence. Properly qualified personnel directly affect the level of our services and products." (Respondent 10)

7.3.2.4 Hierarchy Culture and Quantity

Hierarchy culture is positively related to service quantity. As previously mentioned, hierarchy culture was associated with quantity variable by 7 respondents. 4 managers mentioned that the relationship between a hierarchical culture and quantity was mainly explained by upward accountability. Another link in this respect was made regarding regulations and legal responsibilities (2 respondents). Some related comments included:

> *"Upward accountability is an important factor for us to finish a set amount of work on time."* (Respondent 2)

> *"As a mid-level manager, I have to be accountable to upper level management. Every month, all department heads meet under the chairmanship of the deputy of general secretary and they are asked to present their achievements during that month."* (Respondent 8)

> *"There are some regulations and controls as well a time limit. Defined tasks and their implementations need to be accomplished first."* (Respondent 13)

> *"Weekly plans are prepared in this department to get targeted works done... It helps us to accomplish our legal responsibility."* (Respondent 15)

3 managers admitted that performance programmes enhance the positive relationship between hierarchy culture and quantity. However, 2 respondents specifically mentioned that although hierarchy culture is an important of quantity and output, it is an issue that is secondary in terms of priority for their departments.

7.3.2.5 Adhocracy Culture and Innovation

A culture of adhocracy has positive effects on innovation. Some respondents were eager to discuss adhocracy culture and innovation. All respondents admitted that an innovative culture encouraged them to be change-oriented. Two respondents

mentioned that the significance of both adhocracy culture and innovation will be better understood in the long term. One unit head also spoke about the importance of autonomy, stating that more innovation can be actualized by giving staff more freedom in the workplace. The main themes focused on practices of innovation, new ideas, shared experience, adaptability and organizational reform processes:

"We are one of the best organizations at implementing new systems such as innovative document management, mobile failure tracking and sewage scale systems. We would be happy to share our knowledge about any of these innovations with other organizations if they would like to learn." (Respondent 3)

"Our managers are the type of people who are open to innovations and who make growth-oriented plans and programmes. We have the courage to be the first in Turkey to implement innovations, and we are always willing to share our experience." (Respondent 6)

"We have experienced a reform process in this department. There is a change in effort, especially from young managers. They are able to express their ideas freely and are willing to change the status quo. I believe many things will change over the next few years." (Respondent 7)

"Compared to other municipalities, I think our staff are more inclined to initiate new services… These new services are offered not only out of necessity but as part of our desire to supply better services." (Respondent 10)

7.3.2.6 Market Culture and Citizen Satisfaction

There is a positive relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction, although only three managers talked about this relationship. Two respondents admitted that their departments cared about task focusing and the accomplishment of goals:

"Customer problems are our first priority. They need to be resolved quickly... Focusing on a task is crucial to the accomplishment of our work. There is nothing to force us to come to work on weekends but sometimes we work on Saturdays if there are things that needs doing urgently." (Respondent 3)

"Citizen satisfaction is important, and sometimes we overstretch ourselves in a limited time to attain relevant goals. We are careful to use all organizational resources efficiently (such as time, money and human resources) while simultaneously trying to keep the public satisfied." (Respondent 5)

However, one respondent considered that there was no linear relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction because of the nature of the work and the existing system:

"There is no rivalry, because the nature of our work dictates that no citizen can refuse to accept our services and buy from someone else. Therefore, we do not aim to rank citizen satisfaction as a priority. We do not work for profit, but being cost effective is important. However, there is no reward system and accomplishments are shared throughout the organization, the system does not encourage our staff to be competitive." (Respondent 4).

7.3.2.7 Rational Implementation Style and Its Impact on Hierarchy Culture

A rational implementation style increases the positive impact of hierarchy culture. Whilst managers mentioned that hierarchy culture is positively related to quantity as a performance criterion, further investigation showed that the effect of rational implementation increases the relationship between hierarchy culture and organisational performance. Six respondents discussed this relationship, and they all mentioned that concepts such as strategic planning and performance programmes as a yearly agenda in practice strengthen hierarchical culture in their departments. Four

respondents also specifically emphasised the influences the predetermined targets and goals on the implementation of top managers:

"Our work and our effectiveness depend on what top management allows us to do. That's why we primarily implement routine work authorised by upper level managers." (Respondent 2)

"The rule-oriented approach of the new department head has strongly affected the outcomes of our projects in this unit. He took the department to a much better position than had previously been in. The most important reason for his success is his efficient execution of departmental goals and targets prepared earlier" (Respondent 8).

"We can produce successful policies here as long as the top management team and the mayor empower us to do so. Top management may not always directly interfere our daily work, but their influence become more visible as we try to meet our planned targets" (Respondent 13).

7.3.2.8 Rational Implementation Style and Its Impact on Market Culture

Using a rational implementation style has no effect on market culture. As mentioned previously, respondents agreed that market culture is to some extent positively related to citizen satisfaction as a performance criterion. However, when examining the effect of rational implementation on the relationship between market culture and organizational performance, no linking relationship was observed throughout the interviews. Only one respondent mentioned that the purposive projects in the department do not need to produce more or be profitable. All they need do is to implement the projects as planned. Therefore, for the managers themselves, rational implementation has no effect on a market type of culture.

7.3.2.9 Incremental Implementation Style and Its Impact on Clan Culture

Incremental implementation styles have no effect on the impact of clan culture. As the respondents mentioned, clan cultures are positively related to quality as a performance criterion. However, when examining the effect of incremental implementation on the relationship between clan culture and organizational performance, no relationship was

identified by the respondents. When discussing this issue, the respondents did not differentiate between the effects of rational or incremental implementation on clan type of culture. In relation to this, one respondent said that group culture is the most interiorized element of his department, adding that this is something that is hard to change. This possibly indicates that no single implementation style can influence a clan type of culture because of its strong internal coherence.

7.3.2.10 Incremental Implementation Style and Its Impact on Adhocracy Culture

Respondents discussed the idea of adhocracy culture being positively related to innovation as a performance criterion. Further examination of the interviews revealed that an incremental implementation style also enhances the relationship between adhocracy culture and organisational performance. When asked about this relationship, respondents used such phrases as "strongly affected", "helping to be more creative", "facilitating changes" in order to identify the influence of incremental implementation on performance. Four interviewees specifically talked about how this relationship works in their departments:

> *"Young unit managers in my department take risks much more easily when implementing their decisions. They are not always eager to follow procedure; instead they believe that creating new solutions to problems they encounter within the process develops an immunity to bureaucratic culture. So for them, making implementations as problems emerge accommodates with their more adaptable organizational values. Actually, this is something I also give special attention to."* (Respondent 10)

> *"Building an innovative culture is rather difficult in this type of environment. It is much easier to change organizational practices as opposed to beliefs people used have held for years. I know that a balance between being realistic and being visionary is needed in order to be successful. That's why I encourage my staff to practice their work freely so that their creativeness can lead to an innovative culture."* (Respondent 3)

One respondent also mentioned that examples set by best practice are a way for them to encourage an innovative culture. However, he added that new practices are implemented as plans and programmes progress. Consequently, the respondent concluded that planned implementations may also lead to the adoption of an innovative culture in certain situations.

7.4 Data Display and Interpretation

Data display is specified as an essential component of qualitative data analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994). A proper display of data helps demonstrate dispersed and bulky information in the forms of tables, figures, charts and other graphical ways in order to make the interpretation and analysis easier. Table 7.3 shows the themes arising from the descriptive and pattern codes together with the number of respondents for each code.

Code	Themes	Respondents
	Descriptive codes	
Rational Implementation Style		**15**
	Targets, plans, programmes	15
	Budgeting	8
	Rules and regulations	3
	Inspection of audit office	4
Incremental Implementation Style		**5**
	Emergent situations	5
	Past experiences	3
	Environmental adaptation of strategies	1
Clan culture		**14**
	Family-like relationships	4
	Personnel development	3
	Cooperation between managers and staff	3
	Teamwork	2
	Managing department together	2
Hierarchy culture		**7**
	Upward accountability	4
	Top management authority	4
	Superior-subordinate relationships	2

Adhocracy culture		**5**
	Innovation	4
	Challenging problems	2
	Organizational restructuring	2
Market culture		**3**
	Producing more at lower cost	2
	Being as efficient as private sector organizations	1
	Contracted personnel hired temporarily	1
Quality		**12**
	Maintaining service standards	6
	Producing optimum quality	1
	Better products and services	6
Citizen satisfaction		**11**
	Making citizens aware	6
	Citizen satisfaction surveys	3
	Improving citizens' lives	4
Quantity		**10**
	Legal requirements	2
	Completing the work more systematically	2
	Performing in line with objectives	3
	Awareness of output	5
Innovation		**3**
	Signals of change	2
	Adoption of innovation	1

	Pattern Codes	
RIS + Organizational Performance		**15**
	Through targets, plans and programmes	13
	Through revision of the plans and programmes	6
	Through rules and regulations	4
IIS + Organizational Performance		**6**
	Benefitting from past experiences	4
	Immediate reaction to emerging situations	3
Clan culture + Quality		**6**
	Joint management	2
	Positive human relations	4
	Positive human resource development	2

Hierarchy culture + Quantity		7
	Upward accountability	4
	Rules and legal responsibilities	2
	Performance programmes	3
Adhocracy culture + Innovation		5
	Freedom in workplace (autonomy)	1
	New experiences	3
	Sharing experiences	2
	Adaptability	1
	Organizational reform	2
Market culture + Citizen Satisfaction		3
	Maintaining focus	1
	Goal accomplishment	1
	No linear relationship exists because of the nature of the work and the existing system	1
Rational Implementation Increases Positive Impact of Hierarchy Culture		6
	Strategic plans and yearly performance programmes	3
	Senior managers influence goals and targets	4
Incremental Implementation Increases Positive Impact of Adhocracy Culture		4
	Being more creative	2
	Facilitating change	3
	Organizational practice	2

Table 7.3: Qualitative Data Display: Codes, Themes and Respondents

The reasons for data reduction and display are to help in drawing conclusions by providing a snapshot of the results. An overview of the qualitative results will presented in the last part of this chapter and these results will be used to draw an overall conclusion. The results of the qualitative analysis will be linked with the hypotheses of the research to explain and further analyse relationships that have been both confirmed and unconfirmed by the quantitative data analysis.

7.4.1 Strategy Implementation Style and Organizational Performance

Qualitative data analysis show that strategy implementation styles influence organizational performance, and respondents stated that a rational implementation style is the strongest single factor in this model. The qualitative data also showed that an incremental implementation style is related to organizational peformance — although less strongly than a rational one. So whilst we can conclude that rational and incremental implementation styles are both related to performance, rational implementation styles appear a great deal more important than incremental styles. The most repeated themes in relation to rational implementation were targets, plans and programmes, revision of planning tools and rules and regulations. Meanwhile, the most common themes linking incremental implementation with performance were benefitting from previous experiences and reacting to emergent situations in a timely fashion.

Similar to the results from quantitative analysis results, qualitative analysis also indicates that rational implementation is the main facilitator of organizational performance. The interviewees also accepted that incremental implementation is a less effective approach than rational implementation in determining organizational outcomes, as one of the study hypothesis suggests. Overall, it can be concluded that the relevant hypotheses of the thesis have mostly been verified by the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

7.4.2 Organizational Culture and Performance

In the line with the research questions, qualitative data were obtained to test the potential relationships between four types of workplace culture and their related performance criteria.

First of all, the relationship between clan culture and quality of output was assessed through qualitative data analysis. The majority of respondents stated that clan culture promotes quality as a performance criterion, and the most commonly repeated themes that enable that relationship are managing the department together, having good human relations and a good human resources development. Overall, the results from quantitative analysis did not confirm a relationship between clan culture and work

quality, although the interviews found that certain mechanisms can trigger a link between clan culture and quality.

Regarding hierarchy culture and quantity, most managers who considered their department hierarchical also said that quantity is the most important performance criterion. The results showed that the main components affecting the relationship between hierarchical culture and quantity are accountability to upper level management, regulations and legal responsibilities. It was also indicated that hierarchy culture leads to the higher levels of output in terms of products and services by making use of performance programmes. As the quantitative analysis results suggest a strong positive relationship between hierarchy culture and quantity, it can be concluded that the interview results verify this hypothesised relationship.

As far as adhocracy culture and innovation are concerned, the qualitative data results present a clear link between adhocracy as a culture and innovation as a performance outcome. Fewer people talked about adhocracy culture and innovation together, although it was explicitly expressed that a culture that supports and encourages breakthroughs can be a primary facilitator for innovation. Sharing experiences, encouraging innovation and the restructuring of organizations were the most common themes discussed in this relationship, as well as autonomy and adaptability. Despite the fact that quantitative data analysis did not confirm a relationship between adhocracy culture and innovation, qualitative analysis did offer indications of a relationship between these variables in line with the related study hypothesis.

Lastly, regarding market culture and citizen satisfaction, the qualitative data results discovered a weak relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction. The pertinent themes that emerged during the interviews were focusing tasks and the importance of accomplishing goals. Managers considered that the fundamental aim of employing market culture was to make citizens' lives better. In addition, one respondent clearly stated that although their department is not principally directed by market culture, they only apply market type practices and methods in order to satisfy citizens. Moreover, it was claimed that problems relating to the nature of the work and the existing system in the metropolitan municipalities make it harder to establish a relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction. Consequently, it can be said that a market culture is not the main cultural type within any department, although

it is the one that is most associated with citizen satisfaction among all cultural types. The qualitative data analysis identified certain themes along the same lines as the study hypothesis, although the quantitative analysis was unable to find any verifiable positive relationship between them.

7.4.3 The Moderation Effect of Strategy Implementation on Organizational Culture

The qualitative analysis investigated whether strategy implementation affects any possible impact of organizational culture on performance. In line with the relevant research questions, the interviews asked whether rational implementation has any effect on the relationship between hierarchy culture and performance or on the relationship between market culture and performance. The qualitative data analysis showed that rational strategy implementation has a positive influence on hierarchy culture. The most common themes in this respect were strategic plans, yearly performance targets and also senior managers' influence on targets and goals. These findings supported the quantitative data analysis, which confirmed the moderating role of rational implementation on the relationship between hierarchy culture and organizational performance. The responses from the interviewees also verified this moderating relationship. On the other hand, the moderating effect of rational implementation could not be seen from the interviews to influence the relationship between market culture and performance. However, the survey results proved the positive moderating effect of rational strategy implementation on market culture and performance.

In accordance with the relevant research questions, the interviewees were also asked whether an incremental implementation style has any effect on the relationship between adhocracy culture and performance and also between clan culture and performance. The interview results showed that incremental implementation increases the positive impact of adhocracy culture on performance. Being more creative, facilitating change, taking risks and adapting organizational practices were the most commonly indicated themes in this relationship. Following the quantitative data analysis, the qualitative analysis also found that an incremental implementation style had a positive impact on the relationship between adhocracy culture and organizational performance. However, the qualitative data analysis showed that an

incremental implementation style had no a moderating effect on the relationship between clan culture and organizational performance. One possible reason for this is that clan culture is a dominant form of organizational culture, which is why no implementation style appears to alter the behaviour and attitudes of members of a clan culture. Nevertheless, the survey results did discover that incremental implementation increases the positive impacts of clan culture on performance.

7.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the results of the qualitative data analysis. Sixteen interviews were conducted and the interviewees were selected from among the questionnaire respondents who gave the highest overall score for each type of relationship among the variables.

Miles and Huberman's (1994) approach was adopted in analysing the data. The process involved a series of steps involving the reduction of data by means of coding, displaying and interpreting the data and drawing conclusions from this. Initially, the descriptive coding helped clarify the main themes and mechanisms relating to the individual items in the study construct. Following this, a pattern analysis of the descriptive coding helped analyse the relationships between the same variables used in the quantitative data analyses. As a part of the explanatory sequential study design, the qualitative data analysis was also evaluated along with the quantitative data results in order to gain a better understanding and interpretation of the study questions.

Rational implementation was found to be most influential on organizational performance. A positive relationship was also found between incremental implementation and performance, but it was not as strong as the rational style. When considering strategy implementation style and performance, it can be concluded that the results obtained from interviews are consistent with both quantitative data analysis and the relevant research questions.

Clan culture and quality relationship was the most repeated link between the generic culture and performance. The interview results suggested that clan culture had an effect on quality outcomes, unlike the survey results. Also, a strong positive relationship was found from the qualitative analysis between hierarchy culture and quantity outcome. Futhermore, adhocracy culture was found to associated with

innovation, although the relevant quantitative results did not support this finding. Finally, the link between market culture and citizen satisfaction was the least-mentioned relationship compared to other culture-performance links. The interviewees admitted that they perform market type practices principally in relation to citizen satisfaction. Consequently, despite the fact that this relationship was not be confirmed by the survey data, it can be said that citizen satisfaction was the performance criterion most associated with market type culture.

Lastly, regarding the moderating effect of strategy implementation styles, all the relationships investigated were confirmed by the quantitative data analyses. However, the qualitative data results suggest that while rational implementation increases the positive impact of hierarchy culture on performance, it has no influence on the relationship between market culture and performance. Moreover, incremental implementation appeared to increase the positive impact of adhocracy culture on performance, although it had no influence on clan culture and performance.

The following chapter will present a discussion of the research findings and study contributions. It will also discuss the limitations of this study and suggest directions for future research.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

8.1 Introduction

This thesis investigated the relationships between strategic implementation styles, organizational culture and performance within Turkish local government departments. It specifically explored rational and incremental implementation styles along with their separate relationships with organizational performance. The thesis tested different relationships between organizational culture and performance, including hierarchy culture and quantity, market culture and citizen satisfaction, clan culture and quality and adhocracy culture and innovation. It also tested the moderating effect of rational implementation on the relationships between hierarchy culture and performance as well as market culture and performance. The moderating effect of incremental implementation was tested on relationships between clan culture and performance and adhocracy culture and performance. The study was based on a survey of Turkish local government managers. Quantitative and qualitative research largely supported the hypotheses that were proposed.

This chapter will offer a comprehensive discussion of the study results and assess their implications in both theory and practice. The chapter starts with a discussion of the findings based on the study questions outlined in the first chapter. The chapter's second section addresses practical implications and looks at the contributions of the study. The third section discusses study limitations before outlining directions for future research.

8.2 Discussion of the Research Results

The discussion of the research findings is organized around the study questions investigated through this thesis.

8.2.1 Research Questions 1 and 2: What is the relationship between strategy implementation style and organizational performance in Turkish local government?

Research questions 1 and 2 addressed the relationship between strategy implementation styles and organizational performance in Turkish local government. The results of the quantitative data analysis indicated that the implementation style of the strategies is an important factor in terms of organizational performance. The quantitative survey findings were supported by a follow-up qualitative data analysis. The study results were in line with previous related research on strategy implementation and performance (Bantel, 1997; Parsa, 1999; Hickson et al., 2003; Thorpe and Morgan, 2007). Overall, we can conclude that the relationship between strategy implementation styles and organizational performance is relevant in the context of Turkish local government.

The quantitative analysis results showed that rational implementation style was positively associated with organizational performance, although the impact of incremental implementation was found to be statistically insignificant. In statistical terms, rational implementation showed a very strong positive correlation with performance aspects of quantity, citizen satisfaction, quality and innovation. These effects were still present when controlling for five exogenous factors including expenditure, 2016 population, 2016 population density, poverty level and municipal district. Incremental implementation style, however, presented no significant relationship with any of these dimensions in quantifiable terms. The study findings are consistent with previous research on the comparative benefits of a rational implementation style (Miller, 1997; Parsa, 1999; Schaap, 2006; Schaap, 2012) and an incremental style (Miller, 1997). The results from the qualitative evaluation also suggested that a rational implementation style was related to organizational performance. However, in qualitative terms incremental implementation was also found to be positively associated with performance, although to a lesser extent that rational implementation, in the same line with the study hypothesis regarding the relationship between incremental implementation and performance. . One of the managers summarised this situation very well by saying that;

"We prepare a yearly performance programme in this department in order to make sure that we meet each year's targets. Of course, the demands appear in time... and my department occasionally implements strategies in the way previous strategies were performed… but we do not make it up as we go along" (Respondent 5).

Most of the related research states that provisional plans such as roadmaps, projects and action plans that define works in terms of targets were seen as essential to successful implementation (Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Pinto and Prescott, 1990; Chustz and Larson, 2006; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006). Moreover, Ansoff (1991) argues that a rational implementation style facilitates the control and review of clear strategies. The qualitative study results showed a strong consistency with the relevant literature underscoring the idea that organizational performance in relation to strategy implementation is fundamentally affected by targets, plans, programmes, revision of plans, and rules and regulations. An incremental style of strategy implementation is considered to lead to more effective learning within organizations, and can be more responsive to situations in the field (Mintzberg, 1994; Montgomery, 2008). Andrews et al. (2011) argues that incremental implementation can lead to the continuous adaptation of strategies as they are adjusted throughout the implementation process. Similarly, the qualitative findings of the study suggested that utilizing past experiences and reacting promptly to emerging situations during implementation are important determinants of organizational performance.

From the viewpoints of Turkish public managers, an alternative approach also emerged, claiming that strategy implementation processes include elements of both rational and incremental styles. The qualitative analysis results were particularly revealing, showing that different departments predominantly follow this middle way between rational and incremental implementation styles, cherry-picking the best and most appropriate aspects of each. It becomes clear that even if strategy implementation in Turkish local government relies on formal and legal (rational) strategic plans, flexible (incremental) contingency plans are also required in order to respond to abrupt changes or unforeseen problems. This implementation style is known as logical incrementalism in the literature, as it prioritizes flexibility and the continuous review of strategic planning processes using "purposive" or "conscious" adaptation (Quinn, 1978). Researchers into local government emphasise more flexible models which

comply with a broader range of contingencies, allowing public managers to form adaptable strategies (Boyne, 2001; Bryson, 2011; Eden and Ackermann, 2013), especially in a continuously changing and turbulent environment (Johnson and Scholes, 2001; Walker, 2013). Recent empirical evidences supports the superiority of a mixed rational and incremental style in the planning (Andrews et al., 2009; Poister et al., 2013) and the implementation stages (Hickson et al., 2003; Andrews et al., 2011; Andrews et al., 2017).

8.2.2 Research Questions 3-6: What is the relationship between types of organizational culture and performance in Turkish local government?

Research questions 3-6 addressed the relationships between four types of organizational culture and four performance criteria. Culture was considered by most of the higher level managers to be the main organizational factor affecting public organizational performance. Many previous studies support this culture-performance relationship in the public sector (Argote, 1989; Zimmerman et al., 1993; Brewer and Selden, 2000; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2003; Scott et al., 2003a; Martin et al., 2006), but the question of what type of culture leads to better outcomes remains fundamentally undetermined because of the insufficient number of studies on the relationships between specific types of culture and specific dimensions of performance. However, this study has showed that certain types of organizational culture correspond to particular organizational outcomes in Turkish local government. Since the study examined the four cultural types from the Competing Values Framework (CVF) and looked at their relationships with different types of organizational outcomes, the quantitative analysis results show that a hierarchy type of culture has a very strong positive correlation with organizational performance. The majority of interviewees also associated the dominant culture in their departments with at least one performance criterion by claiming that culture related values and practices in their workplace directly generate a certain type of outcome that pertains to those values.

The literature on the CVF concludes that creating a better performance in hierarchy culture is managed via top-down control, timeliness, formal rules, coordination, stability, smooth scheduling and delivery. In line with these criteria, previous research

has concluded that the relationship between hierarchy-oriented culture and organizational performance depends on stability, order and control (Acar and Acar, 2014); consistency, predictability and rules (Gerowitz et al., 1996); quantity (Davies et al., 2007) and service efficiency (Presentini et al., 2013). The relationship between hierarchy-oriented culture and quantity of output (measured in terms of productivity and finishing work on time) was found to be mostly optimised through rules, regulations and control. The qualitative and quantitative findings of the study confirmed that hierarchy-oriented culture had a significant positive effect on quantity as a performance criterion. The results of the qualitative analysis showed that being accountable to top management, following rules and legal responsibilities and implementing annual performance reviews are responsible for the positive relationship between hierarchy-oriented culture and performance. It can thus be said that the results showed a consistency with past research (Gerowitz et al., 1996; Davies et al., 2007; Acar and Acar, 2014), all of which corresponds to elements of hierarchy culture and its relationship with quantity studied in the current research.

In terms of market-oriented culture and organizational performance, the CVF suggests that superior levels of performance can be reached by focusing on results, competitiveness, goal accomplishment and achievement. Past research implies that the relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction is contingent upon resource acquisition (Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Gerowitz et al., 1996) as well as market share and competitiveness (Gerowitz et al., 1996). However, these studies were dispersed and in some cases came up with contradictory results. As far as the results of the current study on market-oriented culture and citizen satisfaction are concerned, quantitative analysis discovered no significant relationship between market culture and citizen satisfaction. However, qualitative study findings suggested that a market-oriented culture leads to greater levels of citizen satisfaction through elements of goal accomplishment and task focus. This is supported by Ferrira's (2014) study that suggested a positive relationship between market culture and customer care. As a result, we can conclude that the relevant literature shows no clear cut evidence on the relationship between market culture and organizational performance.

When considering links between adhocracy culture and innovation, the CVF specifies innovation as the primary performance criterion of adhocracy-oriented culture, explaining this relationship in terms of taking risks, being innovative, encouraging

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development, and supplying new ideas and services. Existing research also indicates that adhocracy culture has a positive relationship with professional development and system openness (Cameron and Freeman, 1991), external stakeholder satisfaction (Gerowitz et al., 1996; Prestini et al., 2013), being more innovative and entrepreneurial (Jacobs et al., 2013); new processes, active learning and taking risks (Ferreira, 2014), and higher levels of inventiveness (Moynihan and Pandey, 2004). The process of quantitative analysis found no relationship, despite the fact that the qualitative analysis found a strong level of association between these processes. The interviewees strongly emphasised the importance of freedom in the workplace, producing novel ideas, sharing experiences, being adaptable and willing to reform organisational processes. Results in this area showed a great deal of consistency with the elements of the CVF model as well as with the existing literature.

Lastly, literature on the CVF claims that superior levels of performance in a clan culture is linked to elements of mentoring, teamwork, participation, loyalty, human development, human resources and commitment. In line with these criteria, past studies suggest that the relationship between clan-oriented culture and organizational performance depends on improvements in quality (Scott-Cawiezell et al., 2005); perceived team effectiveness (Shortell et al., 2004); quality of care (Van Beek and Gerritsen, 2010) and organizational commitment and work permanence (Goodman et al., 2001; Gifford et al., 2002). Van Beek and Gerritsen's (2010) study showed that clan culture is the only culture that displays a positive relationship with quality when compared to market, adhocracy and hierarchy types of culture. Similarly, Wicke et al.'s (2004) study also found that market and hierarchy cultures represent significant obstacles to quality improvement initiatives within healthcare organizations. Regarding the relationship between clan-oriented culture and quality, the quantitative analysis found no statistical link, but qualitative findings confirmed that clan culture had quite a strong relationship with outcomes relating to quality. The results of the qualitative analysis showed that the principal mechanisms linking clan culture with quality were elements of managing the organization together, service standards, good human relations, qualified personnel and human resource development. We can therefore conclude that the current study results in terms of clan culture and quality are to some extent aligned with the applied framework of the study.

8.2.3 Research Questions 7-10: Does strategy implementation style moderate the relationship between types of organizational culture and performance in Turkish local government?

Research questions 7-10 addressed the effects of interaction between strategy implementation styles and organizational culture and performance. Research emphasises the importance of the relationship between strategy implementation, organizational culture and performance (Slater and Narver, 1993; Day, 1994: Lee et al., 2006; Akbar et al., 2011). Although a few studies examine interactions between strategy implementation and different types of organizational culture (Bates et al., 1995; Hynes, 2009), none of them investigate the relationship between implementation styles, organizational culture types and performance in the public sector. In line with the contingency approach that suggests a fit between organizational components, the current study concludes that an alignment between strategy implementation styles and types of organizational culture will produce the best outcomes. Garnett et al. (2008) consider that strategies and their implementation need to be investigated with organizational culture and its relevant performance outcomes. The quantitative findings of the study discovered that strategy implementation styles had positive impacts on the relationship between organizational culture types and performance. The qualitative data findings also identified some level of interactions between the variables.

The quantitative results linked the rational implementation style with the relationship between hierarchy culture and performance, as did the qualitative findings. Strong links between rational and top-down implementation styles and hierarchy culture in Turkish public administration (Kesik and Canpolat, 2014) may imply that the results of the study are consistent with the way local government administration already functions in Turkey. Despande and Webster (1989) argue that hierarchy-oriented culture has to work hand-in-hand with rational processes in order to achieve a better performance. This study affirms the positive moderation effect of rational implementation on the relationship between hierarchy culture and performance.

This study also investigated the impact of rational implementation on the relationship between market-oriented culture and performance. The quantitative findings showed a positive relationship for this interaction, although the qualitative data results showed

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no clear evidence of this relationship. The relevant literature also claims that rational implementation influences relevant organizational outcomes in a market type of culture (Despande and Webster, 1989). One of the reasons for the weaker qualitative links may be that when asked directly, managers were unwilling to admit to the existence of a market type culture on the grounds of its inapplicability to local government. Overall, there were no explicit results of the findings for this type of interaction, although it can be said that the most significant impact of rational implementation is specifically on the relationship between market-oriented culture and citizen satisfaction when compared to quality, quantity and innovation outcomes.

Regarding the moderation effect of incremental implementation on adhocracy culture and performance relationship, the quantitative analysis identified a strong connection. The qualitative analysis also found the existence of a moderation effect, supporting the quantitative results. The interviews mentioned incremental implementation not only as a facilitator of change but also for improving creativity. We can therefore conclude that incremental implementation has a positive effect on the relationship between adhocracy-oriented culture and organizational performance. The literature considers that more flexible strategies should perform better in an organic structure to permit changes in the organizations (Su et al., 2011). Since contingency theory suggests a fit between culture and strategy, it can be seen that the findings of the current study on the relationship between incremental implementation, adhocracy culture and performance is consistent with previous research.

Lastly, the benefits of incremental implementation on the relationship between clan-oriented culture and performance was proved by the quantitative analysis, although the qualitative data suggests that there is no specific implementation style that affects clan culture and performance link. In other words, the managers implied that the clan culture is strongly evident in their department, so its relationship with performance exists regardless of the type of implementation practiced. The quantitative analysis indicated that the incremental implementation style moderates the relationship between clan culture and organizational performance. Consequently, in line with the study hypothesis, this study implies that incremental implementation may have a positive effect of on the relationship between clan-oriented culture and performance.

8.3 Practical Implications

The results of the study have several important implications for managers in public sector organizations. One of the most important of these is that managers should consider the implementation style of strategies as an essential element affecting organizational performance in local government. It is clear from the study results that if public managers would like to improve their organizational performance, they need to consider applying rational implementation in most cases. However, even if rational implementation outweighs incremental implementation, the study also proved the importance of incremental implementation, particularly as regards the qualitative findings. Some managers also discussed taking advantage of both models in order to improve performance. The literature suggests that there is a middle ground in the form of logical incrementalism, which takes the best or most applicable aspects of both rational and incremental implementation strategies. Many studies found that the organizations can be most successful when they follow this middle path, mixing rational and incremental implementation styles in a more adaptive model (Hickson et al., 2003; Andrews et al., 2011; Andrews et al., 2017).

Most managers expressed opinions that related organizational success to targets, plans, programmes, rules and regulations, so it appears that metropolitan municipalities' performance could be improved using these elements. The study also showed that revisions to plans and programmes were essential for implementation to lead to a better performance. Since there is a legal obligation to practice strategic management in Turkish metropolitan municipalities, organizational performance could be enhanced by using elements of the planning system more efficiently. Also, taking past experiences into account and being responsive to emergent situations could also help to improve organizational outcomes. This points towards the idea of blending rational and incremental implementation to achieve the best possible success. Such organizational policies were suggested as an alternative approach by many of the managers interviewed.

Generic culture-performance literature claims that public organizations should develop their own value systems in order to achieve organizational success. However, the findings of this study show that it can be difficult to build a common culture that is applicable throughout local government, as each department has its own working

style, practices and human resources. The results of this study imply that departments should develop their own working culture in order to achieve the specific goals on their agenda. For instance, if a department's priority is to enhance the quality of services and products, then it would be better to possess elements of a clan culture as well as training to create empowered employees, especially those involved in decisions. Managers as departmental facilitators should determine the roles that each team member should play and there should be regular team meetings (such as Monday morning staff meetings) to discuss and exchange ideas (Deshpande and Webster, 1989; Cameron and Quinn, 1999). Managers should concentrate on participation and human development, which in turn should increase alignment with departmental targets, especially in terms of quality criteria.

Turkish public administration has an inherently bureaucratic, centralized and hierarchical structure, and its various sectors substantially follow a culture of hierarchy (Demirkaya, 2015). This seems an effective way of improving performance, because hierarchy cultures value formalization, consistency and routinization, which are particularly attuned to modern practices of Turkish local government which include strategic planning, annual programmes and activity reports, setting clear targets and time frames. The study findings suggest that the quantity of service output could be improved by greater top management control and setting time frames on tasks. Keeping track of time in the department is essential in order to allocate specific times to specific tasks. For this, making a to do list of daily or weekly tasks was one suggestion put forward by managers as a simple method of attaining specific goals and objectives. Formal performance programmes as a yearly implementation path can reinforce elements of control and efficiency. Cameron and Quinn (1999) support the idea of applying a rational, step-by-step system for describing and implementing policies. Formal orientation sessions on departmental values, visions and strategies can be also held by senior executives with the participation of other staff.

The qualitative findings also suggested that the sharing of experiences should be put into practice not only within but also across local government organizations so that best practices can be more readily taken up. Cameron and Quinn (2011) suggest that managers should ask their subordinates to write their own vision statements and share them through focus groups, presentations or inter-organizational events. Managers should provide greater autonomy in the workplace to encourage a more innovative

culture, which in turn should increase the number of innovations. A reward system for innovative ideas should be put in practice to make success visible (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). In Turkey, although the organizational reform process encourages this activity, strategic management in the public sector basically encourages a more rational approach to producing change. For this reason – and in accordance with the study results – an innovative culture should be connected with a more flexible and incremental approach to implementation in order to achieve a better performance which not only measures goal accomplishment but more importantly measures change and improvement. Managers should therefore associate continuous improvement with visions of strategic departmental goals (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

For the public sector, the adoption of cultures, values and practices from private sector organizations has been desirable but difficult to achieve in practice. In public sector delivery there are no rivals providing the same type of services and products and no motivation to compete for profit. Therefore the concept of market-oriented culture in the public sector should be redefined in order to associate it with organisational effectiveness. Since the fundamental aim of the public sector is to produce value, one of the main focuses of this adjusted market-oriented concept could be satisfying citizens by improving their lives. Moreover, the study findings showed that the customer focus of market culture can be utilized by governmental organizations to enhance performance. Staff and management should make careful analyses about the sort of practices that could add value to their services, which in turn may be beneficial for their citizens. Departments should periodically monitor how well they meet the expectations of their citizens after delivering their services. Quin and Cameron (1999) suggest that a system based on obtaining feedback from citizens and considering their complaints could support market type of values in public organizations.

A final implication can be drawn from the interaction between strategy implementation styles, organizational culture types and performance. Previous research suggests that ensuring organizational performance is possible with the congruence of culture and strategy (Despande and Webster, 1989; Dobni and Luffman, 2003; Alamsjah, 2011). It is widely accepted that establishing a strong culture for a well-functioning organization is a difficult and complex process, especially in terms of linking it with organizational performance. This study therefore suggests that certain types of culture can be established and encouraged in the

organizations if there is a consistent implementation style. Creating the fit between implementation styles and organizational culture types would be one possible way of improving performance. For instance, if an organization seeks to create a hierarchy or market type of culture in order to perform better, the organization could introduce a rational implementation model into its practices. Meanwhile, it would be beneficial for an organization to use incremental implementation and its associated practices to enhance the performance effects of adhocracy or clan types of culture. Although these suggestions can be made for public sector organizations in general, specific conditions relating to the unique setting examined within each public sector service or organisation should also be considered as a contingency management perspective on organizational culture. Regarding these special conditions, Pugh and Hickson (1976) investigate structure, technology and the size of an organization as related elements which may need to be taken into account.

8.4 Contributions

With regard to public sector organizations, this study examined direct and moderated relationships between strategic implementation styles, organizational culture types and performance variables. The results of the study revealed considerable support for these relationships, and the study thus offers important contributions both theoretically and methodologically.

8.4.1 Theoretical Contribution

The first theoretical contribution is the investigation of implementation styles, organizational culture and performance concepts in a public sector setting. There are only a few studies examining organizational performance together with implementation styles in the public sector (Bantel, 1997; Hickson et al., 2003; Andrews et al., 2011; Schaap, 2012) and organizational culture (Shortell et al., 2004; Davies et al., 2007; Jacobs et al., 2013; Moynihan and Pandey, 2014). Most studies examine such attributes separately, and there is little existing research dealing with the direct and indirect relationship of these concepts when considered together. The current study also combines Decision making theories, Competing values framework and certain organizational performance measures into a coherent whole under a contingency theory framework. The study showed that results are consistent with

contingency theory, confirming that strategy implementation, organizational culture and performance are the tools that help organizational functionality. More specifically, the study results also confirmed that certain types of organizational mechanisms are more suited to each other, as contingency theory suggests; for instance, rational implementation/hierarchy culture and organizational performance, or incremental implementation/adhocracy culture and organizational performance.

Despite the popularity of strategic management-related concepts in the Turkish public sector, there is no consistently applied theory and no research dealing with these concepts together. The current study examined the applicability of contingency theory to strategic management in different settings in which strategy, performance and culture concepts have recently become very topical, especially in the working practices of metropolitan municipalities. Here, the application of contingency theory shows that the particular conditions of Turkish local government organizations, metropolitan municipalities and even government departments are relevant and should be considered in empirical analyses. In this direction, both qualitative and quantitative study results demonstrated that implementation styles, culture types and performance measures are found endemic to the area this thesis investigated. The study therefore offers a unique contribution to the Turkish public sector and to the overall literature by applying concepts tested elsewhere to a new setting.

The second important theoretical contribution this study makes is the investigation of both direct and indirect influences of implementation styles and organizational culture on performance. The results showed that rational and incremental implementation styles are important determinants of performance in public sector organizations. The combined findings of the qualitative and quantitative studies also indicate that certain types of culture can be associated with specific performance dimensions. Moreover, the empirical findings strongly support contingency theory, indicating a match between organizational variables and the consideration of specific conditions of the environment investigated. Looking at the mechanisms which moderate the relationship between organisational culture and performance, this study is a preliminary one that examines the moderating effect of strategy implementation style on the relationship between culture and performance. The research discovered that both rational and incremental implementation styles were important moderators of certain types of organizational culture affecting organizational performance.

The third contribution relates to the unique relationship on culture and performance of the study design. Most literature on organizational culture either deals with culture holistically or examines different types of culture within the whole concept of organizational performance. CVF, as a well-designed model, includes elements of four distinctive cultures and their effectiveness criteria by providing a generic examination of the related areas. Using this framework, the current study considered relationships between hierarchy and quantity, market and citizen satisfaction, clan and quality and adhocracy and innovation together in order to find more accurate contextual results. There is very little existing research that addresses these relationships, and their results are inconclusive. No general agreement has been reached, particularly in the public sector. This study therefore offers a significant contribution to both the theoretical development and the empirical examination of the relevant concepts both in general literature and also within the context of Turkish local government.

8.4.2 Methodological Contribution

The first methodological contribution this study makes is the application of a mixed-methodology design, which allows the use of both quantifiable and qualitative data to enable to examine concepts from different angles. This study presents the first mixed-methods analysis of the relationships between implementation styles, types of culture and performance in the public sector.

The second methodological contribution of the research is the validation and application of the strategy implementation and organizational performance instruments as well as the Competing Values Framework. The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from a Western context, so the survey was initially tested using a pilot study in order to check its suitability and applicability in a different socio-cultural context. The instruments applied in this study were based on the studies of Andrews et al. (2011) and Cameron and Quinn (1999), and produced very high levels of validity and reliability for each item. This meant that the application of the questionnaire instrument in different setting seemed a feasible way of exploring the implementation, culture and performance relationship in Turkish local government.

The final contribution to the methodology of the study was the investigation of implementation styles and culture types from the perspectives of the interviewees. The

interview questions were prepared in the light of the quantitative data analysis in order to check the survey result as a mixed-method approach. Qualitative data analysis, which was undertaken following semi-structured interviews, offered valuable clarifications of the mechanisms explored in the quantitative study. As well as presenting support for the survey results, the qualitative data analysis contributed valuable additional information. Consequently, qualitative data collection of this study was deemed suitable as a further exploratory approach.

8.5 Limitations of the Study

While the current study presents significant findings that are applicable in both theory and practice, these findings should be considered alongside their potential limitations. First of all, as the current study has a cross-sectional design, its findings only allow the presentation of levels of associations between variables, and can offer no causal explanation of the direction of the relationships. Longitudinal research design would clearly allow an exploration of causality between the variables examined, but this was not possible due to the limited timescale of this study. Secondly, the study surveyed and interviewed senior managers from 11 different departments in 20 metropolitan municipalities. There are more departments in 30 metropolitan municipalities throughout Turkey and as the sample size of the study is also limited, so the results may not be generalized to all departments in all of Turkey's metropolitan municipalities. What's more, in the context of Turkish local government, there are other local authorities such as district municipalities and provincial administrations. Therefore, it can be concluded that the findings may not also represent all facets of local government within the country. Thirdly, common methods variance was detected in the study just above the maximum limit although it was only marginally rejected. In addition to gathering data from the senior managers, collecting data for organizational culture from employees could help to prevent this problem in subsequent research. Finally, there is no consensus on which set of performance variables should be taken into consideration while examining public sector organizations. This study selected four performance criteria – quality, quantity, citizen satisfaction and innovation – as they were the most suitable performance measurement criteria relating to the four types of organizational culture studied and the strategy implementation styles dealt with in this thesis. It is also possible to consider other

performance criteria such as effectiveness, efficiency, equity (Andrews et al., 2017), value for money (Walker and Andrews, 2015), productivity and staff satisfaction (Brewer, 2005) as criteria which are applied in the literature.

8.6 Directions for Future Research

A number of promising directions for future research can be considered. First of all, since cross-sectional design did not allow the study to establish causal associations between the variables, prospective research could take advantage of testing the present study construct through a longitudinal research design which would examine causal relationships. Following the cross sectional data which was gathered from a particular group of the public sector organizations in a specific time period, creating panel data would also enable the examination of concepts over time in Turkish local government in greater depth. Longitudinal design in strategy implementation (Andrews et al., 2011; Schaap, 2012; Andrews et al., 2017) and organizational culture research (Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Cameron and Quinn, 1999; Mannion et al., 2005b) would be recommended to evaluate the replicability of the empirical investigation in other settings and time frames.

Secondly, there are certain theories and models on both implementation styles and organizational culture, but literature in the related areas does not give priority to any particular theory or model. The current study chose rational and incremental implementation styles, which correspond very well with the four cultural types in the Competing Values Framework used to examine the relationships between the concepts and the context. Future research could develop other contexts from among existing theories and models.

Thirdly, although the current study explicitly demonstrated the importance of analysing the mechanisms and the direct and moderated relationships between strategy implementation, organizational culture and performance, further studies also need to be conducted in order to obtain a better insight into these relationships. Overall, the study results suggest that departments in Turkish municipalities may use a blend of the concepts presented in the scope of this research. Some departments adopt both rational and incremental styles in the strategy implementation process using a logical

incremental implementation style. Mixed types of culture and effects on different types of performance variables may exist within local government organizations, and this could lead to a much broader examination. Cameron and Quinn (2011) argue that organizational culture is growing in importance, particularly because of the increasing need to merge and mould different cultures to reflect structural changes that occur within organizations. As one interviewee indicated, the administrative reform process, which is still ongoing in many organizations, has enabled the establishment and adaptation of mixed cultures (such as group / innovative cultures or hierarchy/group cultures). Thus, as Deshpande and Farley (2004) suggest, future studies may wish to consider the effects of a mixed style of implementation and a hybridised culture on performance.

Fourthly, this research concentrated on implementation styles and organizational culture and their relationships with performance. However, there are other factors that have been characterised as being important elements of successful implementation, such as external stakeholders, the provision of adequate resources, communication and strategic stance (Stewart and Kringas, 2003; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006; Andrews et al., 2011). Moreover, as previously mentioned, organizational culture types in the CVF which are associated with a very wide array of performance criteria need to be considered. Further research should take these elements into account in order to gain a better understanding of the relevant relationships.

Fifthly, the current study measured organizational performance from the subjective viewpoint of higher level managers because of the inaccessibility of objective performance measures in Turkish local government. Future studies should attempt to measure objective performance attributes, which may help to obtain more impartial results which capture the actual output of Turkish municipalities.

Finally, the current study provided a comprehensive picture of the strategy implementation system, culture styles and the relationships between these elements and organizational performance in Turkish metropolitan municipalities. In spite of the abundance of these concepts in terms of reform initiatives, the underlying assumptions of these notions in theory and practice have yet to be constructed within the Turkish public sector. The results of the study therefore offer a great opportunity to revisit the assumptions behind strategic management in Turkish local government

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APPENDIX A: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

A SURVEY OF STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN TURKISH LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Dear Sir or Madam,

In your role as a senior local government manager, you are requested to participate in a survey examining the implementation of organizational strategies in Turkish local government. This questionnaire is designed to investigate the relationship between organizational strategy, performance and culture.

The questionnaire will only take 10 minutes and is entirely voluntary. Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire is pivotal to the success of this research. Participants who complete the survey will receive a summary of the survey results. Anonymity and confidentiality of survey participants will be preserved at all times. Your participation in the survey will be treated as an indication of consent.

If you have any questions about the survey or the research study, please do not hesitate contact me at; GencE@cardiff.ac.uk or my supervisor at; AndrewsR4@cardiff.ac.uk

Thank you very much in advance for your cooperation.

Elif GENC	Rhys Andrews
PhD candidate	Professor in Public Management
Cardiff University	Cardiff University
Cardiff,UK	Cardiff, UK

SECTION A: STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

The questions in this section explore how strategies are implemented in your department.

Please click the circle closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
A1) When implementing strategies we have clearly defined tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A2) We have weekly – monthly plans to implement strategies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A3) We have precise procedures for achieving strategic objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A4) When implementing strategies we regularly review progress against targets.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A5) We implement strategies by piloting them initially and then implement them in full.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A6) We implement our strategies gradually.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
A7) When implementing strategies we often refine and amend them as we go along.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A8) Our strategy develops through a process of ongoing adjustment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A9) New strategies are introduced in a very similar way to those that have already been implemented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A10) To keep in line with our environment we make continual small scale changes to strategy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B: CULTURE

The questions in this section explore how your department operates and the values that best characterize it.

Please click the circle closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
B1) My department is a very personal place. It is like an extended family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B2) My department is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to take risks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B3) My department is very results oriented. People are very competitive and achievement focused.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B4) My department is a very controlled and structured place. Rules generally govern what people do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B5) The leadership in my department is best defined by mentoring, facilitating, and nurturing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B6) The leadership in my department is best defined by entrepreneurship, innovating, and risk taking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B7) The leadership in my department is best defined by a no-nonsense, aggressive, and results-oriented focus.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B8) The leadership in my department is best defined by coordinating and organizing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B9) The management style in my department is best defined by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B10) The management style in my department is best defined by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B11) The management style in my department is best defined by competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B12) The management style in my department is best defined by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B13) The glue that holds my department together is loyalty and mutual trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B14) The glue that holds my department together is commitment to innovation and development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B15) The glue that holds my department together is the emphasis on competitive achievement and goal accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B16) The glue that holds my department together is formal rules and policies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B17) My department emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B18) My department emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B19) My department emphasizes results. Achieving challenging targets and being the best are dominant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B20) My department emphasizes permanence and stability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	269						
B21) My department defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B22) My department defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B23) My department defines success on the basis of outpacing the competition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B24) My department defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: PERFORMANCE

We would like to know how you assess the performance of your department. To what extent do you agree that your department performs well in comparison with others.

Please click the circle closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C1) Quality of outputs (e.g. reliability of service delivery).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C2) Quantity of outputs (e.g. volume of service delivery).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C3) Value for Money (e.g. cost per unit of service delivery).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C4) Effectiveness (e.g. whether your objectives were achieved).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C5) Citizen satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C6) Equity (e.g. services are fairly distributed amongst local citizens).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C7) Innovation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C8) Overall performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONTEXT

We would like to know about the socio-economic context of your department (e.g. levels of deprivation, social change, population change and so on).

Please click the circle closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
D1) The socio economic context is favourable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D2) The socio economic context is complex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D3) The socio economic context is unpredictable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E: INTER-GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS

We would like to know about your departments' relationships with higher levels of government.

Please click the circle closest to your own view.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
E1) Relationships are hierarchical and commanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

E2) Relationships are cooperative and consensual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E3) Relationships are distant and remote.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F: GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Finally, we would like to know some general information about you.

Please respond to this section by ticking the appropriate boxes or completing the blank spaces.

F1) Your gender:

        Male ☐   Female ☐

F2) Your highest level of education attained:

High school ☐   Bachelor's degree ☐   Master ☐   PhD ☐

Other (please specify) -------------------

F3) Your age:

    18-29 years ☐   30-39 years ☐   40-49 years ☐   50-59 years ☐   60 years and over ☐

F4) Your income:

    0-3000 tl ☐   3001-5000 tl ☐   5001-7000 tl ☐   7001 -10000 tl ☐   10001 and over ☐

F5) What kind of position do you currently hold?

  General secretary assistant ☐

Top hierarchical level in organization ☐

Second hierarchical level in organization ☐

Other (please specify) _____

F6) Your local government: _____

F7) Your service area (e.g. housing, health affairs etc): _____

F8)Number of years you have been in your current job:

0-1 year ☐   2-5 years ☐   6-10 years ☐   11-20 years ☐   21 and over ☐

F9) Do you think vision and mission statements of your organization are relistic and unique?

Yes ☐   No ☐   I don't know

Further Comments;

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

There is a basic set of questions develop for interview protocol below.

1) What ways do you follow while implementing the departmental strategies (policies)?
2) Do you think that your way of implementing strategies result in any specific organizational outcome?
3) Which sort of outcomes does your department achieve when there are predetermined goals and plans?
4) Which sort of outcomes does your department achieve when the strategies are determined or changed during the implementation processes?
5) How do you define culture of your department?
6) Which of the organizational performance outputs does your department attain at most? e.g. quality, quantity, citizen satisfaction, innovation.
7) Do you think that your department culture is influential while implementing policies?
8) To what extent does culture play role in getting the results (success) of implemented policies?
9) Have you experienced any cultural change in your department in recent years?

APPENDIX C: INSTRUMENTS AND APPROACHES FOR EXPLORING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

(Jung et.al. 2009)

Assessing Learning Culture Scale*

Assessment of Organizational Readiness for Evidence-Based Health Care Interventions

Competing Values Framework (ipsative)*/(Likert scale)*

Competing Values Instrument for Organizational Culture (Chang and Wiebe)

Competing Values Instrument for Organizational Culture (Howard)

Competing Values Instrument for Organizational Culture (Quinn and Spreitzer) NIC/Q 2000 Tool

Competing Values Instrument for Organizational Culture (Zammuto and Krakower)

National VA Quality Improvement Survey (NQIS)

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron and Quinn)

Concept-Mapping and Pattern-Matching Approach

Core Employee Questionnaire

Corporate Culture Questionnaire*

Culture Gap Survey

CULTURE Questionnaire in the Contextual Assessment of Organizational Culture (CAOC Approach)*

Culture Snapshot

Culture Survey*

Critical Incident Technique

The Cultural Audit*

Cultural Assessment Survey*

Cultural Consensus Analysis*

Denison Organizational Culture Survey*

Ethnography

Five Window Culture Assessment Framework

FOCUS Questionnaire*

General Practice Learning Organization Diagnostic Tool*

Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Culture Scales*

Grid/Group Model

Group Practice Culture Questionnaire*

Hofstede's Culture Measures

Hofstede's Culture Measure of Organizational Culture*
Values Survey Module*
Hospital Culture Questionnaire*
Hospital Culture Scales*
Hospitality Industry Culture Profile*
Interactive Projective Test
Interviews
Inventory of Polychronic Values*
Japanese Organizational Culture Scale*
Laddering
Metaphorical Analysis
Narratological Approach
Norms Diagnostic Index*
Nurse Medication Questionnaire*
Nurse Self-Description Form*
Nursing Unit Cultural Assessment Tool*
Nursing Work Index/Nursing Work Index–Revised*
Organizational Assessment Survey (MetriTech)*
Organizational Assessment Survey (OPM)*
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
Organizational Culture and Core Task (CULTURE) Questionnaire
Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument*
Organizational Culture Inventory*
Organizational Culture Profile (Ashkanasy)*
Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly)*
Organizational Culture Questionnaire (Harrison)
Organizational and Team Indicator*
Organizational Culture Survey*
Organizational Development Questionnaire*
Organizational Norms Opinionnaire
Perceived Cultural Compatibility Index*
Perceived Organizational Culture*
Personal, Customer Orientation, Organizational and Cultural Issues Model*
Practice Culture Questionnaire
Questionnaire of Organizational Culture*
Repertory Grids
School Quality Management Culture Survey*
School Values Inventory*
School Work Culture Profile*
Semiotics
Storytelling
Thomas' Questionnaire on Organizational Culture*
Time Dimension Scales*
Twenty Statements Test
Van der Post Questionnaire*
Wallach's Organizational Culture Index*
Ward Organizational Feature Scales (Nurses' Opinion Questionnaire)*
Women Workplace Culture Questionnaire*
Work Culture Assessment Scale
* Instruments and approaches subjected to psychometric assessment.

APPENDIX D: RELIABILITY ANALYSES OF THE CONSTRUCTS AND ITEMS

Rational Implementation Style

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha .889	N OF ITEMS 5			
ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
RIS1	20.571	23.910	.731	.865
RIS2	20.751	23.744	.722	.868
RIS3	20.658	24.129	.820	.846
RIS4	20.513	24.461	.765	.858
RIS5	21.131	25.246	.629	.888

Incremental Implementation Style

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha .844	N OF ITEMS 4			
ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
IIS1	15.495	13.423	.649	.816
IIS2	15.605	12.861	.735	.783
IIS3	15.570	11.962	.743	.775
IIS4	16.067	11.641	.623	.837

Hierarchy Culture

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha .837	N OF ITEMS 6		

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
HIER1	26.831	30.281	.475	.838
HIER2	25.424	29.775	.670	.803
HIER3	26.061	27.120	.673	.798
HIER4	26.675	28.921	.515	.832
HIER5	25.549	28.215	.747	.787
HIER6	26.164	27.093	.647	.804

Market Culture

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha .823	N OF ITEMS 6		

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
MRKT1	25.897	24.257	.790	.749
MRKT2	25.388	27.395	.587	.795
MRKT3	25.728	25.289	.665	.777
MRKT4	25.923	24.878	.734	.762
MRKT5	25.320	26.938	.657	.782
MRKT6	27.147	31.474	.195	.878

Clan Culture

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha	N OF ITEMS
.913	6

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CLN1	27.569	32.229	.790	.893
CLN2	27.336	35.708	.675	.908
CLN3	27.761	31.439	.832	.886
CLN4	27.730	35.771	.633	.914
CLN5	27.488	35.167	.781	.895
CLN6	27.667	33.050	.845	.885

Adhocracy Culture

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha	N OF ITEMS
.889	6

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ADHC1	26.456	36.541	.662	.877
ADHC2	25.637	37.113	.715	.869
ADHC3	26.611	35.210	.676	.875
ADHC4	25.942	34.629	.815	.853
ADHC5	26.207	35.472	.679	.875
ADHC6	26.551	35.277	.705	.870

Organizational Performance

Reliability Statistics Cronbach's Alpha	N OF ITEMS		
.932	4		

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OP1	17.258	10.665	.869	.903
OP2	17.347	10.920	.797	.926
OP3	17.219	10.842	.831	.915
OP4	17.334	10.551	.868	.903

APPENDIX E: NORMALITY ANALYSIS FOR INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

	N	*Skewness*		*Kurtosis*	
	Statistic	**Statistic**	**Std. Error**	**Statistic**	**Std. Error**
Ris1	84	-1.217	.263	1.040	.520
Ris2	84	-.1.087	.263	.617	.520
Ris3	84	-.908	.263	.550	.520
Ris4	84	-1.176	.263	1.140	.520
Ris5	84	-.708	.263	-.022	.520
Iis1	84	-1.297	.263	2.295	.520
Iis2	84	-1.527	.263	2.539	.520
Iis3	84	-1.304	.263	1.699	.520
Iis4	84	-.740	.263	-.295	.520
Cln1	84	-1.547	.263	1.996	.520
Cln2	84	-.1,757	.263	3.194	.520
Cln3	83	-1.458	.264	1.904	.523
Cln4	84	-1.288	.263	1.594	.520
Cln5	84	-1.349	.263	2.253	.520
Cln6	83	-1.709	.264	3.224	.523
Adhc1	83	-1.018	.264	.844	.523
Adhc2	83	-1.928	.264	4.248	.523
Adhc3	84	-1.235	.263	.898	.520
Adhc4	84	-1.547	.263	2.314	.520
Adhc5	83	-1.229	.264	1.002	.523
Adhc6	84	-1.057	.263	.534	.520
Mrkt1	83	-1.090	.263	1.154	.520
Mrkt2	84	-1.715	.263	3.580	.520
Mrkt3	84	-1.326	.263	1.361	.520
Mrkt4	84	-1.362	.263	1.740	.520
Mrkt5	84	-1.607	.263	3.104	.520
Mrkt6	83	-.077	.264	-.799	.523
Hier1	84	-.393	.263	-.219	.520
Hier2	84	-1.992	.263	4.959	.520
Hier3	83	-1321	.264	1.489	.523
Hier4	84	-.764	.263	-.135	.520
Hier5	84	-1.896	.263	4.445	.520
Hier6	84	-1.430	.263	1.505	.520
Qual	83	-2.082	.264	5.742	.523
Quant	83	-2.140	.264	5.469	.523
C.Sat.	83	-1.980	.264	5.593	.523
Innov	83	-1.824	.264	4.760	.523
Valid N	76				