



**An Investigation of Leadership Style and the Strategic  
Planning Process of Public and Private Colleges in Iraq: An  
Empirical Study**

A Thesis submitted by

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## ABSTRACT

Globalisation and rapid environmental change have created many challenges for public and private organisations across Iraq as a developing country, particularly in the higher education sector. This includes, for example, decreases in government funding; increased demand for higher education; a need for economic transformation, and related competitiveness of organizations. Such challenges require exceptional leaders and strategic planning in order to take action to improve. In Iraq, the higher education sector is still one of the main foundations in progressing the knowledge economy. Studies into leadership style, strategic planning processes, and the importance of leadership and organisational culture to an organisation's success have been used to assist both public and private Iraqi colleges in responding to the challenges they face. Although, some studies have examined the interaction between leadership and strategic planning, and leadership and organisational success, there has been no empirical study that has investigated how these three variables interact together. Thus, this study aimed, firstly, to identify the current leadership styles and strategic planning processes in the colleges and the challenges they faced, and to gain an understanding from the perspective of the senior leaders themselves as to how they might best respond to the current situation. Secondly, based on the participants' experiences, knowledge and perceptions, the study aimed to identify implications for both practice and policy to help improve the colleges' outcomes.

The study involved a mixed-methods approach and was conducted in two stages. During the first stage, the researcher gathered quantitative data by administering a survey package to 129 leaders (deans, associate deans, and heads of departments) across both public and private colleges in the capital city of Baghdad. During the second stage, the researcher gathered qualitative data to more deeply explore the survey results by conducting individual interviews with a sub-sample of 21 leaders from both college types (ten public and 11 private). In the data analyses stages, both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were applied to compiling tables and charts, and to test hypotheses, by employing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Microsoft Excel, and NVivo.

The results of study showed that both transformational and transactional leadership styles played a varied and vital role in the colleges' strategic planning processes, and in turn their success. The fact that private colleges were 'for profit' and public colleges were 'not for profit', as well as their contrasting funding models, highlighted key differences between the

two college types' leadership and general *modus operandi*. While it was found that both transformative leadership and transactional leadership styles were necessary to address the challenges colleges faced in the Iraqi educational context, the impetus for change extended far beyond the need for professional development of leaders. The embracing of information communication technologies, and reliable Internet was seen as necessary in all aspects of the colleges' work and provision for teaching and learning, and students' success. This applied to both college types along with the need for closer adherence to government regulations and more focused government coordination of colleges' administrative functions. Furthermore, implications for making successful improvements to practice also identified the need to manage the challenge of sociocultural influences on the appointments and promotions of leaders. It was concluded that a greater emphasis on teamwork and provision of incentives for staff, along with a 'boost' to pedagogy and practice, which could be provided through the adoption of information communication technologies and appropriate professional development strategies, would enhance the colleges' ranks and the status of their qualifications. Also, theoretically, the study offers a value-add to leadership, strategic planning process, and organisational success literature in the form of a conceptual model that links these variables in the context of Iraqi higher education sector.

## **CERTIFICATION OF THESIS**

This thesis is entirely the work of Mohammed Matook Abood Al-Mahdi except where otherwise acknowledged. The work is original and has not previously been submitted for any other award, except where acknowledged.

Principal Supervisor: Shirley O'Neill

Associate Supervisor: Henriette van Rensburg

Student and supervisors' signatures of endorsement are held at USQ.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

BSC	Balanced Scorecard
CR	Contingent Rewards
CS	Customer - Society
FP	Financial perspective
HEs	Higher Education sector
HREC	Human Research Ethics Committee
IC	Individualized Consideration
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IIA	Idealized Influence Attributed
IIB	Idealized Influence Behaviour
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IP	Internal Processes
IS	Intellectual Stimulation
LF	Laissez-faire
LG	Learning-Growth
LS	Leadership style
MESF	Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form
MBEA	Management-by-Exception Active
MBEP	Management-by-Exception Passive
MHESR	Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific research
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
OC	Organisational Culture
OS	Organisational Success
PPICs	Public and Private Iraqi Colleges
SPP	Strategic Planning Process

SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SWOT	Strength Weakness Opportunities Threats
USQ	University of Southern Queensland



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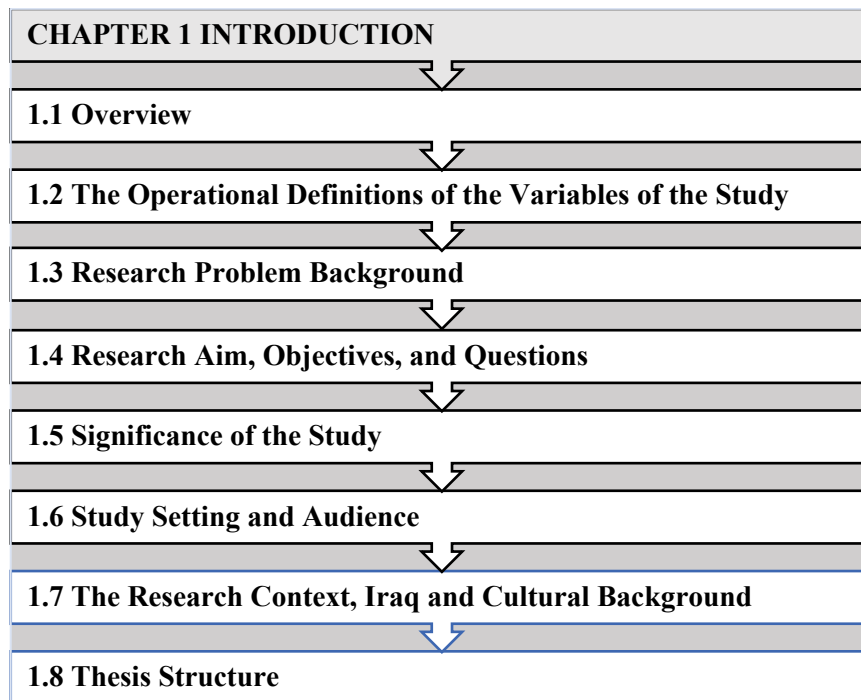
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# CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1.Overview

This chapter provides an introduction to the topic of the dissertation. Chapter 1 is divided into nine sections. The chapter starts with an overview in Section 1.1. Section 1.2 displays the operational definitions about the variables of the study. Section 1.3 illustrates the background of the problem. Section 1.4 includes the study's aim, objectives, and questions. Section 1.5 presents the hypotheses of the study. Section 1.6 explains the significance of the study. Section 1.7 describes the study's setting and audience. Section 1.8 presents an overview of Iraq's context and cultural background. Finally, Section 1.9 displays the structure of the dissertation.



**Figure 1.1:** Outline of Chapter 1

## 1.2.The Operational Definitions of the Variables of the Study

The operational definitions are a set of understandings that should clarify for the researcher and the reader of this thesis the underpinning theoretical concepts and variables under study

(Anderson & Sun, 2017). The operational definitions determine specifications, which researchers use to take account of the difference between the construct of interest and what was actually studied (Danley & Widmark, 2016). In addition, these definitions provide justification for the researcher's evaluation and defence of the translation validity of their particular operationalisations (Slife, Wright, & Yanchar, 2016). Therefore, researchers should define the terms of their study to more fully understand and clarify the research and its knowledge base. For the present research they are as follows:

Leadership is the ability or the influence to guide and achieve certain goals through others (Northouse, 2018; Shamir, Arthur, & House, 1994). This concept is further explained in chapter 2, section 2.3.

A leader is a person who has the ability to develop a clear vision based on the analysis and understanding of the reality as s/he sees it. Typically, contemporary leaders are viewed as able to identify a set of goals and to motivate others to achieve them together, through their ability to understand and analyse the skills of each individual in their team and to enable them to contribute in the best possible way (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Wu et al., 2017).

A Leadership Style (LS) can be defined as a set of actions or characteristics that the leader practises with their staff or team to achieve the objectives of the organization, which may have either a positive or negative effect on the organizational culture and achievement of goals (Bamiatzi, Jones, Mitchelmore, & Nikolopoulos, 2015; Kinsler, 2017).

The Strategic Planning Process (SPP) is a systematic administrative process that organisations and their leaders use in the process of preparing for the future of the organization, according to its vision, mission, and values, in order to support the achievement of its goals in a timely manner. This involves analysing the internal and external environment and setting objectives and performance indicators (Al Shobaki, Amuna, & Naser, 2016; Elbanna, 2016). This concept is further explained in chapter 2, section 2.4.

Organisational Success (OS) is the ability of an organization to achieve its commitment to meeting the needs and desires of its customers, and to continually improve and develop its products and/or services to be economically viable while considering cost, time, and effort (Pinho, Rodrigues, & Dibb, 2014; Simon, Kumar, Schoeman, Moffat, & Power, 2011). This concept is further explained in chapter 2, section 2.5.

Organisational Culture (OC) can be defined as the visible and common criteria, values and behaviours among an organisation's individuals that distinguishes them from other

organizations (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Scott, Mannion, Davies, & Marshall, 2018). This concept is further explained in chapter 2, section 2.6.

### **1.3. Research Problem Background**

It is important to understand the recent history of the higher education sector in Iraq to appreciate the research context and problem. Today's higher education sector has emerged following almost a decade of war, 2003-2011 (which saw the overthrowing of Saddam Hussein's government and continued conflict), and it offers study through both public and private institutions. This is in spite of the US's occupation and continued activities of insurgents. However, there is evidence that the current higher education practices are problematic and can be influenced by local politics, and that they are not as effective as they could be in producing graduates who can contribute to and be future leaders in rebuilding the nation. In addition, public universities are normally funded by the government, whereas, private colleges depend on the students payment of fees. Thus, research into the effectiveness of current higher education institutions has the potential to have an impact on improving their offerings, and in turn the rebuilding and revival. As a developing country, an emphasis on the role of higher education is strategic because it is new graduates who will play a key role in allowing the sector to expand its services and in ways that can contribute best to workforce planning needs (Ahmad, Soon, Saiman, & Yusoff, 2016; Falqueto, Hoffmann, Gomes, & Mori, 2019; Hu, Liu, Chen, & Qin, 2018; Milton, 2013). Recently, international events have created many challenges for both public and private colleges in the world; correspondingly, in Iraq, they face similar external challenges, such as decreasing government funding; increasing demand for higher education; changes in demographics; need for economic transformation; and the actions of competing organizations, as well as the demand to teach western knowledges (Al-Qaisi & Khawam, 2015; Kramasha & Itaie, 2010; Mahmoud, 2017; Mohamed, 2009). Similarly, these colleges have faced internal challenges such as poor leadership styles and communication among members; unwillingness by leaders to listen to staff comments and suggestions; a lack of acknowledgment of staff's work; lack of motivation to invest in ICT; and poor outcomes (Dooris, Kelley, & Trainer, 2004; Elbanna, Andrews, & Pollanen, 2015; Fathi & Wilson, 2009; Fullan, 2007; Lee & Bai, 2003; Lerner, 1999; Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012). Hence, the question arises as to how the colleges can best address and face these challenges.

According to recent research (Abdul Malik, Al Kahtani, & Naushad, 2013; Divjak, 2016; Fathi & Wilson, 2009; Kay & Carlin, 2017; Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012; Taylor & Machado, 2006; Wang, 2019; Yudatama & Sarno, 2016), such colleges need to strategically plan if they are to ultimately grow and succeed. Other studies (Dooris, 2002; Dooris et al., 2004; Kahveci et al., 2012) have noted that strategic planning is a major and vital tool that is essential to making improvements in turbulent environments like Iraq to ensure goals can be achieved. As Amin, Razmi, and Zhang (2011) have emphasised, it can create a visible diagnosis and can help predict future challenges through identifying Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) (i.e. conducting a SWOT analysis). They have noted that this process is one of the most well-known strategic planning techniques to inform planning for change. Similarly, its applicability to the Middle Eastern context is reinforced in the research of El Fadel, Rachid, El-Samra, Boutros, and Hashisho (2013) and Jaber, Elkarmi, Alasis, and Kostas (2015). Although their research is related to the science area, a different focus, it is still relevant to the present study, since improving higher education is necessary to build the capacity of Iraq's population and youth in the current context of a developing country that continues to experience serious disruptions. Of note is that the Iraqi government sponsored this research rather than other proposed projects for other government departments, thus highlighting its importance. However, as argued by Haber-Curran and Tillapaugh (2013) the strategic planning process needs to have a transformative and adaptive leadership style to achieve an organisation's goals and objectives, which requires a different approach to traditional practices in Iraq. It has been confirmed by various researchers (Chang & Chen, 2015; Duserick, Huang, & Dai, 2007; Khan & Khalique, 2014b; O'Regan & Ghobadian, 2005; Plant, 2009; Taylor & Machado, 2006) that organizational success depends on effective leadership, the type of leadership employed, and clear strategy. It has also been shown that strategic planning is critical to organizations' success, such that when organisations are weak in this area it may negatively impact on their growth and ability to succeed (Elbanna et al., 2015; Kohzadi & Hafezi, 2016; McKay, Murray, & Hui, 2011; Rudd, Greenley, Beatson, & Lings, 2008; Song, Im, Bij, & Song, 2011). These previous studies have also made recommendations for future research to investigate the relationship between leadership style and the strategic planning process more deeply, and how this relates to organizational success. This is highly pertinent to this research problem, since the higher education sector's practices are not clear, and their outcomes vary. In addition, this study was identified as a priority by the Iraqi Higher Education

Ministry in its recognition of the need for strategic advice to help improve the higher education sector outcomes, through the provision of a scholarship to the researcher to investigate this problem (see Appendix A). Also, anecdotally, through personal communications with deans and associate deans of the colleges where he works as a lecturer, the researcher was able to confirm local recognition of the need for the study to assist them to deal with the challenges they face in their leadership roles.

#### **1.4. Research Aim, Objectives, and Questions**

The study aimed to explore the current approach to and relationship between leadership and strategic planning in a sample of colleges in Baghdad, Iraq, to provide strategic advice to the government and the higher education sector and to ensure appropriate improvements for the future. It set out to identify leadership styles in relation to strategic planning processes that may lead to improved organizational outcomes (Organisational Success) in both private and public colleges. To achieve this aim, the following research questions were identified:

RQ1. What current leadership styles are present in Iraqi public and private colleges?

RQ2. What challenges do the colleges face in achieving organisational success?

RQ3. How might these colleges adapt and change their practices to be more effective in achieving their goals?

Drawing on these focus questions, the following research sub-questions were formulated:

RQi. How do PPICs provide leadership and currently plan, in their particular context, to achieve success?

RQii. What is the relationship between their leadership style/s and the strategic planning processes in relation to the PPICs performance?

#### **1.5. Significance of the Study**

The study is very important for two major reasons. Firstly, the colleges under study struggle because of the national and international challenges that continually face them in their war-torn environment because their staff are not equipped in any special way to cope. Thus, the Ministry of Education in recognizing this has recommended this study and provided the



researcher with a scholarship to undertake it. As noted earlier, the researcher is also personally aware of the problem through his role as a lecturer and discussions with senior staff. Secondly, there is a dearth of research in this field in such contexts as Iraq where there may be both contextual and cultural challenges in applying contemporary leadership theories and strategic planning approaches to current practices. Thus, the research findings facilitate the identification of strategic recommendations to help ensure that the vital elements of leadership and strategic planning processes are considered in providing advice on how to improve the colleges' organisational planning and ultimately their outcomes in trying to achieve organisational success.

The significance of the study is summarized in the following points:

- 1- This study contributes to solving the problem of the lack of empirical studies that seek to identify how educational outcomes of colleges in Iraq, a developing war-torn country, may be improved through gaining a deeper understanding of the link between the leadership style LS and strategic planning process SPP in relation to achieving success in terms of outcomes of its public and private colleges.
- 2- It focuses on the vital educational service sector in Baghdad, Iraq, which plays a crucial role in improving the level of knowledge of the various disciplines and the colleges' ability to develop good practice, adapt to the changing environment, and achieve success.
- 3- The philosophical, theoretical, and experimental content of the study is empirical in its aim to examine the relationship between LS and SPP and their impact on the organizations' success under study, which has not been studied previously according to the researcher's knowledge, though has been recommended by (Abadi & Aliqabi, 2019a; Al-Tai & Raouf, 2018; AlKhafaji, 2019b).
- 4- The study outcomes, through the development of recommendations to inform government policy, are aimed at facilitating improvement to the way the colleges are led, and at improving strategic planning processes, which are related to achieving set goals, and have the potential to help guide the expansion of the educational sector and better equip the educational organizations to deal with the ongoing challenges and change.

## **1.6. Research Setting and Audience**

The research addresses several key variables in relation to leadership and strategic planning and is innovative in combining the study of leadership and organisational behaviour, strategic planning in the field of strategic management, and organisational success regarding public and business administration in the developing country of Iraq. It has the potential to provide policy and practical advice to higher education colleges that can help improve outcomes through both changes in leadership styles and strategic planning processes (Al-Qaisi & Khawam, 2015; Dooris et al., 2004; Elbanna et al., 2015; Fathi & Wilson, 2009; Mahmud, 2017; Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012; Salman & Al-Naciri, 2016; Taher, 2018; Taylor & Machado, 2006). Thus, this study's outcomes are expected to assist in constructing a common vision of leadership styles and strategic planning processes that should positively influence organisational success in the long run in the higher education organisations in general, and particularly the higher education organisations in Iraq. In particular, this study provides benefits for the leaders in public, private, and civil society organisations, and also researchers and postgraduate and graduate students.

## **1.7. The Research Context, Iraq and Cultural Background**

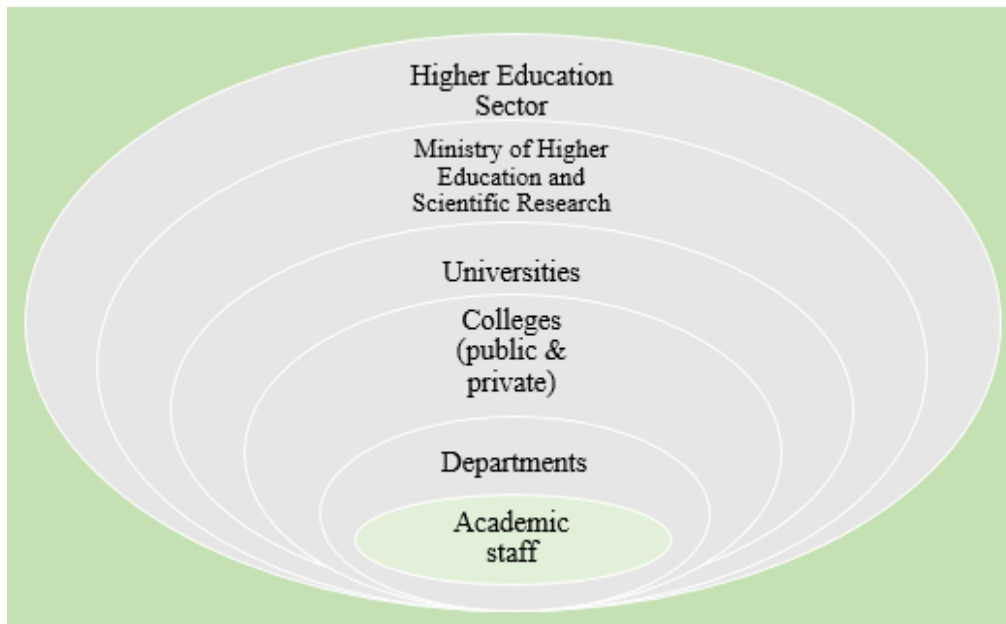
Before 2003, the higher education sector in Iraq was severely damaged by a sequence of wars and sanctions, as Iraq went through three wars from 1980 to 2003 (Hiro, 2003). The first war was between Iraq and Iran (1980-1988), and depleted most of the human and economic resources of both countries (Willett, 2003). The second war started in 1991 between United States and the Iraqi dictatorial regime; it is called the Gulf War (1990-1991), and was most destructive for Iraq (Halliday, 1994). After that, Iraq went through a series of embargos and international sanctions lasting thirteen years (Simons, 2016). All these wars led to a drop in the number of students in both the public and private colleges (Matsuura, 2012) and even now there are continued disruptions (Amirali, 2019; El-Ghali, Ali, & Ghalayini, 2017).

The higher education sector in Iraq has undergone massive changes since 2003, when the Iraqi dictatorial regime was changed by the United States to a parliamentary system (Harb, 2008). This change led to a social development process that increased family incomes, and rebuilt the economy (Romani, 2009). As a result, there was increasing demand for bachelor, master's and PhD degrees. For this reason, Iraqi Higher Education has become one of most important sectors

and understandably seeks to achieve the highest performance for learning and scientific research outcomes. Thus, this has led to increasing the number of colleges in both the public and private sector (Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016), and in turn increased the need for recruiting and employing more graduate students and lecturers.

In spite of these changes in the higher education, sector marketing, and recruitment of many new employees, as well as an increased focus on academia, little attention was given to leadership and the strategic planning process for the colleges (although this was evident in other fields), which are well recognized as essential elements for organisational success (Al-Kubaisi & Al-Kaoud, 2016; Saeed & Kata, 2016; Salau, Falola, Ibidunni, & Igbinoba, 2016). Of relevance is the fact that among other recent research (Al-Jubouri, 2019; Al-Tai & Al-Zubaidi, 2017), where Western approaches to leadership and strategic planning have been in use and studied in Iraq, Al-Husseini and Elbeltagi (2016), for example, have recommended a focus on both the leadership style and strategic planning

It is also well accepted that the key factor in being able to achieve their goals is the effectiveness of the leadership and strategic planning employed by the deans, their assistants, and heads of departments, who are directly responsible for achieving successful outcomes. Thus, there is a need to understand the leadership behaviours and the strategic planning processes implemented by these top management teams, to be able to provide the strategic advice that is needed to strategize the way forward. Figure 1.2 shows the structure of the higher education sector and reflects the importance of the colleges as part of the system. For more data and information, see Appendix B, which includes the Iraqi governmental higher education system, the private higher education system, the history of private higher education, and the standards which determine the students' choice of either a public or private college.



**Figure 1.2:** Overview of the structure of the higher education sector in the Iraq context

Source: author

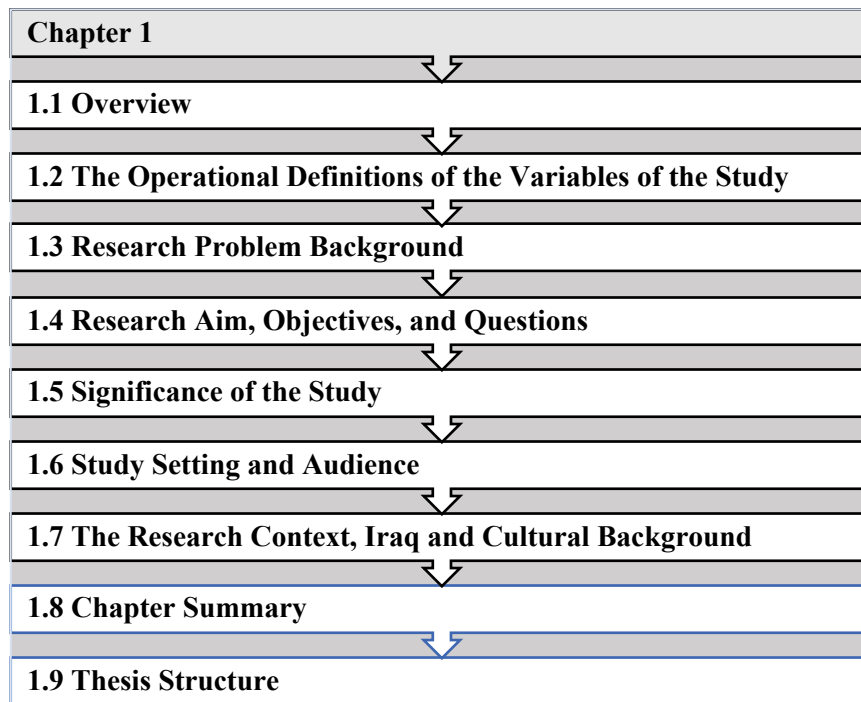
## 1.8. Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a brief summary of the research problem and background including the status of Iraqi higher education organisations; also, it has considered the challenges and problems they are currently facing. In addition, it has displayed the main aim and research questions, and has presented a justification for the study and overview of the relevance of Iraq's context and cultural background. Finally, the chapter has provided further insights into the research problem in relation to the issues involved in considering the similarities and differences between the public and private colleges. It has clarified that the public colleges are established, managed, and supported through the ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. By contrast, the private colleges and universities are established, managed, and supported by the private sector after being approved by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, according to the Law of Private Higher Education No. 25/2016.

## 1.9. Thesis Structure

This thesis has been structured into seven chapters, as shown in Figure 1.5. The structure and format of this thesis follows the referencing style manual of the American Psychological

Association's APA (6th ed) "Guidelines for the Preparation of a Higher Degree by Research Thesis" (University of Southern Queensland, 2019).



**Figure 1.5:** Structure of thesis

Chapter 1 has provided an overview of the study and associated thesis. It included an introduction to the study; the operational definitions about variables of the study; background of the problem; study aims and questions, and significance of the study to be investigated; research setting and audience; an overview of the Iraqi context and cultural background; the chapter summary; and structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 contains the literature review from which the study is derived. The review is categorised into seven main parts of literature: Section 1, the organisational leadership; Section 2, the strategic planning process; Section 3, organisational success; Section 4, previous studies in the Iraqi context; Section 5, conceptual framework of the study; Section 6, the relations and effects among variables of the study and discussing the gap; and Section 7, summary of the chapter.

Chapter 3 outlines the mixed methodology used with a focus on the exploratory design of the study. This chapter is divided into twelve sections: Introduction; the study's philosophy; the study's design; the study's population and sampling; the study's approach; quantitative

methodology; qualitative methodology; sources of the data and information; issues of the validity and reliability; the study's ethical considerations; administration of the study's survey; summary of the chapter.

Chapter 4 reports the results of the analyses of the battery of surveys administered in stage one of the study in two parts, which highlight the quantitative data collection. Part one is divided into eight sections, which include: introduction, justification of the quantitative approach, results of demographic data analyses, the multifactor leadership questionnaire, investigation of the strategic planning process, the balanced scorecard, and the colleges' organisational culture. Part two reports on the results of *t*-test and F-test analyses that address the research hypotheses, which helped determine the statistical significance of the differences in views between the two college types' staff. This is followed by a summary of the chapter.

Chapter 5 reports the results of the follow-up interviews that explored senior college leadership staff's views on the results of the survey. It has five main sections: the introduction; consideration of issues of validity and reliability of qualitative data; the piloting of the qualitative data analysis; and the actual analysis and results of the interviews. This encompassed the participants' perceptions of the survey results in relation to relevant aspects of the demographic data, the colleges' leadership styles, their strategic planning processes, and their organisational culture and performance. The chapter also reports on their insights into the colleges' future needs and their recommendations for the future, followed by a chapter summary.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the research in relation to answering the three research questions. This highlights how the triangulation of the data contributes to the strength of the research, which is also captured in the emergent model to guide future practice. It further acts as a vehicle to illuminating the research contribution to knowledge. Finally, in the light of an outline of the limitations of the research, the research conclusions are presented along with recommendations for the colleges' and ministry's future practice.

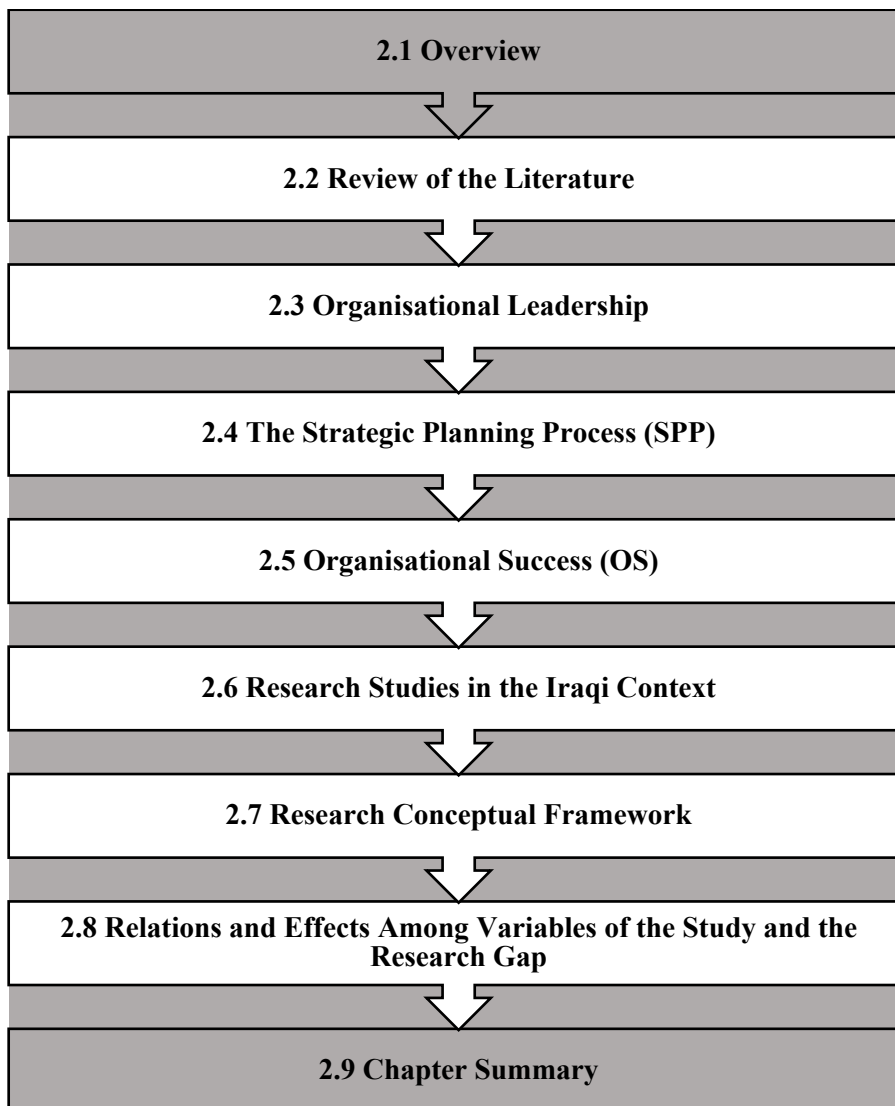
## **CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the conceptual framework that determines the rationale for this study and guides the review of the literature and its analysis and synthesis across previous studies in the field. The literature search included journals, theses, dissertations, books, reports, and other relevant documents to identify the research that was most critical for the present study (Booth, Sutton, & Papaioannou, 2016; Tarhan, Turetken, & Reijers, 2016). The review of the literature sought to identify the current knowledge in the field regarding educational leadership, organisational culture and strategic planning as well as examine the various methodological approaches in use and their applicability to conducting this study (Machi & McEvoy, 2016; Marangunić & Granić, 2015). Therefore, the main aim of this chapter is to present the analysis and synthesis of the current literature in the field to develop the justification for the present study and its research design and methodology so that a contribution to the field can be made. On the basis of this literature review, a research conceptual framework is presented to guide the proposed research.

The chapter (Chapter 2) is divided into nine sections. It starts with an introduction in Section 2.1. Section 2.2 provides the justification of the literature review. Section 2.3 discusses organisational leadership including leadership styles; dimensions and practices of the leadership; leadership and management; and the difference between the roles of leader and manager. Section 2.4 explains the concept and relevance of the strategic planning process (SPP) in the study, which includes the historical development of strategic planning; how it can be defined; its importance and objectives; success requirements; steps in the SPP; and the challenges involved. Section 2.5 provides an overview of the concept of organisational success, firstly defining it and then reporting on a systematic review of the literature, including the balanced scorecard. Section 2.6 provides a review of recent research conducted on leadership and strategic planning with a specific focus on the Iraqi context. Section 2.7 explains the study's conceptual framework, which is an analytical tool for the variables under study, in order to understand conceptual distinctions and organise ideas. Section 2.8 highlights the relations and effects among the variables of the study and discusses the research

gap. Finally, a summary of the chapter concludes in Section 2.9, reiterating the justification for the proposed research. This chapter therefore includes eight sections, which are shown in Figure 2.1.



**Figure 2.1:** Outline of Chapter 2

## **2.2 Review of Literature**

Numerous studies have focused on the importance of the review of the literature in providing a justification for research (Blaikie & Priest, 2019; Dumay, Bernardi, Guthrie, & Demartini, 2016;



Pickering, Grignon, Steven, Guitart, & Byrne, 2015; Rijke, Wouters, Rushforth, Franssen, & Hammarfelt, 2016; Shea et al., 2017; Torraco, 2016). Firstly, from the analysis and synthesis of the relevant literature emerge the key areas related to the theoretical framework of the study, which can be considered as the backbone of the research. Also, this enables the researcher to set the aim and research questions, and the hypotheses of the study, logically, which ultimately leads to the integration of the vision about the relations and impacts among the subjects of the study, with an objective link to its variables. Secondly, it illuminates other empirical studies that have used valid and reliable approaches and provided recommendations for future research that may be helpful to the present research. In addition, the literature review enables the researcher to select relevant content analysis approaches in the preparation of this study's theoretical framework. It facilitates the analysis of the ideas and facts that pertain to the research problem, besides providing a justification for the potential methodology, which in this case has adopted an analytical-descriptive approach in conducting its empirical research. Furthermore, in helping researchers to formulate an appropriate methodology, the literature review can also provide an important justification for the research design and sampling technique. For instance, the purposive sample was deemed most appropriate for the objectives of the current study. Thirdly, the review of the literature enables researchers to understand the appropriate statistical means to analyse the study's data, as well as describing and interpreting the variables of the study and testing validity and reliability in accordance with the objectives of the study. Finally, the literature review enables the researcher to compare the results of previous studies to understand the current knowledge in the field in order to design new research that will build on that knowledge and make a new contribution.

## **2.3 Organizational Leadership**

The phenomenon of leadership is still one of the most important variables in the field of management, especially in organisational and strategic studies (Bergh et al., 2016; Bush, Bell, & Middlewood, 2019; Pardey, 2016). According to Bratton (2020), this subject has received much attention from researchers and specialists over decades, who have sought to explain its theoretical bases and the scientific approaches to studying it as part of the field of business studies. Also, Clarke and O'Donoghue (2017) have argued that leadership is the most conducive means of

revealing the “lived experience of situationally embedded real world actors” (p. 172). Understanding organisational leadership is also vital to the agenda of developing countries, given their rapidly changing, and often turbulent times that they continue to face. This impacts educational institutions, whether in the public or private sectors (Antonakis & Day, 2017; Strömgren, Eriksson, Ahlstrom, Bergman, & Dellve, 2017). Leadership, therefore, is vital to achieving organisational success in developing countries, where organizations are especially challenged.

One thing that has the capacity to facilitate growth in developing countries is the uptake of technology for business and learning, and this has been found to potentially increase developing countries’ Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Lubis, Karim, Tha, & Rambeli, 2017). Thus, this concern for growth and making improvements has focused on searching for the best way to lead organizations in developing countries like Iraq. Research has examined whether this should be done individually, through a single strategic leader, or collectively through a top level management team (Higgs & Dulewicz, 2016; Maduka, Edwards, Greenwood, Osborne, & Babatunde, 2018). Consideration has also been given to leadership style, since research has shown how different styles impact differently on outcomes (Boamah & Tremblay, 2019; Xu, Wubbena, & Stewart, 2016).

As workplaces have become more challenging and dynamic, the need for a more strategic approach to leadership has been well recognized in order to improve business outcomes (Bratton, 2020; Sarros & Santora, 2001). In the consideration of organizational leadership, it is necessary to distinguish between *leadership*, *leader*, and *leadership style*, as shown in the following definitions:

- *Leadership* is “a group function: it occurs only when two or more people interact” (Western, 2019, p. 36)
- *A leader* “intentionally seeks to influence the behaviour of other people” (Liu, 2020, p. 3).

Owens & Valensky (2014) have illustrated leadership capacity within a four-quadrant matrix, identifying the ideal leader as demonstrating the following four qualities: (1) broad-based, skillful participation in the work of leadership, (2) enquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice, (3) roles and responsibilities that reflect broad involvement and

collaboration, (4) reflective practices and innovation as the norm, and outcomes that show high achievement.

- *Leadership style* is “characterised by the leader adopting the role of mentor, adviser and strategic planner “P.24” (Nahum & Carmeli, 2020; Sarros & Santora, 2001).

The leader is seen as being involved in motivating workers, providing them with an inspirational vision and purpose in their work, encouraging positive attitudes and promoting the values that are consistent with the culture of the organisation (Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003; Krishnan, 2004; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Robbins, Bergman, Stagg, & Coulter, 2009; Western, 2019). Sarros and Santora (2001) explained leaders’ roles as the ability to assist people in the workplace to cope with unpredictable and dynamic change. In addition, leaders seek to gain commitment and dedication to the mission, vision and values of their organisations.

Given this, emotional intelligence is also seen as an important part of effective leadership (Abadi & Aliqabi, 2019a; Liu, Venkatesh, Murphy, & Riggio, 2020; Palmer et al., 2001). Both Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2006) and Palmer et al. (2001) have described emotional intelligence as the set of skills that determine the capability of an individual to manage their own and other people’s emotions. The current humanistic orientation of leadership requires leaders to display a level of emotional intelligence in order to be effective in inspiring workers to participate in any change processes. Leaders with emotional intelligence are argued to have improved levels of social interaction and can motivate their followers more effectively than leaders with lower levels of emotional intelligence (Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003; Kerr et al., 2006; Polychroniou, 2009; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Also of relevance is Rosch and Anthony (2012), leader-member exchange theory, which looks at the nature of the interaction between leaders and their followers as a theoretical position that promotes an ideal where the interactions between the leader and the follower seek to foster a partnership in order to achieve high quality organisational performance through support from followers (O’Neill, 2014). Clearly, leadership is founded around the development of a vision and values by the leader, and the motivation of followers, through communication and interaction, to plan and collaborate, and thus to achieve the vision of their organisation (Gandolfi & Stone, 2016).

### 2.3.1 Leadership styles

There is a great deal of literature on leadership theory, which is often articulated as models or styles of leadership. These suggest there is no one particular model or style of leadership accepted universally, or not one that has been proven to be successfully applied in a broad range of different contemporary contexts. However, it is clear that whatever the model selected, as a number of researchers have noted (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Blanchard, 2018; Grossman & Valiga, 2016; Milburn, 2010), it must reflect the organisation's requirements, individual conditions and current needs according to the context and situation, if it is to be successful. Thus, this part of the literature review discusses leadership styles (LSs) and related leadership models.

In the literature on leadership there is also a long list of typologies of leadership (Heuston & Wolf, 2011; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Avolio, & Dumdum, 2013; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012; Vaismoradi, Griffiths, Turunen, & Jordan, 2016; Vesterinen, Isola, & Paasivaara, 2009; Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008; Wihler et al., 2016). This list continues to grow, and includes concepts of adaptive leadership (Pianesi, 2019), and servant leadership (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019), which are beyond the scope of the educational leadership of the present research. Yilmaz (2016) has defined LS as "a relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that characterises a leader" (p. 74); whereas Chiu, Owens, and Tesluk (2016) have defined it as the capacity to influence others to achieve a desired goal. Both these definitions are relevant for the leadership applicable in education institutions.

Nevertheless, in the Iraqi context, there are previous empirical studies that have focused on leadership styles and have suggested that there are a range of styles evident. According to (Saeed & Muzaffar, 2016; Salman & Al-Naciri, 2016), the transformative style is identified as an important focus in the study of the Iraqi context; however, (Al-Qaisi & Khawam, 2015; Faisal, 2017; Saeed & Muzaffar, 2016; Saeed & Ali, 2018) have also found evidence of transactional leadership styles. Other studies have highlighted the importance of studying adaptive leadership styles, particularly in relation to the Iraqi higher education sector (Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016; Al-Jader & Marjah, 2016; Al-Kubaisi & Al-Kaoud, 2016; Al-Tai & Naji, 2015; Faisal, 2017;

Saeed & Kata, 2016). This illustrates that leadership in Iraqi generally is very important, particular in the educational context, particularly after 2003, the Iraqi higher education sector witnessed a radical transformation in its methods, patterns, and fields. This development has come in response to several challenges and bets that faced this sector. For example, developing educational technologies, increasing demand for it, and massive knowledge explosion, in addition to the emergence and development of new services and industries that require new jobs. therefore, all of these challenges and developments have led to focusing on the most effective leadership styles so justifying the selection of these three leadership styles namely transformational, transactional, and adaptive as referred to in Table 2.1.

In light of these discussions, the leadership styles considered above have identified the model by Avolio and Bass (transformational and transactional) the most applicable, comprehensive, and popular in studying leadership styles. In this model, the transformational style consists of five key dimensions: idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. As a result, the transformational style can be defined as a pattern of leadership that should move followers in order to rise above their self-interest, by altering their morale, ideals, interests, and values, and motivating them to be better than initially expected through working together to achieve a common goal (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Buil, Martínez, & Matute, 2019; El Amouri & O'Neill, 2014). By contrast, the transactional style consists of four key dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active and passive), and laissez-faire. Thus, the transactional style can be defined as characterising a type of mutual-political leadership that focuses on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers, based on the principle of reward and punishment (Avolio & Bass, 2004a; Megheirkouni, Amaugo, & Jallo, 2018). Thus, there are important differences between transformational leaders and transactional leaders. For example, transformational leaders do not focus only on realising their associates' needs like transactional leaders; instead, they also seek to develop them as leaders as well in a distributed way (Yi, Uddin, Das, Mahmood, & Sohel, 2019). This contrasts with traditional top-down management as it enables input from the bottom-up where staff have opportunity to influence their leaders to reconsider the focus, mission, or vision (Avolio & Bass, 2004b).

On this basis, the researcher has considered transactional leadership style and transformational leadership style together, with adaptive leadership style being most relevant to this investigation for several reasons. Firstly, the leadership styles of transactional and transformational have multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) scores that have been shown to have validity and reliability since 1995 until now (Avolio & Bass, 2004b). Also, MLQ scores can help to account for the varying impact of different types of leaders through dealing with their associates, teams, and organizations, while identifying better leadership styles that affect associates' satisfaction and organizational success. In addition, MLQ scores can reflect changes in policy of the organization by examining both the overall and individual leadership profiles of the employees of an organization. Secondly, MLQ provides a variety of suggestions about transformational and transactional leadership styles in order to test experimental verification, which is available in the models that have been provided in previous years by Bass and Avolio (Avolio & Bass, 1995, 2004a; Avolio & Bass, 2004b; Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996), and many others. These models propose more areas for future research programs on transformational and transactional leadership at the individual, group, and organisational levels. Thirdly, MLQ has been the subject of study and method in numerous doctoral dissertations, theses, and research investigations, many of which in the US, Europe, Asia, Africa, and in different sectors such as banking, education, government, health, manufacturing, mining, and others. Finally, much research in the Iraqi context has recommended to adopt MLQ in investigating better leadership styles that can lead to leading strategic planning and achieving organisational success as mentioned above.

The key behaviours associated with the former three contrasting styles are listed in Table 2.1 below. It is noted that the adaptive leadership style relates well to transformational leadership as it involves the ability to mobilize people to tackle challenges, grow and change, thereby enabling the capacity to thrive in new and different environments, incorporate new dreams, new strategies and abilities (Adams, Bailey Jr, Anderson, & Galanos, 2013; Hlalele, Manicom, Preece, & Tsotetsi, 2015; Nicolaides & McCallum, 2013). It focuses on innovation, entrepreneurship, adaptation, and resource procurement (Sharma, Amir, Veeriah, & Kannan, 2016). Adaptive leaders work with no known solution and must shift their current normative values and expectations about how to accomplish their goals (Hunt, Corazzini, & Anderson, 2014). Adaptive leadership occurs in the larger and complex context of the organizational administrative structure. Also, it is needed at all

levels to encourage and support the work of frontline workers (Randeree, 2012), and it includes rewarding new behaviours. It typically makes use of strategic planning tools that encourage transformative change. Also, it requires transformative learning and depends on mature developmental capacity (Haber-Curran & Tillapaugh, 2013). It is an important approach that contributes to stimulating shared ownership of learning (Hlalele et al., 2015) and has two core behaviours that may be described as being a ‘broker’ (e.g. exerting influence in and out of faculty, negotiating and bringing resources) as well as an ‘innovator’ (exploring new ideas, identifying and facilitating change) (Sharma et al., 2016). In addition, this study needs to consider the organizational culture of the colleges as they are a reflection of leadership styles since “an organisation’s culture is reflected by what is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that make an organization unique”(Schein,2010,p.17).Moreover, the strategic planning process should be examined, its strengths and weaknesses noted, and modifications suggested to improve the next round of strategic planning. Effectiveness in this step really depends on effective organisational learning, which means taking a hard look at what is really happening . . . and designing forums within which knowledge can be developed and shared. (Moynihan & Landuyt, 2009; Renz, 2016, p. 262)

Thus, this research is designed to capture the range of styles and to gain a clear understanding of the strategic planning process and evidence of organisational culture and indicators of the colleges’ success.

**Table 2.1:** Leadership styles

Transactional leadership style	Transformative leadership style	Adaptive leadership style
Transactional leadership is task based, short-lived and episodic and used for a particular short term piece of work or directed project. Nahavandi (2006) has demonstrated that the two most important aspects	Transformative leaders inspire and motivate their followers and stimulate them to be creative and innovative and involved in the process of solving problems (Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012).	This involves the ability to mobilize people to tackle ... challenges, and to grow and change, enabling the capacity to thrive in new and different environments, and to incorporate new dreams, new strategies and abilities (Adams et al., 2013; Hlalele et al., 2015; Nicolaides & McCallum, 2013)

Transactional leadership style	Transformative leadership style	Adaptive leadership style
of transactional leadership are to be temporary and task-based.		
<p><b>a. Management-by-exception leaders</b></p> <p>This style is divided into two types - active and passive.</p>	<p><b>a. Idealized influence leaders</b></p> <p>This is defined by Bryman, Collinson, Grint, Jackson, and Uhl-Bien (2015) as: “The ability to inspire enthusiasm, interest, or affection in others by means of personal charm or influence” (para 6)</p>	<p>This focuses on innovation, entrepreneurship, adaptation, and resource procurement (Sharma et al., 2016). Adaptive leaders work with no known solution and must shift their current normative values and expectations about how to accomplish their goals (Hunt et al., 2014).</p>
<p><b>b. Dependent reward leaders</b></p> <p>This type is characterized by arranging satisfactory agreements or promises for the support of the leader in performing what is required.</p>	<p><b>b. Inspirational leaders</b></p> <p>This style allows the followers to engage with leaders and share the goals that need to be achieved. Leaders are characterized by their passionate encouragement, optimism in their speech and their vision for the future (Bass, 1997; Bass &amp; Steidlmeier, 1999)</p>	<p>This occurs in the larger and complex context of the organizational administrative structure. Also, it is needed at all levels to encourage and support the work of frontline workers (Randeree &amp; Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012), and includes rewarding new behaviours.</p>
<p><b>c. Laissez-faire leaders</b></p> <p>This is also called non-directive and free-reign leadership. However, this type of leader may be frequently absent when they are needed, as they tend to avoid leading (Avolio &amp; Yammarino, 2013; Bass &amp; Riggio, 2006).</p>	<p><b>c. Intellectual stimulation leaders</b></p> <p>This style avoids blaming followers for their mistakes and seeks new solutions with creativity and with the incorporation of the followers’ participation (Bass &amp; Riggio, 2006).</p>	<p>this typically makes use of strategic planning tools that encourage transformative change. Also, it requires transformative learning and depends on mature developmental capacity (Haber-Curran &amp; Tillapaugh, 2013).</p>
	<p><b>d. Individualized consideration leaders</b></p> <p>Individualized consideration leaders treat every employee individually and provide education, instruction and extension of opportunity. The</p>	<p>This is an important approach that contributes to stimulating shared ownership of learning (Hlalele et al., 2015). It has two core behaviours that may be described as ‘broker’ (e.g. exerting influence in and out of faculty, negotiating and bringing</p>



Transactional leadership style	Transformative leadership style	Adaptive leadership style
	leader's behaviour is based on individual needs and some employees receive encouragement while others are allowed independence. In this style, it is important to accept individual differences (Bass, 1997; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999).	resources) and 'innovator' (exploring new ideas, identifying and facilitating change) (Sharma et al., 2016).

It is important to understand that for this investigation, the transactional leadership style involves solving the various tasks and problems through a focus on workplace transactions between, typically, management and workers. In addition, this style of leadership may be active or passive depending on how it is implemented. In contrast, transformative style is applied over the long term with a view to the future in order to solve both temporary and permanent tasks and problems through involving all stakeholders to work together collaboratively to improve and develop the organisation's products or services in light of a shared vision, mission and values. However, adaptive leadership, although similar to transformative leadership in its collaborative approach, places more emphasis on the strategic planning process, which is a common practice in more developed countries' higher education, as it is seen as a process that can best serve the changing needs of faculties, students, and stakeholders. In contrast, in the Iraqi context, Al-Qaisi and Khawam (2015) have found that higher education colleges' leaders did not have the strategic planning tools required to encourage adaptation and transformative change, nor the support needed for a guiding philosophy of organizational development either. It has been suggested that the uptake of an adaptive leadership style would help them to better manage the particular nature of

change and disruption in the Iraqi context. Adaptive leaders would be expected to be sensitive to their different organisational challenges and adapt their practices to the context of the change. However, important to the present research, Saeed and Kata (2016) found many contemporary leaders in Iraqi colleges who were still working on the basis of assumptions drawn from a traditional command and control authoritarian notion of 'leadership', thus indicating a compliance management approach in trying to achieve their organizational goals. Therefore, this research implies that in the absence of the knowledge and tools to engage senior management in strategic planning, combined with the likelihood that the Iraqi college leaders are implementing compliance management rather than leadership, the present research is further justified in its aim to compare the approaches in both public and private colleges.

### 2.3.2 Dimensions and practices of leadership

In the twenty-first century, leadership has become a more significant subject and has received attention from leaders of the organisations who seek excellence in their performance (Boggs, 2003; Bush et al., 2019). High-performing organisations are identifiable through their outstanding leaders who can show initiative, creativity and integrity in performance (Kok & McDonald, 2017; Tu, Bono, Shum, & LaMontagne, 2018). Therefore, some researchers and specialists in the field of organisational leadership have started to add new dimensions for leaders because requirements have changed over the years. For example, the dominant pattern in leadership that was considered appropriate in the industrial age was authoritarian and compliant, while in the cognitive age/information age a more democratic style has emerged in keeping with social constructivism and recognition of the advantages of teamwork. As a result, leaders have needed to make changes to their own thinking and have needed to take a strategic look to the future in order to be prepared for partial and total changes in the third millennium, which has led to the emergence of new dimensions of leadership (Schneider & Jones, 2017). Therefore, in order to understand these various leadership dimensions, the researcher reviewed a number of additional studies, as shown

in Table 2.2, which provides a clear and comprehensive outline of the extant scholarly research of leadership dimensions studies pertinent to the present research from the period 2004-2019.

**Table 2.2:** Summary of the dimensions of the organisational leadership – systematic review

No	Author name and year	Dimensions of leadership / Systematic Review
1	(Avolio & Bass, 2004a)	Idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception (active and passive), and laissez-faire leadership and their outcomes are (effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort).
2	(Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005)	Ethics, honesty, idealized, interactional fairness, supervisor effectiveness, satisfaction, extra effort, and willingness to report problems.
3	(Matteson & Irving, 2006)	Vision, credibility, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment.
4	(Hale & Fields, 2007)	Role-Modelling, sacrificing for others, meeting needs and development of others, service as the primary function of leadership, recognizing and rewarding employees, treating employees with respect, and involving others in decision-making.
5	(Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008)	Technical competence, interpersonal skills, procedural justice, organizational influence, communication, and goal clarification
6	(Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron, & Myrowitz, 2009)	Trust, respect, and “buy-in,” confidence, creative, hopeful, commitment to goals, alternative strategies, goal attainment
7	(Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010)	Empathy, assertiveness, flexibility, reality testing, stress management, problem solving, interpersonal relationships, and self-regard.
8	(Nguyen & Mohamed, 2011)	Clarifying, inspiring, supporting, and team building.
9	(Turan & Bektas, 2013)	Guidance, creating a vision, questioning the process, encouraging personnel and encouraging audience.
10	(Keskes, 2014)	Vision, inspirational, communication, supportive leadership, intellectual stimulation and personal recognition.
11	(Liphadzi, Aigbavboa, & Thwala, 2015)	Execution, deeds, tangible results, operational efficiency, project management within budget and on time, expertise to actually do the job.
12	(Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016)	Vision, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation, influence, empowerment, high performance expectations.
13	(Schneider & Jones, 2017)	Purpose, vision, competency, integrity, passion, intimacy and courage.

14	(Megheirkouni et al., 2018)	Trust, justice, pride, camaraderie, work infrastructure, autonomy, training & development, reward & acknowledgement, remuneration & benefits (R&B).
15	(Boamah & Tremblay, 2019)	Idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception (active and passive), and laissez-faire leadership.

As shown in Table 2.2, it is obvious that many scholars have provided and focused through their empirical studies on different dimensions of organisational leadership. Therefore, according to all of dimensions of the leadership that has been mentioned by scholars in their articles, the researcher can define them as set of characteristics and attributes that distinguish and shape the leadership style for leaders either in positive or negative ways, according to the surrounding circumstances. As a result, all of 17 articles were systematically reviewed presented similar and different dimensions. However, all of the dimensions, whether similar or different, have been mentioned in the articles that are included in the dimensions that Avolio and Bass (2004) provided: idealized influence attributed (pride, respect, justice, supportiveness, trust, and confidence); idealized influence behaviour (ethics, consequences, honesty, collective engagement, and interactional fairness); inspirational motivation (purpose, vision and mission, enthusiastic, empowerment, guidance, creating, and positive goals); intellectual stimulation (solve problems, suggestions, re-examination), and individualized consideration (different deeds, training, improvement, and development); contingent reward (reward, assistance, satisfaction, and responsibility); management-by-exception active (attention, focusing, care, flexibility, reality testing, and acknowledgement); management-by-exception passive; and laissez-faire leadership and their outcomes (effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort). Thus, the researcher adopted these the dimensions provided by Avolio & Bass (2004) in the current study because they are comprehensive and include all of the dimensions that were provided in 17 articles since 2004 to 2019, based on the the systematic review.

### 2.3.3 Leadership and management

Not surprisingly, both efficient management and effective leadership are well accepted as critical factors in the success of any organisations (Hallinger & Hammad, 2019; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2007; Smircich & Morgan, 1982). According to (Abed, 2014) and Hallinger (2020), organizational leadership and management are closely linked, and each complements the other, although both make unique contributions to an organisation's operations (McCaffery, 2018; Renz & Herman, 2016). To explore these differences, the researcher provides a summary of the findings of recent research in the leadership and management field.

According to Cherie and Gebrekidan (2005), leadership strongly focuses on and is concerned with human resources through developing skills and capabilities in order to motivate staff to achieve organisational success. Frankel (2008) and Frankel (2019) have illustrated that management is highly focused on the outputs (performance results and material components) in an organization, independently of human resources. Yet, Muhr, Sørensen, and Vallentin (2010) found that leadership is concerned with influencing individuals through activating their personal abilities and skills, where leaders may be transformational in inspiring their followers, and dealing with them wisely and rationally in order to involve them in the administrative processes (planning, organising, orientation, and evaluation), such that they gain a sense of ownership of the decision-making. By contrast, Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012) have pointed out that mere management works to compel the subordinates to perform the functions and achieve organisational success based on a set of procedures and laws that are drawn up by top level management. This means that the relationship between the administration and its subordinates is very formal, as well as being without emotion and feelings due to the neglect of the human resources in the organization and a focus on compliance. Moreover, El Amouri and O'Neill (2014, p. 136) have confirmed that leadership is "about taking action and communicating values in the context of a relationship ... not about reinforcing the status quo and the reliance on hierarchy". This illustrates that leadership is required for the strategic planning process to be effective as opposed to management alone, which is typically characterized by short-term planning; so, it does not focus on improvement and change; rather, it focuses all its thinking on the present and neglects the future. According to Amanchukwu, Stanley, and Ololube (2015) and Nie and Lämsä (2015), leadership is the ability to

present a vision for the future through words and examples, inspiring the whole workforce by effectively setting expectations and influencing their behaviours, thoughts, and feelings in order to ensure a unified strategic vision and mission in relation to organisational success. This shows that leadership monitors and stimulates ongoing changes to the status quo, and always strives for continuous change in search for the best ways to achieve success. Also, Bosworth (2016) and Anderson and Sun (2017) have discussed that leadership expresses confidence that goals will be achieved through articulating and talking enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished through ethical considerations, not just formal laws. This demonstrates that transformational leaders sometimes avoid using the official authority entrusted to them in order not to dictate the form of the relationship between the leaders and their subordinates. Furthermore, McCaffery (2018) and Lehmann-Willenbrock, Rogelberg, Allen, and Kello (2018) illustrate that leadership is more about recognising the issues and risks associated with the internal and external environment of an organisation, which can make it more responsible and accountable about the way it leads its affairs. This also means that management alone is less responsive and flexible in being able to face any rapid change because laws and procedures control it and thereby hinder innovation and creativity.

Thus, this research differentiates between leadership and management, showing that management involves many operational functions and controls, while leadership is responsible for the strategic planning necessary to carry out the organisation's mission in terms of its vision to achieve organisational success. Effective leadership ideally can raise staff awareness of the organisation's mission and vision and engage them in maximizing their contribution to achieve success. Thus, the literature emphasises that to improve an organisation's outcomes, leadership style is a key factor as opposed to efficient management alone.

Effective leadership is vital in leading strategic planning to ensure organisational success. Nevertheless, to achieve real changes, both efficient management and effective leadership are essential to the continuing success of an organisation.

Thus, according to this review, this study has adopted leadership styles that have been put forward by (Avolio & Bass, 2004a) in order to achieve the objectives of this study that relate to evaluating the current situation of the Iraqi higher education sector (public and private) across studying the

role of the leadership styles in practicing strategic planning processes and achieving the organisational success. Thus, based on this review of the literature and its highlighted range of leadership styles and their ability to differentiate their different impacts on an organisation's practice and outcomes, for the purposes of this research (Avolio & Bass, 2004a) both leadership theory and styles are adopted. These are well established, internationally, and are thus applicable to the study's context and, through their availability in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, can be applied to the Iraqi higher education colleges.

## **2.4 The Strategic Planning Process (SPP)**

This section discusses the historical development of the strategic planning process, and in providing a definition, considers the importance of higher education organisations developing clear strategic objectives, success requirements in performance indicators, as well as senior management awareness of the steps of SPP. It also considers the challenges of applying the SPP in the higher education context in Iraq.

### **2.4.1 Strategic planning (SP)**

The process of strategic planning began as art and practice in ancient times, particularly in the Greek empire era, with the word "strategos" meaning "the art of the leader or general" (Bracker, 1980; Khan & Khalique, 2014a; Mintzberg, 2000; Njeri, 2016; Paris, 2003). This illustrated how the leader in battle, through his role or plan, could defeat the enemy in an efficient manner, taking into account effort and cost. In this ancient context, the leader was seen as the person who led and commanded the troops into battle, which is more in keeping with compliance management and transactional style. However, in contemporary times, SP has become more of a science with principles, roles, and theories, through its application in business and now education, using such terms as "administrative strategy" (Ackoff, 1974; Bracker, 1980; Ghemawat, 2002; Von Neumann, Morgenstern, & Kuhn, 2007). Moreover, in the period from 1961-1969, the SP system was used in the Defence Ministry of the United States and is known to have achieved great success, such that President Lyndon B. Johnson applied it in all US federal government agencies under the name



of the Planning-Programming-Budgeting System. In the same period, most of the business schools entered SP as educational material under the name of "administrative policies". Following this, the concept of SP moved to both Europe and developing countries (Chin, Bennis, & Benne, 1969; Kay, McKiernan, & Faulkner, 2003; Waitzkin, 1994) and its use was accelerated after the publication of Ohmae's (1985) book, *The mind of the strategist*.

In conclusion, SP can be summarized in three stages. Firstly, in ancient history, it was synonymous with military plans. Secondly, in the middle of the twentieth century, it became a comprehensive concept for all of life's aspects, and not limited to the military, political and administrative aspects. Finally, by the new millennium, SP has become a concept that is well accepted in the developed world and used to prepare for the future. However, from the perspective of the present research it is a relatively new approach for senior staff in higher education in Iraq's colleges, whether public or private (Immordino, Gigliotti, Ruben, & Tromp, 2016; Kenno, Lau, Sainty, & Boles, 2020). Thus, in exploring how Iraqi colleges might better address ways of dealing with their ongoing disruption and find better ways of responding to people's educational needs, it would seem that their ability to plan strategically must be a consideration central to the research.

#### 2.4.2 The importance of the strategic planning process

The term *strategic planning process* has been defined in several different ways in the literature, depending on different researchers' views and in spite of its origins as described earlier. Firstly, there have been several studies that have defined SPP as involving a variety of essential roles that together may impact on and improve an organisation's performance to make it more positive and significant (Abdallah & Langley, 2014; Al-Kubaisi & Hamad, 2018; Al Shobaki, Amuna, & Naser, 2017; Babafemi, 2015; Dampson & Edwards, 2019; Kenno et al., 2020; Klatt, Schlaefke, & Moeller, 2011; Kohzadi & Hafezi, 2016; Ridwan & Marti, 2012).

For instance, Kohzadi and Hafezi (2016) have stated that "strategic planning is a bridge that leads the company from the status quo to the desired state". In addition, other studies have explored how the SPP relates to *organization success* (OS) (Attar & Kang, 2018; Suarez, Calvo-Mora, & Roldán, 2016; Suferi & Rahman, 2018). Secondly, there are many researchers who have considered strategic planning as an approach that enables organisations to determine their long-term

objectives and goals, and how they should allocate or distribute the resources necessary to achieve them (Al-Turki, 2011; Desai, 2000; Mintzberg, 1978; O'Regan & Ghobadian, 2004; Stonehouse & Pemberton, 2002; Wang, Walker, & Redmond, 2007). This means that SP in this case, is seen as a systematic process to guide thinking and planning and to help predict outcomes that can create a better future for an organization. By identifying long-term goals for organizations and performance indicators in accordance with their vision and mission, it is expected that they would be better positioned to achieve them.

Thirdly, some researchers (Babafemi, 2015; Majaha, 2015; Mintzberg, 1994; Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012) have taken the view that SP should enable organisations' ability to adapt and grow in order to be responsive to their ongoing challenging environments. This is seen as allowing them to work more effectively in a competitive environment where resources might be scarce, as they are in the Iraqi situation. However, those researchers have also recommend further research that examines the relationship between strategic planning and leadership styles, since the style of leadership has the potential to impact outcomes regardless of the quality of the strategic planning (Sudrajat & Agustin, 2020). Thus, this indicates that the present research needs to be designed to take account of this.

Finally, other recent researchers have noted that strategic planning is a systematic administrative process, which works on integrating the workers' efforts with their knowledge and capabilities to identify strategic choices and choose the best way forward to foster the organisation's success (Bryson, Crosby, & Bryson, 2009; Butuner, 2016; Elbanna et al., 2015; Elbanna, Thanos, & Colak, 2014; Fathi & Wilson, 2009). This implies a more collaborative approach where the leader involves staff in the planning and delivery processes, distributing the responsibility in keeping with a more transformative style. Implementation of this style may require organizational cultural change, particularly in organisations where culturally a more compliance management approach has been the norm. Thus, when applied to leadership in the Iraqi higher education context, this is an issue that needs to be considered, since as a developing country and historically, there is more evidence of an authoritarian model in place and an organizational culture of compliance (Al-Mulla & Ahmed, 2016; AlKhafaji, 2019a). These researchers' findings also reinforce the need for a more in-depth study of the relationships between, and effects of, SPP and LS on OS. Although the current literature in the field identifies the importance of the link between LS and SPP, as noted

above, there is limited empirical research into the nature of this relationship and how it might link to OS, and in particular in contexts such as Iraq, which has suffered long-term disruption and continues to do so.

Saeed and Abbas (2017) have confirmed in their empirical research in the Ministry of Iraqi Housing and Construction that strategic planning processes need a more exceptional and strategic leadership style, and they have recommended practicing SP through leaders who adopt a transformational leadership style in order to improve organizations' reputations. Also, according to Al-Nuaimi and Mohammed (2018), research leadership style plays a major role in fostering effective strategic planning processes. Their investigation into the hospitals of the Iraqi Health Ministry recommended more research into the importance of the link between LS and SP. In addition, Al-Kubaisi and Hamad (2018) and Al-Kubaisi and Mahdi (2019) have agreed that strategic planning processes (formulation, implementation, and evaluation) need to be implemented by organizations that have adopted a transformational leadership style, since it is expected to influence perceptual change amongst employees because SP would involve participatory and collaborative work. This in turn is expected to enhance the quality of the goods and/or services. Furthermore, Hassan (2019) research has also reinforced that different leadership styles have different impacts on strategic planning processes' effectiveness, and recommends giving staff more responsibility at all levels in creating a strategic vision, mission, and objectives in Iraqi public organizations. As AlKhafaji (2019a) has argued, the characteristics of transformative leadership have a vital effect in organizations, formulating the strategic partnership between organizations' management and their stakeholders. This involves formulating strategy and ensuring professional development of staff to understand how different leadership styles (e.g. transformational and transactional) may impact and how organizations achieve success to enhance the quality of their services in the Iraqi Higher Education sector. Furthermore, Abadi and Aliqabi (2019b) have shown that certain personality characteristics of leaders can have a high positive impact on implementing strategies of an organization through ensuring strategic flexibility. They have confirmed there is a great need for leaders who have characteristics of transformational leadership style in order to achieve organizational entrepreneurship. In contrast, although limited, their research also confirmed the importance of the connection between ST and LS and the need to consider this in the Iraqi context. According to Jeste and Childers (2017) empirical research,

one of most important techniques of strategic planning is the consideration of an organization's Strengths, Opportunities, Aspirations, and Results (SOAR). Understanding this helps to recruit and retain the most talented people into leadership positions and especially those who have characteristics of transformational leadership style. Also, Allen (2017) and Uzarski and Broome (2019) explorations of the strategic planning process for leaders in higher education in a school of nursing in the United States used the framework of transformational leadership where the results suggested that transformational behaviors applied throughout the progress and application of their organization's strategic plan. In addition, Abraham (2019) research has reinforced how organizational leadership needs to establish clear, meaningful strategic planning processes where employees are participants in order to ensure the organization's success. Furthermore, Broome and Marshall (2020) emphasize the importance of the need for transformational leadership style in leading strategic planning since it is most effective for encouraging and motivating employees to create new ideas and methods that can lead to achieving better organizational outcomes and excellence.

In summary, the way these researchers define strategic planning is highly relevant to understanding the present study's research problem and researching the objectives, where the SPP is defined for the purposes of this research as a cooperative operation, which results from 'real'/ 'authentic' participation amongst officials, administrators and staff members to achieve their organization's goals. In addition, strategic planning in the context of the present research is seen as being able to promote strategic thinking and acting, as well as learning amongst an organization's members. In other words, the researcher can define the SPP based on the above as a continuous and systematic process that enables the leaders of organizations to take better decisions about the future of their organization and its development, through the implementation of policies and strategies (strategic documents) to achieve the desired future objectives and goals. Moreover, it reinforces the importance of leadership style and raises the issue of the potential influence of organizational culture in implementing the SPP in achieving organizational success.

#### 2.4.2.1 Importance and objectives of the strategic planning process

Strategic planning is important as an essential process to enable organisations to achieve their desired objectives (Kerzner, 2019; Suarez et al., 2016). According to Bryson (2018), strategic planning contributes to preparing better plans that can lead to developing and improving organisational performance, particularly in the higher education sector, and ultimately enabling organisational success. Also, Johnson (2016) and Khudair, Abd, and Fahmi (2019) have pointed out that the SPP can assist organisations to make appropriate decisions by providing the support tools that can help them even when they may have limited resources. Since the process includes the achievement of specific objectives, it is able to keep organisations focused on their goals. In addition, Steiss (2019) notes that the SPP should increase communication and interaction between the organization and the community, which includes: developing the organisational culture, adapting to the changing environment, and creating an accurate database that provides information to enable management to taking better decisions. Also, Kamariotou and Kitsios (2019) state that the SPP aims to identify each participant's role and responsibilities in the organisation's decision-making to maximise the ability to support achieving its goals. Furthermore, Ansoff, Kipley, Lewis, Helm-Stevens, and Ansoff (2018) have shown other advantages of the SPP, which include provision of accurate characterisation and evaluation of the organisation's workplace environment, use of forecasting and estimating tools, identification of crucial requirements for improving performance and achieving growth and progress, and assurance that the ambitions and objectives of the owners and shareholders will be managed in a reliable and legal way. Finally, Abdel-Basset, Mohamed, and Smarandache (2018) have pointed out that the SPP should lead to reinforcing the institution's ability to deal with emergency problems from both the internal and external environment by including the ability to analyse the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT analysis) (Phadermrod, Crowder, & Wills, 2019). Overall, through the SPP, organisations should be better positioned to deal with undesirable changes and make better decisions to develop alternative strategies. This means that the SPP is a vital and essential function for most public and private organisations which can make them more successful, adaptive, and able to grow in uncertain environments through accumulating data to help them recognize the needs of the marketplace and the community as a whole.

#### 2.4.2.2 Success requirements of the strategic planning process

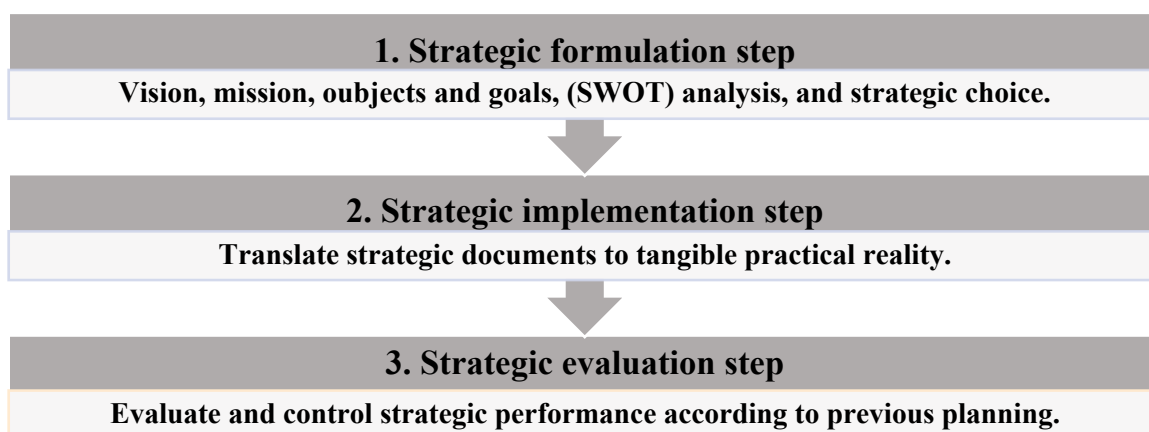
In order for the SPP to be successful, it is important for an organisation to be committed to using it to help achieve their desired improvements (Bell & Harrison, 2018). Various studies have reinforced this, noting that top management should believe in the SPP and should develop a supportive workplace/organisational culture (Albrechts & Balducci, 2013; Bell & Harrison, 2018; Bryson, Edwards, & Van Slyke, 2018; Bryson & Shively Slotterback, 2016; Gates, 2010; Holstein, Starkey, & Wright, 2018; McCaffery, 2018; Steiss, 2019). These researchers have noted the importance of paying attention to the decision-making context when designing a strategic planning approach, including the organisation's management and data needs to support strategic decision-making, staff professional development, and careful thinking about their objectives and goals in relation to the political, economic, and socio-cultural, and ethical, environment (Bryson & Shively Slotterback, 2016). It is also pointed out that the views of stakeholders and elected and appointed officials need to be taken into account to identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats and any competitive and collaborative advantages (Holstein et al., 2018).

Dampson and Edwards (2019), in their research that addressed the SPP in universities, have emphasised that it should be built on a realistic, integrated system that is free from estimation and exaggeration. They note that all employees should be involved in developing a plan to ensure they have an understanding and sense of ownership and commitment upon implementation. Abadi and Aliqabi (2019a) and (Haq, Hameed, & Raheem, 2020) have also found that plans should be flexible and responsive to being changed if circumstances change, and should focus on the organisation's priorities. It is also highly pertinent to achieving organisational success that the plan should include performance indicators so that its success at meeting its goals can be monitored and evaluated (Kyambalesa, 2019; Muhlbacher & Böbel, 2019; Stretton, 2019). Besides the SSP taking account of the organisational structure (Yabarow & Muathe, 2020), it should also take account of budgetary needs (Wright, Hillon, Garrido-Lopez, & Fowler, 2019) and both short and long term as well as contingency plans (Globocnik, Faillant, & Parastuty, 2020), depending on the stability of the business environment.

In short, the SPP is a process that enables organisations to prepare most effectively for their future success and for all contexts, which is particularly important in contexts that experience the uncertainties of Iraq, in order to respond to change. The point is also made that for organisational success, the organisational culture should ideally be seen as the responsibility of not only the leaders but that of all staff of the organisation. Moreover, all stakeholders should be participating in all stages of the strategic planning (formulation, implementation, and evaluation). According to Alharthi, Khalifa, and Bhaumick (2019), Coetzee and Nkosi (2019), and Tawse, Patrick, and Vera (2019), this must be clear, flexible, real, recognised and supported by all employers and employees in order to achieve the desired organisational success.

#### 2.4.2.3 Steps of the strategic planning process

Grünig, Rudolf, Kühn, and Richard (2015) have pointed out that the SPP steps are critically significant for promoting and organising thinking and communicating and conceptualising ideas within an organisation. Bryson and John (2018) have also noted that the SPP steps include factors that help characterise an organisation's current situation, aspirations, and intentions for the future, and methods/strategies for going forward. Nevertheless, most researchers, such as Adi and Ni'am (2012), Alharthi et al. (2019), Al Shobaki et al. (2016), Bekele (2015), Bryson (2018), Hassan (2010), Pickup et al. (2013), and Sudrajat and Agustin (2020) have agreed that the SPP involves the following three major steps: (1) strategic formulation, (2) strategic implementation, and (3) strategic evaluation, as shown in Figure 2.2. The process and each step are described below.



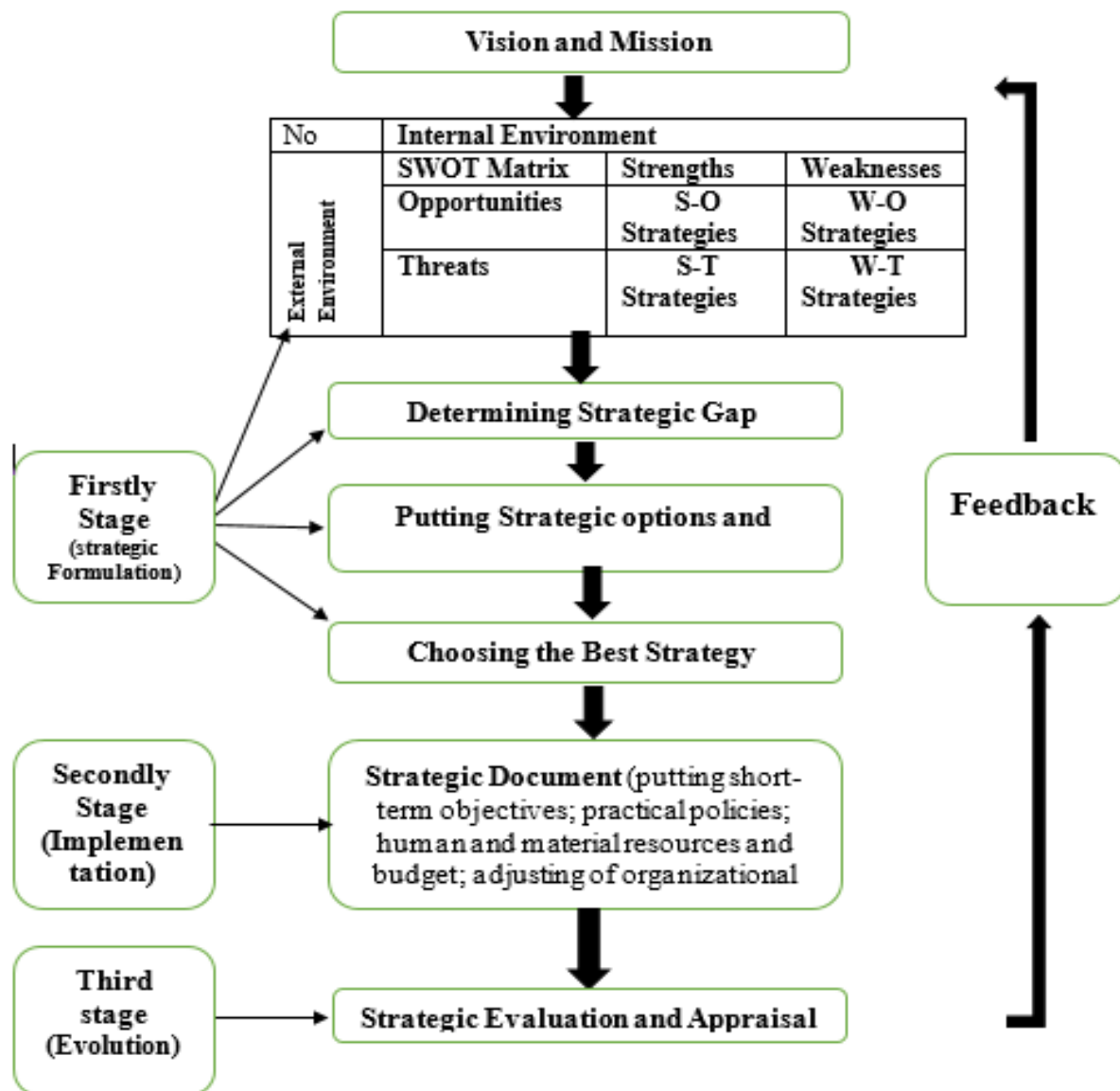
**Figure 2.2:** The strategic planning process steps

Source: Author

The first step of *strategic formulation* requires the organization to develop its vision and mission, which identifies its philosophy, purpose, and values, and thereby clarifies its goals. During this process, it is recommended that an analysis of the organisation's Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) is conducted. Such a SWOT analysis is deemed vital to ensuring sufficient data are collected to position the organisation to make strategic decisions and choices. For example, John, Daun-Barnett, and Moronski-Chapman (2018) have emphasised that the initial design phase is dependent on knowing the organisation's vision and mission. In conjunction with data from the SWOT analysis, gaps and issues can be identified and addressed in both short-term and long-term goals. This involves choosing the best macro strategies, businesses strategies, and unit strategies to ensure goals can be addressed and evaluated. Thus, this stage requires gathering and analysing information and making decisions to test the best alternatives at each step and should be practised with the highest degree of efficiency and effectiveness. The process should determine the type of services or goods, markets, and technology, as shown in Figure 2.3, which identifies the practical stage of the strategic planning process. These are then taken to the next step of *strategic implementation*, where plans are made to ensure the objectives and goals can be achieved. They are translated into strategic documents and tangible practical processes that should involve all employees of the organisation working collaboratively to achieve an agreed upon understanding, to ensure that the chosen strategies can be implemented and achieved in an appropriate manner. For instance, according to Hu et al. (2018), this phase aims to implement strategies that include: short-term objectives, practical policies, the determination of human and material resources, and distribution among alternatives of expenditure/contingency plans, and any adjustments to the organisational structure, should it be decided that redistribution of authorities and responsibilities is necessary to achieve the planned outcomes. Therefore, the most important aspect of success at this stage is to plan integration and cooperation between the activities and the various administrative units in the organisation and to implement the strategies in way that is efficient and effective, where new ideas and creativity or innovation might be required, as shown in Figure 2.3. Lastly, in the third and final step of *strategic*



*evaluation*, the organisation's management is required to commit to evaluating its strategic performance and progress in achieving its goals. This is crucial in providing the organisation with some control over its destiny by ensuring relevant strategic data are systematically collected over time to allow adjustments to be made as necessary in order to ensure the organisation's effective performance. This strategy informs current performance and future planning and addresses factors associated with the internal and external environment that may be detrimental to performance or can help enhance it. As McDavid, Huse, and Hawthorn (2018) have pointed out, all strategies that are developed for the implementation stage should be subject to a process of evaluation in order for the organisation to know how appropriate they are in practice, as the internal and external environments may change and re-evaluation may be necessary. This allows for the organisation to assess the accuracy of its forecasts contained in the plans. Thus, this step requires comparison between the actual results with those expected according to the objectives of the implementation of the strategy and performance indicators such as, for example, expected enrolment numbers per degree, completion of community and industry educational needs, and proportion of students who are retained. By establishing and maintaining strategic databases, deviations from the planned and predicted achievements can be addressed at critical intervals to ensure the organisation's agility. While data collection can be designed for applicability at all three stages at this stage, it can provide feedback to the organisation's management as to whether there are any emerging problems or risks to the business's viability. As the strategic planning cycle proceeds and data are provided, the organisation is better positioned to understand its situation internally, and if external comparative data are available then it might also benchmark its performance to learn from competitors (Harris et al., 2019). Thus, it can be appreciated that in the context of the private and public colleges in Iraq, if they are to be able to respond to the disruptive, challenging context of their developing country, the present study needs to investigate the extent to which they implement strategic planning.



**Figure 2.3:** The practical stage of the strategic planning process

Source: author

#### 2.4.3 Challenges in applying the strategic planning process

According to Mahmud (2013), there are many challenges that face most organisations in the education sector in Iraq. In this study, the researcher has focused on the challenges that are the most critical, based on the review of the literature. Thus, the SPP is considered according to the

challenges facing the organisations' internal and external environments, in accordance with the work of Aleixo, Leal, and Azeiteiro (2018); the internal challenges for the SPP may typically relate to institutional leadership. For instance, a poor work culture among staff members may prevent work being completed effectively (Bryson, 2011). Similarly, an unwillingness by leaders to listen to feedback and suggestions or their failure to show an appreciation of work done well can also impact negatively on achieving organisational goals through issues within the internal environment (Elbanna, 2016; Fathi & Wilson, 2009; Howes, 2014b). In addition, as Leskaj (2017) and Ruano (2019) and (Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012) have found, a lack of well-defined appraisal systems can deprive staff of feedback on their performance, as can a lack of strategies to motivate staff. Not surprisingly, Bramanti and Paolo (2018) and Lewis (2019) and Dooris et al. (2004) have found that a lack of investment in information and communication technology (ICT) to support the planning process can be detrimental to an organisation's performance (Kay & Carlin, 2017; Shapiro, 2004)

This is highly pertinent to this research and to developing countries like Iraq, since the uptake of ICT has been found to impact positively on improving a developing country's GDP (FarajAllah, El Talla, Abu-Naser, & Al Shobaki, 2018).

Other factors related to the internal environment that have been shown to negatively impact the SPP relate to lack of time (Dlamini, Mazenda, Masiya, & Nhede, 2019), a lack of specialised expertise (Hock, Yaser Alraei, Asif, & Mohammad Imtiaz, 2019), and a lack of workers' knowledge of the SPP and professional development opportunities to educate them in its relevance and application (Hellmich & Feeney, 2018; Wiesenberget al., 2020). In other research it has also been found that there can be a reluctance of management and leaders to share their strategic plans with employees and/or external consultants (Kenno et al., 2020; Kowsuvon & Burgess, 2016), such that workers are kept in the dark and disempowered. In turn, this does not facilitate a collaborative culture and reflects a leadership style more in keeping with compliance management rather than transformational.

On the other hand, external challenges for the SPP are likely because of fluctuations or decreases in state government funding, which affects the public sector (Hu et al., 2018), and at the same time increases the demand for higher education (Ozoğlu, Gür, & Gümüş, 2016). External challenges may also involve changing demographics, as Payne, Hodges, and Hernandez (2017) have found

that fast changing demographics create new challenges for higher education. For example, students' enrolment trends in post-secondary education in the United States vary across states and regions, where some have increased student populations, and others suffer a decline. That reinforces the idea that colleges and universities need to strategically plan in order to accommodate such changes in the students' demographics, through monitoring and evaluation of public needs. Access to data and agility in this respect is vital to ongoing success. In addition, the introduction of new models of higher education can also influence the SPP, as shown by Stokes (2017) who has pointed out that new models of higher education play a large role in students being able to complete their study and work in a timely manner in relevant ways. For example, Aleixo et al. (2017) have argued that successful higher education institutes always seek to use SPP in order to diagnose and identify the society's educational needs and to ensure the gap between the theoretical and practical aspects is filled. This recognises the importance of organisations investing in human capital in order to ensure agility of responses to change and to move beyond the concepts of an industrial economy to those of a learning organisation (Senge, 1992). As Stokes (2017) has pointed out, one of most important new models of higher education is the recognition of the importance of connecting higher education institutes to learning in workplaces or work-integrated learning (Matsoso & Benedict, 2020). In addition, this relationship has fostered collaboration between universities and stakeholders in sharing in the creation of new knowledge through linking jobs and academic teaching. This also illustrates that universities can achieve organisational success with their stakeholders and through the SPP, and by using new models of higher education. This in turn can help address individual competition, business innovation, and global competitiveness. However, in the Iraqi context, the continued adherence to certain elements of "traditional" models of operation has meant that higher education colleges have had little incentive to respond to making changes to their practice (King (2017). Moreover, even as the demand for economic transformation has come to the fore in the difficult circumstances of Iraq, there appears to be a competitive situation in higher education through the option of public and private institutions (El-Ghali, Berjaoui, & McKnight, 2017; Milton, 2017). Thus, the actions of competing organisations can also negatively impact on the achievement of the planned outcomes. Even more challenging is the potential for the ever-changing social and cultural forces, because of the ongoing political unrest, which can very quickly cause higher education plans to be thwarted (Al-Shamsi, 2017). Although

this portrays a fluctuating environment, it also shows that to maximise success, higher education needs to be able to adapt to these circumstances. This means having access to data that can readily help identify the developing educational needs of the employment market. It also means there is a need to be aware of the differences between the way public and private higher education sectors operate and the impact of their leadership styles and SSP, as the present research has sought to investigate.

Current research conducted in Iraq in relation to these challenges (Al-Qaisi & Khawam, 2015; Kramasha & Itaie, 2010; Mahmoud, 2017; Mohamed, 2009) has also found that both public and private colleges are suffering from most of the internal challenges discussed above. In addition, the external challenges outlined are also relevant to the colleges in Iraq, which includes decreased government funding; increasing student demand for higher education; and changing demographics with regard to gender, age, position, area, and so on; new models of higher education; emerging economic transformation; and the actions of competing organisations, which prevent them from achieving the organisational success OS.

In summary, based on above discussions, the internal and external challenges of the strategic planning process are a key source for achieving organisational success in various organisations, particularly in the higher education sector because this sector has more professional staff and experts in the SPP than other sectors. SPP is a function of sharing and analysing data and information among faculty members and stakeholders in order to make the best decisions in facing these challenges. Therefore, SPP has a crucial role to play in the survival of organisations, especially in the context of Iraqi higher education, which still suffers from environmental challenges (internal and external), and hence SPP should enable leaders of public and private Iraqi colleges to improve their current performance and expectations for the future. However, these challenges need transformational leaders who have the characteristics of strategic planners work with their followers as a team. Thus, this study diagnoses real problems and challenges of the strategic planning process that face Iraqi higher education institutes, and at same time current study identifies the best leadership styles that will successfully manage SPP.

## **2.5 Organisational Success**

This section defines organisational success, as it is applied in the study as the key goal of the colleges' SPP. Besides reviewing the research literature, it considers how modern practices apply the balanced scorecard as part of their strategic planning process in order to ensure appropriate data are available to inform the process and plan to achieve the desired outcomes.

### **2.5.1 Organisational success and related influences**

In this study, it is necessary to address what is meant by organisational success, since it focuses on the colleges' SSP and the extent to which they are able to plan and achieve their outcomes. In addition, this is a necessary consideration since any study of leadership style needs to also examine how it potentially influences the organization's achievement of success. Thus, this section includes a review of how organisational success might be defined, the resources and factors involved and its measurement. According to Kremer, Villamor, and Aguinis (2019) organisational success involves both "effectiveness and efficiency". However, it is argued here that it comprises more than what these two concepts may suggest. For instance, studies have shown that organisational success not only involves operational performance and delivery of education programs in this research but financial performance as well (Venkatraman & Ramanujam, 1986). It needs to consider profitability or revenue, as well as the accomplishment of improvements in programs, as applicable to community needs and, as some researchers have argued, a total quality management framework (Denscombe, 2014; Hayes & Pisano, 1994; Heerwagen, 2000). However, the study of long-term success indicators is also applicable in today's competitive markets, because these indicators can deliver data to benchmark and compare an organisation's outcomes with its competitors in the same field. Thus, in turn, there is a need to ensure the monitoring and evaluation processes provide appropriate data to inform the ongoing planning for adapting to change to ensure organisational success.

According to Maltz, Shenhar, Dvir, and Gao (2015) and Hadrawi (2018), the ability to benchmark through considering an organisation's management and use of knowledge, experiences, ideas, and analysis of successful experiences of corresponding organizations is argued to be the core to

understanding organisational success. This is based on the assumption that organisational success depends on effective administration and the employment of knowledge to evaluate performance, in order to be able to improve performance, respond to change and look for new markets or new opportunities, to ensure viability. Other researchers such as Chintengo, Mkandawire, and Hanif (2017), Yudatama and Sarno (2016), and Beard (2009), have indicated that the application of the 'Balanced Scorecard' (BSC) in strategic planning is a significant strategy for modern organisations to ensure they maximise their ability to achieve their goals and grow. It is seen as having a critical impact in strategy formulation and implementation, which makes it a crucial aspect of the present research in investigating Iraqi colleges' challenges and how they address them. This is because the BSC has four main elements to consider in evaluating organisational success: (1) learning and growth, (2) customer satisfaction, (3) financial, and (4) internal operations. By contrast, Salamzadeh, Bidaki, and Vahidi (2018) have identified five main factors in order to achieve organisational success: "creating value for customers, creating competitive advantage for organization distinction from competitors, understanding the market orientation, selecting right employees, and development of facilities" P.". While this research offered most of the key elements of organisational success, it has ignored the financial aspect, which is very important in considering organisational success, and is therefore particularly relevant to the present research in the context of Iraq.

Thus, for the purposes of this research, the researcher defines organisational success as the organisation's ability to manage its human capital, knowledge, and strategies to meet its planned outcomes in a way that competitors cannot easily imitate and learn from its experiences to sustain its growth and improve into the future. In other words, it means the organisation's commitment to the beneficiaries of its goods or services and its ability to evaluate their satisfaction, besides that of its human capital, to ensure its positive growth and development. Therefore, in the context of Iraq's higher education, the present research needs to consider how this relates to the colleges' current practices in addressing their need to succeed.

#### 2.5.1.1 Factors impacting on organisational success

Research has shown that a variety of factors can influence the success of organisations and their ability to achieve their planned outcomes (Funk, 2003; Lobas, 2006) (Salahuddin, 2010) (Ng & Kee, 2015) (Hadrawi, 2018) For instance, according to Avoli and Bass' (2004) research, an organisation's leadership style has a serious impact on its success. In their differentiation between the six styles that they have identified, as noted earlier, transformative leadership can place an organisation in a more agile position to achieve its goals. This is because transformational leaders typically have a number of significant personality characteristics and ways of working that enable them to work with their staff in an inspiring and collaborative ways (Kremer et al., 2019). This style is singled out compared with others as having the potential to have the greatest impact on an organisation compared with the others, although it may include aspects of other more management-related styles such as transactional styles. However, their research shows that management-by-exception (passive) and laissez faire style, for instance, will be much less effective because those in charge fail to plan and address problems as they arise. They are likely to ignore what is happening until things go wrong and also avoid getting involved when important issues arise (Thoroughgood, Sawyer, Padilla, & Lunsford, 2018). Lyons, Timmons, Cohen-Hall, and LeBlois (2018), Hadrawi (2018), and Englert and Helmig (2018) have all pointed out that organisational success requires an effective leadership style that can ensure a company has a clear mission and vision, and can set and meet goals in accordance with the business environment. This involves using data to help anticipate events and plan for the long-term, in order to accomplish sustainable success. It depends on a leadership style that involves strategic thinking in order to engage in transformative practices to achieve the organisation's goals. In addition, Al Shobaki et al. (2017) and Friedman and Gerstein (2017), have found that both customer satisfaction and satisfaction of employees may be considered as essential to measuring an organisation's success. Their focus on community needs and staff satisfaction relate to one of the most important aspects in the balanced scorecard (BSC), which is loyalty, customer satisfaction, the number of new customers. Moreover, other research by Haneda and Ito (2018), Storey, Cankurtaran, Papastathopoulou, and Hultink (2016), and Noruzy, Dalfard, Azhdari, Nazari-Shirkouhi, and Rezazadeh (2013) has highlighted how organisational innovation and learning, in conjunction with



leadership style, are crucial to achieving organisational success. This reinforces the need to apply the balanced scorecard, because of its value in being able to diagnose performance and strategically inform on organisational success, in the context of the present research in the Iraqi higher education sector. Moreover, other research, such as Haneda and Ito's (2018), Storey, Cankurtaran, Papastathopoulou, and Hultink's (2016), and Noruzy, Dalfard, Azhdari, Nazari-Shirkouhi, and Rezazadeh's (2013) has highlighted how innovation and learning, in addition to leadership style, are vital components in enabling organisations to be successful. While they cover some of the main factors in achieving organisational success, these elements are not as comprehensive as the BSC, as a tool for diagnosing performance. In addition, other studies, such as those of Razmjooei, Bozorginezhad, Jahromi, Managheb, and Zarei (2018) and Nikpour (2017), have pointed out that organisational culture also plays an important role in progressing an organisation's success. This is crucial because it depends on the way the staff work together and their commitment to getting the job done, which is also influenced by leadership style. For instance, transformative leaders are better able to motivate and inspire staff to work cooperatively to achieve a common goal, compared with those who practice compliance and authoritarianism and are punitive. This means the organisational culture can be likened to an umbrella in determining workplace values, behaviours and work rules of the organisation. Organisational culture is recognized by Avolio and Bass (2004) as providing an insight into leadership style as the leadership style influences how people work together or not. Thus, the nature of the organisational culture has the capacity to have a very powerful influence on the facilitation of quality work and constructive, innovative responsiveness, just as it can have the opposite effect (Lee, Shiue, & Chen, 2016).

Even though it is well accepted that organisational culture is significantly influenced by leadership style, a leader's capacity for success can be impacted by a lack of human and financial resources and for example result in poor quality goods and services (Al-Ali, Singh, Al-Nahyan, & Sohal, 2017). Thus, this highlights the need to consider the factors that may impact on organisational culture in the present research, particularly since Iraq is a developing country that faces much social instability. Buchanan and Huczynski (2019) and Salau et al. (2016) have added to this argument on the need to consider human capital in the present research, since they have pointed out how an organisation's performance also depends on its employees having the requisite skills to successfully accomplish the work. Thus, it is also necessary to investigate the extent to which

organisations have employees who possess the knowledge, skills and experience that are necessary at all organisational levels to not only do the work but to contribute strategically to address the challenges along the way, and offer creative ideas and methods that could improve and develop ultimate organisational success. While these studies have focused only on human resources, this is a major aspect of the BSC, thus adding further support for the present research to apply the BSC in the present study.

In addition, Ali, Said, Abdullah, and Daud (2017) and Damle (2018) have raised the issue of financial performance in being an indicator that is vital to success. As already noted, the adequacy of an organisation's financial resources cannot be ignored as without adequate funds the quality of goods and services can suffer dramatically or even cease. In the case of higher education provisions, failure to deal adequately with financial management can negatively influence organisational success in many ways, including both students' achievement and the organisation's reputation and sustainability. Thus, an additional advantage of the application of the BSC in researching organisational success is its consideration of the financial elements, hence this is deemed to be essential for the current study. Moreover, it is particularly important when comparing the colleges, which are either privately funded or government funded organisations, yet both need to be successful in addressing higher education needs in their contrasting educational contexts.

This examination of recent research in the field has revealed the complexity involved in leading and managing organisations such as the Iraqi colleges in the present study. It has illuminated the importance of being able to strategically plan and effectively implement their programs to achieve their organisational goals. It has further highlighted the important connection between leadership style and the culture that develops in organisations, and the way the SPP and the tool of the BSC can ensure data are available to inform the extent of success and ongoing planning. Figure 2.4 draws together these key features of practice related to leadership style, strategic planning, customer and employee satisfaction, innovation and learning, organisational culture, employees' skills and financial resources. It shows how they link to each other as well as how, as a whole, the organisation depends upon them being implemented effectively to achieve the major goal of "organisational success", displayed at the centre. These features clearly reflect the elements addressed by the Balanced Scorecard model and therefore provide support for its adoption to help investigate organizational success of the Iraqi colleges in the present study. Thus, this examination

of recent research in the field has revealed the complexity involved in organisations, such as the Iraqi colleges in the present study, and the challenge of being able to strategically plan and implement their programs to achieve their organisational goals.



**Figure 2.4:** Key features of practice organisations need to address to plan for organisational success

### 2.5.2 Approaches to measuring organisational success

Since it is well established that there is a need to measure the success of organisations, this section examines different approaches and techniques that have been applied. As early as the work of Venkatraman and Ramanujam (1986), the importance of measuring clients' and employees' satisfaction with services and internal operations perspectives was recognised. However, as more performance-based approaches emerged, including considerations of quality assurance and ongoing improvement, the success of an organisation's financial performance and learning also came to the fore. This is evident in the recommendations of Hayes and Pisano (1994), and Heerwagen (2000) and Denscombe (2014) who have advocated for measuring both financial performance and internal operations. Nevertheless, these researchers placed less focus on client satisfaction and learning and the need for innovation. Other recent research by Rahmatian and PourKiani (2017) and Maltz et al. (2015) has also agreed that learning and innovation, and the

effectiveness of internal operations are key areas for measuring organisational success. By contrast, Karam, Ab Yazid, Khatibi, and Azam (2017) and Hamel and Valikangas (2003) have argued for the need to measure the three main factors of learning, and innovation, and financial success. As Daft (2004) recognised, measuring the effectiveness of financial management and outcomes needs involves evaluating profitability, market share, stock prices, and the organisation's reputation. This is reinforced in Heizer (2011) work, which focuses on learning and growth, internal operations, and financial performance. In addition, and highly relevant to the Iraqi context, Rana and Chopra (2015) also viewed outcomes of learning and innovation as paramount in measuring whether an organisation was able to respond to change, learn and grow, and has the strength to face highly competitive challenges.

Of additional note in terms of measuring organisational success, Das and Shah (2019) have described the importance of organisations being able to adopt the technique of benchmarking, which allows them to compare their performance with a comparable institutions. This is a powerful approach if data are easily made available to share between the two organisations for mutual benefit. In addition, this approach can also be beneficial even when the organisations for comparison may differ in some way, since the process may reveal gaps in practice and ways of improving. Moreover, according to AL-Dweikat and Nour (2018), Beard (2009), Naranjo-Gil (2009), and Wu, Lin, and Tsai (2009), organisational success must be measured with respect to four aspects: (1) learning and innovation, (2) operations, (3) clients' and employees' satisfaction, and (4) financial performance. These researchers' approaches are thus quite comprehensive in being able to evaluate organisational success and diagnose issues that need to be addressed for improvement. This approach is also well established in its use in excellent organisations, as it provides a systematic model that relates to systems theory, which considers inputs, operations, and outcomes. Thus, based on this review of approaches to measuring organisational success, it is clear that the present study needs to ensure a systems approach is adopted in order to be sufficiently comprehensive.

Table 2.3: A summary of approaches and techniques used to measure organisational success

N	Researchers	Organisational success approaches and techniques	Commonalities
1	(Venkatraman & Ramanujam, 1986)	1-Effectiveness (degree of achievement of objectives and adaption). 2- Efficiency (the employees' satisfaction, the public satisfaction about the organisation's message, and cost).	Satisfaction and internal operations perspectives
2	(Denscombe, 2014; Hayes & Pisano, 1994; Heerwagen, 2000)	Financial performance, operational efficiency, profitability or revenue, or accomplish some improvement programs in total quality management framework.	Financial and internal operations perspectives
3	(Maltz et al., 2015; Maltz, Shenhar, & Reilly, 2003; Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999)	Employing knowledge, experiences, ideas, and analysis of successful experiences.	Learning and innovation and internal operations perspectives
4	(Hamel & Valikangas, 2003)	Customer satisfaction, brand, industry knowledge, excellence in access to distribution channels, the organisation's assets, patent portfolio.	Learning and innovation satisfaction, and financial perspectives
5	(Daft, 2004)	Profitability, market share, stock prices, reputation.	Financial perspective
6	(Beard, 2009; Naranjo-Gil, 2009; Wu et al., 2009)	The Balanced Scorecard (learning & growth, internal operational, customer satisfaction, and financial).	learning, internal operations, satisfaction, and financial perspectives
7	(Heizer, 2011)	The organisation's mission, the board of directors' leadership, financial stability, quality, responsiveness to change, creativity, organisational learning.	Learning, internal operations, and financial perspectives
8	(Azarian, Yunus, & Dahlan, 2013)	1-The internal perspective (operational excellences using tools and technologies). 2-The citizen perspective (review users' demand, problems, awareness of knowledge management, satisfaction and trust).	Internal operations and satisfaction perspectives
9	(Rana & Chopra, 2015)	Organisational learning (learning, growth, and strength to face highly competitive challenges).	Learning and innovation perspective
10	(Rahmatian & PourKiani, 2017)	Organisational culture, organisational strategy, organisational structure, employees' characteristics and organisations capabilities.	Learning and innovation and internal operations perspectives
11	(Karam et al., 2017)	Perfection, growth, harmonisation, improvement, competitive advantage, value for the customer along with economic value creation	Learning, satisfaction, and financial perspectives
12	(Das & Shah, 2019)	Benchmarking is a key for organisational success	Some perspectives

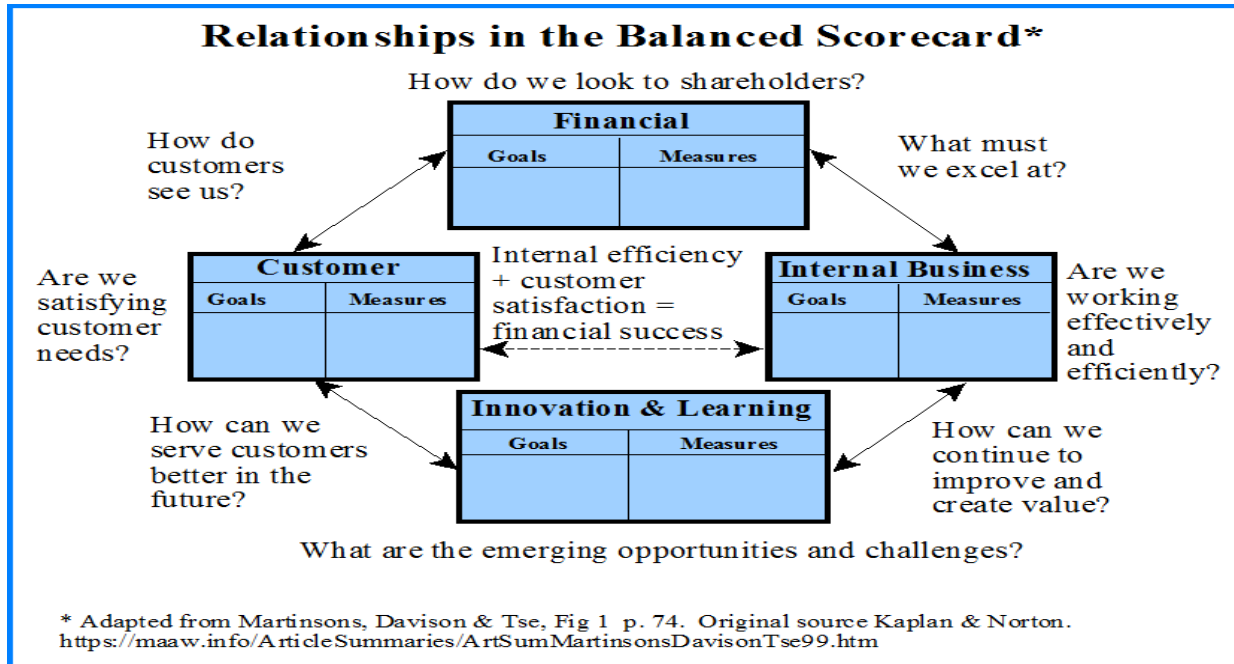
Obviously, these approaches and the ability to measure organisational success and evaluate performance enable organisations to better understand their practices on multiple fronts. They allow them to focus on their achievement of more than one objective, for example, the extent to which they have achieved customer, employees', and shareholders' satisfaction, if they are private rather than public. Also, this research illustrates the importance of depending on more than one standard in the consideration of success. Therefore, it is vital to ensure that different variables that might impact on success can be taken into account to provide a more comprehensive picture by using the most accurate indicators. Relying on a single standard can lead to neglecting data that are critical to an organisation's need to use outcome measures that can indicate how to improve. In addition, the ability to adapt is also a significant strategy to maintain and improve an organisation's success, as well as the strategic planning processes and leadership style employed. Hence, identifying the challenges that organisations face, and examining how they have adapted to deal with them is also an important aspect of the present study, along with the extent to which these typical measures of success are being applied. Thus, on the basis of this review of evaluative measures and the effectiveness of the Balanced Scorecard (BSC) approach, it was adopted in the present research as a theoretical base to consider the concept, importance, and objectives in measuring organisational success of the Iraqi public and private colleges under study.

### 2.5.3 The balanced scorecard

The BSC is a tool for measuring organisational success that is attributed to Robert Kaplan and David Norton who were working at Harvard University in 1992 (Ahn, 2001; Akkermans & Van Oorschot, 2018; Olve, Roy, & Wetter, 1999). As noted earlier, the BSC depends on the vision and strategic goals of the organisation, which are translated into a system of performance measures, that is reflected in the form of performance. As Bananakova and Georgiev (2018, p. 85) state: "[the] BSC is a practical tool to help organizations implement their business strategy. Strategic objectives, criteria and action plans are formulated for each perspective". It is expected that everyone in the organisation seeks to work together to achieve their common goal of organisational success, but they need to be sufficiently educated and involved to be clear about how that is represented in practice.

According to Keyes (2016), the concept of the BSC provides a tool that is most important in measuring the implementation of an organisation's strategies through following the application of its activities, and monitoring and following up on the consequences resulting from these procedures. Speckbacher, Bischof, and Pfeiffer (2003) explained how the BSC acts as an administrative system that aims to help organisations to translate their vision and strategy into a set of connected goals and measures to evaluate their organisational success, and provide strategic information for continuous improvement in all aspects. The major aim of it, therefore, is to determine the objectives and goals of an institution (Bhagwat & Sharma, 2007; Quesado, Guzmán, & Rodrigues, 2018), such as an organisation that wishes to increase profits and gain a return on investment. However, organisations must maintain their distinctiveness in their market as well as customer satisfaction. They need to develop their internal operations and ensure accumulation of performance data to enable them to learn from their operations, including mistakes, and be responsive to challenges. The BSC consists of four main elements: (1) the financial perspective (return on investment, product cost, profitability, and cash flow), (2) the customer perspective (increasing the quality of service, measuring customer satisfaction, fulfilling customers' desires, quick responding to needs or complaints, and improving the methods of marketing), (3) the internal processes perspective (developing of administrative work systems, use of ICT, cooperation between different departments and units), and (4) innovation and learning (developing skills and abilities, improving information, creating new products, learning advanced technology, and motivating employees to innovate) (Kaplan and Norton (1998). This means that the BSC encompasses a series of cause-and-effect relationships among its four elements (Gomes & Romão, 2019; Muda, Roosmawati, Siregar, Manurung, & Banuas, 2018; Shen, Chen, & Wang, 2016). Therefore, it provides a complete administrative approach or technique that contributes to controlling and measuring the performance of institutions in an accurate and balanced way. Also, it provides a systematic strategic model that balances across its four elements to support institutions to improve and develop their performance, to maximise their success, whether they are profitable or non-profitable, service or industrial, governmental or non-governmental, small or large. Figure 2.5 provides an overview of these relationships and asks the ultimate question: "What are the emerging opportunities and challenges?", which is highly pertinent to the present research context of Iraq. Therefore, this adds additional justification for selecting the BSC as the

underpinning theory for measuring organisational success and growth in performance of the public and private colleges under study. The BSC can be a vital and modern approach in the study of organisational success and the role of strategic planning and the impact of different leadership styles.



**Figure 2.5:** The relationships in the balanced scorecard (Adapted from Martinsons, Davison, & Tse, Fig 1, p. 74)

## 2.6 Research studies in the Iraqi context

Although there is a paucity of research in relation to the research problem of the proposed study, there a small number of empirical studies have recently been conducted in the Iraqi context, and although they include different sectors, all are relevant (see Appendix C). For instance, Al-Qaisi and Khawam (2015) researched the relationship between leadership skills and their impact on SP through applied research, which was conducted through the Ministry of Planning in Baghdad. The aim of this study was to identify the leadership styles that were most important in the practice of SP, and also the impact and relationship between these skills and the strategic planning process.



However, since this research involved only leadership skills and strategic planning, it neglected the importance of organisational success as a key related variable for Iraqi's government organisations. Hence, the current study is focussed on researching the relationship between LS and SPP and their impact on organisational success. Also, Saeed and Muzaffar (2016) have conducted empirical research in the headquarters Ministry of Electricity in Baghdad. The research problem addressed in their study was to discover the impact and relationship between leadership styles (LS) and strategic planning practices (SPP) because there is weakness in selecting appropriate LS, with a paucity in numbers of professionals and experts in SPP. Even though this study focussed just on leadership styles and strategic planning, it did not study the success of Iraqi organisations. Hence, the main aim of the current study was to explore the impact and relationship of LS and SPP on organisational success. In addition, Al-Tai and Naji (2015) have studied the role of organisational change in achieving organisational success in the Ministry of Iraqi Oil. The main purpose of their study was to ascertain the organisational change role across its dimensions (organisational culture, organisational structure, human resources, and technology) in the success of Iraqi organisations across the following dimensions: strategy, customer satisfaction, innovation, and actions implements. While this research focussed on the importance of the organisational success in Iraqi organisations, it did not study the importance of leadership styles in achieving the success of the organisations. Furthermore, Al-Jader and Marjah (2016) conducted research into the role of leadership skills in organisational trust through analytical research in the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Iraq. Their study aimed to exam the impact and relation between dimensions of leadership skills and dimensions of organisational trust. However, even though their study illustrated the importance of the role of leadership skills, it did not search for success factors in Iraqi higher education organisations. Still, their study concluded that future research was needed to study the positive effects between leadership styles and organisational confidence in the strategic planning process, to illuminate how organisational performance might be improved. Al-Kubaisi and Al-Kaoud (2016) examined the role of academic leadership practices in activating human capital. Their study was applied in three Iraqi universities. Their study raised the issue of the need to invest in academic leaders in Iraqi universities to develop a model of performance management and to build human capital to raise the competitive ability of those universities at both the local and international levels; however, their study ignored the important

role of strategic planning in achieving organisational success. Therefore, there is an urgent need to employ SPP in Iraqi higher education organisations. Also, Al-Husseini and Ibeltagi (2016) examined the relation and impact between the transformational leadership (TL) and innovation in their comparative study between Iraq's public and private higher education. Their research showed that TL has a vital role in creating process innovation and that the model would be useful in the Iraqi education section. Although their study agreed with the current study about the importance of looking into transformative leadership styles in Iraqi colleges, it did not focus on the strategic planning process. Thus, their study showed that transformative leadership style plays a main role in practising a strategic planning process in order to improve the performance of organisations. In addition, Hussein and Jassem (2017) studied the relationship between effective administrative leadership and the implementation of public policies through an analytical look at the Baghdad Provincial Council. Their study aimed to discover the relation and impact between leadership styles and formulating an organisation's strategy. Although their study agreed with the current study in relation to LS and SPP, it did not study organisational success (OS) in Iraqi organisations. Furthermore, Saeed and Ali (2018) studied the role of personality characteristics of the leaders in terms of entrepreneurship in business organisations: theirs was an empirical study in some of the private colleges in Iraq. They focused on finding the vital role of personality characteristics of leaders in business organisations' entrepreneurship. Their study was applied in thirteen Iraqi private colleges. Even though they agreed with the current study in relating LS and OS, they ignored the importance of strategic planning as applied in the private education sector. Nader and Jassim (2019) did confirm the importance of the role of strategic leadership in achieving organisational excellence in one of the organisations of the Iraqi industry ministry: the public Al-Faris Company. Their study aimed to show the main role of strategic leaders in the success of Iraqi organisations. Although their study agreed with the current study about the importance of focusing on LS and OS, it ignored the importance of joining strategic planning with achieving organisational success. In addition, Hussein and Abdel Hassan (2020) have pointed to the role of the strategic mind of human resources managers in preventing strategic drift, by testing the relation between practices of strategic leaders and the implementation of organisations' strategic plans. Their study was applied in one of the organisations of the Ministry of Industrial and Metals (Public Company of Concrete). Even though their study focussed on strategic leadership practices, it neglected the

importance of studying organisational success and hence suggested the need for research into strategic leadership practices and the entrepreneurial dimensions in order to achieve organisational success.

These studies are summarized in Table 2.4.

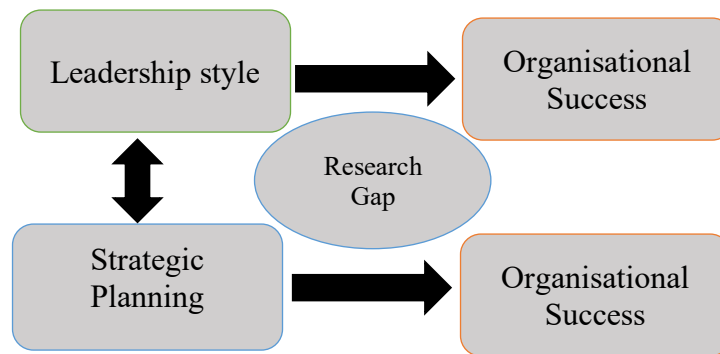
Table 2.4: Overview of literature review on leadership, strategic planning, and organisational success in Iraq context

Author, title, and journal's name	Place of study and its type	Focus/aim	Findings	Recommendations
Al-Qaisi, F and Khawam, Z. (2015), The leadership skills and its impact in the strategic planning. <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> , vol 21, no. 86, pp. 196-126	Empirical research in the Planning Ministry, Iraq – Baghdad.	To explore the leadership skills in the ministry and what the best styles for it are. Also, explore the relation and effect between the leadership skills and strategic planning.	The study's findings show that leadership skills and strategic planning process have a positive effect on improving the organisation's performance.	Must enhance the leadership styles that lead to create effective administrative leaders that encourage to using strategic planning, hence developing the performance.
Saeed and Muzaffar (2016) The impact of leadership styles in the crisis management center the strategic planning. <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> (JEAS)/ Baghdad vol 22, no. 92, pp. 159-196	Empirical research in the Ministry of Electricity Iraq – Baghdad.	To examine the relation and effect of leadership styles and strategic planning.	There is significant correlation between strategic leadership and strategic planning	Should invest the leadership role in formulation of strategic plans for public organisations.
Al-Tai, A and Naji, M. (2015), The organisational change role in achieving the organisational success, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> vol. 21, no. 86, pp. 46-70	Empirical research in the Ministry of Oil, Iraq – Baghdad.	To explore the organisational change role in achieving the organisational success.	The study's findings show that leadership role has a positive effect on organisational success.	Confirm the importance of studying LS and SP together
Al-Jader, S. and Marjah, Z. (2016), the leadership skills in the organisational confidence, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> Vol. 22, No. 87, pp. 242-252	Empirical research in the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Iraq – Baghdad.	To examine the relation and effect of the strategic leadership skills in organisational trust.	There is significant correlation between leadership skills and organisational trust.	Must invest in positive effects between the leadership styles and the organisational confidence in the strategic planning process to improving the organisational performance.
Al-Kubaisi, S. and Al-Kaoud, A. (2016), The role of academic leadership practices in activating human capital, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> , vol 22, no. 87, pp. 1-26.	Empirical research in some universities, Iraq – Baghdad.	To examine the relation and effect of the role of academic leadership practices in activating human capital.	The study's findings show that the role of academic leadership practices has a positive effect on improving the organisation's performance.	The need to invest in academic leaders in Iraqi universities who develop a model of the performance management and human capital to raise the competitive ability of universities at the local and international levels.
Al-Husseini, S and Elbeltagi, I. (2016), Transformative leadership and innovation, <i>Studies in Higher Education</i> , vol. 41, no. 1, pp. 159-181	A comparison study between Iraq's public and private higher education.	To examine the relation and effect of transformative leadership and innovation.	Plays a pivotal role in enhancing product and process innovation and that the style would be ideal in an Iraqi educational context. It would promote strategies for developing innovation in both sectors.	This study recommends both transformative leadership and a strategic planning process to improve the performance
Jassem, Humam Falah and Hussain, Farah (2017) Effective administrative leadership in the implementation of public policies, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> (JEAS)/ Baghdad, vol. 23, no. 98, pp. 128-148	Analytical look at the Baghdad Province Council.	To explore effective administrative leadership and implementation of public policies.	The Baghdad provincial council has no clear vision to build plans and long-term policies, which is identified through the obvious weakness in the performance and motivation of the employees.	To conduct several similar studies in this field because of administration leadership in the implementation of strategic policies being vital.

Saeed, Sana and Ali, Farah (2018), the Role of Personality characteristics of the leader in business organizations entrepreneurship, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> (JEAS)/ Baghdad, vol. 24, no. 109, pp. 92-117	Empirical research in 13 private colleges in Baghdad city.	To find the effective role of the personality characteristics of the leader in achieving entrepreneurship, by studying the effect of the special dimensions of personality characteristics.	Organizations use entrepreneurship to achieve customer satisfaction through improving the levels of current services, and through the personality characteristics of leaders.	This research recommends conducting more research in features of leadership and organisational success.
Nader, AM and Jassim, AH (2019), role of strategic leadership in achieving organizational excellence, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> (JEAS)/ Baghdad, vol. 25, no. 114, pp. 225-241	Field research was done with one of organisations of the Iraqi industry Ministry: Al-Faris General Company.	To determine the role of strategic leadership in achieving organisational excellence	The strategic leadership is positively related with organisational excellence.	A set of recommendations was formulated for those who are interested in this subject.
Hussein and Abdel Hassan (2020), the role of the strategic mind of human resources managers in strategic drift, <i>Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences</i> (JEAS)/ Baghdad, vol. 26, no. 117, pp. 200-211	Empirical study in one of organisations of Ministry of Industrial and Metals (Public Company of Concrete).	Testing the relation between practices of the strategic leaders and implementation of organisation's strategic plan.	Strategic leadership is positively related with the strategy of an organization.	Suggests the need for research into the strategic leadership practices and entrepreneurial dimensions in order to achieve success of organisations.

## 2.7 Research conceptual framework

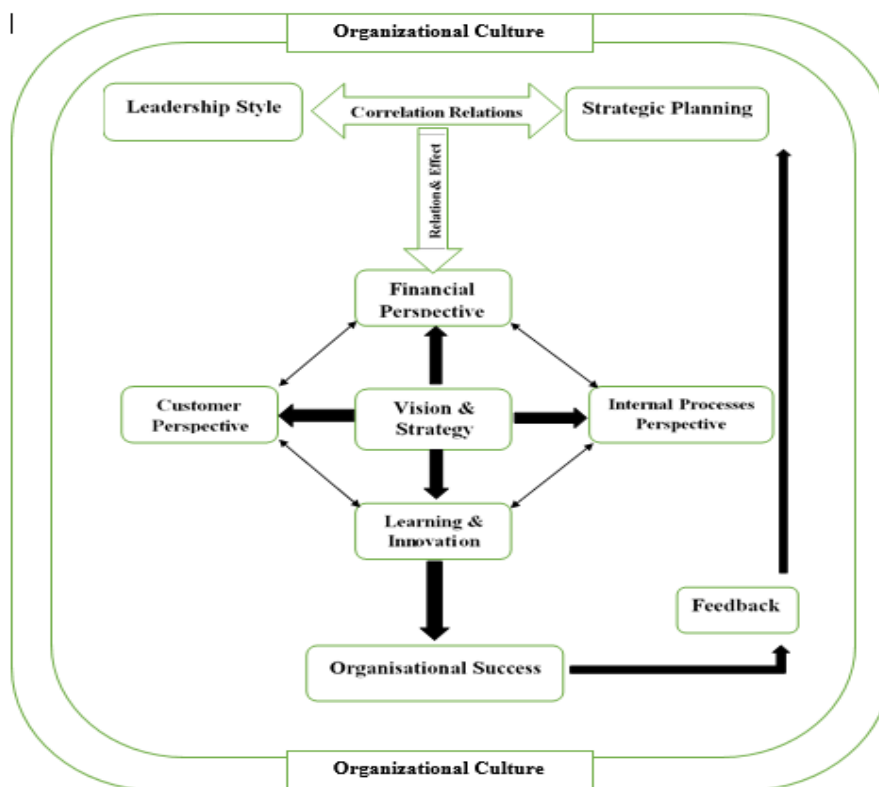
The study's conceptual framework draws upon a critical review of the literature, which shows that according to current research findings LS and SPP are correlated and act as independent variables, with OS being the dependent variable. In other words, the success of an organisation depends on the effectiveness of its strategic planning processes and the style of leadership in operation; however, since the relationship of the leadership style and strategic planning processes to organisational success is not clear, this research seeks to illuminate this aspect of the colleges' operations in relation to their achievement of organisational success, thus addressing the current gap in knowledge. This is illustrated in Figure 2.6.



**Figure 2.6:** Overview of the relationship between leadership style and strategic planning in relation to organisational success central to the research conceptual framework.

Although the current literature in the field identifies the importance of the link between LS and SPP, as noted above there is limited empirical research into the nature of this relationship and how it might link to OS, and in particular in contexts such as Iraq, which has suffered long-term disruption and continues to do so. Figure 2.7 outlines the research conceptual framework, showing the three variables of LS, SPP and OS, and depicts related aspects that contribute to the way they may impact on organisational success, including the nature of the colleges' organisational culture and whether they are a learning organisation (Bass, 1997; Renz & Herman, 2016), as well as the use of the Balanced Scorecard (BSC) to support the SPP. The research adopted four basic stages to study how organisational success might best be achieved, taking into account leadership style and the way strategic planning is conducted. It employed the Balanced Scorecard approach, which

focused on *learning and growth* by investigating the perceptions of staff. An investigation also collected data on the colleges' *internal processes* in terms of the effectiveness and efficiency of their work. The third aspect identified the *customer perspective*, which focused on the level of satisfaction of the students, employees, and shareholders. Finally, the *financial perspective* was considered, which included measures to identify how prosperous and viable the colleges were and the development of resources, along with collection of evidence of the colleges' *feedback and learning*. Therefore, the study's conceptual framework works as systems theory where inputs, processes, and outputs can be considered along with feedback and learning. The BSC provides a strategic planning framework for investigating each college's organisational success based on the data gathered for the four areas shown in Figure 2.7.



**Figure 2.7:** The research conceptual framework

Source: Author

## **2.8 Relations and effects among variables of the study and the research gap**

The study selected multi-level variables. Leadership styles are group level variables and strategic planning and organizational success are organizational level variables. Thus, this section presents a philosophical view of the literature regarding the relations and impacts among the study's key variables/concepts of leadership styles, strategic planning, and organisational success, and identifies references that indicate the possibility of studying them together in order to investigate if there are relations and impacts among these variables or not.

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### **2.8.1 The relation and effect between leadership styles and strategic planning**

The importance of the relation between leadership style and strategic planning, and its impact on an organisation's outcomes, is well recognised as part of business management (Abraham, 2019). In their focus on an organisation's future vision as one of the most important elements of SPP, Alharthi et al. (2019), point out that senior management must derive its vision and mission from reality, ensuring they take account of environmental changes. This ensures that information on which decisions are based is objective as opposed to subjective, as well as being taken at an appropriate time to achieve the organisation's strategic goals. Also, Abadi and Aliqabi (2019b) have highlighted the importance of organisations' leaders being able to make decisions flexibly and integratively, so they will lead to a better understanding of the SPP. Hence, this approach should lead to strategic decisions that more directly affect an organisation's success, including its profitability, and inform its future strategies. This illustrates that SPP is a crucial source in the success of an organisation. In addition, Dampson and Edwards (2019) believe that leaders of organisations that develop strategic intelligence have unique opportunities to change things because they can use it in the process of adapting to the business environment and its challenges. Furthermore, Ofori and Atiogbe (2012) have presented a model for the strategic planning process to leaders of public universities in order to enable them in achieving organisational success through wisdom, foresight, intuition, and experience (knowledge and skill) as a result of their practices. As Howes (2018) has stated, SPP is tool that gives universities a clear picture of their goals and



objectives, before subjecting their long-term priorities to permanent review in light of the information gathered, and adopting that information as planning inputs to help face environmental changes before they occur (Fathi & Wilson, 2009). Moreover, Globocnik et al. (2020) emphasise a need of many organisations for strategic planning in order to provide accurate and reliable information to decision makers (leaders of organisations) in order to make essential decisions. Finally, Broome and Marshall (2020) have noted that leadership styles and strategic planning have a significant relation and impact.

Therefore, the role of strategic planning is very important for leaders of organisations for several reasons. First of all, SPP meets the needs of top management (leaders of organisations) for necessary information in decision-making because information is the basic root of their decisions. Also, SPP enable leaders of organisations to determine different technological developments and environmental changes. In addition, SPP allows leaders of organisations to employ their future visions in order to gain early insights into environmental changes, solve their implications, and include them in their decision-making processes. Furthermore, SPP encourages systematic learning, drawing future lines, and adopting well-established paths for continuous development to enable decision makers to develop forward-looking and cognitive perceptions of current and future trends, and to reconsider the approved methods.

#### 2.8.2 Relation and/or impact between leadership style (LS) and organisational success (OS)

The relation and/or the effect between leadership styles and success of organisations has received the attention of many scholars and researchers. According to Ojokuku, Odetayo, and Sajuyigbe (2012), leadership style is one of the most important factors that drive organisations towards success. As Choudhary, Akhtar, and Zaheer (2013) have shown, leadership styles enhance the ability of organisations to survive and grow (strategic success), for example in terms of establishing dialogue with their customers (beneficiaries), and responding quickly to their needs in line with their expectations, which is important in building relationships with their clients and increasing their loyalty. Also, Flynn, Smither, and Walker (2016) have dealt with the impact of leadership styles on enhancing organisational success by determining the current status of organisations among their competitors, and strengthening their capabilities in achieving returns,

by preparing an integrated portfolio of creative services that provide them with an innovative service product. In addition, Sfantou et al. (2017) have demonstrated the role of leadership styles in the success of health care organisations, and superiority of their service lines. This means that organisations build successful and long-term relationships with their doctors, and their concern for satisfaction of their patients is one of the most outstanding indicators of their strategic success (Stouten, Rousseau, & De Cremer, 2018). Liphadzi et al. (2015) have pointed to the key role of leaders in the success of organisations in the short and long term, because leaders are the main engine and strategic minds in managing human and capital assets, and they contribute to achieving the distinctive competencies of the organisation, as well as plan an increasing role in success strategically. Raziq, Borini, Malik, Ahmad, and Shabaz (2018) and Arif and Akram (2018) have indicated that leaders' decisions determine the critical success factors within the operations function because those decisions and factors can appear in an organisation's ability to stand out, create new services, and improve quality service, and therefore the leaders of organisations should link these decisions in the best way, and adopt them as a competitive weapon in achieving success. Meng and Berger (2020) and Ngibe and Lekhanya (2019) have confirmed that roles and decisions of leaders are critical factors for success in organisations.

The researcher has therefore concluded that leadership styles have a significant impact on the success of organisations because the organisational success is related to the ability and skills of leaders through providing the desired services and/or goods. Also, the strategic and tactical decisions that are issued by the leaders of organisations and their abilities in effective implementation will push organisations towards success and enhance their competitive capabilities. In addition, organisations that seek to grow and succeed are mirrored by the styles of their leaders. Finally, leadership styles of organisations' leaders vary in their impact on organisations' success.

### 2.8.3 Relation and/or impact between strategic planning (SP) and organisational success (OS)

Some authors have put up their arguments regarding the relationship and/or impact between strategic planning and organisational success. According to Al-Qaisi and Khawam (2015), strategic vision and intuition are essential elements for success of organisations. This confirms that

vision is the basic stage in formulating the SPP of organisations. As Al-Mulla and Ahmed (2016) have noted, organisations' success requires leaders who have a long-term future vision and at the same time employ abilities, experiences, and knowledges across SPP in order to achieve that. This means that SPP is a crucial operation that leaders employ to achieve success for their organisation. Also, Jeste and Childers (2017) have considered the compatibility between a leader's vision as one of the most important criteria in achieving organisational success, which can then lead to the excellence of organisations. This illustrates that cohesion among visions of leaders' organisations can be seen as the necessary element in the success of organisations. In addition, Ershova (2017) has shown that strategic abilities and skills of executives in Japanese companies were the basis for the long-term success these companies had achieved and are still achieving because they employ SPP in their organisations. This reinforces the strong relation between the strategic planning process and organisational success. Abdollahzadegan, Hussin, Razak, Moshfegh Gohary, and Amini (2013), Coetzee and Nkosi (2019), and Lehmann-Willenbrock et al. (2018) agree that strategic planning is a feature of successful organisations because SP allows for organisations to set their goals and focus on specific metrics to assess their long-term success, and at different levels of the organisation. Furthermore, Kim and Yoon (2015) believe that the creativity of leaders in employing strategic planning is the key to achieving organisational success continuously. This confirms that personal characteristics of leaders, such as being innovative, can have a positive impact when SPP is implemented in an appropriate way, which should in turn lead to organisational success. Moreover, Broome and Marshall (2020) emphasise that strategic planning enables leaders to better understand the variables of their organisations' internal and external environments, as well as adapt to them, since organisations are greatly affected by strategically planned changes. At the same time, Hadrawi (2018) has cautioned that many organisations fail to achieve their objectives and goals owing to poor strategic planning and having to deal with inappropriate organisational structures. In addition, research has shown that SPP enhances organisations' competitiveness, which is relevant to all business, including tertiary colleges in Iraq. This is helped by the way SPP has the ability to help organisations to adapt to environmental changes, enabling them to draw up a list of their priorities in the context of the challenges they face. Leaders, therefore, are better able to plan to fulfil their organisations' vision and mission in shaping their future success. Moreover, future vision is one of key elements of strategic planning,

which represents the essence of SPP and can encourage all employees to see themselves as partners in working towards organisational success, contingent on the appropriate leadership being in place. Still, many organisations do not depend on SPP to assess their success, do not employ SPP to create new businesses, nor to identify new opportunities within their current tasks, or invest in SPP to establish partnerships with other organisations.

Therefore, the research above shows evidence for a positive relation and impact between the strategic planning process and organisational success. It also suggests that practices involved in the strategic planning process and organisational success depend on organisations having leaders who embrace a leadership style that can engage staff and drive success.

#### 2.8.4 Summary of relationships and impact among the study's variables

In light of the above discussion, the relationship and effect amongst the variables of the study can be explained in terms of organisational success requiring leaders, who are the corporate decision-makers, and needing to think carefully about their strategic planning process, and employing their strategic intelligence to obtain the best to ensure organisational success (Abdul Malik et al., 2013; Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012; Plant, 2009; Taylor & Machado, 2006). Howes (2014a) has emphasised that if leaders do not gather and employ such intelligence in their strategic planning processes, including the study of competitors' strategies, their ability to compete and grow will be hindered. Moreover, if strategic decisions build on inaccurate realities, organisational success will not be facilitated. Table 2.5 illustrates this comparison, such that the top left-hand cell reflects the ideal of how "Leadership with accurate strategy leads to organisational success currently and into the future", contrasting with the bottom right-hand cell where there is neither effective strategic planning nor effective leadership.

**Table 2.5:** Relationship and effect amongst the leadership, strategic planning and organisational success

Strategic Planning	Leadership		
	What – How	Efficient and effective	Inefficient and ineffective
	Accurate	Leadership with accurate strategy leads to organisational success currently and into the future.	Leadership with accurate strategy leads to organisational success currently but is not guaranteed in the future.

	<b>Inaccurate</b>	Leadership with inaccurate strategy can lead to positive results but for a short time, and future success is uncertain.	Leadership with inaccurate strategy leads to failure in the performance of current and future achievements.
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Source: the author

Based on above, the best leadership style should lead to an accurate strategy that ensures the organisation's success both currently and into future, and the absence of an effective leadership style can lead to weak strategy and ultimate failure of an organisation to achieve success. Thus, this section's discussion of the study of the relationship and effect amongst these variables supports the need to take this into consideration when investigating the present research problem. In addition, as noted earlier and closely related, is the gathering of data to support strategic intelligence and decision-making, which is provided through the application of the BSC. As Renz and Herman (2006, p. 265) emphasised: "the system may be supported by a set of performance indicators and strategies embodied in a Balanced Scorecard (BSC)". Therefore, the gathering of such data from the private and public colleges involved in this research was expected to reveal the way their current strategic planning occurs in relation to their outcomes and leadership styles.

## 2.10 Chapter summary

Given the many reasons for developing countries that find themselves struggling to improve their economies, and the knowledge that education leadership can be expected to have, an investigation of how Iraqi colleges' corporate leaders operate and engage in strategic planning processes is well overdue. In this research, these challenges include: increasing demand for higher education that is concurrent with a decline in governmental funding, changing student demographics, and a need for public colleges to be able to compete with the emerging private colleges in higher education. Consequently, the need to study the relationship and effect between strategic planning processes and leadership styles is equally applicable to both groups, as this is paramount in enabling them to provide effective services that respond to changing needs in relation to the particular challenging context of Iraq as a developing country. This review of the literature has supported the view that the proposed research can provide data that can help the colleges in current challenging times to better accomplish their organisational success for the following reasons:

1. It has been identified that the ability of higher education colleges to survive as educational institutes in Iraq is challenged because of the ongoing disruptive context (Al-Jubouri, 2019).
2. Recent studies are outlined that confirm that the SPP is a focal point for the successful management of higher education institutions.
3. Research findings have shown that strategic planning in higher education has failed because of weak leadership, which has led to a drop in the colleges' success (Alharthi et al., 2019). Therefore, this proposed study aims to illuminate this situation with regards to the colleges' achievement of success and its relationship to strategic planning and leadership style in the context of colleges in the capital Baghdad.
4. The relevant literature and initial consultations (anecdotal evidence) with college deans reinforced the need for an empirical study about diagnosing the relationship and effect between the SPP and leadership and their influence on organisational success, such that it will make a contribution to knowledge in the field.
5. Identification of recommendations for improvements have been advocated by the government in support of this research by the researcher in the form of a scholarship to conduct the research.
6. The findings of the proposed study may help colleges to improve and continue to improve by identifying their strengths, and how to reduce their weaknesses, and be better equipped to adapt and take advantage of opportunities, by gathering data that can help them take a proactive approach to addressing their particular challenging context.

Thus, this literature review has provided a strong argument for the conduct of the research and justification for its design through the analysis and synthesis of recent research and the presentation of the underpinning theories as per the research conceptual framework (as presented in Figure 2.7). This figure made explicit the study's three variables of LS, SPP and OS, and clarified the way they may impact on organisational success. In addition, it shows how leadership style can influence the nature of the colleges' organisational cultures, drawing attention to the importance of the availability of strategic intelligence/data to enable the organisations to learn and improve (Bass, 1997; Renz & Herman, 2016), at the same time further justifying the importance of paying

attention to the application of the BSC. Thus, the Balanced Scorecard approach (Beard, 2009; Naranjo-Gil, 2009; Wu et al., 2009) presents a comprehensive strategy in terms of its four dimensions: (1) learning and growth, (2) financial performance, (3) internal processes, and (4) customer satisfaction (Kaplan & Norton, 1998). It is also highly appropriate for this study as it is well recognised in performance evaluation by the Iraqi Higher Education (Ministry of Iraqi Higher Education, 2019) as an instrument that is concerned with consumer satisfaction, productivity, profitability, market share (reputation), public liability, and creativity as essential indicators to measure each college's performance and success.

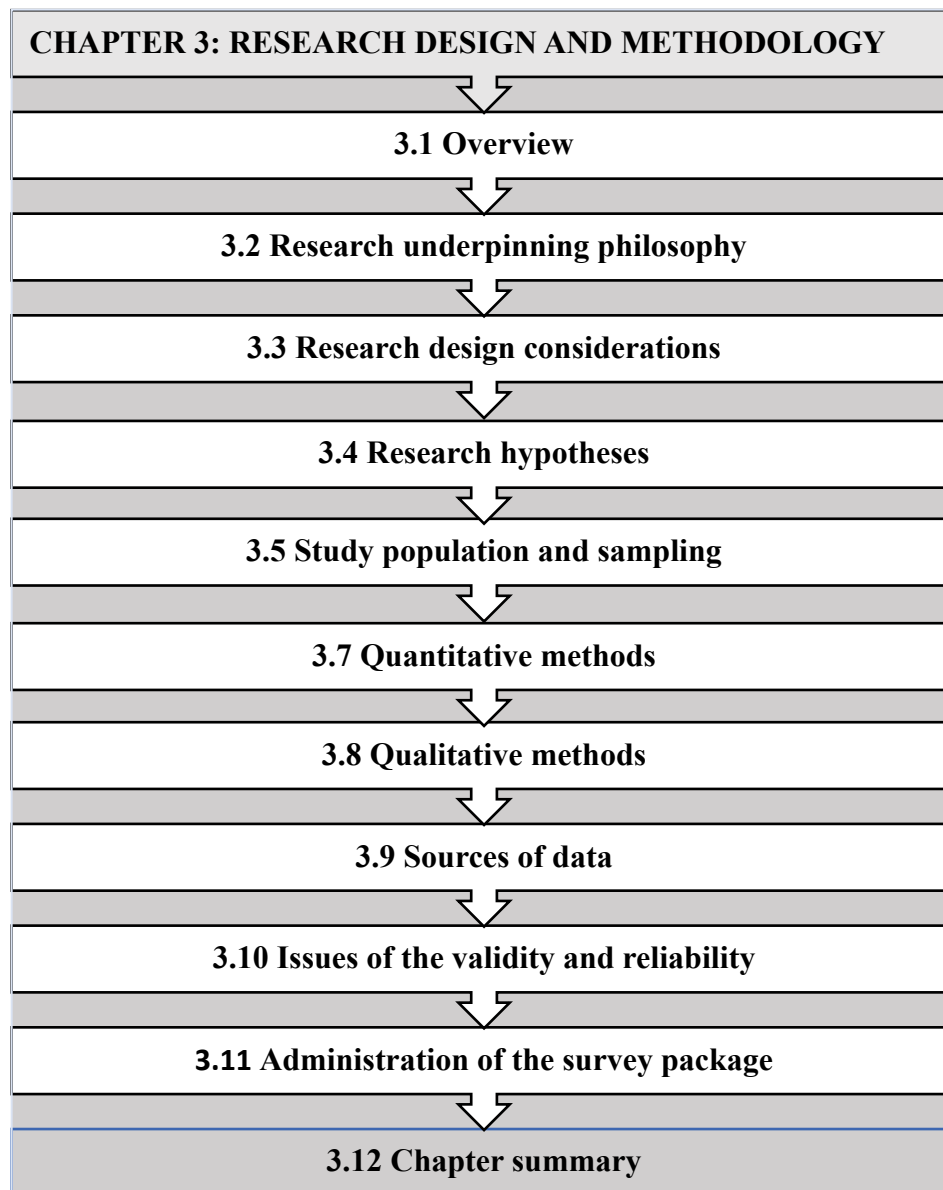
## **CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH DESIGN and METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Overview**

The choice of methodology for a study is of great importance, since the ability for research to be able to make a contribution to knowledge depends on the employment of appropriate research decision making and the design of data collection instruments and procedures. Thus, the major aim of the research methodology is to be able to respond to the research problem, taking into account the research context and potential data sources, and collect and analyse data that will best inform the research questions (Schuurman, De Marez, & Ballon, 2016). For the present research problem, this means choosing a research methodology that will enable an exploration of the Iraqi college leaders' leadership styles and knowledge about, and involvement in, strategic planning with respect to their strategic decision-making. Thus, this chapter explains the approach to the research, including clarification of the researcher's world view and how the research methodology and data collection is applied in the study.

The chapter is divided into 12 sections. Following the introduction in Section 3.1, Section 3.2 provides a general overview of the research philosophy. Section 3.3 discusses the study's research design and Section 3.4 explains the population applicable to the research and participant sampling. Section 3.5 then describes the study's approach, Section 3.6 explains the quantitative data collection methods, and Section 3.7 the qualitative data collection methods. Additional sources of data and information are discussed in Section 3.8. The data collection instruments employed in the study are explained in Section 3.9. Section 3.10 discusses issues of the validity, reliability, and ethics as applied to the study. Section 3.11 explains the administration of the Survey Package. Finally, a summary of the chapter is presented in Section 3.12. Figure 3.1 presents an overview of this chapter structure.





**Figure 3.1:** Overview of the structure of Chapter 3

## **3.2 Research underpinning philosophy**

The study philosophy is critical for researchers at the start of their studies (Ahmed, Opoku, & Aziz, 2016). Researchers must be careful when they select the methodology because this relates to their attitudes, beliefs, and interests (Mohammed, 2018; Quinlan, 2019). Also, selection of a research

philosophy depends on other important factors, such as the objectives of the study, the research questions, and hypotheses (McNabb, 2015). In addition, the choice of the study's underpinning philosophy is a vital research decision because it enables researchers to justify their choices based on the critical review of the approaches and methodologies of previous studies (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Mohammed, 2018). The researcher's choice of philosophy, therefore, depends on their view adopted with regards to the following three main questions as proposed by Moon and Blackman (2014, p. 1179): "How can understanding philosophy improve our research? How can an understanding of what frames our research influence our choices? Do researchers' personal thoughts and beliefs shape research design, outcomes and interpretation?" In response to these questions (Quinlan, 2019) has noted the need to take several philosophical categories into account, including positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism. Thus, in the next sub-sections the researcher discusses these categories in relation to the philosophy that is adopted for the present study.

### 3.2.1 The positivism philosophy

The main approach of positivism, as a research philosophy, is to study phenomena in an objective and scientific way by identifying and exploring the causal and associative relations between the different variables involved, whether independent or dependent (Maslow, 2013). Attributed to Auguste Conte, a French philosopher (Varouxakis, 2017), it reflects his interests in the fields of mathematics, science, and physics, as applicable to scientific thinking. His world view related to the possibility of using scientific methods to discover new knowledge by using observation and experimentation (Fisette, 2018). Thus, a positivist approach to research would typically involve the collection of quantitative data and would depend on scientific measurement through making connections between observation and experiment, and expressing the results in mathematical and statistical ways (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Tuli, 2010).

### 3.2.2 The critical realism philosophy

The critical realism philosophy is attributed to the work of Roy Bhaskar in 1975 (Archer, Bhaskar, Collier, Lawson, & Norrie, 2013). This philosophy can be defined as a methodological approach

that depends on studying existential knowledge in the real world (as it is), rather than through observation that relies upon the thoughts and beliefs of human beings (Mingers, 2015; Mingers, Mutch, & Willcocks, 2013). Thus, researchers who adopt critical realism believe that reality can emerge indirectly (Næss, 2015) as opposed to relying on theories and human perceptions. Also, this philosophy takes an objective view in studying the problem or phenomenon rather than subjective (Fletcher, 2017). According to Mohammed (2018, p. 120), “the critical realist philosophy is suitable for studies that have to fit either qualitative or quantitative subject matter.” This illustrates that a critical realist philosophy focuses on a single approach in each study; however, the present study uses a mixed-methods design and requires both qualitative and quantitative data collection. Therefore, the critical realism philosophy is deemed not to be appropriate for the present research.

### 3.2.3 The interpretivist philosophy

The interpretivist philosophy is an approach that presents the characteristics of the phenomenon qualitatively (Chowdhury, 2014). Using this paradigm, the researcher seeks to gain an understanding of the world based on the research participants’ subjective experiences as opposed to the objectivity of positivism. They set out to interpret that data by making meaning rather than formally measuring. This approach often uses data collection techniques such as participant interviews and/or observations, where the relationship between the researcher and participants may also be subjective.

The purpose of interpretive research is to make sense of the phenomenon under study, and answer questions such as “how” and “why” (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Historically, this philosophy harks back to the ancient Greek philosopher Epictetus, who stated that, “it is not actions that alarms or disturbs man, but it is their opinions and fancies about actions” (cited in Chowdhury, 2014, p. 432). This means that interpretivist philosophy focuses on making meaning about the nature of a phenomenon, typically by gathering qualitative data. Thus, this philosophy may appear to have some relevance to the current study as it explores participants’ perceptions of their workplace practices through focused interviews; however, it uses mixed methods in seeking to explore the causal relationships between variables in line with the positivist paradigm.

### 3.2.4 The pragmatism philosophy

Pragmatism dates back to ancient times; however, it appeared as a science with rules and principles through the 19<sup>th</sup> Century American philosophers: Charles Sanders Peirce, William James, and John Dewey (Bishop, 2015; Johnson, Waal, Stefurak, & Hildebrand, 2017). As a philosophical approach to the conduct of research, it recognises the use of mixed methods, thus avoiding the contrasting approaches of positivism versus interpretivism or critical realism. It considers what works in investigating the research questions and it considers the application of theory and practice, where the theory is extracted across the application (Blay, 2006; McDermid, 2008). Based on this, researchers have confirmed that the pragmatist philosophy is appropriate for mixed methods research (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Halcomb & Hickman, 2015; Johnson et al., 2017; Morgan, 2013; Shannon-Baker, 2016; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Thus, pragmatism is appropriate for a wide range of research methods, including the collection of a combination of qualitative and quantitative data in practical research (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015; Taguchi, 2018). This means that both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods may be applied in a single research project to enable researchers to better understand how the research questions can be answered (Brannen, 2017a; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). In short, therefore, this researcher has adopted the pragmatist philosophy for several reasons. Firstly, it is applicable to, and fit for, addressing the research questions of the current study, and fulfilling the aims and objectives, as well as for an investigation of the research hypotheses. Secondly, it places equal emphasis on quantitative and qualitative research. Thirdly, it is a well-established and valuable approach for addressing the philosophical challenge, as it avoids the argument of truth versus reality. Finally, it offers different research design options with a range of frameworks that focus on practical problems, allowing for multiple perspectives and integration of stakeholder participation.

## 3.3 Research design considerations

In general, in the social sciences field, particularly in the field of business administration and economics, the study design is a crucial stage in determining methods, processes, and procedures,

data collection and analyses (Aarons et al., 2016; Bell & Harrison, 2018; Creswell & Clark, 2017). This indicates that the study design must choose the best techniques for collecting and analysing data in a way that seeks to achieve the aims and objectives of the study, while also considering the cost, efforts, and time involved.

Since the aim of this study was to explore the current approach to, and relationship between, leadership and the SPP in the selected colleges, and to identify the LSs senior executives may adopt to best enable them to achieve their organisation's goals, the study would gather data on what was current happening. This would be in terms of the LS, SPP, and the achievement of organisational success. Therefore, as noted above, a mixed method approach was selected as it was deemed the most appropriate way of gaining an in-depth understanding of the current situation of educational organisations in Iraq (Bazeley, 2015; Saeed & Muzaffar, 2016). This design enabled the researcher to explore the current approach to, and relationship between, leadership and strategic planning in the selected colleges and consider the variables involved (Bryson et al., 2018; Franco & Matos, 2015). A mixed method approach is defined as a research approach for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a study to illuminate the research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2006; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). This method involved the collection, analysis and interpretation of quantitative and qualitative data in a single study that investigates the same phenomena (McKim, 2017). Mixed method research uses quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures either at the same time (parallel) or one after the other (sequential) but does not combine them (Borbasi & Jackson, 2015). Padgett (2016) has argued that multiple methods are useful if they provide better opportunities to answer the research questions and where they allow the researcher to better evaluate the extent to which the research findings can be trusted, and inferences made from them.

Mixed methods research enables the researcher to seek clarification and elaboration of the findings from both quantitative and qualitative data (Molina-Azorin, Bergh, Corley, & Ketchen Jr, 2017). In this way, they complement each other while minimising weaknesses and give the study more breadth and scope than either method could achieve if used in isolation. Also, mixed methods are used for triangulating the data, which adds to the validity and reliability of the findings (Doyle,

Brady, & Byrne, 2016). In addition, one of the strengths associated with the use of mixed method design in research relates to the capacity to benefit from the advantages of both types of data collection (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011), thus enabling the researcher to gain a deeper perspective on the problem from the two sets of different data types (Hasson-Ohayon, Roe, Yanos, & Lysaker, 2016). Furthermore, Koutiva, Gerakopoulou, Makropoulos, and Vernardakis (2017) have suggested that its use provides a more in-depth understanding of the research issues. Finally, using both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study increases accuracy, reliability, and validity of the results and findings through using the advantages of both methods, which allows for triangulation of these data (Mohammed, 2018; Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). Thus, a mixed methods approach guided this empirical study in its aim to describe and diagnose the relational nature and examine the effects between LS and SPP, and their impact in achieving OS in both the public and private colleges in the Iraqi context.

When applied to the present research, application of the sequential exploratory strategy as a particular mixed-methods approach was adopted to best fulfil the aim and objectives and questions of the current study (Creswell, 2017; Leavy, 2017; Mohammed, Hafeez-Baig, & Gururajan, 2018). The first stage encompassed the quantitative data and information collection and analysis, with the second stage involving the qualitative data and information collection and analysis stage. In the first phase (quantitative), the researcher collected and analysed the data and information, the results of which were then available to better understand the study problem and inform the second stage. Thus, these results were used to select the sub-sample of college leaders for interviews. The conduct of interviews allowed the researcher to more deeply investigate the issues arising out of the Survey Package results. This supported the need to find the best options, suggestions, and recommendations as reliable and valid solutions. Figure 3.2 shows the sequential mixed-methods design that was adopted in the current study.

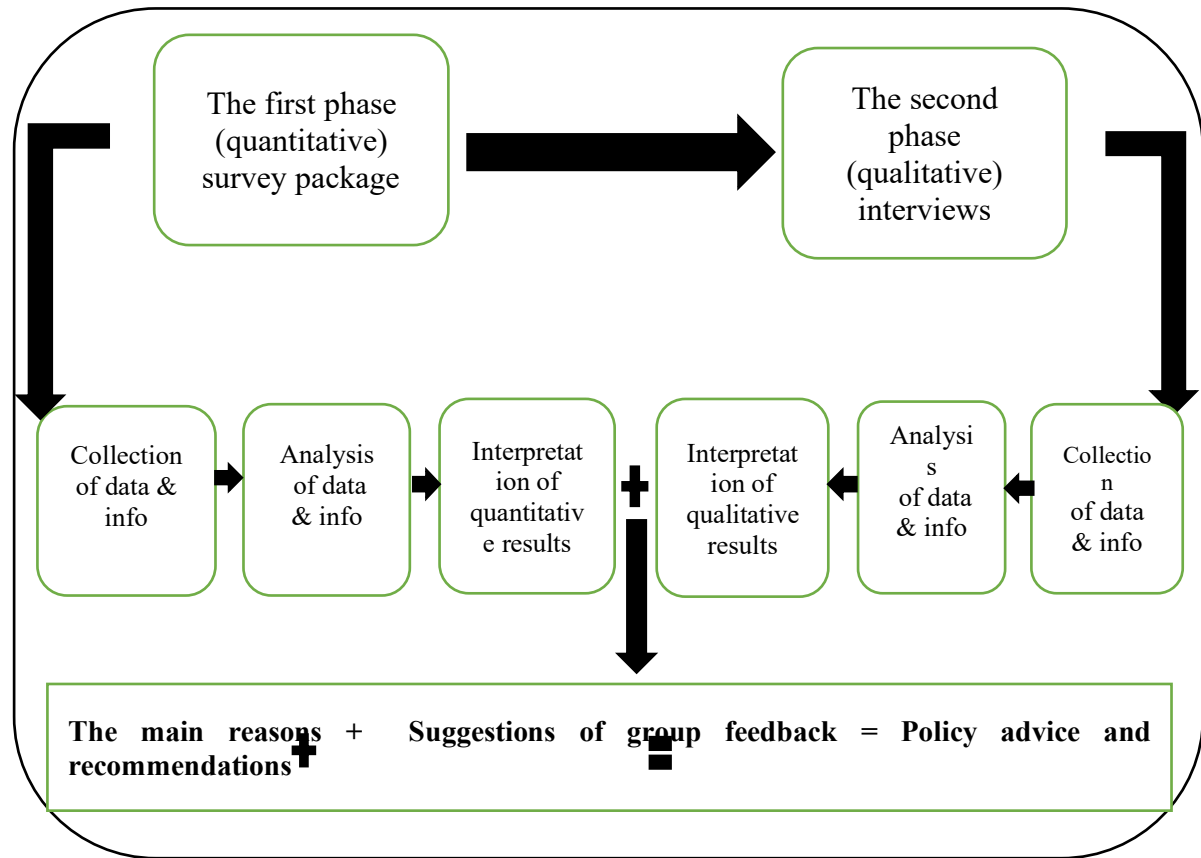


Figure 3.2: The application of sequential mixed-methods to the current study

Not surprisingly, given the long-term occupation of the country by the USA, the education system in Iraqi colleges have adopted a globally recognised approach to higher education, even though policy is set centrally in Baghdad, and then distributed to colleges across the country. Hence, postgraduate studies in Iraq, in the main, in the fields of administration and economics focus on current western knowledges. Thus, this study is very important in its aim to investigate the current context and how western approaches to education delivery, leadership and strategic planning is experienced in practice and how the higher education sector can grow and develop further in a context of ongoing disruption and change.

### 3.3.1 The stages of the study's data collection and sampling

The research plan involved three stages of data collection beginning with a survey package to senior staff and analyses of documents, a series of follow-up interviews, and lastly consultation on the research findings with an advisory group drawn from the Ministry of Iraqi Higher Education. Table 3.1 shows the stages of the study and the data collection techniques and how the data aligns with answering the study questions.

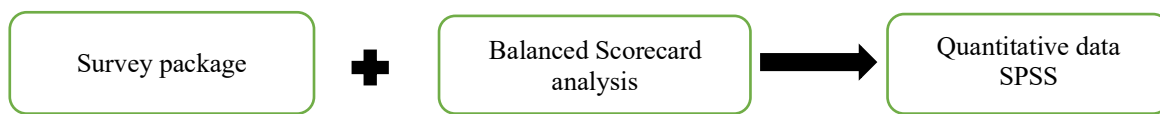


**Table 3.1:** Overview of the stages of data collection and alignment of data to study questions

Stages	Stage 1	Stage 2
Data collection instruments	Senior staff/survey package, including applying the BSC measures N = 163	Individual/interviews N=21 30x45 minutes=22.5 hrs
Unit of analysis	College leaders	
Study questions↓		
RQ1. What current leadership styles are present in Iraqi public and private colleges?		
	X	X
RQ2. What challenges do the colleges face in achieving organisational success?		
	X	X
RQ3. How might these colleges adapt and change their practices to become more effective in achieving their goals?		
	X	X
RQi. How do PPICs provide leadership and currently plan in their particular context to achieve success?		
RQii. What is the relationship between their leadership style/s and the strategic planning processes in relation to the PPICs performance?		
	X	X

During stage one, the researcher distributed the survey package to the participants (deans, their assistants, and heads of departments as the unit of analysis), which comprised a total number of 163 academics across the sample of 6 public and 7 private colleges. These colleges were randomly selected from all of the colleges in the capital Baghdad (44), where the total number of colleges across the 15 provinces of Iraq numbers 300. An overview of the sample of colleges and distribution of senior staff and departments is shown in Table 3.2. This table shows that the sample of private colleges each offered both business and science studies, while the public colleges offered one or the other. The survey package included questions to identify leadership styles in use as per

the well-established and internationally validated Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. After that, the researcher used qualitative analyses with regards to the open-ended questions, using Nvivo software to code and identify emerging themes. These were explored in more depth along with other results in later focused interviews in stage two. In addition, the stage one survey package data collection also included ‘document analysis’. This document analysis procedure applied the Balanced Scorecard survey – measures (see Appendix D), which enabled the identification of evidence of the colleges’ business success. In addition, this enabled the identification of other available documents and records relevant to the colleges’ SPP and performance. Figure 3.3 provides an overview of the sequence of data collected that applies to stage one.



**Figure 3.3:** Overview of the sequence of collect of data applicable to stage one

**Table 3.2:** Overview of the sample of colleges and sample of senior staff

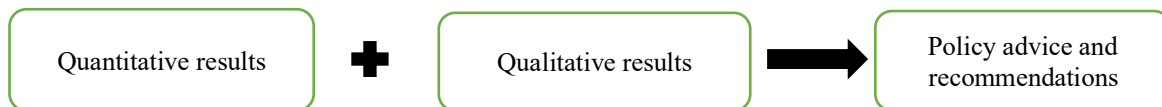
Private colleges in Baghdad City					Public colleges in Baghdad City			
N	College name	No. of Depts	No. of council	Teaching Areas	College name	No. of Depts	No. of councils	Teaching areas
P1	Al-Mansour University College (MUC)	9	13 Leaders	Sciences & Business	College of Law (CL)	4	9 Leaders	Business
P2	Al-Turath University College (AUC)	6	10 Leaders	Sciences & Business	College of Administration and Economics (CAE)	7	12 Leaders	Business
P3	Almamoon University College (AUC)	11	15 Leaders	Sciences & Business	College of Science (CS)	12	17 Leaders	Science
P4	Baghdad College for Economic Sciences (BCES)	5	9 Leaders	Sciences & Business	College of Political Sciences (CPS)	5	10 Leaders	Sciences
P5	Dijlah University College (DUC)	12	16 Leaders	Sciences & Business	College of Languages (CL)	8	13 Leaders	Sciences
P6	Imam Ja'afar Al-Sadiq University (IJASU)	10	14 Leaders	Sciences & Business	Technical College of Management (TCM)	4	9 Leaders	Business
P7	Al - Esraa University College (AEUC)	11	16 Leaders	Sciences & Business				
Total		64 Depts	93 Leaders	Total sample for both the public and private colleges was (70 + 93 =163 participants)		40 Depts	70 Leaders	

Stage two of the study involved conducting interviews with a purposively selected subsample of 30 participants, drawn from the main sample who had completed the MLQ. The purpose of this was to explore the results of the questionnaire to provide a more in-depth view of the practices, issues and challenges that arose in the survey findings. These focused semi-structured individual interviews were conducted by telephone and Zoom according to the interviewees' choices, since it was not possible for the researcher to travel to Iraq. The duration of the interviews was approximately 45 minutes. They were transcribed and analysed in NVivo to discover common themes. Figure 3.4 provides an overview of the sequence of data collection applicable to stage two.



**Figure 3.4:** Overview of the sequence of data collection applicable to stage two.

During stage three the researcher considered the findings that emerged from stage one and stage two to develop policy advice and recommendations for improvements to the colleges' approaches to strategic planning and leadership. When these were in draft form, they were shared with a group of five of the interviewees to gain feedback through focused discussions to be able to further refine them. Figure 3.5 provides an overview of the sequence of data collection applicable to the final stage, stage three.



**Figure 3.5:** Overview of the sequence of data collection applicable to the final stage - stage three

### 3.4 Research hypotheses

The study hypotheses are presented in Table 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5, reflecting three groups that comprise correlation hypotheses, effect hypotheses, and difference hypotheses between leadership styles, strategic planning, organisational success, and organisational culture. The researcher adopted null

hypotheses because this guarantees neutrality and objectivity (Reiter, 2017). Alpha levels were set at 0.05 because the smaller the alpha level, the smaller the area of rejection (Nathoo & Masson, 2016). This helps to reduce the chance of not rejecting the null hypothesis when in fact it should be rejected (Munasinghe, Attapattu, & Padmasiri, 2018) (making a Type II error), bearing in mind that the more the researcher tries to avoid a Type I error, the more likely a Type II error may occur. Setting the alpha level at 5% is commonly adopted, as it provides a good balance between these two issues (Harms & Lakens, 2018).

**Table 3.3:** List of study null hypotheses of correlation

Null hypotheses of correlation
Hypothesis 10: There is no significant correlation between the <i>leadership style and strategic planning process</i> of the colleges under study, as measured by Spearman Correlation Coefficient.
Hypothesis 20: There is no significant correlation between the <i>leadership type</i> and the <i>organisational success</i> of the colleges under study, as measured by Spearman Correlation Coefficient.
Hypothesis 30: There is no significant correlation between the <i>strategic planning process</i> and the <i>organisational success</i> of the colleges under study, as measured by Spearman Correlation Coefficient.

**Table 3.4:** List of study null hypotheses of effect

Null hypotheses of effect
Hypothesis 10: There is no significant effect from the <i>leadership style on the strategic planning process</i> in the colleges under study, as measured by Simple Regression Coefficient.
Hypothesis 20: There is no significant effect from the <i>leadership type on the organisational success</i> of the colleges under study, as measured by Simple Regression Coefficient.
Hypothesis 30: There is no significant effect from the <i>strategic planning process on the organisational success</i> of the colleges under study, as measured by Simple Regression Coefficient Path Analysis.

**Table 3.5:** List of study null hypotheses of difference in regarding to leadership styles

Null hypotheses of difference in regarding to leadership styles
<p>Key Hypothesis A0: There are no significant differences in the <i>transformational leadership style</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann Whitney.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 10: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>inspirational motivation</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 20: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>individualised consideration</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 30: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>idealized influence behaviour</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 40: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>idealized influence attribute</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 50: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>intellectual stimulation</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Key Hypothesis B0: There are no significant differences in the <i>transactional leadership style</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann Whitney.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 10: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>contingent reward</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 20: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>active management-by-exception</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 30: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>passive management-by-exception</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 40: There are no significant differences in the leadership style of <i>laissez-faire</i> between leaders of the public and private colleges.</p>
Null hypotheses of difference regarding the strategic planning process
<p>There are no significant differences in practicing of the strategic planning process between the public and private colleges under study as measured by Mann Whitney.</p>

Null hypotheses of difference in regarding to the organisational success
<p>Key Hypothesis 0: There are no significant differences in the level of <i>organisational success</i> according to the Balance Scorecard between the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann Whitney.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 10: There are no significant differences in the <i>learning-growth perspective</i> between the public and private colleges, as measured by Mann Whitney.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 20: There are no significant differences in the <i>internal processes perspective</i> between the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 30: There are no significant differences in the <i>customer-society perspective</i> between the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 40: There are no significant differences in the <i>financial perspective</i> between the public and private colleges.</p>
Null hypotheses of difference in regarding the organisational culture
<p>Key Hypothesis 0: There are no significant differences in the <i>organisational culture</i> between the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann Whitney.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 10: There are no significant differences in response to the <i>managerial effectiveness self-rating form</i> between the public and private colleges.</p> <p>Sub-Hypothesis 20: There are no significant differences in response to the <i>managerial effectiveness</i> between the public and private colleges.</p>

### 3.5 Study population and sampling

This section describes the study's population and explains the approach to selection of the sample of colleges and the participants.

### 3.5.1 The study population

The first step in any study, where sampling is involved, is to define the study population because it comprises the actual part of the reality researchers seek to study (Verschuren, Doorewaard, & Mellion, 2010). Thus, after identifying the problem of the study and its objectives, questions, and hypotheses, based on the literature review, and prior to determining the instruments of measurement or data collection, the researcher needs to clarify the data source and, as in this case, the sampling approach that will support the collection of valid and reliable data. In addition, in keeping with the formulation of the research questions and hypotheses that relate to the variables involved in the study, the characteristics of individuals or objects that constitute the statistical society are identified (Fowler Jr, 2013; Hawe & Potvin, 2009; Long-Sutthall, Sque, & Addington-Hall, 2011). Therefore, in the present study the population comprised all higher education colleges in Iraq (both public and private - 300), under the control of the Ministry of the Iraqi Higher Education, distributed over 15 provinces (Aithal, 2016), and all individuals in senior management in the selected sample of colleges. However, since higher education policy is implemented centrally in the capital city of Baghdad, and it would be difficult to conduct research across the provinces in the current uncertain and dangerous times, the major decision was made to conduct the research in Baghdad colleges only, therefore selecting an initial purposive sample of Baghdad's population of 44 (22 public and 22 private) colleges. This meant that the approach would:

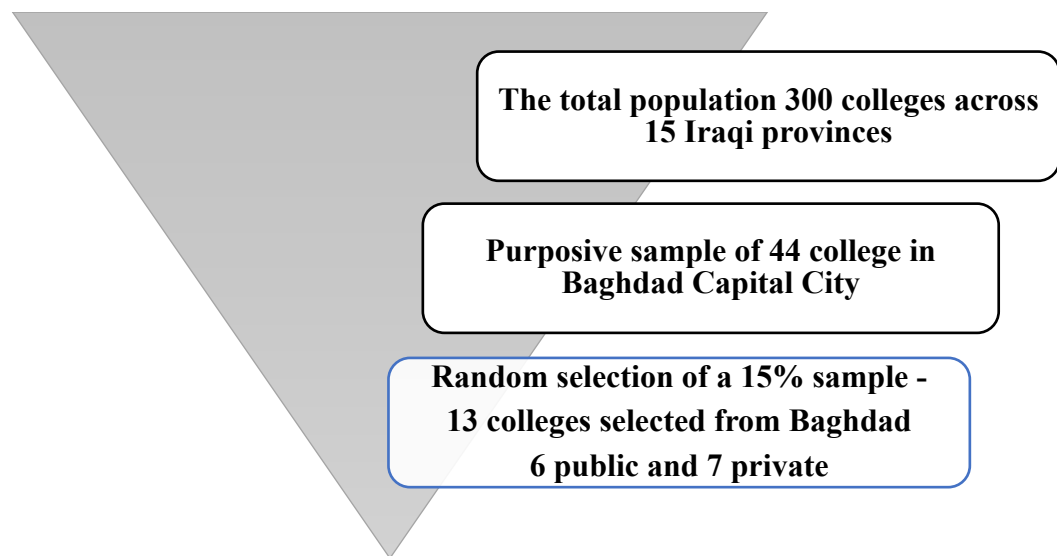
1. provide a safer and more accessible data collection strategy for the researcher;
2. be most suitable because data collection relied on participants' access to technology e.g. phone and Zoom, as the researcher was unable to travel in person, owing to the country's unrest;
3. be more manageable with regard to the financial costs, effort, and time involved;
4. provide more accurate data and information about the study's population; and
5. provide representation of public and private colleges in Baghdad, where the findings could be used to inform policy across the regions, since advice to all public and private colleges across the country emanates from the government in the capital city of Baghdad (Biesheuvel et al., 2008; Denscombe, 2014; Kumar, 2019; Rahi, 2017; Riley, Ru, & Quercia, 2009).



### 3.5.2 The study sampling

As mentioned previously, the study's population comprises all the people or items that the researcher is seeking to understand, and sampling is the strategy of selecting part of the population for investigation that is representative (Glaser & Strauss, 2017b; Rahi, 2017). This demonstrates that sampling is considered the second stage that comes after determining the study's population. According to MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996), a sample can be defined as a subset of a population that has the common characteristics of that population (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Thus, the sample selection is a very crucial step as there is a need to determine the minimum proportion of the study population to achieve a certain level to fit with the study size and representation of the population characteristics (Kim & Wang, 2018). Hence, the researcher needs to think about this from the start in terms of how to define the study's problem and its objectives, and then select a sample or samples, as the case may be, that are representative, according to relevant demographical data, and social and scientific characteristics in the interest of objectivity. As shown in Figure 3.6 the total population for the present study consisted of 300 colleges, including both public and private, across the country. However, because the focus was on colleges in Baghdad, the first stage involved selecting two samples from the total 44 colleges in that capital city, which meant that for a 15% sample there was an odd number, requiring six colleges from one group and seven colleges for the other. The extra college was selected from the private colleges rather than the public colleges because the researcher wanted to gain a deep understanding of the private colleges in Iraq. To do this, the researcher adopted simple random sampling (Corlay & Pagès, 2015; Marshall, 1996). For example, the researcher adopted the classic method in selecting a random sample where, for each group of 22 colleges, the name of each was written on a separate piece of paper and placed in an independent container and stirred around by a colleague. After that, the researcher pulled out 7 papers (names) from the group of private colleges and 6 papers (names) from the public group without looking at the papers or reversing any of the selected papers. This random selection process resulted in 6 colleges from 22 public colleges, and 7 colleges from 22 private colleges in keeping with the work of (Boddy, 2016; Orcher, 2016; Schilling & Neubauer, 2009). Thus, Figure 3.6 shows the samples and how the colleges are representative of total study population. This comprised 30% of the spatial population,

which is the accepted ratio when researchers are interested in studying such big samples, according to specialists and experts in the fields of study of measurement and evaluation (Nunnally, 1994; Rahi, 2017). However, focusing on the purposive sample of Baghdad Capital City colleges meant that the research did not include the variables of more rural and isolated areas, as it was deemed an advantage for the research that colleges in Baghdad were the oldest and had the typical number of human resources, departments, and students. They also provided evening classes and postgraduate programs besides having a minimum of five departments. Thus, this selection had the potential to provide the most useful data for informing policy and practice changes.



**Figure 3.6:** The study population and selection of samples

### **3.5.2.1 Unit of analysis - participants**

The data collection stage requires the identification of appropriate methods according to the required accuracy, type of statistical units, context and the allocated time for collection (Hoerber, Hoerber, Snelgrove, & Wood, 2017). In light of this, the researcher adopted two major methods in selecting the participants in the study sample (Rao & Fuller, 2017; Sarstedt, Bengart, Shaltoni, & Lehmann, 2018; Trivedi, 2017). The first was the complete census method, which aimed to obtain comprehensive data and information for each unit of the population, be it a person, a family or an organisation (Ellis & Thompson, 2015). Thus, the researcher selected all leaders in both types of

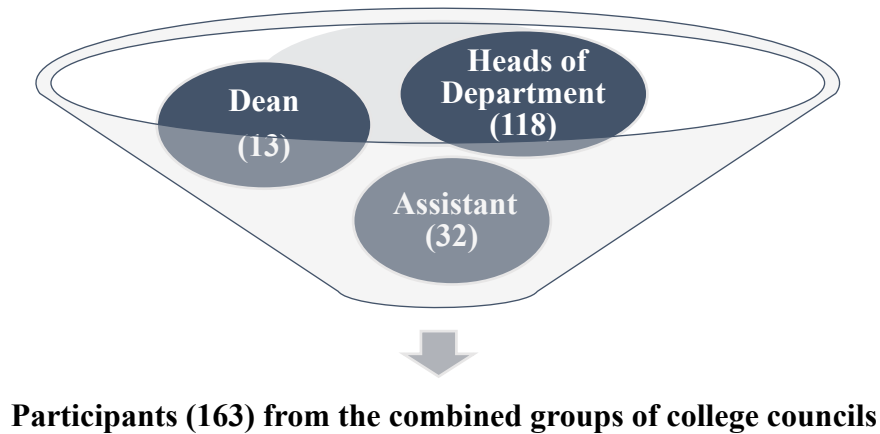
institutions (the public and private colleges). The second kind was the purposive sample method (Ames. H, Glenton, & Lewin, 2019). For this, the researcher adopted the purposive sample method because it allowed the identification of those participants who were best placed to respond to the qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques (survey package, interviews and focused discussions). (Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, & Hoagwood, 2015) have noted that the rationale for research can be inferred on the basis of the description of the reason for the recruitment and selection of participants.

### ***3.5.2.2 The sampling criteria***

As discussed earlier in Chapter One, this study selected the Iraqi higher education sector as the scope. Thus, the researcher selected all leaders of the public and private colleges under study (as outlined in Figure 3.6), whose roles were deans, assistant deans, and heads of department. Details of these samples are depicted in Figure 3.7. These leaders were also members of the colleges' councils, so they held strategic and key operational roles in leading and managing the colleges. Also, the researcher took this approach in accordance with the advice of Durmaz and Düşün (2016) and Huber and Power (1985) for the following three reasons:

1. The higher-level management of the colleges has the authority to make strategic decisions and craft the SP. Also, they have the authority to develop their college's vision, methods, and tactics related to strategy, actions to be taken, as well as development of performance measures.
2. They are well experienced in the Iraqi higher education sector and have a high level of knowledge, skills and experience with respect to the work therein and performance of the faculties.
3. They are the main actors that make strategic decisions related to their colleges and perform the governance to take and implement these decisions, and so have the capacity to influence. Therefore, the study sample comprised the employees at the senior management and leadership levels who could be deemed to be the decision makers and business

managers in the target organisations, which also included all members of the deans' councils.



**Figure 3.7:** Summary of how the sample of college leaders represents the colleges' councils

### 3.6 Research approach

The research literature into how researchers select an approach to conducting their study identifies two contrasting kinds. These are the inductive and deductive approaches that enable researchers to access knowledge and use their research results and conclusions to make a new and original contribution to knowledge that is defensible (Collins, 2018; Gale, Heath, Cameron, Rashid, & Redwood, 2013). The inductive approach may begin with the gathering of observational and experiential data, which, following analyses and conclusions, may help solve real problems and work to facilitate the construction of new knowledge. Thus, the inductive approach is directly based on being able to use the results to generate new theory, e.g. ethnographic research (McCleskey, 2014; Woo, O'Boyle, & Spector, 2017). Also, with regards to research into leadership and organisational culture and organisational theory, human resources management, and strategic planning, an inductive approach would focus on qualitative research methods, such as case studies and interviews, which allows for the answering of 'how' and 'why' questions to gather participants opinions (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015; Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018). This illustrates that an inductive approach is more suitable to a qualitative data collection because it provides descriptive

information from which new theoretical explanations can lead to advancements in knowledge (Anandarajan, Hill, & Nolan, 2019; Eisenhardt, Graebner, & Sonenshein, 2016).

The second approach, the deductive approach, differs in that it is typically an analytic-intellectual process where data are gathered to test existing theory. It may draw conclusions on the basis of the results of quantitative data collection that may test hypotheses under study (Hammersley, 2017; Mohammed, 2018; Zhang, Tian, Cheng, & Jin, 2014). This means that the deductive method starts from the theory, with hypotheses either experimental or alternative, compared with the null. Data collection techniques are designed to answer the research questions of the study and to be able to test the hypotheses in keeping with positivism. The purpose of deductive approaches is to allow the researcher to understand which part of a conceptualisation or theory does not provide a good explanation of the phenomenon or problem of a study (Bergdahl, Ternestedt, Berterö, & Andershed, 2019). Also, this approach enables researchers to find other explanations that are supported by the empirical data (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard, & Snape, 2014; Rothe et al., 2018). In addition, this approach helps to avoid bias, which may be more difficult when using inductive qualitative approaches (Hasibah, Rohaeti, & Aryan, 2018; Hjørland, 2013). However, Woiceshyn and Daellenbach (2018) have advised that the best way to guard against bias and ensure validity and reliability or trustworthiness of data is to achieve a balance between inductive and deductive research, where the researcher needs to review and evaluate possible approaches (Frempong, Davenport, Sutton, Nonvignon, & Barton, 2018; Jebb, Parrigon, & Woo, 2017). Based on the above, the inductive approach can be seen as contrary to the deductive approach in that it starts from the specific to the general, where the deductive approach starts from the general and moves to the specific.

Therefore, in keeping with this, the present researcher chose to conduct mixed methods research that involved the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. He adopted the deductive approach to investigate and compare leadership theory, organisational culture and strategic planning between the two groups of target colleges, and formulated hypotheses for statistical testing (refer to Chapter 4: Quantitative data analysis of the thesis). After that, the researcher employed the qualitative approach to confirm, develop, and generate the results and findings of the study (refer to Chapters 5: Qualitative data analysis of the thesis). Hence, both approaches

served the aim and research questions, as well as the hypotheses, of the current study through providing realistic and logical policy advice and recommendations.

### **3.7 Quantitative methodology**

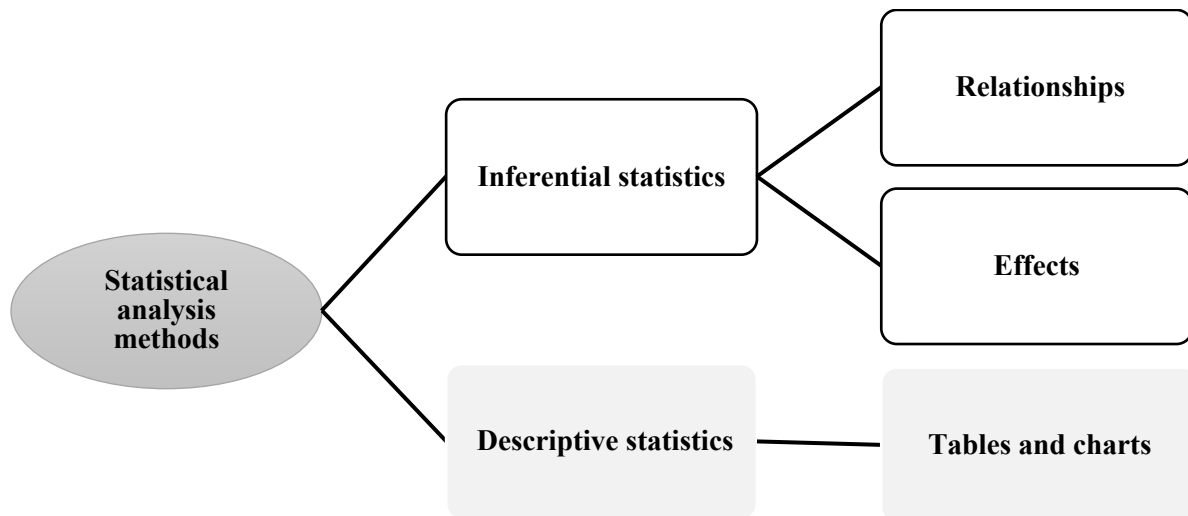
According to Creswell (2017, p. 212), quantitative research is a systematic process that examines theoretical aspects of a study through testing the relationship and impacts among its variables. In this study the quantitative methodology collected and analysed data in order to test the relationships and impacts amongst the following variables of the study: leadership styles, strategic planning process, and organisational success.

#### **3.6.1 The quantitative data collection**

Quantitative data collection is a process of collecting data and information, which can be characterised by numbers, including data in the form of measurements (Bryman, 2017; Johnston, 2017). The MLQ data collection instrument was administered in the current study in order to explore the relationships and impacts amongst the study's variables. Also, the MLQ was purchased from the Mindgarden Leadership Questionnaire, third edition (manual and sample) for this study because it would be able to identify how participants perceived the different leadership styles in their organisations, ranging from transformational, through transactional to laissez-faire. Thus, this includes the most effective style through to the most ineffective (Avolio & Bass, 2004a; Avolio & Bass, 2004b; Baek, Byers, & Vito, 2018; Boamah & Tremblay, 2019; Xu et al., 2016). The MLQ has been shown to be appropriate for administration at all levels of organisations and across different types of manufacture, service, and civil and military organisations, and was thus suitable for the present study and used a Likert scale type format.

### 3.6.2 The quantitative data analysis

High quality research depends on valid and reliable data collection, which the researcher is able to analyse and interpret to discover new knowledge (Mertens, Pugliese, & Recker, 2017). Data analysis is one of the most important stages of every study through the use of accurate and suitable analyses (Conesa et al., 2016; Hazen, Skipper, Boone, & Hill, 2018). Thus, data analysis can be defined as an organised process that can explore a variety of data in order to detect hidden patterns, unknown relations and impacts, market attitudes, customer preferences, and any other information that helps top management to make and take accurate and strategic decisions (Cox, 2018; Heeringa, West, & Berglund, 2017; Ott & Longnecker, 2015 ). This means that the researcher must choose the statistical methods that achieve more valid and reliable results. Based on that, the present researcher adopted two kinds of statistical methods. The first kind was the descriptive statistical method (Chan, Ismail, & Sumintono, 2016; Ferguson & Takane, 1989), which was used to compile tables and charts presenting percentages, mean, standard deviation, and coefficient of variation. The second kind was inferential statistical methods, which were used to identify the relationships and effects amongst the study variables. These were: variation coefficient, Spearman and Pearson correlation coefficient, simple and multiple regression coefficient, Mann Whitney U test, and *t*-test (Alzu'bi, 2015; Brannen, 2017b). They were applied to the data through the employment of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel software. Figure 3.8 provides an overview of how the data were analysed in terms of where descriptive and inferential statistics were applied in the study.



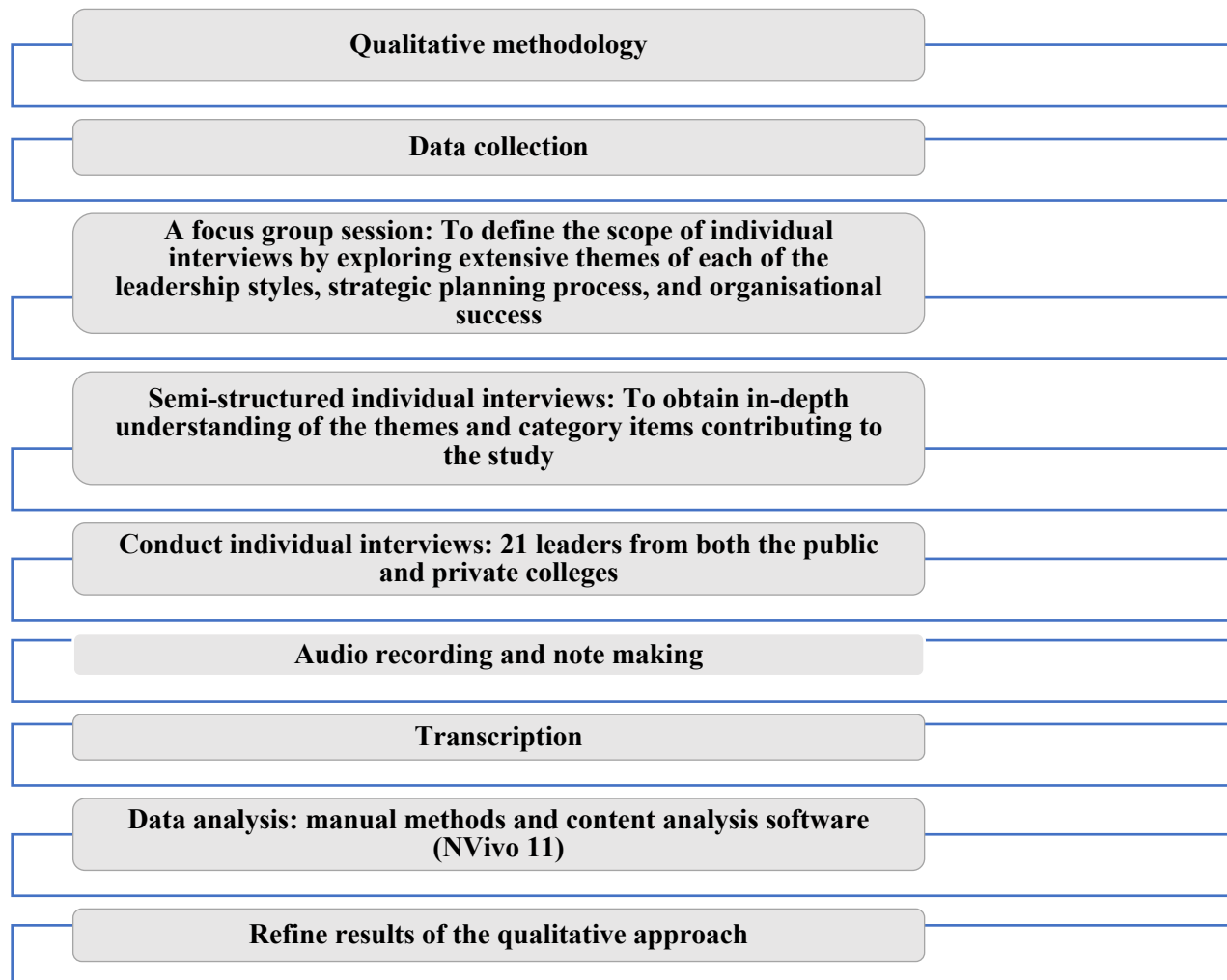
**Figure 3.8:** Data collection and analyses

### 3.7 Qualitative methodology

The qualitative approach is a popular method in the social sciences, which is used to investigate issues in the humanities fields (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). The qualitative approach can be defined as: “research that involves analysing and interpreting texts and interviews in order to discover meaningful patterns descriptive of a particular phenomenon” (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 3). Its process or framework is designed to help researchers to discover and define their topics and put them into groups or categories to answer the questions of the study, as opposed to quantitative data related to hypotheses (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018), and it is thus appropriate for inductive methods (Thomas, 2006). According to (Ritchie, Spencer, Bryman, & Burgess, 1994; Silverman, 2016), there is a set of the essential steps that must be followed by qualitative researchers: data recognition; identification of a framework for information; indexing or identifying specific categories; preparing and filing the schedule; map drawing; and interpretation of what is found. Before applying the qualitative methods and collecting and analysing the data, the researcher assessed the reliability and validity of the qualitative instruments through a reference group discussion and practice individual interview (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015; Fletcher, 2017; Leppäaho, Plakoyiannaki, & Dimitratos, 2016). In addition, the researcher conducted peer review



with two leaders from each of two sample's public and private colleges (purposive sub-sample), to ensure relevance and feasibility of the data collection, and to determine possible technical issues, before conducting a pilot study. Figure 3.9 shows and summarises the qualitative methods that were used in the current study, and hence explains how the qualitative methodology for the current study has two main parts.



**Figure 3.9:** Qualitative methodology

### 3.7.1 The qualitative data collection

Qualitative data collection is a systematic process that seeks to collect information from representative samples of people about real-world events and processes, or about their experiences,

which cannot be characterised via numbers (Noble & Smith, 2015; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013). In other words, it typically uses data collection methods that extract people's reported ideas about things that are outside themselves (Johnston, 2017; Percy, Kostere, & Kostere, 2015). Therefore, the current study adopted two qualitative data collection procedures. The first one was the conduct of individual interviews, for which the design of data collection was supported by a preliminary focus group session to help define the scope. The individual interviews were selected as a follow-up to the implementation of the survey package to obtain a deep understanding of the survey package findings (Gentles, Charles, Ploeg, & McKibbin, 2015; Mohammed, 2018). This section of the qualitative data collection and analysis method is fully discussed in Chapter five of this thesis.

### 3.7.2 The qualitative data analysis

To reiterate, the qualitative data analysis applied a rationale that could help the researcher to better and more deeply understand the data that were gathered and analysed through the Survey Package (Harding, 2018; Mohammed, 2018). The researcher provided all participating interviewees with a copy of the results of survey package quantitative analyses to read within a mutually agreed upon time frame and to review before the interview was arranged. Interviews were audio (mobile phone) or audio-video recorded (Zoom). After that, written transcripts were documented by the researcher and, together with any field notes, there were analysed through preliminary manual methods and through the use of NVivo 11 software, which allowed for the coding, recoding and generation of themes (Maher, Hadfield, Hutchings, & de Eyto, 2018; Zamawe, 2015). This assisted with the management of the data analysis and synthesis (Houghton et al., 2017). Hence, this phase was significant for modifications based on the analyses. Thus, following this qualitative data analysis of individual interviews, the researcher had the opportunity to refine or identify new findings to feed into the study's recommendations, depending on the outcomes of the quantitative stage of the current study.

### **3.8 Sources of the data**

Identifying and obtaining relevant sources of data and information are essential to enabling researchers to construct new knowledge (Chen, Chiang, & Storey, 2012). There are two key kinds that encompass primary sources and secondary sources (Lohr, S., 2012). While some studies depend on just primary sources, those that depend on secondary sources typically use such data as historical studies or existing data sets, e.g. systematic literature reviews, and they do not collect new data (Lenormand et al., 2014). In this study, to ensure the availability of comprehensive data and information and triangulation of data, the research design utilised both types as key sources, as shown in Figure 3.10.

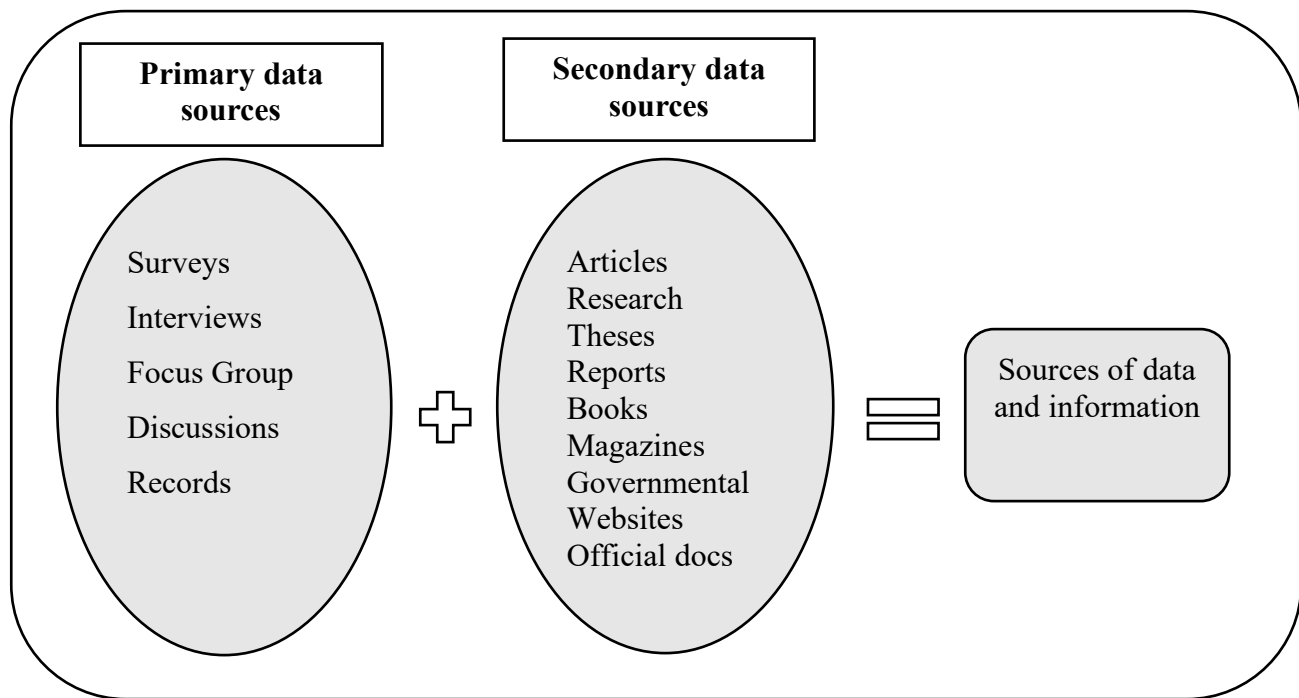
#### **3.8.1 The primary data**

The primary data and information were collected to respond to the specific study objectives of the researcher using the Survey Package, individual interviews, and focus group discussions (Evans & Murshudov, 2013; Walliman, 2017). Thus, the primary data for the current study were collected from leaders of the public and private colleges within the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Iraq, as in Figure 3.11.

#### **3.8.2 The secondary data**

The secondary data and information were collected from a range of different sources (Johnston, 2017). This type of data related to the gathering of evidence of organisational practices and success, which included a focus on scientific articles, studies, research, theses, reports, books, magazines, governmental websites and official statistics (Cole, Friedlander, & Trinh, 2018; Ellram & Tate, 2016). The essential objective of using these technique was to help understand the mutual and influential relationships amongst the study variables (Swart et al., 2015). Published data and information relating to research can be useful because of their relevance to practice and availability. This can also save cost, effort, and time as it does not need to be collect as primary data (Bell & Harrison, 2018; Mamonov & Triantoro, 2018). In addition, secondary data can assist in confirming vital information or fill in gaps, thereby adding to the reliability, validity, and

avoidance of bias (Mohammed, 2018; Worrell, McKay, & Andretta, 2015). Therefore, in the current study, the researcher used all of the sources mentioned above in regard to the leadership, the strategic planning process, and the organisational success, as in Figure 3.10.

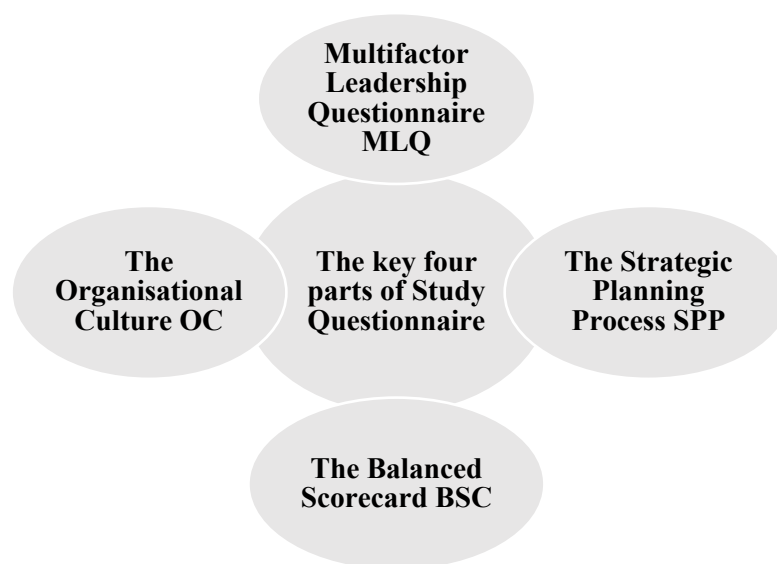


**Figure 3.10:** Sources of the data and information

### 3.9 Issues of validity and reliability

In relation to surveys, clarity of scale item meanings are very important, in terms of validation of the research instrument and its reliability in any empirical study (Krosnick & Presser, 2010). For instance, the participants must have a clear understanding of the meanings of the items in the scale (Chu, Ng, Koh, & Müller-Riemenschneider, 2015). If the meaning of scale items is ‘fuzzy’ for the participant then both reliability and validity of measurement can be flawed (Biasutti & Frate, 2017). The MLQ was selected because it is a well-established instrument in its long-term capacity as an internationally recognised questionnaire, which has been validated for use across cultures, and was thus deemed appropriate for the Iraqi context. In the second part of the package on the strategic planning process, this consisted of 20 items taken from the School/Unit Diversity Strategic Planning Resource Guide. This choice is supported in terms of validity and reliability because of it being a well-established instrument in its long term capacity as a questionnaire that has been validated for a long time and is always up-date, thus deemed appropriate for the Iraqi

context. In terms of the third part, the use of the BSC, the 42 items were well established in terms of validity and reliability for this data collection (Elola, Tejedor, & Tejedor, 2016b). In the final part of the survey package, the 27 items were designed to measure participants' perceptions of their colleges' organisational culture, which could be considered appropriate in terms of validity and reliability issues because it was a well-established instrument in its long-term capacity as an internationally recognised questionnaire that has been validated for use across cultures, thus making it appropriate for the Iraqi context. Figure 3.11 shows these study survey package instruments in terms of their four distinct parts, the MLQ, the SPP, the BSC, and OC.



**Figure 3.11:** The four key parts of the study's Survey Package

### 3.9.1 Validity testing of study instrument

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire aimed to determine the current leadership styles in the PPICs under study by gathering participants' perceptions of their workplace practices. This questionnaire had already been validated for use across different cultures by its developers Avolio and Bass (1995). There is also extensive existing research in support of its use for the purposes of the present research (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Baek et al., 2018; Bagheri & Sohrabi, 2015; Jelača, Bjekić, & Leković, 2016; Rose, Zask, & Burton, 2017; Rose, 2019). An additional advantage for

the present study was the fact that the MLQ was available for use in both English and Arabic. The strategic planning survey aimed to explore the reality of that process in the sample PPICs. This instrument also had the advantage of having been validated in previous studies (Elbanna, Andrews, & Pollanen, 2016; Howes, 2018; Klatt et al., 2011; Ofori & Atiogbe, 2012; Paris, 2003). (Note: It is unable to be displayed because of copyright).

The third survey component of the package comprised the Balanced Scorecard, which was selected as a method for obtaining data to inform on the colleges' organisational success. The strength of this instrument lays in the research of Elola et al. (2016b). They applied it in a study of 56 Spanish universities, including both public and private ones. The fourth and final instrument was selected to investigate the participants' views about the nature of the organisational culture in their colleges, since this could have a powerful impact on staff ways of working and performance and could reflect leadership styles involved. Thus, Schein (1990) survey was administered, which required the participants to rate a range of items that were seen as critically important to identifying human resources behaviours in their organisations. It has had prolific use across the world by many researchers, thus adding to its validity and reliability for use in the present study (Block, 2003; El Amouri & O'Neill, 2014; Pradhan, Panda, & Jena, 2017; Rivai, Gani, & Murfat, 2019; Sattler & Sonntag, 2018; Taormina, 2008; Tidor, Gelmeranu, Baru, & Morar, 2012).

Although each data collection instrument in the total survey package is argued to have been validated through use in other studies, the researcher also piloted their use with twelve college deans who were not in the selected sample but could be considered representative of the PPICs. The pilot study enabled a check on the appropriateness of items, the effectiveness of the instruments to provide relevant data, and to ensure that the potential participants would be able to complete the package relatively easily and without misunderstandings. While the MLQ was available in Arabic, for the remaining surveys the researcher employed a professional/legal translator in order to translate them from English into Arabic.

### 3.9.2 Reliability testing of study instrument

Although instruments of the study were tested in many previous studies and were found to be reliable, to guarantee the survey package instruments' reliability and stability, this was further

considered in a pilot test, as noted above (Allegrante, Hyden, & Kristjansson, 2018; Mohammed, 2018). To achieve the internal consistency of the instrument, Cronbach's Alpha was applied (coefficient alpha) (Field, 2013; Polit-O'Hara & Beck, 2006). As a measure of internal consistency of the items within an instrument, this statistical test provides a measure of the reliability of the scale to the extent of values between 0 to 1. Importantly, 0.70 is considered an acceptable minimum in exploratory studies (Briz-Ponce, Pereira, Carvalho, Juanes-Méndez, & García-Peñalvo, 2017). Moreover, Polit (2010) has maintained that this is one of the most sophisticated and accurate ways of computing internal consistency. Also, since some additional questions were developed to ensure adequate scope of the current study, these were also included in the trial and the reliability tests. Thus, each instrument in the Survey Package underwent a thorough process to ensure reliability. While Table 3.6 provides the result of the Cronbach alpha for the total set of items across the various instruments in the Survey Package, Table 3.4 shows the results for each individual instrument.

**Table 3.6:** Summary of the reliability test for all Likert scale items (N=129 Participants)

Non-demographic variables	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
Leadership styles, strategic planning, balanced scorecard, and organisational culture.	133	0.918

According to Table 3.6, the value of Cronbach Alpha, when all Likert scale items of the aggregated instruments were considered, was 0.918. This shows that the instrument of the study had a strong internal constancy because the value of the Cronbach Alpha was greater than 0.70.

**Table 3.7:** Summary of the reliability test for the non-demographic variables (N=129 Participants)

No.	Variables	Items	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
1	Leadership styles,	Q1 to Q 45	45	0.935
2	Strategic planning	Q1to Q19	19	0.924
3	Balanced Scorecard	Q1to Q42	42	0.924
4	Organisational culture	Q1to Q27	27	0.891

As shown in Table 3.7, the results of the Cronbach's alpha ranged between 0.891-0.935 ( $> 0.70$ ). This indicated that all these values were statistically satisfactory because their values were greater



than 0.70. Therefore, these results help justify the reliability of the survey package instruments. For more details on the Cronbach's Alpha statistical test, see Appendix E. This supports the rigour of the research, helping ensure that the findings were credible and the appropriate processes and issues were dealt with in an ethical way (Orcher, 2016).

Since the current study involved human participation in the survey package, individual interviews and focus group discussion, ethics approval for the conduct of the research was gained from the University of Southern Queensland's Office of Research/Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). The aim of obtaining ethics approval, before conducting any research, is to guide and ensure researchers carrying out ethical, valid and reliable research that does not harm or have adverse consequences for the participants (Zikmund et al., 2013). It encompasses the three major ethical considerations of benefit and risk, respondents' informed consent, and respondents' rights and protections (Mohammed, 2018; Walliman, 2017). Based on this, there was a need to provide information to the participants, including the colleges, about the aims and objectives of the study, how they would be asked to contribute, and how the data would be used (Blaikie & Priest, 2019; Creswell, 2017; Dahl, 2018; Das, Ester, & Kaczmirek, 2018; Denecke et al., 2015; Rudolph, Bazzi, & Fish, 2016).

This research study's ethical approval number was H17REA244 and covered the period of the research for three years from 2 January 2018 until 2 January 2021. The letter of approval is presented in Appendix F, along with separate letters of approval from each of the participating colleges in Iraq. These approvals provided the researcher with the ability to approach the senior staff in the selected colleges. Participation was voluntarily, and confidentiality was assured. Participants were also assured they had the right of to withdraw at any time without any sanction and their data would then be removed from the study. In addition, to help ensure independence and objectivity, the researcher engaged a 'critical friend' whose role it was to verify a random selection of the BSC data analyses and decisions on data coding and themes for the qualitative data analysis using NVivo.

### 3.11 Administration of the study survey package

Administration of the data collection instruments is a crucial step for every research project (Bell & Harrison, 2018; Fosnacht, Sarraf, Howe, & Peck, 2017). This step should enable the researcher to distribute and collect data in an appropriate way (Ruel, Wagner III, & Gillespie, 2015). Also, refining this procedure can enable the researcher to organise data collection in an efficient, timely, and cost-effective way (Miech, Patrick, O'malley, & Johnston, 2017). Therefore, the survey package was administered sequentially according to the individual instruments, as shown in Table 3.8.

**Table 3.8:** Stage one of data collection - steps in administering the Survey Package

No	Steps in administering the Survey Package	Period
1	Receiving ethics approval from USQ.	2/1/2018
2	Translating the data collection instruments and ethics approval forms from the English into Arabic.	8/1 - 4/2/2018
3	Getting approval from all 13 colleges under study.	5/2 - 20/2/2018
4	Providing participants with the invitation and information about the research aim and objectives of the study and consent form.	22/2 – 28/2/2018
5	Distribution of the survey package to the participants.	4/3/2018
6	Collection of the completed survey package from the participants.	3/5/2018
7	Return of the survey package to the University of Southern Queensland.	7/5/2018
8	Receipt of the survey packages at the University of Southern Queensland.	21/5/2018

Thus, the participants first completed the questionnaire (quantitative). Then the individual interviews were conducted (qualitative). The implementation of the data collection process is explained further below.

#### 3.11.1 Administration of the study survey package (quantitative)

This section is divided into two key parts. The first part explains the procedures of distributing and collecting the survey package, which addressed: (1) leadership styles - MLQ, (2) organisational culture, (3) application of the Balanced Scorecard, and (4) the Strategic Planning Process in the colleges. The second part reports on the response rate of the participants.

### **3.11.1.1 Procedures for distributing and collecting the survey**

Owing to the researcher being in Australia and unable to travel to Iraq, the study survey package was administered by a convenience sample of six postgraduate students who were studying at the Iraqi colleges and all of them were male. They worked as volunteers and were happy to assist as they valued the opportunity to be involved. After that, the researcher sent the study survey package with the ethics approval information and instructions through email to the postgraduate students, who also acted as the researcher's agents to gain the various approvals from the colleges in the study. Once approval was gained from all 13 colleges (6 public colleges and 7 private colleges), the researcher allowed the postgraduate students to distribute the study survey package to the target participants in face-to-face mode. The volunteer distributors were able to draw attention to the invitation to participate and the research aim and objectives. At the beginning of March 2018, the distribution of the survey package to the participants began. At the beginning of May 2018, the volunteer distributors collected the completed survey packages. On 7/5/2018, the survey packages were delivered to the University of Southern Queensland by Aramex, for which the documentation is shown in Appendix G. This took two weeks as previously shown in Table 3.8.

### **3.11.1.2 Response rate of the participants**

The response rate of surveys is a vital consideration in ensuring the validity of the research. A response rate is the percentage of the sample that returns a questionnaire (Patel, Doku, & Tennakoon, 2003). If the sample, as a proportion of the population, is very low then this weakens the requirements to apply inferential statistical analyses. Thus, an empirical study such as this, which surveyed the full population of the senior leadership teams in the sample colleges, should address and report the response rate as well as the sampling process to clarify the statistical rigour of the research (Fan & Yan, 2010). Fosnacht et al. (2017) have advised that the best way to obtain unbiased results is to achieve as higher response rate as possible. However, other researchers have argued that a low response rate does not necessarily lead to biased outcomes, depending on the sampling approach (Hayden, van der Windt, Cartwright, Côté, & Bombardier, 2013; Keeter, Hatley, Kennedy, & Lau, 2017; Kirkham et al., 2010). Nevertheless, response rates of 40 - 65%

have been shown to be adequate (Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010; Crone & Williams, 2017; Keeter et al., 2017).

Based on above, the researcher distributed 163 survey packages, through the engagement of the postgraduate students, to the total sample of leaders, who were deans, associate deans, and heads of departments for both the public and private colleges (Pu70 + Pr 93 =163). A total of 140 were returned. However, only 129 were appropriately completed and used for analysis. Table 3.9 shows a summary of the response rate from the public colleges as 80%, since there were 56 returns from 70 leaders. Table 3.10 shows a summary of the response rate from the private colleges as 81% with 70 returns from 90 participants. Thus, the overall response rate of this study was 80.5%, which is relatively high and therefore acceptable for the validity of the study (Converse, 2017; Fowler Jr, 2013), despite the possibility of self-selection given that the total population was targeted.

**Table 3.9:** Survey response rates and extend of staff representation in the public colleges

N		College name	No. of Depts.	No. of councils	Members of College Council				Distributed Questionnaires	Received Questionnaires	Response rate %
					Dean	Associate	H D	CEO			
1	PU1		4	9	1	3	4	1	9	8	88%
2	PU2		7	12	1	3	7	1	12	10	83%
3	P3		12	17	1	3	12	1	17	12	70%
4	P4		5	10	1	3	5	1	10	9	90%
5	P5		8	13	1	3	8	1	13	9	69%
6	P6		4	9	1	3	4	1	9	8	88%
Total		7	40	70	6	18	40	6	70	56	80%

**Table 3.10:** Survey response rates and extend of staff representation in the private colleges

N	Code	No. of Depts.	No. of councils	Members of College Council				Distributed Questionnaires	Returned Questionnaires	Response rate %
				Dean	Associate	Head	CEO			
1	PR1	9	13	1	2	9	1	13	10	77%
2	PR2	6	10	1	2	6	1	10	10	100%
3	PR3	11	15	1	2	11	1	15	10	67%
4	PR4	5	9	1	2	5	1	9	9	100%
5	P5	12	16	1	2	12	1	16	10	62%
6	P6	10	14	1	2	10	1	14	12	86%
7	P7	11	16	1	3	11	1	16	12	75%
		64	93	7	15	64	7	93	73	81%

### 3.11.2 Administration of the study survey interview (qualitative)

The individual interview as a data collection instrument can be defined as a meeting between the researcher and each member of the sample of respondent interviewees, independent of a mediator, in order to collect scientific data and information (Denzin, 2017; Wiens, 2017). The purpose of interviews is to obtain high qualitative data and information around the phenomenon under study, which cannot be obtained through other methods such as surveys/questionnaires, observation, and check-lists (Behroozi, Lui, Moore, Ford, & Parnin, 2018). Researchers have typically justified the conduct of interviews in empirical studies because they can provide a more in-depth understanding about the problem of their study (Behroozi et al., 2018; Quinlan, 2019).

Interviews may also be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Bryman, 2017; Carduff, Murray, & Kendall, 2015; Rahman, 2017). Structured interviews involve a set of questions that are prepared in advance by the researcher and tightly guide and control the conversation (Bell & Harrison, 2018). In contrast, semi-structured interviews typically include questions that introduce or prompt a focus but leave more scope for the interviewee to freely respond, whereas unstructured interviews remain quite open-ended and facilitate open discussion (Abro, Khurshid, & Aamir, 2015; Dikko, 2016). In other words, the researcher can extract or deduce other questions from interviewees' answers to facilitate further exploration of an emergent issue in order to acquire additional critical information. Thus, in the unstructured interview the researcher intervenes less but in an encouraging way (Koskinen, 2017; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). In light of this, the researcher adopted the semi-structure interview because it was used to explore issues arising from the findings of the survey package in greater depth.

In addition, the semi-structured interview is multilateral and provides some flexibility to follow through and follow leads, depending on an interviewee's responses; it can thus be varied depending on the study purpose and its questions (Newcomer, Hatry, & Wholey, 2015). It can also enable the interviewer to improvise follow-up questions based on participants' responses (Bryman, 2016). Thus, in the present research, the design of the semi-structured interview questions depended on the survey results to determine and formulate the questions. As noted by (Kiel, Müller, Arnold, & Voigt, 2017; Nehler & Rasmussen, 2016), providing a focused structure to facilitate discussion

during interviews needs to consider a range of questions (such as what, when, where, who, how and why) in order to maximise the depth of information to be collected.

Although a semi-structured interview can provide richer data that facilitates a deeper understanding of the phenomena under study, possible disadvantages need to be taken into account in the conduct of the research. For instance, conducting interviews increases the financial costs of the research because of the added time, and potential selection of suitable tools, e.g. phone calls or travel, and appointing a venue (Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson, & Kangasniemi, 2016). This also adds time to a project, because the researcher has to meet the sample requirements of the study separately, and must listen to interviewees' responses and record them, and even consider follow-up interviews depending on how much time is necessary in building rapport with the interviewee to enable a context of trust (Thurman, 2018). Thus, this data collection strategy may fail if the researcher does not carefully prepare for the interview and ensure questioning techniques are facilitatory, besides making sure sufficient time is provided for the interviewees to answer the questions to the best of their ability. Moreover, there needs to be an opportunity for the conversation to reach the depth required. In addition, some circumstances may change between the researcher and the number of people chosen in the sample to study, such that the target number of interviews is not initially met (Opoku, Ahmed, & Akotia, 2016). Thus, the researcher may need to select additional interviewees to meet the sampling criteria. It is therefore important for the researcher to have developed and practiced interview skills in, for instance, being calm, tactful and supportive in their approach, while speaking with the interviewee (Lochrie, Curran, & O'Gorman, 2015; Tingley, Cooper, & Cullen, 2017).

Thus, this section has outlined the issues and advice in relation to the three key stages of this research. It has explained the importance and purpose of conducting interviews as a data collection strategy and how best to prepare. It has also considered the issues vital to ensuring the interview is conducted to best facilitate the interviewees' participation and the collection of rich data that can illuminate the research phenomena in more depth than, in this case, surveys/questionnaires. Thus, the interviews, as noted earlier, were designed to follow up and follow through on the issues emerging from the analysis of the various instruments' data in the survey package. More information about the first stage of the interviews is explained below and in Chapter five, which reports on the results of the interview analyses.



### **3.11.2.1 The first stage before the interview**

The researcher conducted the interviews in Arabic since it was the first language of the interviewees. The questions for the semi-structured interviews, as mentioned earlier, were designed after the survey package data had been analysed in order to follow up and follow through on the emergent issues and trends (McCracken, 1988). The researcher called the selected participants in order to obtain their approval (Mero-Jaffe, 2011) after sending the semi-structured interview questions and ethics approval documents to them by email and social media (Facebook and WhatsApp) (Madden, 2012). Twenty-one participants of the thirty targeted, whose roles included all those in senior leadership involved in the study (e.g. dean, associate dean, and head of department), gave approval for the researcher to interview them. Thus, after their return of the acceptance to be interviewed, the researcher called each participant by mobile phone to determine a suitable time (Goldberg & Allen, 2015). Therefore, of the total number of participants interviewed, ten were from public colleges and 11 from private colleges, as shown in Table 3.11-12. Some participants took more time than the allocated 45 minutes, up to 65 minutes in some cases. There was a need to take account of differences in time between Iraq and Australia, so the total time spent on interviewing was around 19 hours, which reflected the participants' interest in discussing the results of the survey package.

**Table 3.11:** Overview of the scope of the implementation of the public colleges’ semi-structured interviews

No	Participants	Participants	Position	Time	Date
1	PU1	Ass prof	H of Department	45 Minutes	12/11/2018
2	PU2	Ass prof	H of Department	45 Minutes	12/11/2018
3	PU3	Ass prof	Dean	40 Minutes	15/11/2018
4	PU4	Ass prof	H of Department	1:30 Hour	19/11/2018
5	PU5	Ass prof	H of Department	1 Hour	22/11/2018
6	PU6	Lecturer	H of Department	45 Minutes	3/12/2018
7	PU7	Ass prof	H of Department	45 Minutes	29/11/2018
8	PU8	Professor	Ass Dean	45 Minutes	11/12/2018
9	PU9	Professor	Ass Dean	45 Minutes	11/12/2018
10	PU10	Professor	H of Department	1 Hour	19/12/2018

**Table 3.12:** Overview of the scope of the implementation of the private colleges’ semi-structured interviews

No	Participants	Title	Position	Time	Date
1	PR1	Ass. Prof.	Ass Dean	45 Minutes	1/10/2018
2	PR2	Ass. Prof.	H of Department	1 Hour	4/10/2018
3	PR3	Ass. Prof.	H of Department	50 Minutes	8/10/2018
4	PR4	Ass. Prof.	Ass Dean	1:15 Hour	11/10/2018
5	PR5	Ass. Prof.	H of Department	45 Minutes	16/10/2018
6	PR6	Lecturer	H of Department	50 Minutes	18/10/2018
7	PR7	Lecturer	H of Department	45 Minutes	22/10/2018
8	PR8	Ass. Prof.	H of Department	1:15 Hour	25/10/2018
9	PR9	Professor	Ass of Dean	45 Minutes	31/10/2018
10	PR10	Professor	H of Department	45 Minutes	5/11/2018
11	PR11	Ass. Prof.	H of Department	45 Minutes	8/11/2018

### **3.11.2.2 The second stage during the interview**

Prior to starting the interview, the researcher undertook preparation on the art and administration of interviewing in order to ensure he understood how to encourage and facilitate the interviewees to feel safe with regards discussing the issues and problems that emerged from the survey package results of the study. At the same time, he supported them in order for them to feel willing to share their views, knowing that this process was completely confidential and they would remain anonymous (Shenoy & Aithal, 2017). Also, the researcher prepared the sessions to ensure the clarity of voice and recording of the interviews and the absence of any interruptions or other noises (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). At the beginning of the interview, the researcher introduced himself, and reminded the interviewees of the study topic and objectives, and the purpose of the interviews (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, & Ormston, 2013). Thus, the researcher started with the individual questions in a way that encouraged the interviewees to provide detailed qualitative responses and feel comfortable with the time available in order to obtain in-depth and rich answers that would expand on the results of the survey questionnaires (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). This allowed the interviewer to formulate supportive comments and follow up questions to encourage the interviewees to expand further upon their initial responses, which enriched the collection of qualitative data regarding the phenomena under study ensuring saturation (Guest, Namey, & Chen, 2020).

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### **3.11.2.3 The final stage after ending the interview**

At the completion of each interview the researcher acknowledged interviewees' participation, thanking them for giving up their valuable time and information to the study (Fontana & Prokos, 2016). At the same time, the researcher advised that if they should think of anything later that they would like to contribute they should feel free to contact the researcher either by e-mail or phone (Wiens, 2017). As result, all of the interviewees provided some follow-up suggestions and recommendations that were taken into account in the analyses. In support of the interview data collection process, the researcher compiled a document that included interview notes to

accompany the audio recordings of the interviews on MP3 files. The purpose of this process was to save the data and information, as well as time, in order to evaluate the details and formulate a summary of events before undertaking the procedures for transcription (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Mohammed, 2018). All of the translation was completed by professional legal translator. Finally, the researcher used both the content analysis method and NVivo 12 techniques to analyse the interview data, the results of which are reported in Chapter 5.

### **3.12 Chapter summary**

This chapter has focused on design and the methodology of the study. Firstly, the introduction explained the structure of the chapter and the contribution of each section. A justification for the approach to the present research was provided in the context of the research philosophy underpinning the study. This was followed by an explanation of the research design in terms of the appropriateness of the adoption of the sequential exploratory strategy using mixed methods. Following this, the study population and sampling approach was discussed and justified, and an overview of the research design, research hypotheses and the relationship of the stages of data collection, as they aligned to the research questions, was presented and explained. Details were then provided with regards to the various data collection instruments (document analyses, survey package, semi-structured interviews, and focus group discussions) and approach to data analyses. In relation to this, issues of validity and reliability were addressed including the results of Cronbach's Alpha in measuring the internal consistency of each survey in the package. The chapter also outlined the study's ethical considerations and identified the university ethical approval number. Finally, details were presented on the way the research was able to be conducted in Iraq during difficult times.

## **CHAPTER 4 RESULTS SURVEY PACKAGE**

### **4.1 Overview**

This chapter reports on the analysis of the results of the first stage of the research, which was the administration of the survey package to the senior staff in the selected public and private colleges to investigate their views on leadership style, their strategic planning processes, application of the balanced scorecard measures, and organisational culture. It reports on the quantitative analyses of the survey results, including statistical tests, in relation to the research hypotheses and comparisons between the two types of colleges, public versus private. Quantitative research applies to research that seeks out causes and facts examining relationships and effects among the variables of a study (Bernard, 2017; Flick, 2018; Quinlan, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2019). It is relevant to the testing of theories through deductive statistics. By determining the theory in the literature, and identifying the concepts and definitions, the relations among the variables can be hypothesised and tested through relevant data collection and statistical analysis (Brannen, 2017b; Glaser & Strauss, 2017a; King, Horrocks, & Brooks, 2019). After that, in light of the results obtained, the null or experimental hypotheses are rejected or not rejected (Ary, Jacobs, Irvine, & Walker, 2018; Bryman, 2016). A response rate is the percentage of the sample that returns a questionnaire (Patel et al., 2003). Thus, quantitative research can help explain relationships of cause and effect among variables, and in turn arrive at accurate forecasts about the phenomenon or problem under study ((Ary et al., 2018; Bryman, 2016). Included in this reporting of the results of the survey package is the document analysis required for the application of the Balanced Scorecard survey – measures, the purpose of which was in this case to identify how the colleges performed regarding their business growth in terms of learning and growth, business processes, customer focus and financial concerns, which could lead to improved organisational outcomes (organisational success). Thus, this chapter, Chapter 4, is divided into nine sections. The chapter starts with an overview in Section 4.1. Section 4.2 provides an explanation and justification of the quantitative approach. Section 4.3 describes the research participants through the results of the analysis of demographic data. Section 4.4 reports the results of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) regarding senior staff's

views on leadership styles perceived as being present in their colleges. Section 4.5 presents the results of the strategic planning process and Section 4.6 the results of the balanced scorecard. Section 4.7 reports on the results of participants' perceptions of their colleges' organisational culture, while Section 4.8 presents the results of the inferential statistical tests and informs on the hypotheses rejected and not rejected. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary in Section 4.9. The chapter therefore includes 9 sections, which are shown below in Figure 4.1.

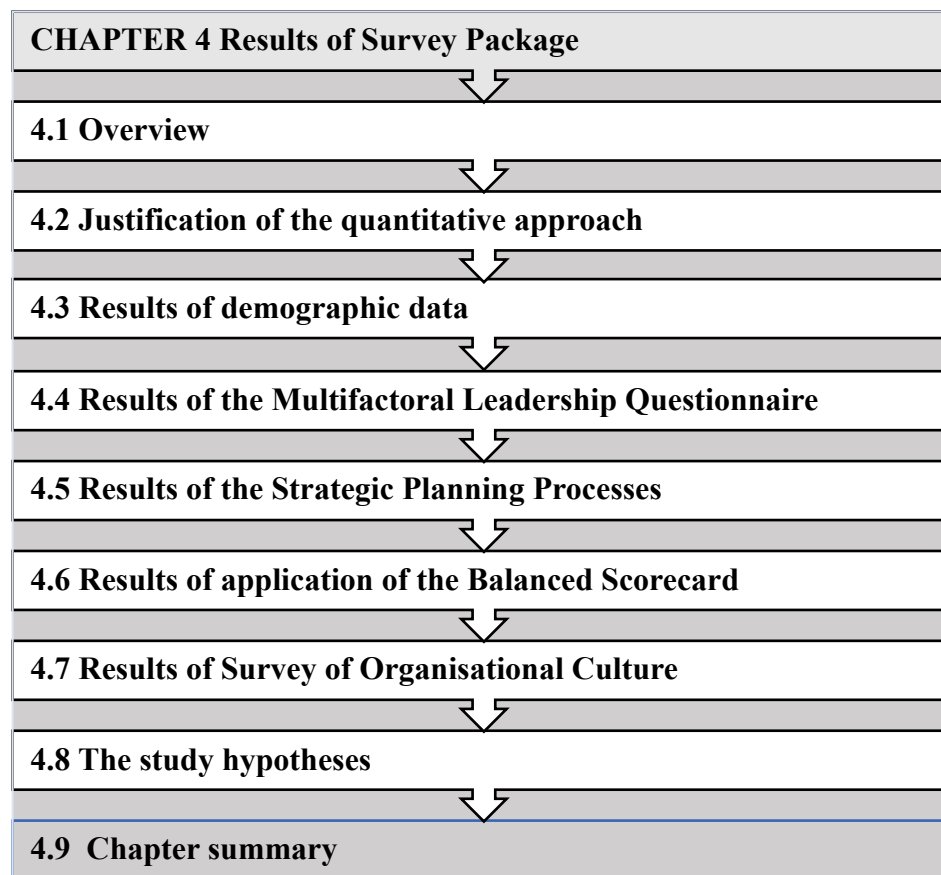


Figure 4.1: Outline of Chapter 4

## 4.2 Justification of quantitative approach

In recent times, scientific research approaches have improved and developed rapidly. Also, these approaches have varied greatly, giving researchers a range of methods and tools that enable them

to choose the best methods according to their research goals (Lambert, 2015; Nardi, 2018). In this mixed methods study, qualitative research was also deemed important (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2015), as it contributed to the triangulation of the data thus adding to the validity and reliability of the findings (McNabb, 2015) as noted in the methodology in Chapter 3. The quantitative approach depends on the accurate determination of the purpose of the research, and the research questions, as well as hypotheses to solve the research problem. After identifying the methods for collecting the data through administration of the survey package, the resultant data can be analysed and interpreted (Hox, Moerbeek, & Van de Schoot, 2017; Posavac, 2015; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). So, this quantitative stage of the study sought to analyse the data to find real solutions to the problem under study and report the results as outlined in Figure 4.2. This means that the quantitative approach depended on a vital sequence of steps in cleaning then analysing data from the surveys and investigating the results and in this research for which the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and AMOS were used (Anderson, Sweeney, Williams, Camm, & Cochran, 2018; Ledford & Gast, 2018).

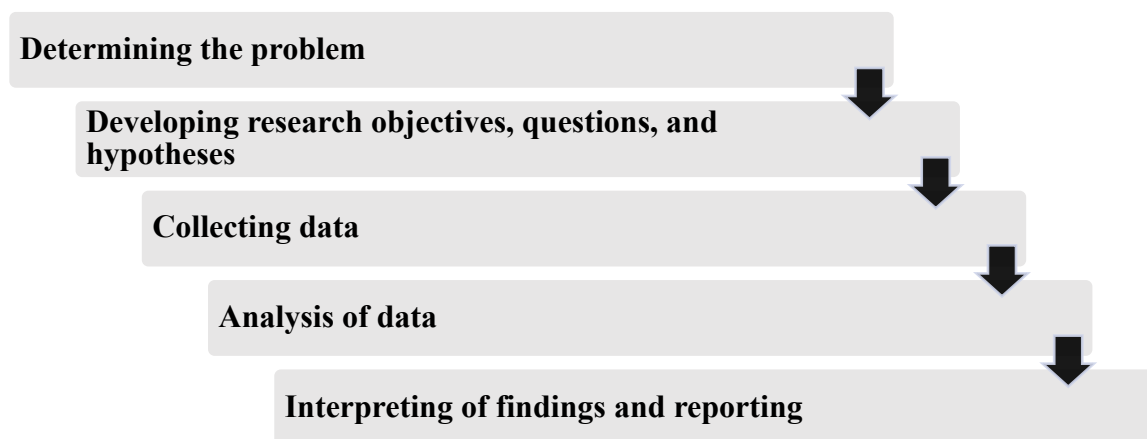


Figure 4.2: Steps of the quantitative approach in scientific research

Source: Author.

### 4.3 The research participants – Demographic data analyses

In this section of results, the analysis of demographic data is summarised to provide an overview of the population's diversity and characteristics related to gender, age, the academic level, the current position, service years in the current position, and training course of the leadership.

#### 4.3.1 Sample size

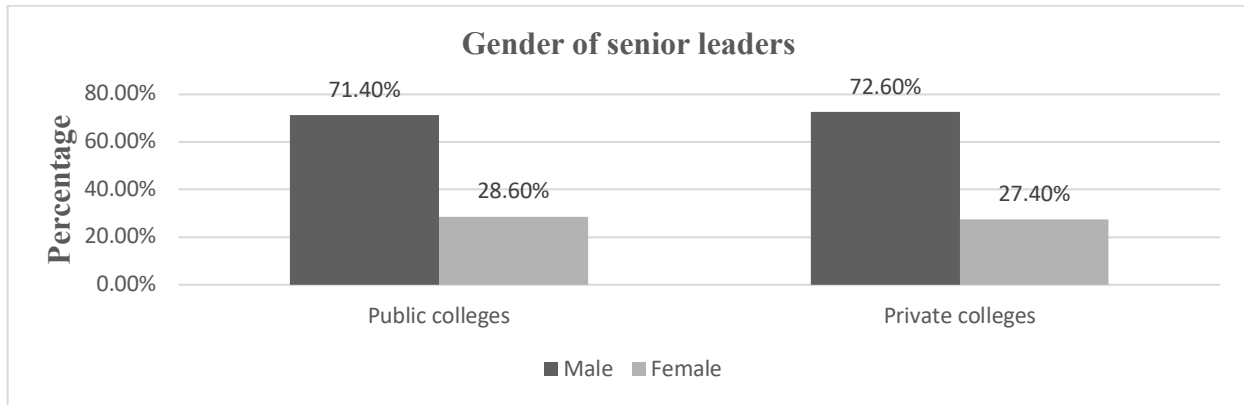
A representative sample is a selected part of the population that it represents and therefore should contains its basic characteristics (Hox et al., 2017; Malterud, Siersma, & Guassora, 2016). Part A of the survey package gathered descriptive statistics, calculating frequency counts (*f*) and percentages (%) on a range of demographic data. These data included information about personal and professional characteristics of gender, age, title, current position, years of service years in this position, and indication of leadership training, as shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.3. To reiterate, the total number of participants were 129, with 56 participants from the public colleges and 73 from the private colleges.

#### 4.3.2 Gender

Table 4.1: Gender of senior staff in the public and private colleges

No	Variable		Public colleges		Private colleges		Summation	
			<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1	Gender	Male	40	71.40%	53	72.60%	93	72.10%
		Female	16	28.60%	20	27.40%	36	27.90%
Total			56	100%	73	100%	129	100%





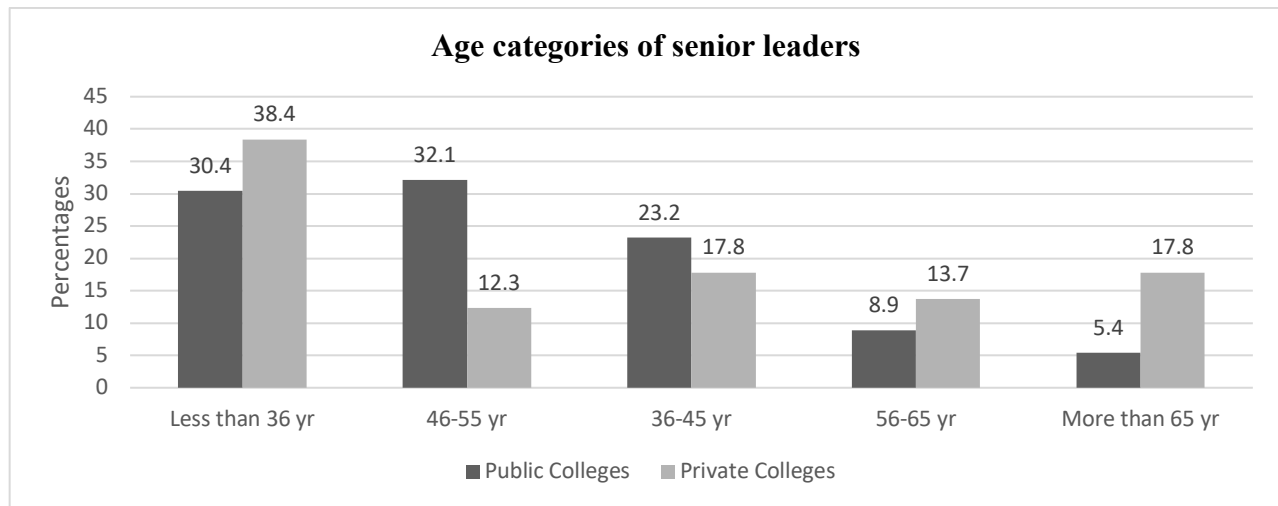
**Figure 4.3:** Gender of senior leaders in the public and private colleges

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.3 show characteristics of the study sample in relation to the gender. This graph shows that the percentage of males was similar and higher for both college types (public, 71.40%; private, 72.60%). Thus, the percentage of females was similarly lower in both college types (public, 28.60%; private, 27.40%). Overall, the percentage of males was substantially higher by approximately 40%. This reflects that male senior staff are more dominating in leadership positions than females in both college types. Basically, this reflects the traditional cultural values associated with gender roles in Iraq, where typically males undertake the formal work role and females are seen as best suited to nurturing and home duties (Al-Ali, 2008).

### 4.3.3 Age

**Table 4.2:** Age categories of senior staff in the public and private colleges

No	Variable		Public colleges		Private colleges		Summation	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
2	Age	Less than 36 years	17	30.4%	28	38.40%	45	34.89%
		36-45 years	18	32.10%	9	12.30%	27	20.93%
		46-55 years	18	32.10%	9	12.30%	27	20.93%
		56-65 years	3	5.40%	13	17.80%	16	12.40%
		More than 65 years	5	8.90%	10%	13.70%	15	11.62%
Total			56	100%	73	100%	129	100%



**Figure 4.4:** Age categories of senior leaders in the public and private colleges

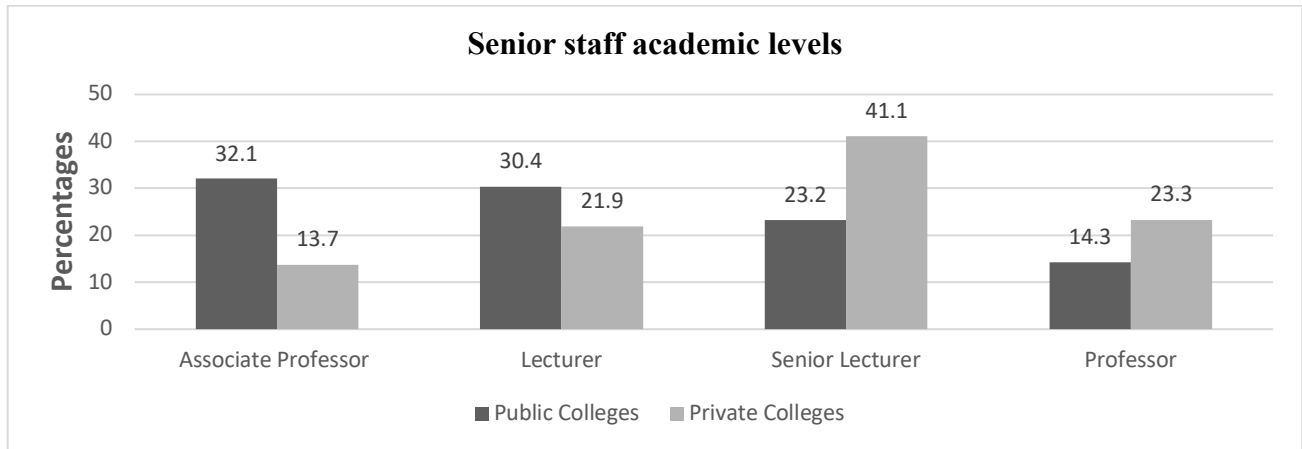
Table 4.2 and Figure 4.4 display the percentage of college senior leaders per category of age. The graph shows that the private colleges have the highest percentage of participating senior staff who are younger than 36 years at 38.40% compared with the public college leaders (30.40%). But when age is considered under 45 years, the two colleges' age distribution is similar in being over half of senior staff e.g. public 53.6% versus private 56.2%. Yet, the contrast between the two college types

also shows a higher percentage of older staff in the private colleges, approximately 18% compared with 5.4% in the public colleges aged over 65. However, when the 56 years and over group is considered, there are over 30% of senior staff in private colleges compared with only 14% in the public colleges. However, with the age group 46-55 years, the public colleges have a much higher proportion of staff in this category, e. g. 32% compared with 12% respectively, so a difference of 20%. Thus, there may be less experienced leaders in the public colleges compared with the private college leaders who have older leaders.

#### 4.3.4 Academic level

**Table 4.3:** Senior staff academic levels in the public and private colleges

No	Variable		Public colleges		Private colleges		Summation	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
3	Academic Level	Senior Lecturer	13	23.20%	30	41.10%	43	34%
		Lecturer	17	30.40%	16	21.90%	33	26%
		Associate Professor	18	32.10%	10	13.70%	28	22%
		Professor	8	14.30%	17	23.30%	22	18%
Total			56	100%	73	100%	129	100%



**Figure 4.5:** Senior staff academic level in the public and private colleges

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.5 report percentages of the study sample in relation to their academic level. In general, the public colleges tended to have senior leaders who were at the two higher academic levels of professor and associate professor with public colleges having 10% more professors (public, 46.4%; private, 37%). However, when broken down, the private colleges employed approximately 10% more professors, which reflects the private colleges' employment of older, more experienced academics who may have retired from the public system. At the same time, the private colleges employed 10% more academics at the two lower levels of lecturer and senior lecturer (public, 53.6%; private 63%) but the break down suggests the private colleges had twice as many senior lectures as lecturers. In addition, the fact that public colleges employed only 30% lecturers (10% more than the private colleges), when compared with the fact that they had 10% less professors than the private colleges suggests that they would be saving salary costs compared with the private colleges. However, as noted, more than half of the senior leaders in each group of colleges had the least experience (lecturer plus senior lecturer positions; public, 54%; private, 63%).

#### 4.3.5 Current position

Table 4.4: Senior staffs' current positions in the public and private colleges

No	Variable		Public colleges		Private colleges		Summation	
			<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
4	Current position	Head of Department	36	64.30%	63	86.30%	99	76.70%
		Associate Dean	17	30.30%	8	11%	25	19.30%
		Dean	3	5.40%	2	2.70%	5	4%
Total			56	100%	73	100%	129	100%

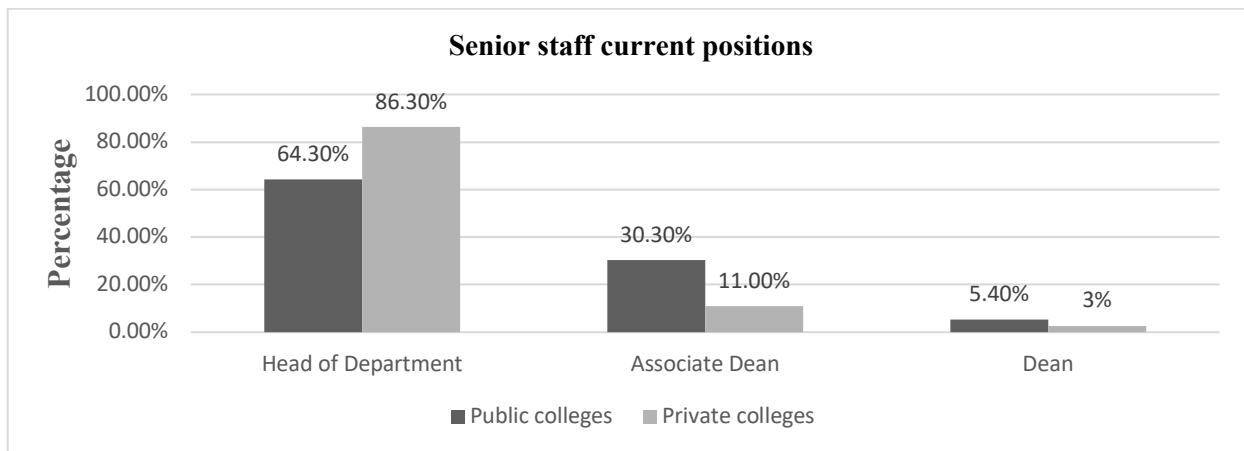


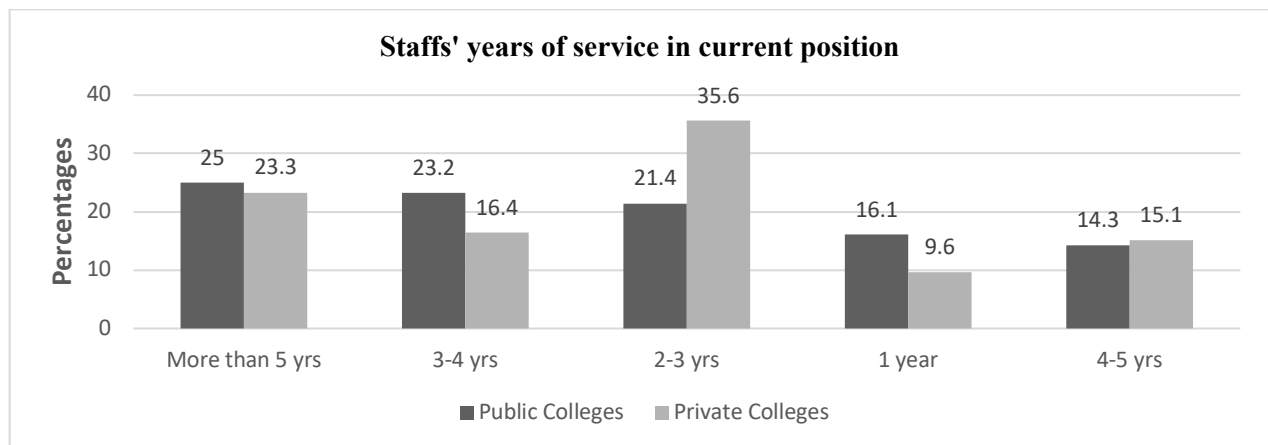
Figure 4.6: Senior staffs' current positions in the public and private colleges

Table 4.4. and Figure 4.6 show percentages of the study sample in relation to their current positions. The graph shows fewer deans, as would be expected according to the typical college structure, as well as more associate deans and a predominance of heads of departments. However, in terms of the structuring of work, these data show that the public colleges included a larger proportion of associate deans by 19% (public colleges, 30.30%; private colleges, 11%), whereas the private colleges showed a substantially larger proportion (22%) of heads of departments. Thus, it appears that there was a contrast in the structuring of the work giving heads of department possibly more responsibility in the private colleges.

#### 4.3.6 The service years in the current position

**Table 4.5:** Senior staff's years of service in their current position

No	Variable		Public colleges		Private colleges		Summation	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
5	Years of service in this position	2-3 years	12	21.40%	26	35.60%	38	29.50%
		More than 5 years	14	25%	17	23.30%	31	24%
		3-4 years	13	23.20%	12	16.40%	25	19.40%
		4-5 Years	8	14.30%	11	15.10%	19	14.70%
		1 year	9	16.10%	7	9.60%	16	12.40%
Total			56	100%	73	100%	129	100%



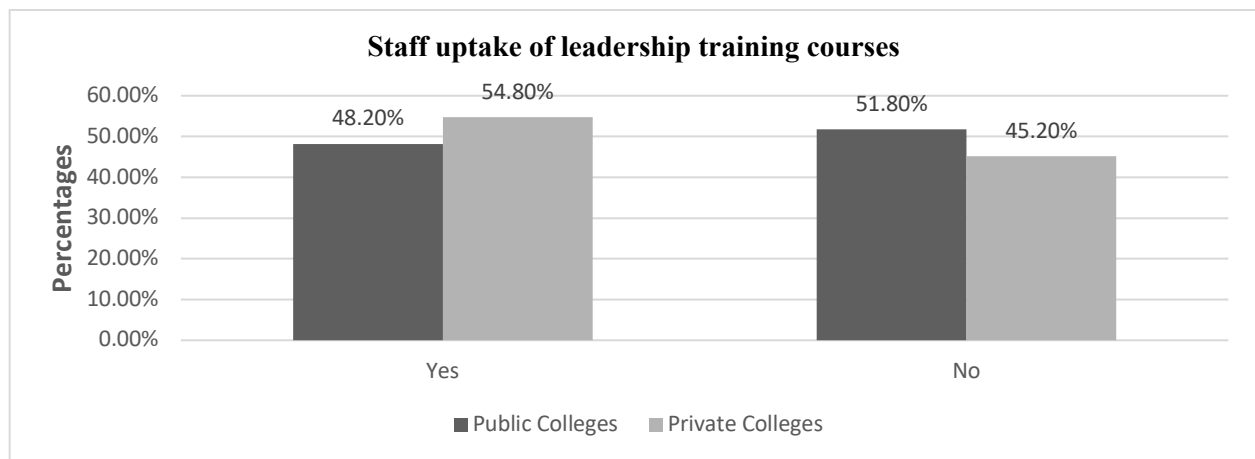
**Figure 4.7:** Service years in this position in the public and private colleges

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.7 report percentages of the study sample in relation to the service years in their current position. The graph shows that while there were generally equivalent proportions of senior staff who had been employed in the two categories of 5 years or more and 4 years or more (totalling almost 40% in each college type), the greater difference was in the private colleges, having almost 10% more staff being employed for the shorter times (public colleges, 37.5; private colleges, 46.2). Thus, this suggests these private college senior staff may have relatively less leadership experience.

#### 4.3.7 Uptake of leadership training courses

**Table 4.6:** Staff's up take of leadership training courses in the public and private colleges

No	Variable		Public colleges		Private colleges		Summation	
			<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1	Leadership training courses	Yes	27	48.20%	40	54.80%	67	52%
		No	29	51.80%	33	45.20%	62	48%
Total			56	100%	73	100%	129	100%



**Figure 4.8:** Staff's up take of leadership training courses in the public and private colleges

Table 4.6 and Figure 4.8 show the percentage of the study sample's uptake of leadership training courses. The graph shows similar results for both college types as only 4.6% of private college senior leaders had taken up leadership training. However, this also indicates that approximately 52% of public college leaders and 45% of private college leaders had not had any access to leadership training, therefore indicating a potential concern for the approaches to leadership in both college types.

#### 4.4 Results of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire MLQ– Senior staff’s views on leadership styles present in their colleges

This section uses descriptive statistics to calculate the frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation (SD), and Coefficient of Variance (CV), as shown in Appendix H. The MLQ was used for participants to rate their performance as a leader at work (as presented in Part B of the survey). In measuring the leadership styles underpinning transformational and transactional leaders, each major leadership style involves a rating of items that pertain to five subscales and four subscales respectively, totalling 36 items. Each subscale is represented by an acronym as follows: Transformational leadership styles: IIA, IIB, IC, IM, and IS; and Transactional leadership styles: MBEA, MBEP, CR, and LF.

**Table 4.7:** Overview of the MLQ subscales

Transformational leadership styles	Transactional leadership styles
Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA-4Q)	Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA-4Q)
Idealized Influence Behaviour (IIB-4Q)	Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP-4Q)
Individualized Consideration (IC-4Q)	Contingent Rewards (CR-4Q)
Inspirational Motivation (IM-4Q)	Laissez-faire (LF-4Q)
Intellectual Stimulation (IS-4Q)	

The range of scores for the MLQ are 1 for *Not at all*, 2 for *Occasionally*, 3 for *Sometimes*, 4 for *Fairly often*, and 5 for *Frequently*.

##### 4.4.1 Transformation leadership style

Transformational leadership is a positive leadership style that is practised by inspirational leaders who deal with their followers as leaders through improving their abilities and skills across professional training, continuous support, orientation and guidance, and raising their morale (Antonakis & Day, 2017; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2013; Noruzy, Dalfard, Azhdari, Nazari-Shirkouhi, & Rezazadeh, 2013). Therefore, in part B of the survey, the participants in the public

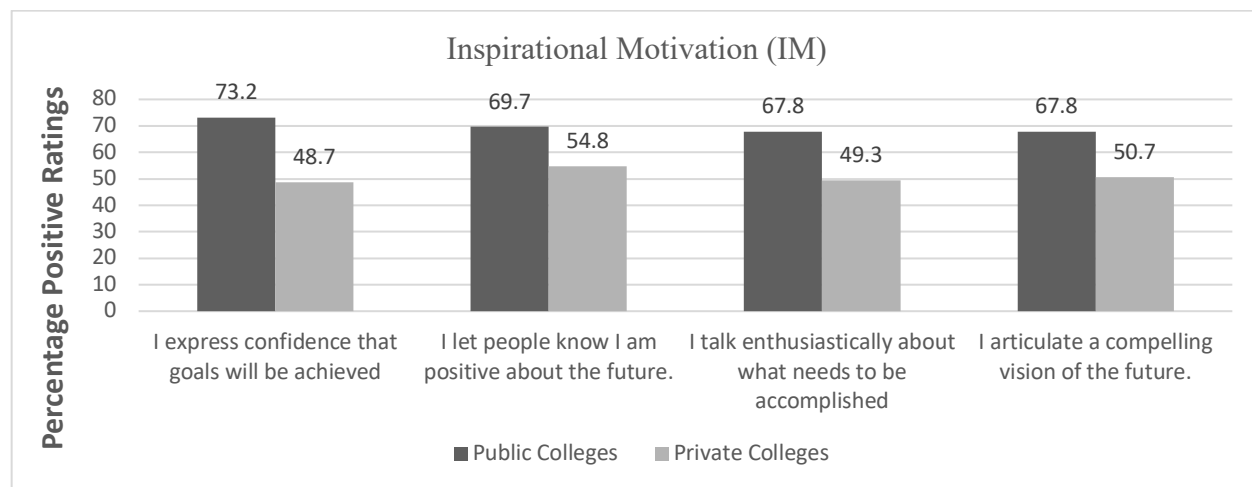


and private colleges were asked to rate the items that best represented their leadership style. This part of the survey included nine subscales of leadership style. Each subscale had four statements that represented the leadership style involved. In this section the findings of participants' ratings on the MFLQ are reported.

Descriptive statistics were calculated, and mean scores were compared. The results of analyses of the five subscales of Individualized Consideration (IC-4Q), Inspirational Motivation (IM-3Q), Idealised Influence Attributed (IIA-4Q), Idealised Influence Behaviour (IIB-4Q), and Intellectual Stimulation (IS-4) are reported below.

#### 4.4.1.1 Inspirational Motivation IM

The leaders in this subscale can behave by using methods that motivate their followers through providing meanings and challenges around their work, either individually or as a team (Allen, Grigsby, & Peters, 2015; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Also, the leader encourages followers to imagine a shiny future by talking enthusiastic and optimistically about the future and what needs to be accomplished (Qu, Janssen, & Shi, 2015). In addition, the leaders can express confidence that the goals will be achieved in the end (Kim & Yoon, 2015).



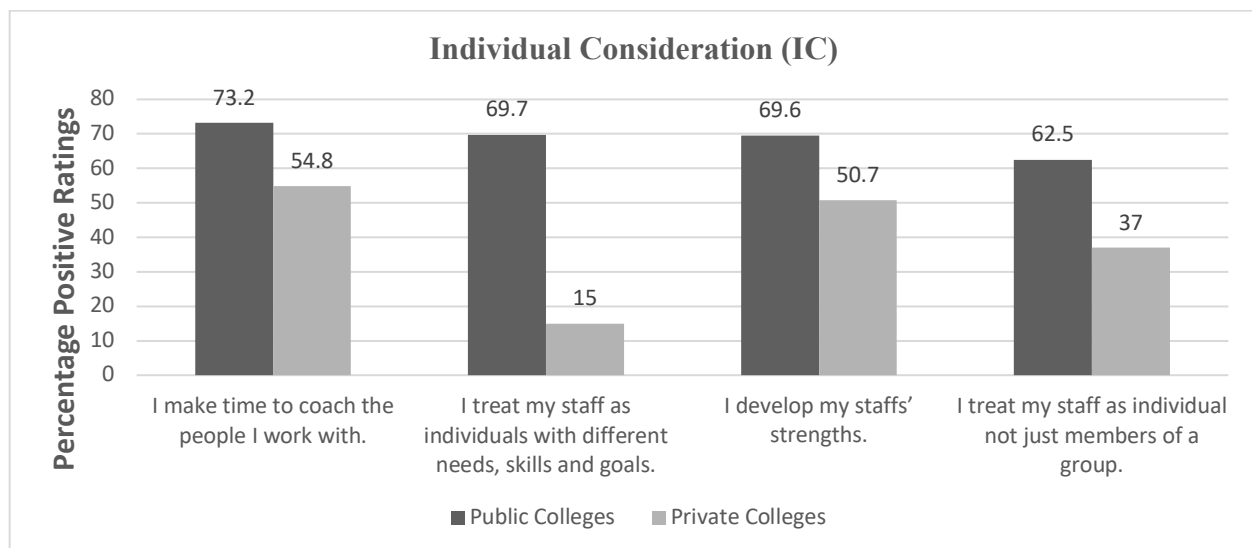
**Figure 4.9:** Inspirational Motivation (IM) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.9 reports on the college leaders' views in relation to the Inspirational Motivation (IM)

subscale. This graph shows participants' responses were highest in relation to *expressing confidence that goals would be achieved* in their workplaces for both college types (public, 73.20%; private, 54.80%). However, leaders' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher, by approximately 20%. Similarly, public college leaders were more positive in relation to *letting people know they were positive about the future* (public, 69.70%; private, 50.70% a). With regards to the two groups' responses to their *articulation of a compelling vision of the future* and *talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished*, their responses were consistent with the public college leaders being substantially more positive (public, 69.70%; private, 50.70% and 67.80%; private, 49.30%, respectively).

#### 4.4.1.2 Individual Consideration IC

The leaders in this subscale can be trainers or mentors who push attention to everyone's need for achievement and growth through teaching and training (Li, Mitchell, & Boyle, 2016). Also, the leaders consider everyone individually as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others, and they can then help the followers to develop their abilities and skills to achieve work in appropriate ways (Sosik & Jung, 2018).

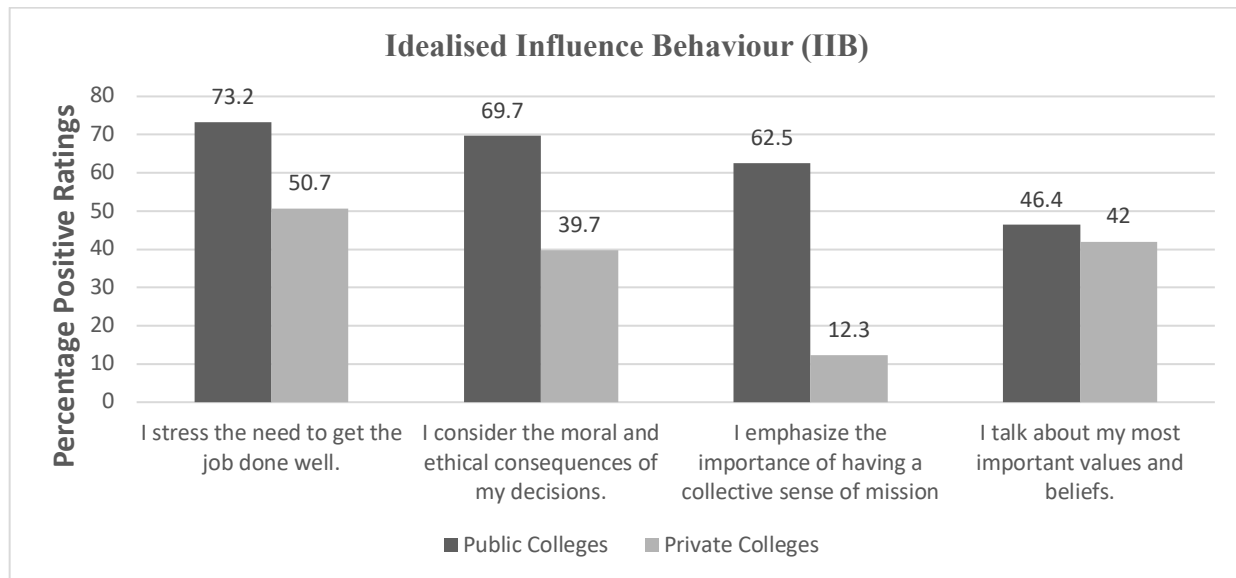


#### **Figure 4.10: Individual Consideration (IC) in the public and private colleges**

Figure 4.10 shows the leaders from both colleges' percentage positive ratings for the MFLQ Individual Consideration (IC) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. Almost three quarters of public college leaders were rated positively that they *made time to coach the people they worked with* (73.20%) compared with just over half of private college leaders (54.80%). While approximately 70% of public college leaders rated positively that they *treat their staff as individuals with different needs, skills and goals* and they *develop their staffs' strengths* (69.7%; 69.6%), the private college leaders were much less positive, particularly in relation to *treating their staff as individuals with different needs, skills and goals* (50.7%; 15%). In relation to *treating their staff as individuals not just members of a group*, public college leaders showed a reasonably higher positivity at 62.50%, compared with private college leaders being only 37% positive.

##### **4.4.1.3 Idealised Influence Behaviour IIB**

The leaders in this subscale are admired, respected, and trusted (Schaufeli, 2015). So, according to these characteristics, the followers try to imitate their leaders. While the leaders talk about the most important values and beliefs, they also share risks with followers according to the ethics, principles, and values common between the leaders and their followers (Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016).



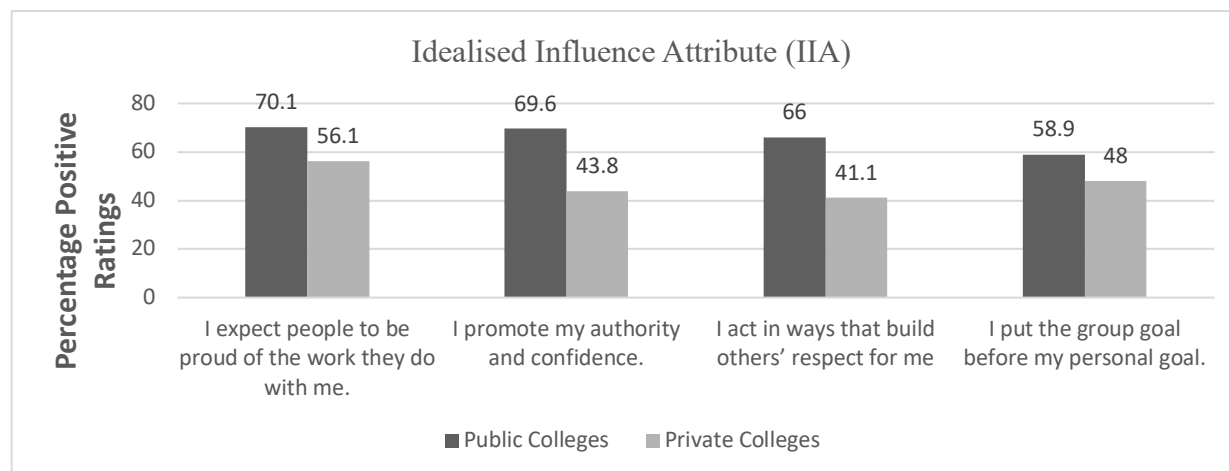
**Figure 4.11:** Idealised Influence Behaviour (IIB) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.11 reports the college leaders' views in relation to the Idealised Influence Behaviour (IIB) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were much more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. Almost three quarters of public college leaders were rated positively in that they *stress the need to get the job done well* (73.20%) compared with just half of private college leaders (50.70%). Approximately 66% of public college leaders rated positively that they *consider the moral and ethical consequences of their decisions*, and they *emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission* (69.70%; 62.50%), whereas the private college leaders were much less positive (39.70%; 12.70%). In relation to, *they talk about my most important values and beliefs*, the public and private college leaders were shown to be less positive (at 46.40%; 42%).

#### 4.4.1.4 Idealised Influence Attribute IIA

The leaders in this subscale try to instil respect and trust with their followers (Ng, 2017). Also, the leaders show to their followers how to abandon self-interest for the good of the group (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2016). In addition, the leaders display a sense of power and confidence to their

followers to build respectable relationships between them (Carasco-Saul, Kim, & Kim, 2015).



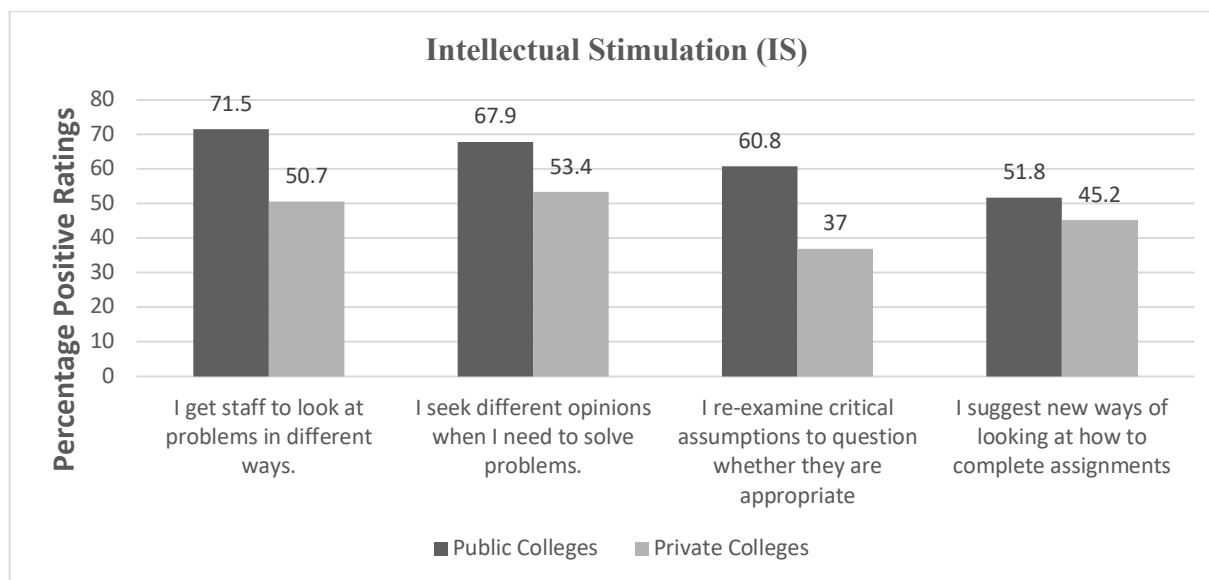
**Figure 4.12:** Idealised Influence Attribute (IIA) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.12 shows the college leaders' views in relation to the Idealised Influence Attribute (IIA) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were strongly more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. Almost three quarters of public college leaders were rated positively in that they *expect people to be proud of the work they do with them* (73.20%) compared with just over half of private college leaders (56.10%). Approximately 68% of public college leaders rated positively that they *promote their authority and confidence*, and they *act in ways that build others' respect for their* (69.70%; 62.50%), whereas the private college leaders were less positive (43.80%; 41.10%). In relation to *they put the group goal before their personal goal*, public college leaders showed a reasonably higher positivity at 58.90% compared with private college leaders who were only 48% positive.

#### 4.4.1.5 Intellectual Stimulation IS

Leaders stimulate their followers' effort to be innovative and creative through providing new methods to solve the problems and situations that face them (Holten & Brenner, 2015). Leaders also lead their followers to re-examine critical assumptions by urging them to question whether

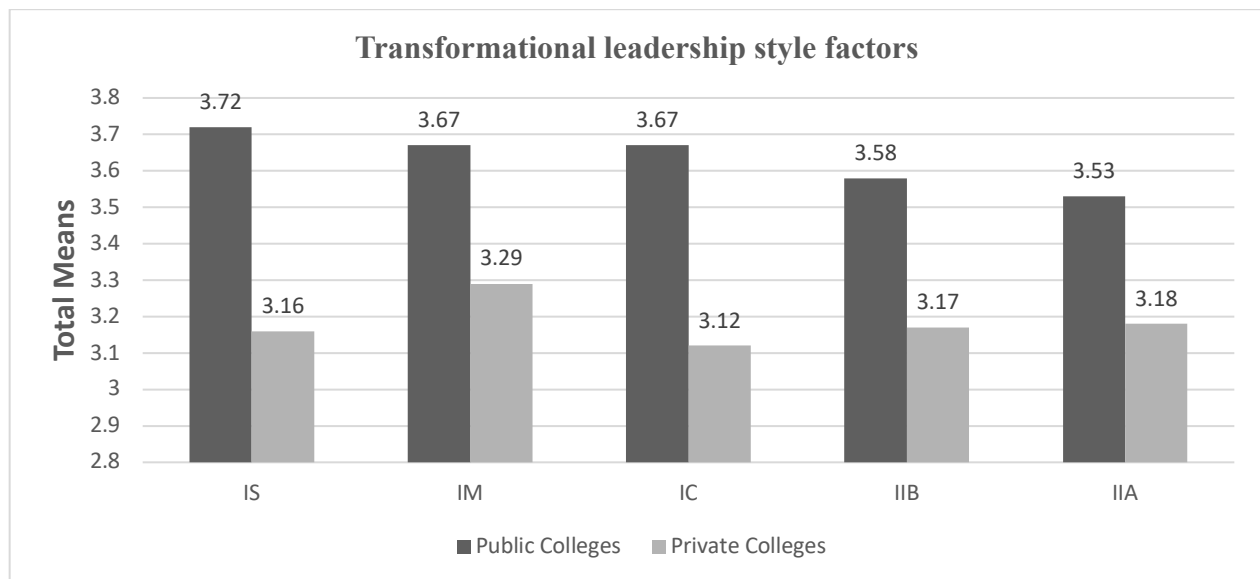
they were appropriate or not. Furthermore, they look at problems from many different angles to find the best solution for them (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003).



**Figure 4.13:** Intellectual Stimulation (IS) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.13 reports on the college leaders' views in relation to the Intellectual Stimulation (IS) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. Almost 70% of public college leaders were rated positively that they *get staff to look at problems in different ways*, and they *seek different opinions when they need to solve problems* (71.50%; 67.90%) compared with just half of private college leaders (50.70%; 53.40%). While 60.80% of public college leaders rated positively that they *re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate*, the private college leaders were much less positive (37%). In relation to *they suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments*, the public college leaders showed a reasonably higher positivity at 51.80% compared with private college leaders being only 45.20% positive.

#### 4.4.1.6 Total mean of the transformational leadership style subscales



**Figure 4.14:** Total means for individual scores of the transformational leadership style factors

Figure 4.14 compares the percentiles for individual scores-based total of all rating mean in relation to the Transformational Leadership Style Factors (IS, IM, IC, IIB, and IIA) subscales. This graph reports that the highest total mean was in relation to IS in the public colleges (3.72%) compared with the private colleges (3.16%). Similarly, the public college leaders were more positive in relation to IM and IC (public, 3.67%; private, 3.12-3.29 %). Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders in relation to IIB (3.58%). With regards to the two groups' responses in relation to IIA, they were consistent in showing the public college leaders being substantially more positive (public, 3.53%; private, 3.18%).

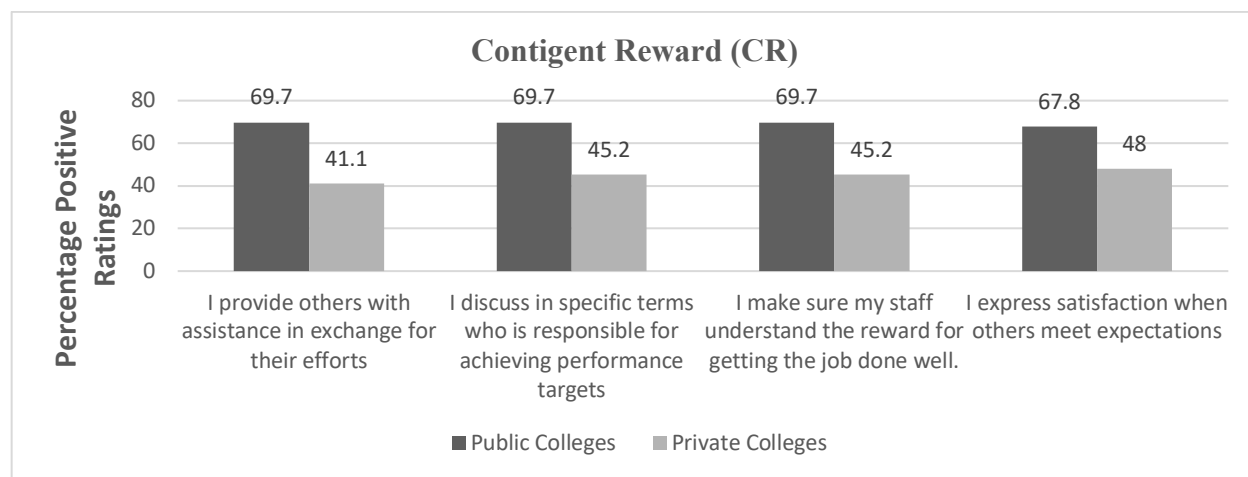
#### 4.4.2 Transactional leadership style

Transactional leadership is a reciprocal process that happens between the leaders and their followers on the basis of common interests and benefits between them, through either reward or punishment in case the mission is not successfully achieved (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Pieterse, Van

Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010). Thus, the study sample's pointed percentage positive ratings of using the behaviours within each of the four subscales associated with transactional leadership styles are reported and compared between the public and private colleges. The four subscales are: Contingent Rewards (CR-4Q), Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA-4Q), Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP-4Q), and Laisses-faire (LF-4Q).

#### 4.4.2.1 Contingent Rewards (CR)

Leaders, according to this subscale, clarify expectations and display assessments where the objectives and goals are achieved through providing others with assistance in exchange for their efforts, and they discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets and then express satisfaction when others meet expectations (Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Harms & Credé, 2010; Voon, Lo, Ngui, & Ayob, 2011) .



**Figure 4.15:** Contingent Rewards (CR) in the public and private colleges

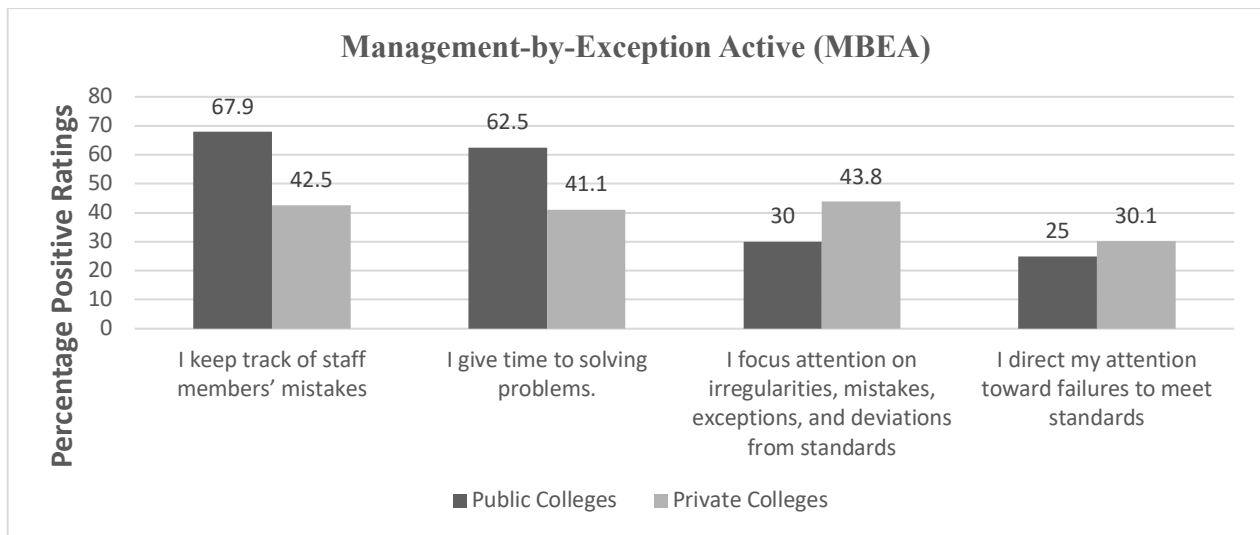
Figure 4.15 shows the leaders from both colleges percentage had positive ratings for the MFLQ Contingent Rewards (CR) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. Almost 70% of public college leaders were rated and showed higher positivity in that they *provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts*, *discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving*



*performance targets, make sure my staff understand the reward for getting the job done well, and express satisfaction when others meet expectations (69.70%; 67.80%). By contrast, only approximately less than half of private college leaders were positive (41.10%; 45.20%; 48%).*

#### 4.4.2.2 Management-by-Exception Active MBEA

Leaders determine the standards that distinguish effective and ineffective performance, which then may lead to punishing followers for not meeting those standards (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Jogulu & Wood, 2008). This model of leadership shows a close monitoring for deviations and errors and then taking corrective action to meet the standards.



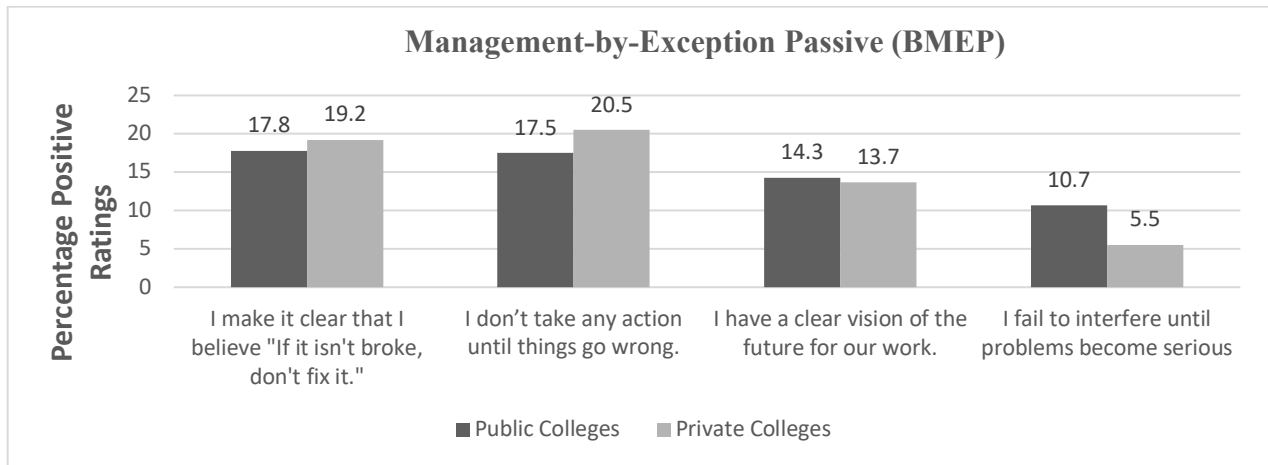
**Figure 4.16:** Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.16 reports college leaders' views in relation to the Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA) subscale. This graph shows that there were large differences between participants' responses in relation to *they keep track of staff members' mistakes* and *give time to solving problems* which was the highest in the public colleges (67.90%; 62.50%) compared with just less than half amongst private college leaders (42.50%; 41.10%). On the other hand, the public college leaders were much less negative, particularly in relation to *they focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards* and *direct their attention toward failures to meet standards* (30%; 25%). The private college leaders were more negative than the public

college leaders (43.80%; 30.10%). Overall, the public college leaders were more than positive and less negative than the private colleges' leaders.

#### 4.4.2.3 Management-by-Exception Passive MBEP

Leaders according to this style are more passive and reactive (Asghar & Oino, 2018). They do not respond to situations and problems systematically. Also, passive leaders avoid agreements and provide goals and standards to be achieved for their followers without previous understanding (Breevaart et al., 2014). This style has a negative effect on desired outcomes (McCleskey, 2014). It is similar to a laissez-faire style. Hence, both types of behaviour have negative impacts on followers and associates (Avolio & Bass, 1995). Accordingly, both styles can be grouped together as passive-avoidant leadership.

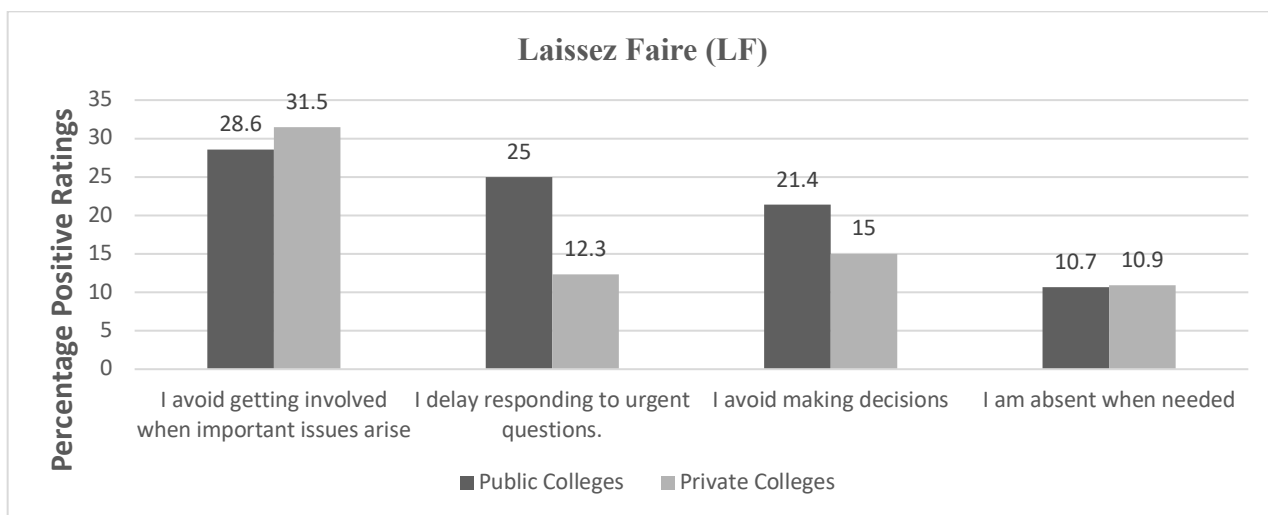


**Figure 4.17:** Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.17 shows the college leaders' views in relation to the Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP) subscale. This graph reports few differences between participants' responses in relation to *they don't take any action until things go wrong* and *make it clear that they believe "If it isn't broke, don't fix it"*, which was rated more negatively in the private colleges (19.20%; 20.50%) compared with the public college leaders (17.80%; 17.50 %). Similarly, the public and private college leaders were more positive in relation to *they have a clear vision of the future for their*

work, which means that approximately 80% of the public and private college leaders had a positive vision about the future (public, 14.30%; private, 13.70% a), and their responses were consistent. In regards to the two groups' responses to *they fail to interfere until problems become serious*, the private college leaders were more positive (private, 5.50 %; public, 10.70%, respectively). This demonstrates that almost 90-95% of the public and private college leaders interfered before problems became serious.

#### 4.4.2.4 Laissez Faire LF

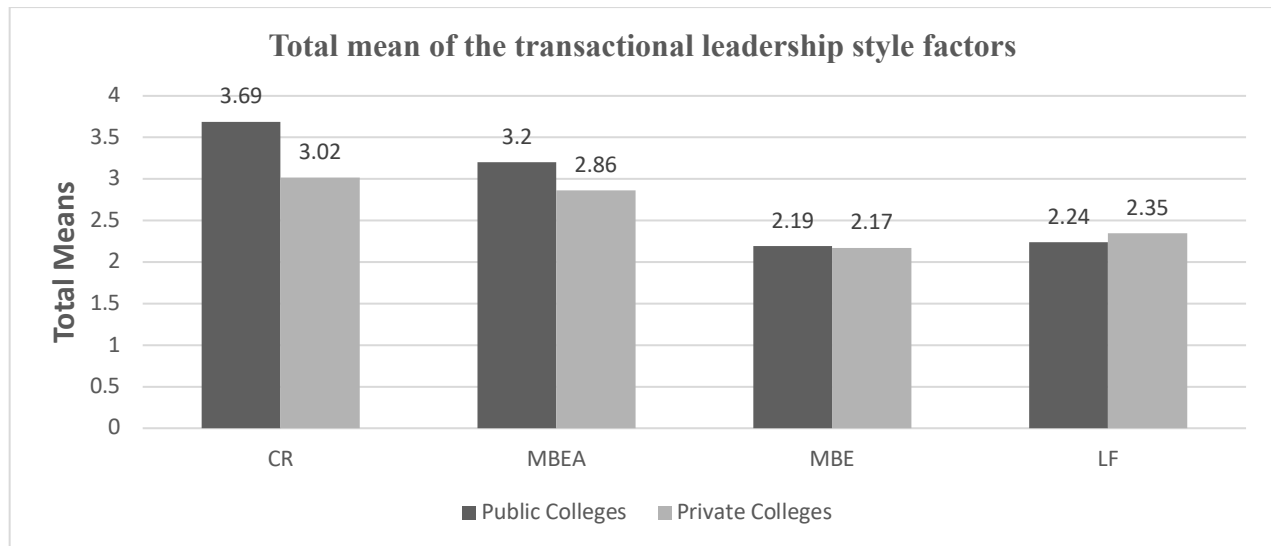


**Figure 4.18:** Laissez Faire (LF) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.18 reports on the leaders from both colleges' percentage of positive ratings for the MFLQ Laissez Faire (LF) subscale. This figure shows that there were little differences between participants' responses in relation to *they avoid getting involved when important issues arise*, which was seen as more negative in the private colleges (31.50%) compared with the public college leaders (28.60%). However, leaders' ratings in the public colleges were higher in relation to *they delay responding to urgent questions* (25%) compared with the private college leaders (12.30%). With regard to *they avoid making decisions*, members of the public college leaders showed reasonably high positivity at 21.40% but private college leaders were only 15% positive. Similarly, the public and private college leaders were more positive in relation to *they are absent when*

needed, which means that approximately 90% of the public and private college leaders *have attended when needed* (public, 10.70%; private, 10.90%), and their responses were consistent.

#### 4.4.2.5 Total mean of the transactional leadership style subscales



**Figure 4.19:** Total means for individual scores of the transactional leadership style subscales

Figure 4.19 compares the percentiles for the individual scores-based total of all rating means in relation to the transactional leadership style subscales (CR, MBEA, MBEP, and LF). This graph shows the highest total mean was in relation to CR in the public colleges (3.69%) compared with the private colleges (3.16%). Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders in relation to MBEA (3.58%). Yet, the public and private college leaders were more similar in relation to MBEP (public, 2.19%; private, 2.17 %). The two groups' responses in relation to LF were higher in the private colleges than in the public colleges (private, 2.35%; public, 2.24%).

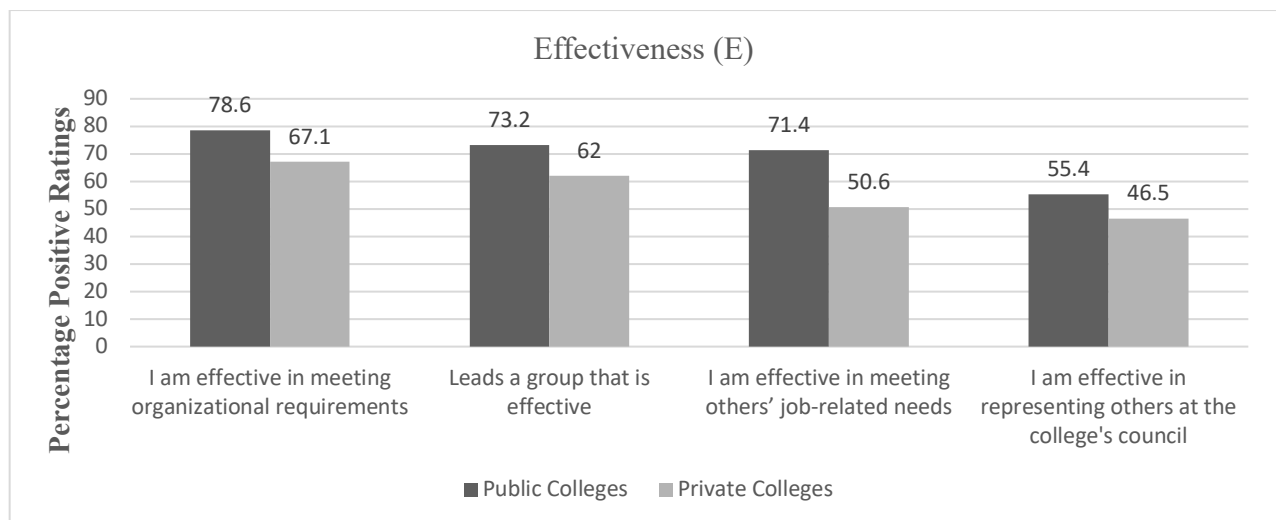
#### 4.4.3 Outcomes of leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership can lead to companies achieving organisational success (Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, Windt, & Alkema, 2014). The organisational success is

standard with the multifactor leadership questionnaire MLQ, by measuring how the raters can recognise their leaders to be motivating, how effective raters understand their leaders to be at interacting at different levels of the organisation, and how satisfied raters can deal with their leaders' methods of working (Bass et al., 2003; Schyns. B, 2013). The study sample demonstrated percentage positive ratings of the use of behaviours within each of the three subscales associated with the outcomes of leadership, which are reported and compared between the public and private colleges. The three subscales are Effectiveness (E-4Q), Extra Efforts (EE-3Q), and Satisfaction (S-2Q).

#### 4.4.3.1 Effectiveness E

Effectiveness is an organisation's ability to achieve its objectives and goals according to troubled environmental changes; therefore, the effectiveness of an organisation is measured as a standard for its success in producing goods and services or both (Colbert, Barrick, & Bradleb, 2014; Mason, Teodora, & Kathleen, 2013).



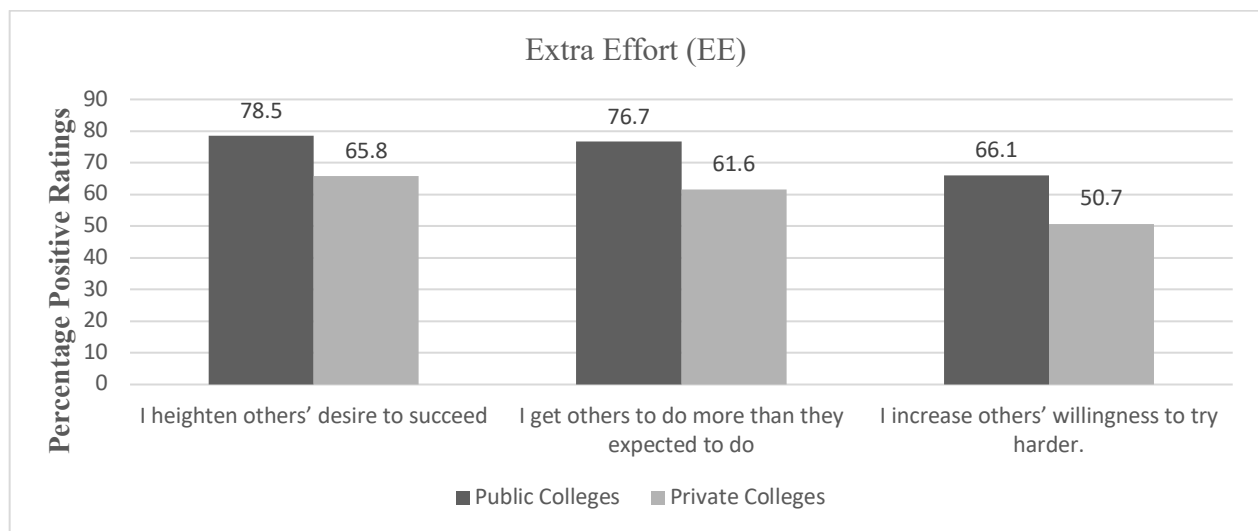
**Figure 4.20:** The Effectiveness (E) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.20 shows the leaders from both colleges' percentage positive ratings for the MLQ, in particular the Effectiveness (E) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. Almost 80%

of the public college leaders were rated positively that *they are effective in meeting organizational requirements* (78.60%) compared with the private college leaders (67.10%). Similarly, the public college leaders were more similar in relation to *they lead a group that is effective*, and *they are effective in meeting others' job-related needs* (73.20%, 71.40%) compared with the private college leaders (62%, 50.60%). In relation to *they are effective in representing others at the college's council*, the public college leaders showed reasonably higher positivity at 55.40% compared with private college leaders being only 46.50% positive.

#### 4.4.3.2 Extra Effort EE

Extra efforts show an unexpected result that measured followers' achievement through their leaders who always encourage and motivate them to increasing their performance according to their abilities, skills, and desired behaviours (Appelbaum, Degbe, MacDonald, & Quang, 2015).



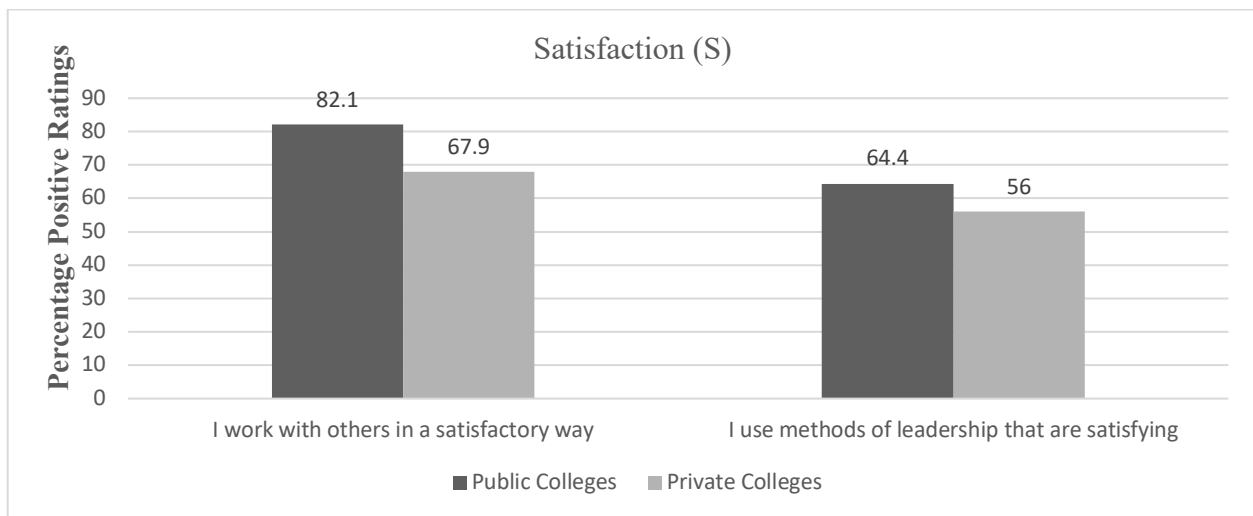
**Figure 4.21:** The Extra Effort (EE) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.21 demonstrates the college leaders' views in relation to the Extra Effort (EE) subscale. This graph shows participants' responses were highest in relation to *they heighten others' desire to succeed* (public, 78.50%; private, 65.80%). However, leaders' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher by approximately 14%. In relation to *they get others to do more than they expected to do*, again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and

more consistently so than the private college leaders (public, 76.70%; private, 61.60%). With regards to the two groups' responses to their *increasing others' willingness to try harder what needs to be accomplished*, this was consistent with the public college leaders being substantially more positive (public, 66.10%; private, 50.70%).

#### 4.4.3.3 Satisfaction S

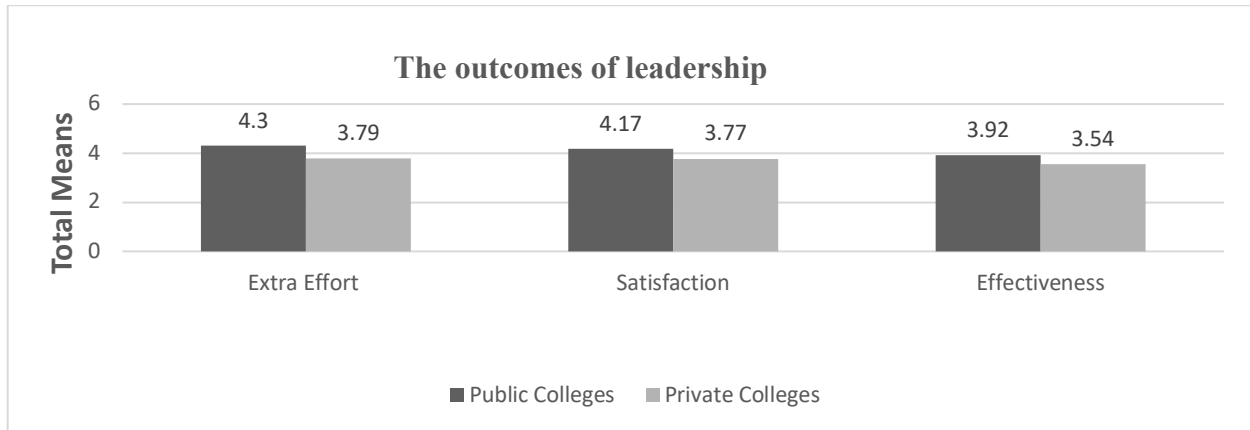
Satisfaction is the psychological state that employees feel toward their work, which is positively reflected in their performance, trust, and loyalty and hence their belonging to their organisation through their satisfaction about their material and moral needs (desires and expectations) (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Saleem, 2015). Satisfaction must lead to a sense of happiness and, conversely, can lead to a lack of desire the work.



**Figure 4.22:** The Satisfaction (S) in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.22 shows the leaders from both colleges' percentage positive ratings for the Satisfaction (S) subscale. Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders. More than 80% of the public college leaders were rated positively in that *they work with others in a satisfactory way* (82.10%) compared with the private college leaders (67.90%). Similarly, public college leaders were more positive in relation to using methods of leadership that are satisfying (public, 64.40%; private, 56%).

#### 4.4.3.4 Total mean of the outcomes of leadership



**Figure 4.23:** Total means for individual scores of the outcomes of leadership in the public and private colleges

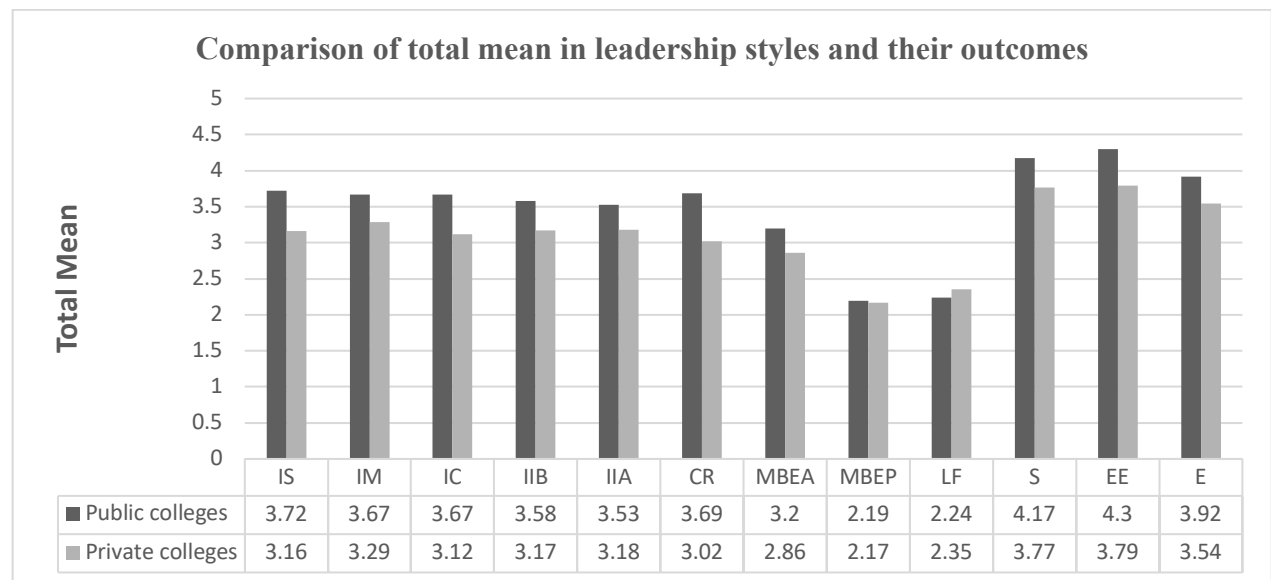
Figure 4.23 compares the percentiles for an individual scores-based total of all rating means in relation to the outcomes of leadership (EE, S, and E) subscales. This graph shows the highest total mean was in relation to the Extra Effort (EE) in the public colleges (4.30%) compared with that of the private colleges (3.79%). Again, the public college leaders overall were substantially more positive and more consistently so than the private college leaders in relation to Satisfaction (S) (3.58%). With regard to the Effectiveness (E), the public college leaders were more positive than the private college ones (public, 3.92%; private, 3.54%).



#### 4.4.4 The total mean of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) style subscales

**Table 4.8:** Percentiles of total mean of all rating levels for public and private colleges

Item	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Scores).											
	Total Mean of Transformational Styles					Total Mean of Transactional Styles				Total Mean of Outcomes		
Public colleges	IS	IM	IC	IIB	IIA	CR	MBEA	MBEP	LF	S	EE	E
	3.72	3.67	3.67	3.58	3.53	3.69	3.2	2.19	2.24	4.17	4.3	3.92
Private colleges	3.16	3.29	3.12	3.17	3.18	3.02	2.86	2.17	2.35	3.77	3.79	3.54



**Figure 4.24:** Total Mean of (MLQ) Style Subscales in the public and private colleges

Overall, Table 4.8 and figure 4.24 compare the percentiles for an individual scores-based total of all rating means in relation to the transformational, transactional and the outcomes of leadership styles. With regards to transformational leadership styles, this graph shows the highest total means in relation to (IS, IM, IC, IIB, and IIA) were (3.72%, 3.67%, 3.58%, and 3.53%) respectively in the public colleges, compared with the private colleges (3.16%, 3.29%, 3.12%, 3.17%, 3.18%).

Again, with regards to transactional leadership styles, the public college leaders overall were rated higher so than the private college leaders in relation to CR, MBEA, and MBEP were respectively (public, 3.69%, 3.20%, and 2.19%; private, 3.02%, 2.86%, and 2.17). However, the mean in relation to (LF) was higher in the private colleges than in the public ones (private, 2.35%; public, 2.24%). With regards to the outcomes of leadership styles in relation to (S, EE, and E) the public colleges were more positive than the private colleges respectively (public, 4.17%, 4.30%, and 3.92%; private, 3.77%, 3.79, and 3.54).

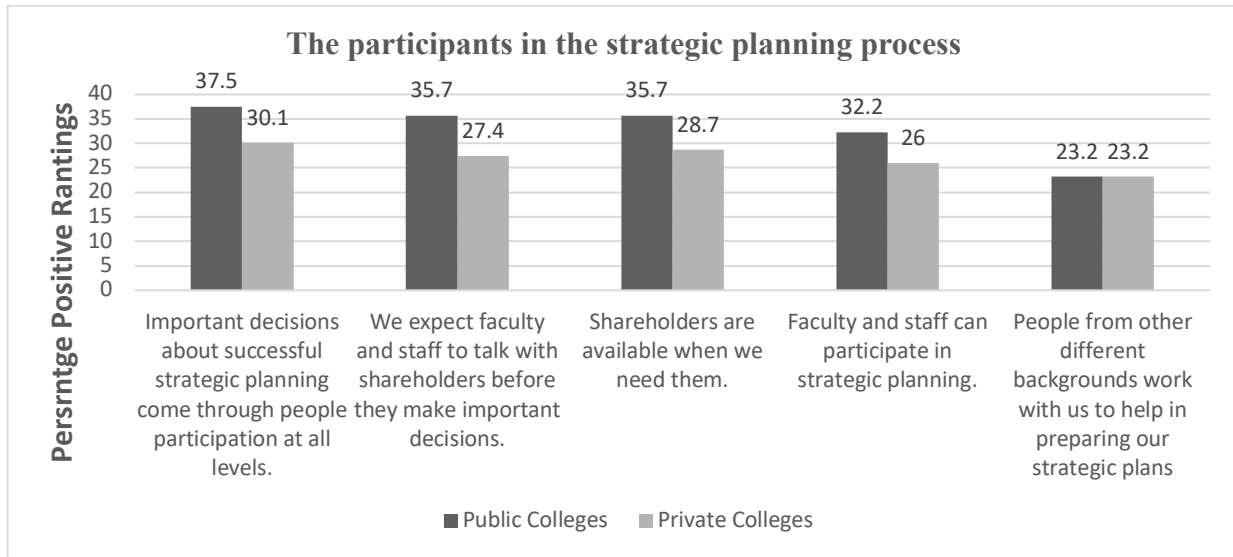
## **4.5 The strategic planning process in the public and private Iraqi colleges**

The strategic planning process is a systematic process that seeks to imagine a future through translating it into goals and objectives based on a series of steps, particularly the time needed and appropriate means to implement them, and then achieving the best results based on the use of available resources (Bryson, 2018; Poister, 2005).

Therefore, this section uses descriptive statistics to calculate the frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation (SD), and Coefficient of Variance (CV) as displayed in Tables 4.9 and 4.10. The Strategic Planning Process (SPP) was used to rate the participant's performance as a planner at work, which was presented in Part C of the survey. The questionnaire consisted of 15 items and was arranged into three subscales, which means that each subscale had five items. In addition, four subscales were individual. The range scores of the SPP were 1 Not at all like this, 2 Almost never like this, 3 Sometimes like this, 4 Often like this, and 5 Almost like this.

### **4.5.1 The participants in the strategic planning process**

The participants in the strategic planning process are the first step in the SPP through determining who are the important people to be involved in this process (Wolf & Floyd, 2017). Experience, knowledge, and specialisation enable the top management to take decisions about who should be involved in the SPP (De Baerdemaeker & Bruggeman, 2015), for example, management committee, staff, stakeholders, funding bodies, experts, and volunteers.

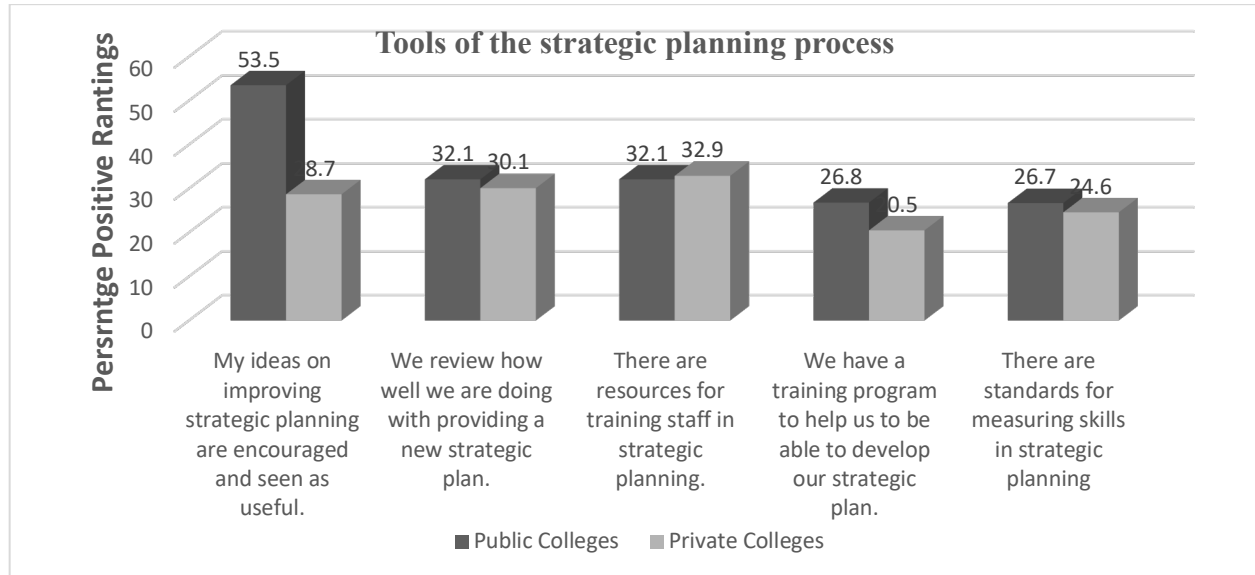


**Figure 4.25:** The participants in the strategic planning process in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.25 shows the college planners' views in relation to the Participants in the Strategic Planning Process subscale. This graph shows that participants' responses were highest in relation to *important decisions about successful strategic planning come through people participation at all levels* in their workplaces for both group types (public, 37.50%; private, 30.10%). However, planners' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher. On the other hand, the public and private college planners were similar and negative in relation to *they expect faculty and staff to talk with shareholders before they make important decisions* and *Shareholders are available when they need them* in the strategic planning process (public, 35.70%; private, 28.40% and 28.70%). Again, the public college planners overall were more positive (32.20%) compared with the private colleges (26%) in relation to *faculty and staff can participate in strategic planning*. The two groups' responses were the same (23.20%) in relation to *People from other different backgrounds work with them to help in preparing our strategic plans*. Overall, this illustrates that the role of the participants in the strategic planning process for both group types are negative (approximately 65-75%) according to the survey results.

#### 4.5.2 Tools of the strategic planning process

Tools of strategic planning are means and methods that should promote and improve the process of developing the strategy, direction, and action plan to achieve the objectives and goals of an organisation, through learning and training processes, to stay the course and continue with the organisation in its troubled environment (Poister, 2010; Vaara & Lamberg, 2016).



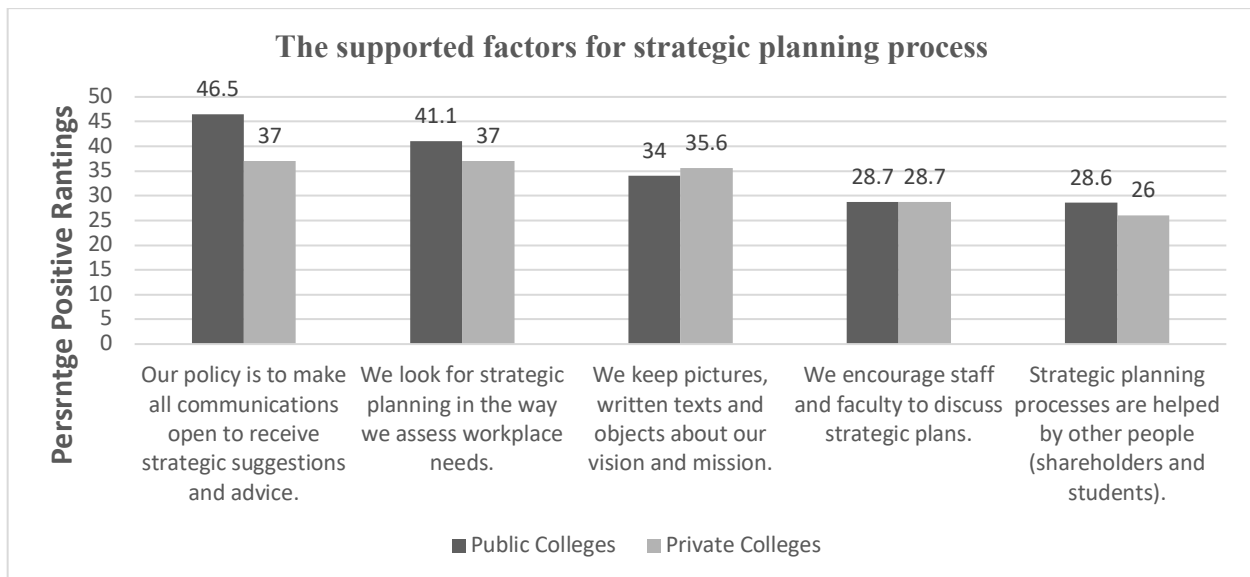
**Figure 4.26:** Tools of the strategic planning process in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.26 reports the college planners' views in relation to Tools of the Strategic Planning Process subscale. This graph shows participants' responses were highest in relation to their *ideas on improving strategic planning are encouraged and seen as useful* in their workplaces for both college types (public, 53.50%; private, 28.70%). However, planners' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher by approximately 25%. In contrast, the public and private college planners were similarly negative in relation to *they review how well we are doing with providing a new strategic plan* and *There are resources for training staff in strategic planning* (public, 32.10%; private, 30.10% and 32.90%). Again, with regards to *they have a training program to help us to be able to develop our strategic plan* and *there are standards for measuring skills in strategic planning*, the two groups' responses were also similar and more negative (public, 26.70%

and 26.80%; private, 20.50% and 24.60% respectively). This demonstrates that tools of the strategic planning process in two groups were weak because approximately 70% of the planners' responses were negative.

#### 4.5.3 The supported factors for strategic planning process

There are five crucial factors that will ensure strategic planning processes are successfully implemented: engagement, communication, innovation, project management, and organisational culture (George, 2010). Engagement at all levels of the organisation can ensure success of SPP. For example, opening Communications enables employees to create ideas and new methods that can lead to the innovation process through producing new goods or/and services.

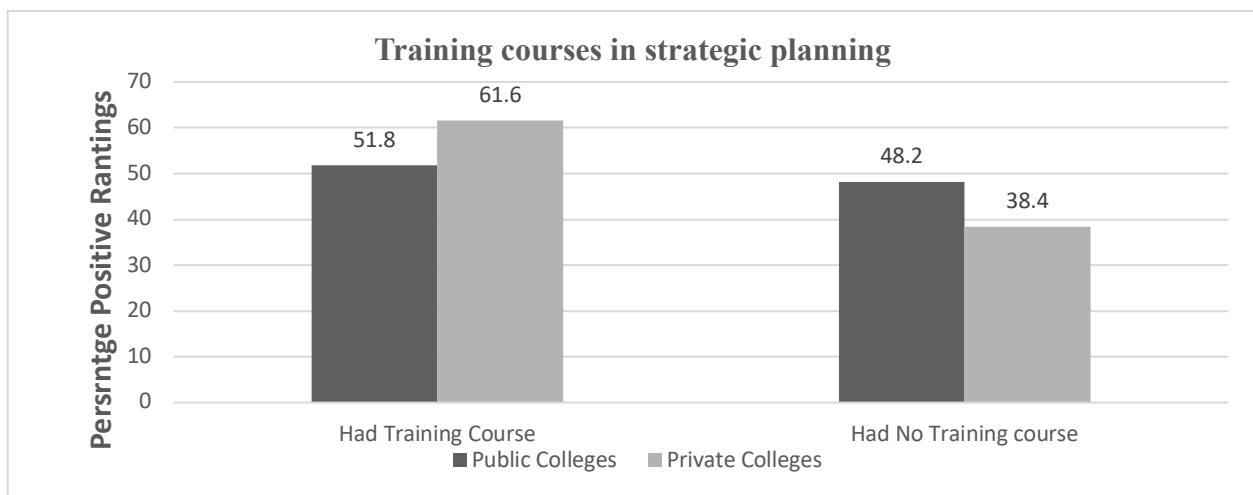


**Figure 4.27:** The supported factors for strategic planning process in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.27 reports the college planners' views in relation to the Participants in the Strategic Planning Process subscale. This graph illustrates participants' responses were highest in relation to *their policy is to make all communications open to receive strategic suggestions and advice* in their workplaces for both group types (public, 46.50%; private, 37%). However, planners' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher. Again, the public college planners overall were more positive (41.10%) compared with the private colleges (37%) in relation to *they look for*

*strategic planning in the way we assess workplace needs*. In contrast, in relation to *they keep pictures, written texts and objects about our vision and mission* positivity was lower in the public colleges than in the private colleges (public, 34%; private, 35.60%). The two groups' responses were the same (28.70%) in relation to *they encourage staff and faculty to discuss strategic plans*. In relation to *the strategic planning processes are helped by other people (shareholders and students)*, the positive response was higher in the public than in the private colleges (public, 28.60%; private, 26%). Overall, this demonstrates that the supported factors for the strategic planning process for both group types was still negative (approximately 55-70%) according to the survey results.

#### 4.5.4 The strategic planning process training courses



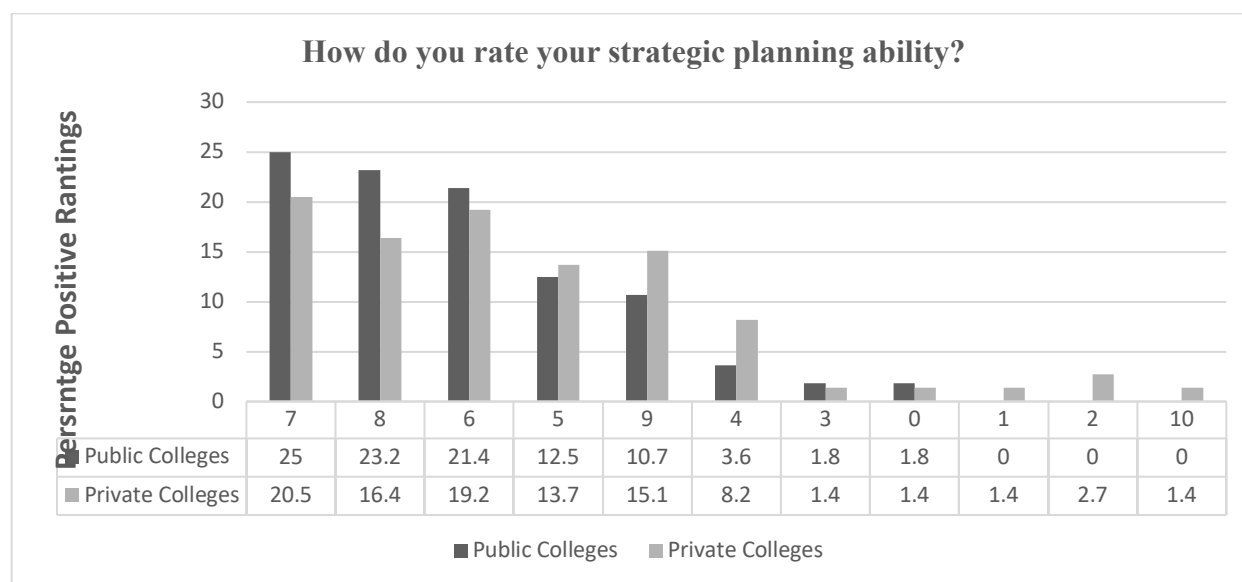
**Figure 4.28:** The strategic planning process training courses in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.28 shows percentages of the study sample in relation to the Strategic Planning Process Training Courses. This graph reports that the percentage of participants who had a course in SPP training was higher in the private colleges (61.60%) compared with more than half of the public college planners (51.80%). In contrast, the percentage of participants who had no course in SPP training was higher in the public colleges (48.20%) compared with the private college planners (38.40%). This demonstrates that the percentage of the participants who have no courses in SPP

training was approximately less than 50% in both group types, and this percentage may lead to big problem in leading their SPP, according to the study results.

#### 4.5.4 Rating of strategic planning ability.

On a scale of 0 to 10 where 0 means ‘no knowledge at all’ and 10 means ‘highly expert’ how do you rate your strategic planning ability?



**Figure 4.29:** Rating of strategic planning ability in the public and private colleges

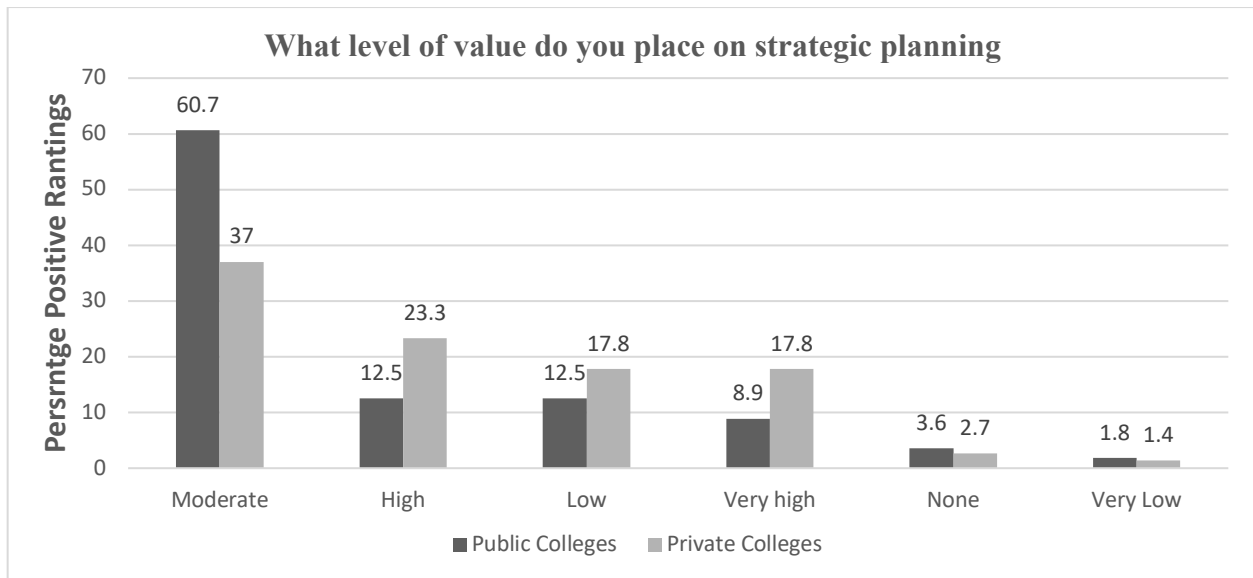
Figure 4.29 reports percentages of the study sample in relation to Rating of Strategic Planning Ability. This graph shows the percentage of participants who have knowledge abilities at 7 in SPP, which was higher in the public colleges (25%) compared with the private colleges (20.50%). Similarly, the participants who had knowledge abilities at 8 in SPP was also higher in the public colleges (public, 23.20%; private, 16.40%). Again, the participants in public colleges who had knowledge abilities at 6 was higher than in the private colleges (public, 21.40%; private, 19.20%). However, the participants in the private colleges at 5 was higher than in the public colleges (public, 12.50%; private, 13.70%). Similarly, the participants in the private colleges at 9 was also higher than in the public colleges (public, 10.70%; private, 15.10%). Again, the participants in the private

colleges at 4 was higher than in the public colleges (public, 3.60%; private, 8.20%). As for 3 and 0, they were similar and higher in the public colleges (public, 1.80%; private, 1.40%). With regards to 1, 2, and 10, they were only rated in the private colleges (1.40% and 2.70%). In short, this demonstrates that the participants in the public colleges may have better knowledge abilities in SPP than those in the private colleges, according to the study results.

#### 4.5.5 Value of strategic planning process.

Regardless of your responses above, what level of value do you place on strategic planning.

- a. Very high. b. High. 3. Moderate. c. Low. d. Very Low. e. None.



**Figure 4.30:** Value of strategic planning process in the public and private colleges.

Figure 4.30 shows percentages of the study sample in relation to Value of Strategic Planning Process. This graph shows percentages of the participants who value the strategic planning process at their colleges, which was at moderate level and higher in the public colleges (60.70%) compared with the private colleges (37%). However, the participants in the private colleges at levels (low, high, and very high) were higher than in the public colleges (17.80% and 23.30%). In relation to

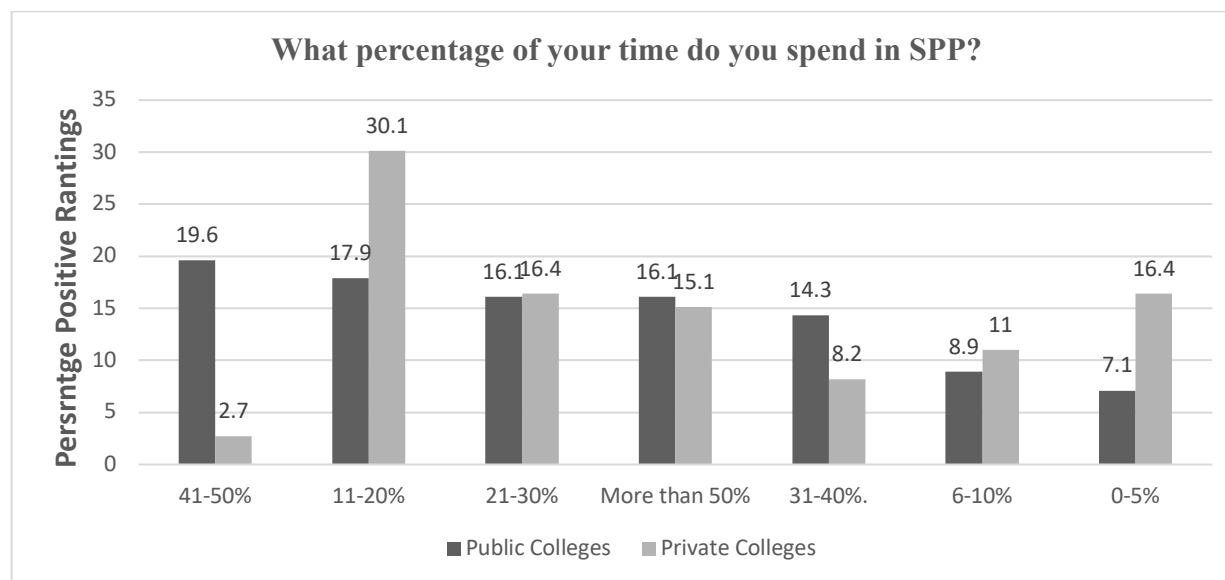


levels (none and very low) those in the public colleges were higher (1.80% and 3.60%). This demonstrates that the participants in the college types at the levels (moderate, high, and very high) were interested in the value of SPP at a rate of approximately 80% according to the study results.

#### 4.5.6 Spending time in the strategic planning process

What percentage of your time do you spend in the strategic planning process?

a. 0-5%. b. 6-10%. c. 11-20%. d. 21-30%. e. 31-40%. f. 41-50%. g. More than 50%.



**Figure 4.31:** The spending time in the strategic planning process in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.31 reports percentages of the study sample in relation to Spending Time in the Strategic Planning Process. This graph illustrates percentages of the participants who spend time in the strategic planning process at their colleges, which was at level 41-50% and higher in the public colleges (19.60%) compared with the private colleges (2.70%). However, the participants in the private colleges at level 11-20% were higher than the public colleges (public, 17.90%; private, 30.10%). By contrast, the participants for both group types at level 21-30% were similar (public, 16.10%; private, 16.40%). Again, the participants for both group types at levels more than 50% were similar (public, 16.10%; private, 15.10%). In relation to level 31-40%, it was higher in the public colleges than in the private colleges (public, 14.30%; private, 8.20%). Yet, the participants

in the private colleges at levels 6-10% and 0-5% were higher than those in the public colleges (public, 8.90% and 7.10%; private, 11% and 16.40%). This means that the participants in the public colleges spent more time in the strategic planning process at their colleges than in the private colleges, according to the study results.

#### **4.6 The balanced scorecard presented in the public and private Iraqi colleges**

The Balanced Scorecard is an operational and monitoring tool for the organization's strategy that uses a multidimensional framework to evaluate an organisation's performance in all its departments and units (Hladchenko, 2015; Jensen, 2001; Malagueño, Lopez-Valeiras, & Gomez-Conde, 2018). In other words, it is an administrative tool that provides a comprehensive measure of how the organisation is progressing towards its strategic objectives and goals.

Thus, this section uses descriptive statistics to calculate the frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation (SD), and Coefficient of Variance (CV), as displayed in Appendix H, and the range scores of the BSC are: 1 Strongly Disagree, 2 Disagree, 3 Unsure, 4 Agree, and 5 Strongly Agree. The Balanced Scorecard (BSC) was used to rate the participant performance at work which was presented in Part D of the survey. The questionnaire consisted of 42 items and it was arranged into four subscales, which meant that each subscale had eight to thirteen items. These subscales had acronyms that helped the participants to follow-up throughout the study, which were: Customer-Society perspective (CS-8Q), Learning-Growth perspective (LG-13Q), Internal Processes perspective (IP-8Q), and Financial perspective (F-13Q).

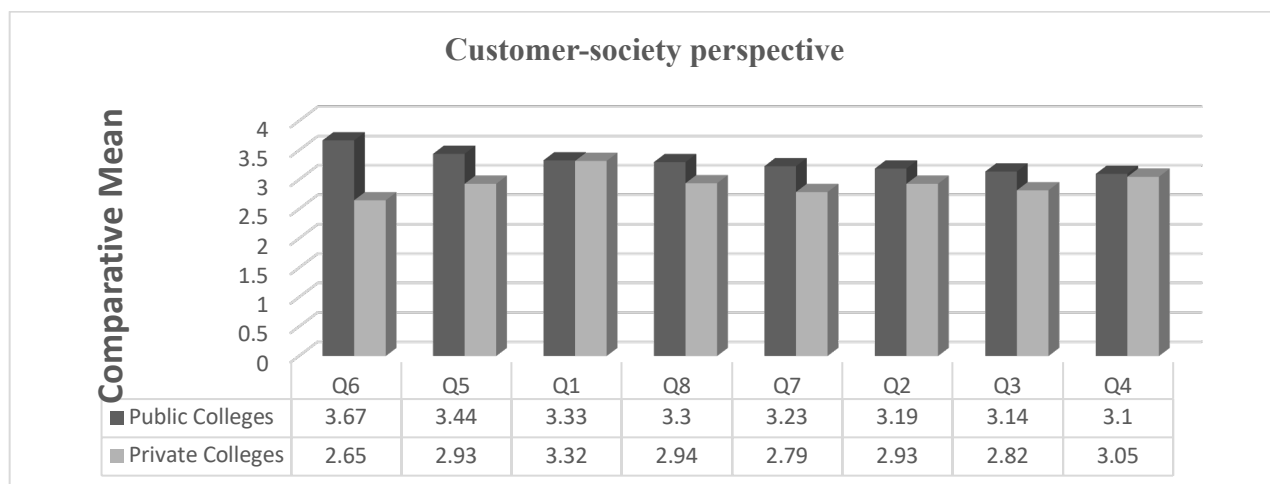
##### **4.6.1 The Customer - Society perspective CS**

Customer satisfaction is number one for every organisation. It can lead to success or failure of a business (Tayler, 2010). It is very important to work on improvements in order to make the customers more loyal (Akkermans & Van Oorschot, 2018; Wu & Chang, 2012). If the organisation does not care about customers' satisfaction, it cannot expect them to care about its services or products (Wu, 2012). So, the sooner the organisation faces this, the better it will perform. Hence,

Table 4.9 compares performance results between the public and private colleges in relation to Customer-society perspective, as expressed in the mean.

**Table 4.9:** Comparative mean for the balanced scorecard BSC between the public and private colleges (Customer-Society perspective).

No		1- Customer-Society perspective	Mean PUCs	Mean PRCs
1	Q6	Does the college have reliable data on satisfaction levels of students and staff at other leading universities?	3.67	2.65
2	Q5	Does the college evaluate and take into account performance indicators such as success rates, drop out level, awards etc.)?	3.44	2.93
3	Q1	Does the college have a vision of who its students are?	3.33	3.32
5	Q8	Does the college get involved in social initiatives and assess societal needs?	3.30	2.94
6	Q7	Is this information used to establish reference values and to set more and more ambitious objectives?	3.23	2.79
4	Q2	Does the college interact with the students, gathering information on their current and future expectations and needs?	3.19	2.93
7	Q3	Are there efficient communication processes for the students, the staff and other members of the organisation?	3.14	2.82
8	Q4	Does the college take their complaints, suggestions and opinions into account?	3.10	3.05



**Figure 4.32:** The Customer Society perspective (CS) in the public and private colleges.

Table 4.8 and Figure 4.32 show percentages of the study sample in relation to the Customer Society perspective (CS) subscale. This graph shows that participants' responses in the public colleges were highest in relation to Q6 and Q5 (public, 3.67% and 3.44%; private, 2.65% and 2.93% respectively). Again, performance of the public colleges overall was the same and more positive in relation to Q1 and Q8 (3.33%) compared with the private colleges (3.32% and 2.94%). Similarly, the public college participants were more similar and more positive in relation to Q7, Q2, and Q3 (public, 3.23%, 3.19% and 3.14% respectively) compared with the private colleges (private, 2.79%, 2.93%, and 2.82%). In relation to Q4, performance of the public colleges was slightly more positive than the performance of the private colleges (public, 3.10%, private, 3.05%). This means that performance of the public colleges in relation to the Customer Society perspective was more positive and more consistently so than the private colleges, according to the study results.

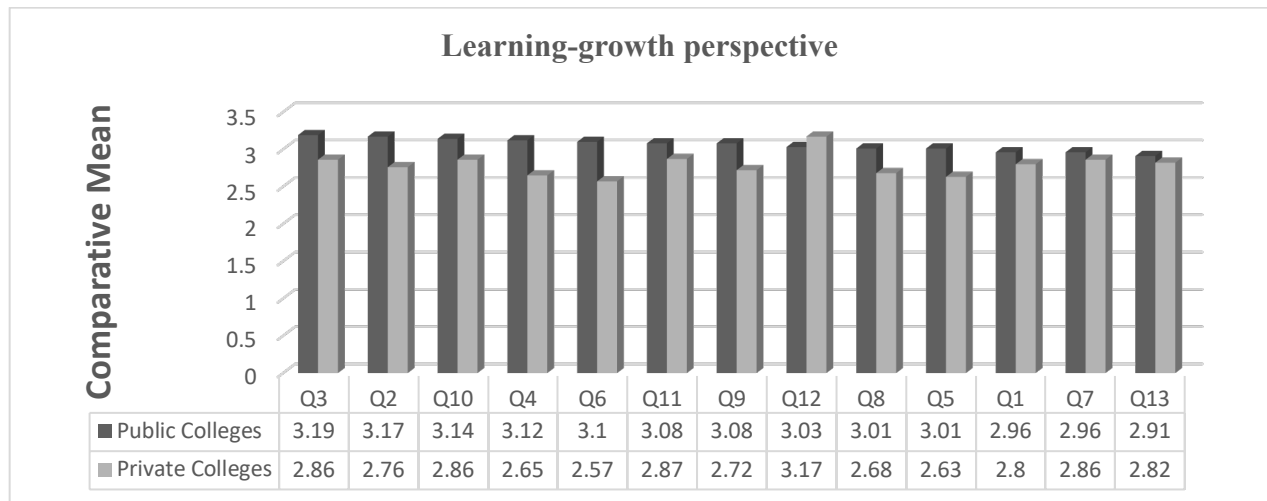
#### 4.6.2 The Learning-Growth perspective LG

The learning-growth perspective means sustaining the organisation in the face of its internal and external challenges and then learning from previous situations (Kairu, Wafula, Okaka, Odera, & Akerele, 2013). The LG process aims to satisfy customer's needs, improve business processes, and achieve financial goals through focusing on the continuing improvements in each business (Massingham, Massingham, & Dumay, 2018). Thus, Table 4.10 compares results of the

performance between the public and private colleges in relation to the Learning-growth perspective, as expressed by the mean.

**Table 4.10:** Comparative mean for the balanced scorecard BSC between the public and private colleges (Learning-Growth perspective).

No		2- Learning-Growth perspective	Mean PUCs	Mean PRCs
1	Q3	Are the needs and capacities of the staff identified through job specifications or a manual of work responsibilities?	3.19	2.86
2	Q2	Does this plan respect staff and ensure equal opportunities?	3.17	2.76
3	Q10	Does the college run regular process assessment programs such as internal or external audits, self-assessments etc.?	3.14	2.86
4	Q4	Are general, specific, individual or collective training plans drawn up and implemented?	3.12	2.65
5	Q6	Does the college take faculty and staff opinions into account?	3.10	2.57
6	Q11	Is the data collected from such exercises used to establish continual improvement plans and objectives?	3.08	2.87
7	Q9	Does the college ensure the effectiveness of its communication channels and their use as a media for sharing best practices and knowledge?	3.08	2.72
8	Q12	LG8- Is information relative to current and future tendencies (of a general and specific nature) systematically collected?	3.03	3.17
9	Q8	Does the college have and continually improve advanced communication tools (virtual secretary, meetings, surveys etc.) that facilitate the exchange of information with students, staff and the college community in general?	3.01	2.68
10	Q5	Does the college ensure that all faculty and staff participate in the development of different policies, strategies and activities?	3.01	2.63
11	Q1	Does the college have an HR management plan?	2.96	2.80
12	Q7	Is the participation, initiative and ideas of the members of the college valued and rewarded?	2.96	2.86
13	Q13	Is this information used as a basis for a SWOT analysis to determine improvement actions that can be taken?	2.91	2.82



**Figure 4.33:** The Learning-Growth perspective (LG) in the public and private colleges

Table 4.10 and Figure 4.33 show percentages of the study sample in relation to the Learning-Growth perspective (LG) subscale. This graph shows participants' responses were highest and more similar and positive in the performance of the public colleges in relation to Q3, Q2, Q10, and Q4 (public, 3.19%, 3.17%, 3.14%, and 3.12%) compared with the performance of the private colleges (private, 2.86%, 2.76%, 2.86%, and 2.65%). However, participants' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher by approximately 0.40-0.55%. Similarly, participants' ratings of the public colleges were substantially more similar and positive than of the private colleges, in relation to Q6, Q11, and Q9 (public, 3.10 and 3.08%; private, 2.57%, 2.87, and 2.72%). On the other hand, performance of the private colleges was rated more positive than the public colleges in relation to Q12 (private, 3.17%; public, 3.03%). However, performance of the public colleges was more positive and the same in relation to Q5-8 and Q1-7 (3.01 and 2.96%) compared with the performance of the private colleges (2.68%, 2.63%, 2.80%, and 2.86%). Again, in relation to Q13 there was also a more positive rating in the public colleges than in the private colleges (public, 2.91%; private, 2.82%). This illustrates that performance of the public colleges in relation to the Learning-Growth perspective was substantially more positive and more consistently so than in the private colleges, according to the study results.

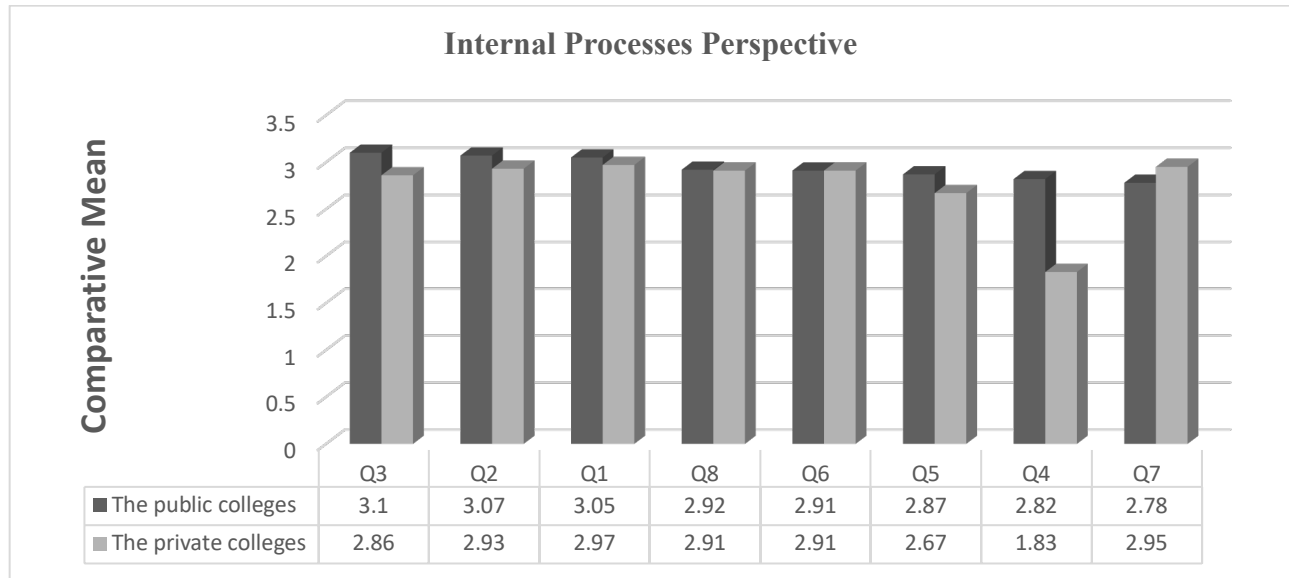
#### 4.6.3 Internal Processes perspective IP

Internal processes are related to organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Mehralian, Nazari, Nooriparto, & Rasekh, 2017). This perspective focusses on factors of time, effort, and cost (Huang, Lai, & Lin, 2011). For example, time is a crucial factor in producing the organisation's goods or delivering a service. Also, time is very important in creating a new product and bring it to market as soon as possible and in a faster way (Kshatriya, Dharmadhikari, Srivastava, & Basak, 2017). Thus, Table 4.11 compares results of the performance between the public and private colleges in relation to the Internal Processes Perspective, as expressed by the Mean.



**Table 4.11:** Comparative mean for the balanced scorecard BSC between the public and private colleges (Internal Processes Perspective).

No		3- Internal Processes perspective	Mean PUCs	Mean PRCs
1	Q3	Is there a systematic process of identification and prioritisation of opportunities for immediate or continual improvement based on the measurement and results of operational performance and information on learning processes?	3.10	2.86
2	Q2	Demanded by the students and society?	3.07	2.93
3	Q1	Is creativity and innovation applied to the development of new educational services	3.05	2.97
4	Q8	Are there tools such as information points, bulletins or service guides that offer the college community information on new processes?	2.92	2.91
5	Q6	Are there efficient attention and communication processes directed at students, staff and members of the college community?	2.91	2.91
6	Q5	Do these systems identify process errors and facilitate improvement actions?	2.87	2.67
7	Q4	Is there an operational system of process management, regular self-assessments etc. in accordance with ISO or similar standards?	2.82	1.83
8	Q7	Does the college participate in informative sessions related to its study plans, services etc. with the objective of informing future and even current students?	2.78	2.95



**Figure 4.34:** The Internal Processes perspective (IP) in the public and private colleges

Table 4.11 and Figure 4.34 show percentages of the study sample in relation to the Internal Processes Perspective (IP) subscale. This graph shows that participants' responses were highest and more similar and positive in relation to Q3, Q2, and Q1 respectively in the public colleges (3.10%, 3.07%, and 3.05%) compared with the private colleges (2.86%, 2.93% and 2.97%). Again, performance of the public colleges was more similar and positive than the private colleges in relation to Q8, Q6, and Q5 (public, 2.92%, 2.91%, and 2.87%; private, 2.91% and 2.67%). Similarly, performance of the public colleges was substantially higher than the private colleges in relation to Q4 (public, 2.82%; private, 1.83%). However, performance of the private colleges was slightly positive in relation to Q7 (2.95%) compared with the public colleges (2.78%). Again, this demonstrates that performance of the public colleges in relation to the Internal Processes perspective was substantially more positive than that of the private colleges, according to the study results.

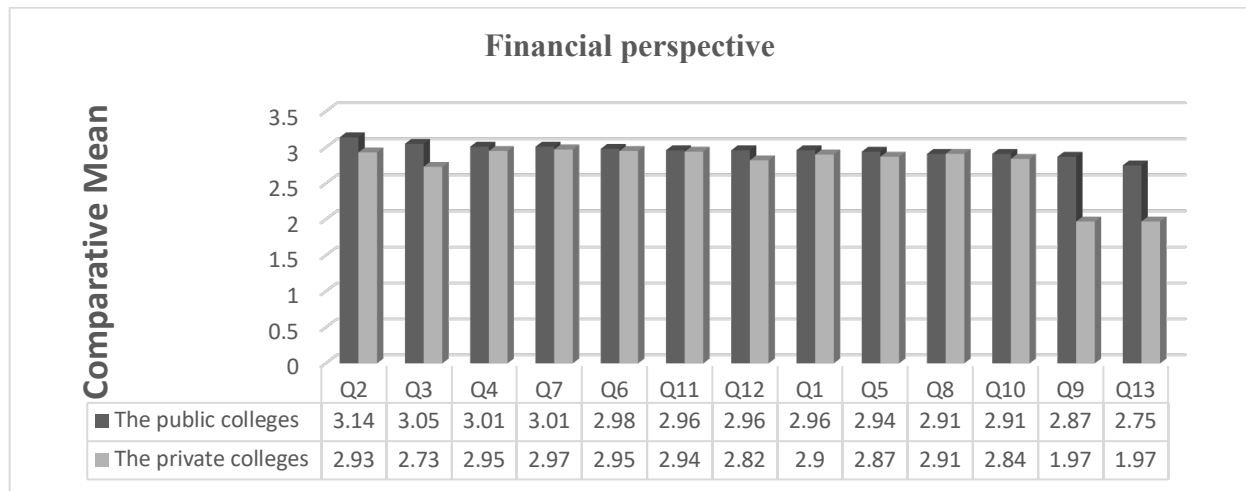
#### 4.6.4 The Financial perspective FP

The financial perspective is on the top of the Balanced Scorecard strategy map, which is acceptable by for-profit organisations because they focus on shareholder interests through achieving financial

objectives, while non-profit organisations tend to put it down below because they focus on stakeholder interests through achieving social and cultural objectives (Dinçer, Yüksel, & Martínez, 2019; Hu, Leopold-Wildburger, & Strohhecker, 2017). Therefore, the Table 4.12 compares results of the performance between the public and private colleges in relation to the financial perspective, as expressed by the mean.

**Table 4.12:** Comparative mean for the balanced scorecard BSC between the public colleges (Financial perspective).

No		4- Financial perspective	Mean PUCs	Mean PRCs
1	Q2	Is it regularly reviewed?	3.14	2.93
2	Q3	Is there evidence of a clear correlation between policy, strategy and the budgetary program?	3.05	2.73
3	Q4	Does the centre define an investment plan in accordance with its policy?	3.01	2.95
4	Q7	I let staff know that I think we will achieve our goals.	3.01	2.97
5	Q6	I talk positively about what we must do at work.	2.98	2.95
6	Q11	Does the college have an inventory management system?	2.96	2.94
7	Q12	Are resources correctly managed? Does consumption minimise waste and encourage the use of renewable resources?	2.96	2.82
8	Q1	Has the college developed and implemented an economic-financial strategy that is aligned with policy and strategy?	2.96	2.90
9	Q5	Within the investment plan, does the college analyse the most important investments, assessing Indicators such as profitability, recovery time and risk?	2.94	2.87
10	Q8	Does the college have a database of all suppliers?	2.91	2.91
11	Q10	Once the most interesting are identified, are cooperation and continuous improvement links established?	2.91	2.84
12	Q9	Is an assessment made of each one of them in relation to their alignment with the policy and strategy of the college?	2.87	1.97
13	Q13	Is the impact of the assets of the college on staff and society in general, considered in relation to questions of safety and hygiene?	2.75	1.97



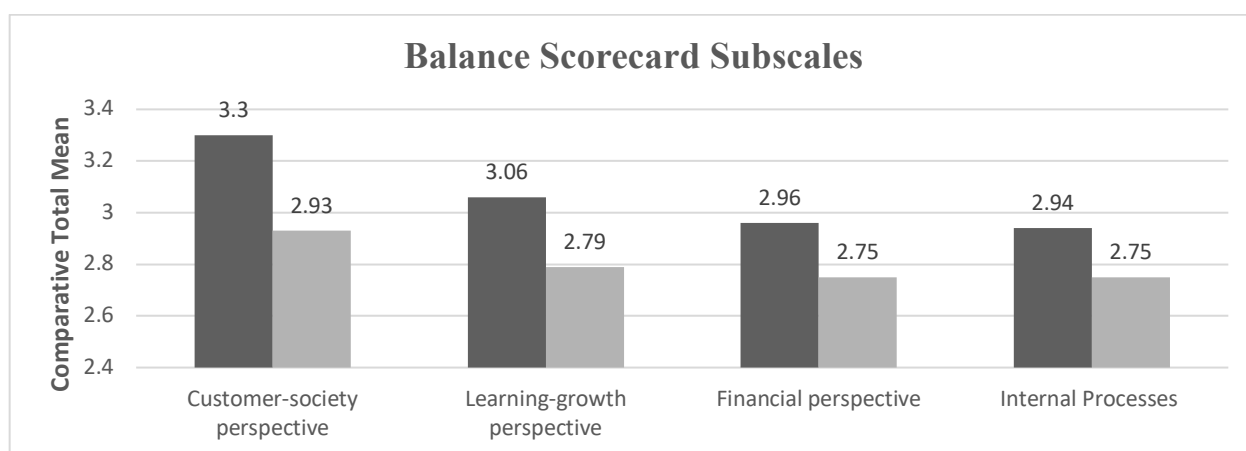
**Figure 4.35:** The Financial perspective (F) in the public and private colleges

Table 4.12 and Figure 4.35 show percentages of the study sample in relation to the Financial perspective (F) subscale. This graph shows participants' responses were highest in relation to Q2 (public, 3.14%; private, 2.93%). Similarly, performance of the public colleges was more similar and positive in relation to Q3, Q4, and Q7 respectively (3.01% and 3.05%) compared with the private colleges (2.73%, 2.95%, and 2.97%). Again, performance of the public college participants was also more similar and positive than that of the private colleges in relation to Q6, Q11, Q12, Q1, and Q5 respectively (public, 2.98%, 2.96%, and 2.94%; private, 2.95%, 2.94%, 2.82%, 2.90%, and 2.87%). On the other hand, the performance of both group types was the same in relation to Q8 (2.91%). However, performance of the public colleges was substantially higher in relation to Q10, Q9, and Q13 (2.91%, 2.87, and 2.75%) compared with the private colleges (2.84% and 1.97%). This illustrates that performance of the public colleges in relation to the Financial perspective was substantially more positive and more consistently so than that of the private colleges, according to the study results.

#### 4.6.5 Comparative total mean for the balance scorecard subscales

**Table 4.13:** Comparative total mean for the balance scorecard subscales between the public and private colleges.

Item		The Perspectives of Balance Scorecard (BSC)			
		Customer-society perspective	Learning-growth perspective	Financial perspective	Internal Processes
Total Mean	Public Colleges	3.3	3.06	2.96	2.94
	Private Colleges	2.93	2.79	2.75	2.75



**Figure 4.36:** Comparative total mean for the balance scorecard subscales between the public and private colleges.

Table 4.13 and Figure 4.36 report the comparative total mean for the balance scorecard subscales between the public and private colleges, which are Customer-Society perspective (CS), Learning-Growth perspective (LG), Financial perspective (F), and Internal Processes perspective (IP). Overview, all the balance scorecard subscales were substantially more positive and more consistently so in the public colleges than in the private colleges. However, this does not mean that the private colleges had a weak performance; on the contrary, the private colleges had a good performance, but the performances of the public colleges were better in relation to the balance scorecard subscales.

## **4.7 The organisational culture in the public and private Iraqi colleges**

The organisational culture is a set of values, traditions, and rules for participating members in the organization (Driskill, 2018; McDaniel & Magpanthong, 2017). Each organisation has its own culture that expresses its personality. Also, the organisational culture comes from the social and cultural fabric of members of the organisation (Bystydzienski, Thomas, Howe, & Desai, 2017). Individuals bring with them their values, traditions, and customs that contribute to the influence of organisational culture (Friedman & Gerstein, 2017). It is therefore possible to say that organisational culture is the interaction and fusion within the working groups, which determines acceptable behaviour and unacceptable behaviour in the organisation.

This section uses descriptive statistics to calculate the frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation (SD), and Coefficient of Variance (CV) as displayed in Table 4.13. The Organisational Culture (OC) was used to rate the participants' performance at work, which was presented in Part E of the survey. It refers to the ways in which the organisation works, its values and the behaviours of the people involved (Schein, 1984). The questionnaire consisted of 37 items and it was arranged into two parts. Part 1 was the Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form (MESF) subscale which had 13 items, while 2 items were individual. The range scores of the (MESF) were: 1 Poor, 2 Marginal, 3 Average, 4 Very Good, and 5 Outstanding. In part 2, the Managerial Effectiveness (ME) subscale had 12 items. The range scores of the (ME) were: 1 Of Little Importance, 2 Of Some Importance, 3 Moderately Important, 4 Very Important, and 5 Critically Important. Table 4.14 shows the descriptive statistics.

**Table 4.14:** Comparative results of the organisational culture part 1 for the public and private colleges.

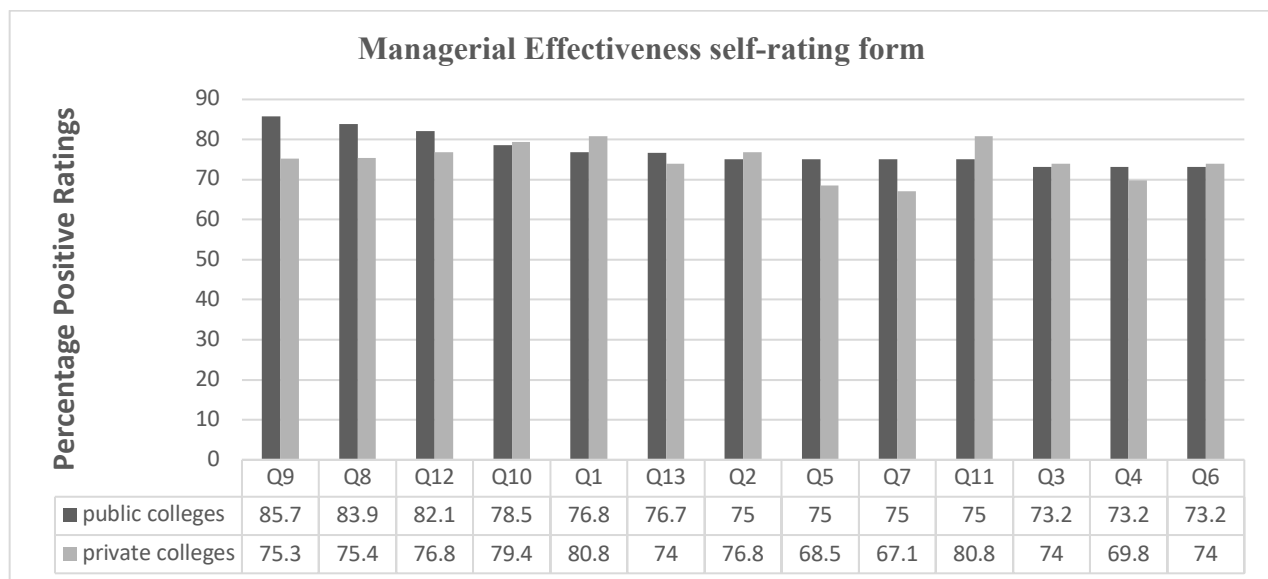
No	Managerial effectiveness	The public colleges		The private colleges	
		Positive rating	M	Positive rating	M
Q1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).	91	4.23	80.8	4.15
Q2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).	91	4.08	76.8	3.94
Q11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).	85.8	4.12	80.8	3.95
Q8	Energising employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).	83.9	4.21	75.4	3.95
Q12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).	83.3	4.05	76.8	4.01
Q9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).	82.2	4.17	75.3	3.86
Q10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organisational culture and standards).	80.3	4.25	79.4	3.93
Q6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).	80.3	4.19	74	3.83
Q5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).	80.3	4.00	68.5	3.91



Q7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).	76.8	4.14	67.1	3.75
Q13	Overall management competency (general level of managerial ability)	76.7	4.05	74	4.05
Q4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).	75	3.96	69.8	3.91

#### 4.7.1 The managerial effectiveness self-rating form

This part asks about the organisational culture of the workplace. The organisational culture refers to the way the organisation works, its values, beliefs, and behaviours of the people involved.



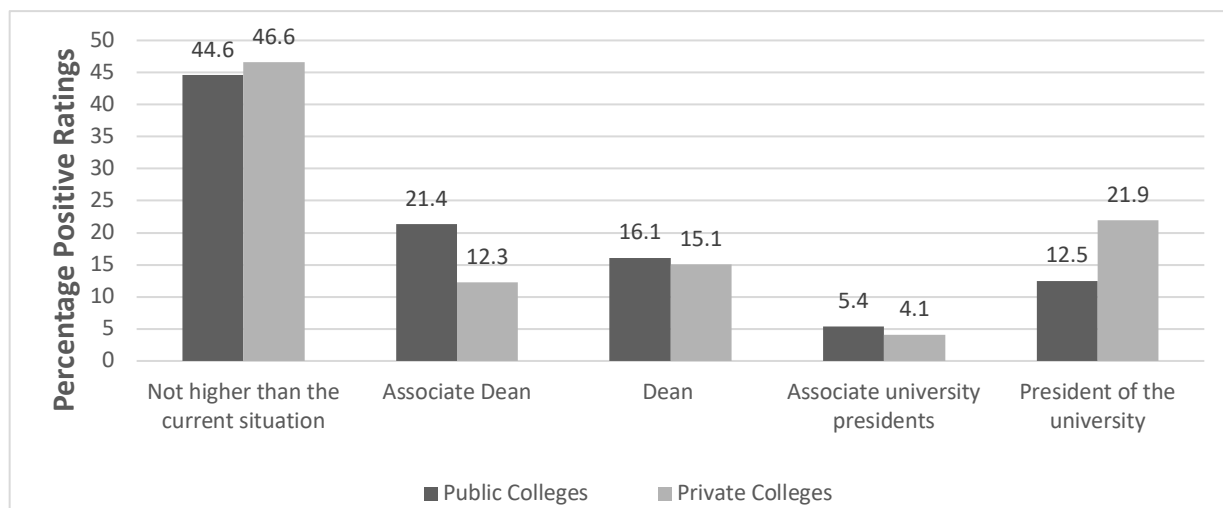
**Figure 4.37:** The managerial effectiveness self-rating form in the public and private colleges

Table 4.14 and Figure 4.37 show percentages of the study sample in relation to the Managerial Effectiveness self-rating form subscale. This graph reports that participants' responses were highest in relation to Q9, Q8, and Q12 respectively in the public colleges (85.70, 83.90%, and 82.10%) compared with the private colleges (75.30%, 75.40%, and 76.80%). However,

participants' ratings in the private colleges were higher in relation to Q10 and Q1 (private, 79.40% and 80.80%; public, 78.50% and 76.80%). With regards to Q13, the public college participants were more positive than the private college ones (public, 76.70%; private, 74%). In contrast, the private college participants were more positive in relation to Q2 (76.80%) compared with those in the public colleges (75%). On the other hand, the public college participants had the same percentages and were more positive in relation to Q5 and Q7 than the private college participants (public, 75%; private, 68.50% and 67.10%). However, participants' ratings in the private colleges were higher in relation to Q11 and Q3 (private, 80.80% and 74%; public, 75% and 73.20%). In relation to Q4 response rates were higher in the public colleges (73.20%), whereas for Q6 it was 74% higher in the private colleges. Again, this demonstrates that the public colleges, in relation to the managerial effectiveness self-rating form subscale, were substantially more positive than the private colleges, according to the study results.

#### 4.7.2 Managerial competency

On the basis of your level of management competency, how high in the organisation do you expect to go in your career?

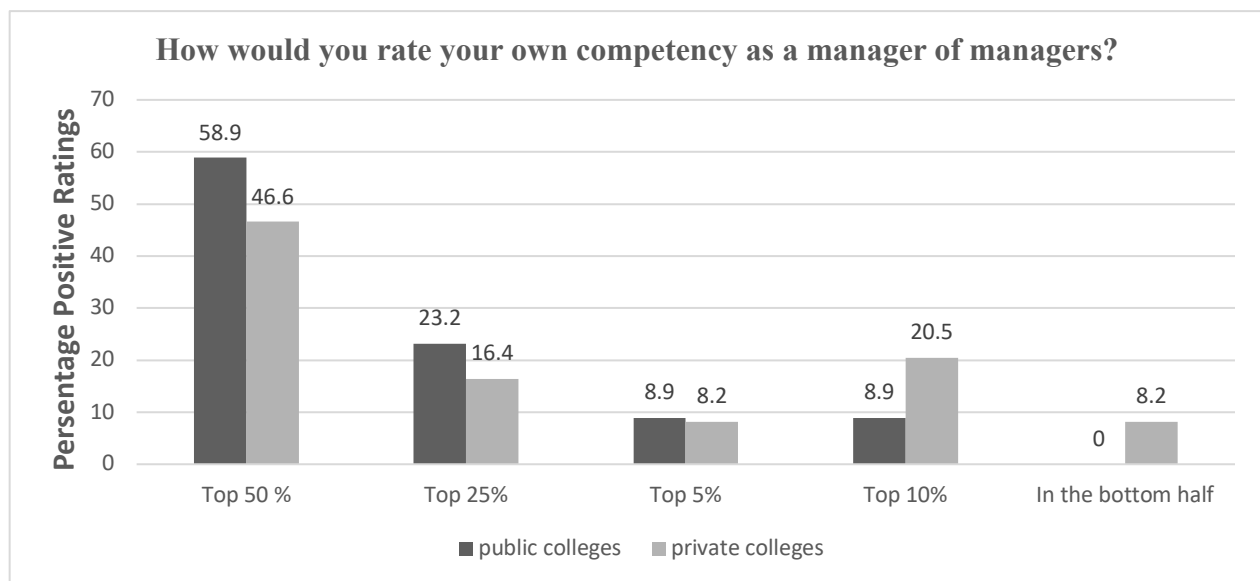


**Figure 4.38:** The managerial competency in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.38 shows percentages of the study sample in relation to the Managerial Competency subscale. This graph shows participants' responses were highest in relation to *higher than the current situation* in the public colleges (public, 44.60%; private, 46.60%). However, participants' ratings in the public colleges were higher in relation to the position of *Associate Dean* (21.40%) compared with approximately half of responses in the private colleges (12.30%). Again, the public colleges were higher than the private colleges in relation to the position of *Dean* (public, 16.10%; private, 15.10%), yet they were the lowest in relation to the position of *Associate University President* (public, 5.40%; private, 4.10%). On the other hand, the private college participants has a more positive in relation to *President of the University* than the public colleges at approximately 9.50% more (public, 12.5%; private, 21.90%). Overall, it was remarkable that more than 45% of the participants in both college types felt they had no hope and confidence to get into the high position levels.

#### 4.7.3 Comparison of own competency as a manager of managers

Q15 Compared to all other managers you've known; how would you rate your own competency as a manager of managers?



**Figure 4.39:** Comparison of own competency as a manager of managers in the public and private colleges

Figure 4.39 shows percentages of the study sample in relation to the Comparison of Own Competency as a Manager of Managers subscale. This graph reports that participants' responses were high at around 50% (public, 58.90%; private, 46.60%). However, participants' ratings in the public colleges were substantially higher by approximately 12.50%. Again, the public colleges were higher than the private colleges in relation to the position of *Dean* (public, 23.20%; private, 16.40%). Similarly, participants' responses in both college types were similar in relation to the top 5% (public, 8.90%; private, 8.20%). On the other hand, the private college participants were more positive at a top of 10% than the public college participants, at approximately 11.50% more (public, 8.90%; private, 20.50%). *In the bottom half*, only applied to private colleges (8.20%). This means that approximately more than 50% of the participants in both college types expressed that they had the abilities and skills to be better than the current leaders.

#### 4.7.4 Important skills for success

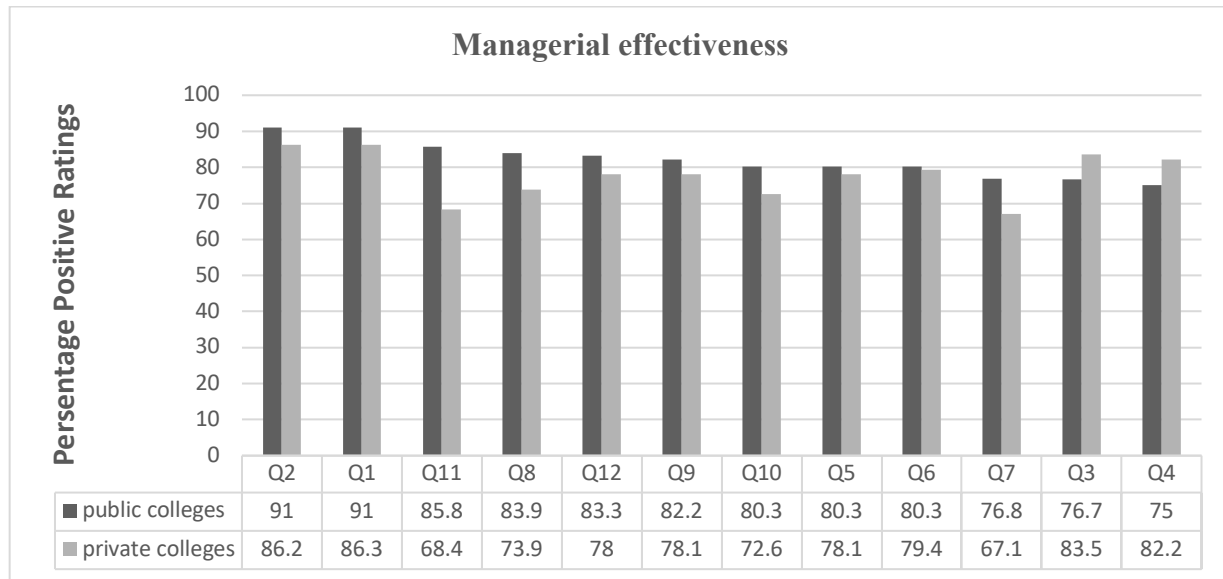
Part 2: What skills do you think are important for you to succeed?

Note: The scale changes for question 1–12. Please read carefully. In order to succeed in your current position, how important is each of the following skills? Use the following scale to rate:

**Table 4.15:** Comparative results of the organisational culture part 2 for the public and private colleges.

No	Managerial Effectiveness	The public colleges		The private colleges	
		Positive rating	M	Positive rating	M
Q1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).	91	4.23	86.30	4.23
Q2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).	91	4.08	86.20	4.12
Q11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).	85.8	4.12	68.40	3.89
Q8	Energising employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).	83.9	4.21	73.90	3.91
Q12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).	83.3	4.05	78.00	4.00
Q9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).	82.2	4.17	78.10	3.94
Q10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organisational culture and standards).	80.3	4.25	72.60	3.89
Q6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).	80.3	4.19	79.40	4.00
Q5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).	80.3	4.00	78.10	3.95
Q7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).	76.8	4.14	67.10	3.79

Q3	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).	76.7	4.01	83.50	4.12
Q4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).	75	3.96	82.20	4.12



**Figure 4.40:** The important skills for success in the public and private colleges

Table 4.15 and Figure 4.40 show percentages of the study sample in relation to the Important Skills for Success subscale. This graph shows that participants' responses were highest and percentages were the same in relation to Q1 and Q2 respectively in the public colleges (91%) compared with the private colleges (86.20% and 86.30%). Again, the public college participants were substantially more positive than those in the private colleges in relation to Q11 by approximately 17.50%. Similarly, the public college participants showed higher ratings in relation to Q8, Q12, Q9, Q10, Q5, Q6, and Q7 respectively (83.90%, 83.30%, 82.20%, 80.30%, and 76.80%) compared with the private colleges (73.90%, 78%, 72.60%, 78.10%, 79.40%, and 67.10%). However, participants' ratings in the private colleges were higher in relation to Q3 and Q4 respectively (private, 83.50% and 82.20%; public, 76.70% and 75%). Again, this demonstrates that the public

college participants, in relation to the important skills for success subscale were substantially more positive than those in the private colleges, according to the study results.

## **4.8 The study hypotheses**

Hypotheses of the current study, as mentioned in Chapter One, were divided into main three sets. The first set was dialled with correlation hypotheses, the second set was the effect hypotheses, and the final set was the difference hypotheses (*leadership styles, strategic planning, organisational success, and organisational culture*). The researcher adopted Null Hypotheses because this guarantees neutrality and objectivity. Alpha levels were set at 0.01- 0.05 because the smaller the alpha level, the smaller the area of rejection. This helps to reduce the chance of not rejecting the null, when in fact it should be rejected. In other words, an alpha level of 5% is a good balance between the two.

### **4.8.1 Correlation coefficient analysis and hypotheses testing of the study**

Correlation analysis was used to evaluate the significant relationships that were likely to exist between LS and SPP, LS and OS, and SPP and OS. According to Allemang and Brown (1982), the correlation coefficient is one of the most important methods to assess validity in business and management research. The correlation analysis is a standard to evaluate the level of connotation between two variables. This technique ranges between -1 and +1 (Todorović, Petrović, Mihić, Obradović, & Bushuyev, 2015). For example, if the value of the correlation coefficient is 0, this means that there is no correlation between two variables. Rocco, Cilurzo, Minghetti, Vistoli, and Pedretti (2017) have illustrated that a value of +1 means a full positive correlation; on the other hand, if the value of the correlation coefficient is -1 it means a full negative correlation between two variables. Thus, Table 4.15 shows a matrix of correlations among the study variables by Spearman coefficient technique.

**Table 4.16:** The results of the study hypotheses (correlation hypotheses) through using the simple regression technique (N=129)

No	Variables	LS	SPP	OS
1	LS	1	0.644**	0.507**
2	SPP		1	0.451**
3	OS			1
(**) Indicates the statistical significance at (0.01) level. (*) indicates the statistical significance at (0.05) level. The non- parameter on which the reference of the relationship does not exist, then it is a failure 103 Degree of Freedom				

It is shown in Table 4.16 that there is a statistically significant strong positive relationship between the independent variable and dependent variables of the study. Therefore, the leadership style variable and each of the other study variables are at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Also, the strongest relationship rate was with strategic planning process variable (0.644\*\*). By contrast, the lowest relationship was between the strategic planning process and the organizational success variable (0.451 \*\*); however, this value was statistically significant but showed a moderate positive correlation as well. In general, these values can provide evidence, based on the above results that the study framework was accurate and correct and could be used by the Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education for creating an appropriate evaluation to measure its work towards achieving the goals of the ministry as a productive organisation and the goals of public and private colleges simultaneously. For more information, see Appendix I.

#### 4.8.2 Simple regression analysis and hypotheses testing of the study

The second hypotheses of this study were effect hypotheses among study variables. To achieve that, the researcher used the simple regression coefficient because it is a statistical technique to examine the effects between two variables, one independent and one dependent (Chatterjee &



Hadi, 2015; De'ath & Fabricius, 2000). Hox et al. (2017); (Schroeder, Sjoquist, & Stephan, 2016) have stated that the simple regression coefficient is an accurate and strong method when the aim is to understand the effects between variables of a study, both independent and dependent. This technique has three key indicators: (R<sup>2</sup>), F-value, and T-value. R<sup>2</sup>-value ranges between 0-1 (Finch, Bolin, & Kelley, 2019; Jain, 2017). To ensure a strong effect between independent and dependent variables, Subiyakto, Ahlan, Kartiwi, and Putra (2016) have reported three levels of R<sup>2</sup>-values: 0.670 substantial, 0.333 moderate, and 0.190 weak, and F-value and T-value must be statistically significant, i.e. at least 0.05.

**Table 4.17:** The results of the study hypotheses (effect hypotheses) through using the simple regression technique (N=129)

Hypothesis	The path	Regression Weights using SPSS					Results
		R2	( $\beta$ )	S.E	F-value	T-value	
<b>H1 0 or H1 1</b>	Leadership style on strategic planning	0.478	0.613	0.697	116.37	2.88	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H11</b>
<b>H2 0 or H2 1</b>	Leadership style on organisational success	0.347	0.589	0.053	124.47	5.65	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H21</b>
<b>H3 0 or H3 1</b>	Strategic planning on organisational success	0.343	0.587	0.017	123.14	11.10	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H31</b>
<b>H10 is</b> Null hypothesis and <b>H11</b> is Alternative hypothesis							

Table 4.17 shows the results of the effect hypotheses between leadership style and strategic planning, leadership style and organisational success, and strategic planning and organisational success. It displays the values of simple regression paths: R2-value, estimate ( $\beta$ ), Standard Error (S.E.), F-value, and t-value of three hypotheses through using SPSS.

The first hypothesis was *H10*: There is no significant effect from the *leadership style on the strategic planning process* in the colleges under study. So, Table 4.16 reports a strong effect for leadership style on the strategic planning process according to the results of F-value 116.37, t-value 2.88, ( $P < 0.05$ ), and strong R2-value (0.478), which are significant. Hence, that allowed for the rejection of null hypothesis *H10* in favour of the alternative hypothesis *H11*.

The second hypothesis of effect was  $H2_0$ : There is no significant effect from the *strategic planning process on the organisational success*. Here, Table 4.16 shows a sturdy and adequate effect for *leadership style on the organisational success*, according to results F-value 124.47,  $t$ -value 5.65, ( $P < 0.05$ ), and R<sup>2</sup>-value is acceptable (0.347), which are significant. Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H2_0$  in favour of alternative hypothesis  $H2_1$ .

The third hypothesis was  $H3_0$ : There was no significant effect from the *strategic planning process on the organisational success* in the colleges under study. Thus, Table 4.16 displays here an acceptable and sufficient effect for strategic planning process on the organisational success according to results of F-value 123.14,  $t$ -value 11.10, ( $P < 0.05$ ), and R<sup>2</sup>-value is approximately higher than moderate (0.343), which are significant. Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H3_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H3_1$ .

#### 4.8.2 Mann-Whitney U test analysis and hypotheses testing of the study

Fay and Proschan (2010) have illustrated that the Mann-Whitney U test or Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney WMW can be used to compare between two different independent samples or groups that have no normal distribution and at the same time, this test assumes that the data from distributions are similar or identical. This technique is depended on calculating numerical ranks instead of values (De Winter & Dodou, 2010; Marx, Backes, Meese, Lenhof, & Keller, 2016; McKnight & Najab, 2010). Ruxton (2006) stated that this analysis is used in nonparametric statistics instead of  $t$ -test and that it is used in parametric statistics because it does not require specific distribution. Also, MacFarland and Yates (2016) have pointed out that the Mann-Whitney U test should be used in cases when size of the samples might be small or medium between (9-20) or a little more than that. To ensure here strong statistically significant differences between two independent variables, Pérez, López, Silva, and Ramos (2015) have reported that 0.05 or less than that is statistically significant. That means that if the result is 0.05 or less than that, the null hypothesis can be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. Therefore,

the Mann-Whitney U analysis is a common, suitable and accurate test for this study, in particular when data does not meet the parametric assumptions of the *t*-test and size of samples are small. Next, the researcher shows results of the different hypotheses among *leadership styles*, *strategic planning*, *organisational success*, and *organisational culture* between the public and private colleges.

#### **4.8.2.1 Hypotheses of difference in regarding leadership styles**

**Key Hypothesis (A).** There are no statistically significant differences in the *Leadership Style of Transformational* between leaders of the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann-Whitney U test. Thus, Table 4.17 reports results of significant differences in sub-hypotheses for dimensions of transformational style between the public and private colleges.

**Table 4.18:** The results of difference hypotheses of leadership style (transformational) through using Mann-Whitney U test part A

Hypothesis	Leadership style of transformational between public & private colleges	Mann-Whitney U Test SPSS					Results
		N	Mean Rank	Sun of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	
<b>H10 or H11</b>	Inspirational motivation	Pu 4	6.50	26	-2.30	0.02	Rejected null hypothesis H10 and in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H11</b>
		Pr 4	2.50	10			
<b>H20 or H21</b>	Individualised consideration	Pu 4	6.38	25.50	-2.17	0.03	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H21</b>
		Pr 4	2.63	10.50			
<b>H30 or H31</b>	Idealised influence behavior	Pu 4	6	24	-1.73	0.08	Null hypothesis not rejected <b>H30</b> due to there is no statistically significant differences between pu & pr colleges
		Pr 4	3	12			
<b>H40 or H41</b>	Idealised influence attribute	Pu 4	6.50	24	-2.30	0.02	Rejected null hypothesis and in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H41</b>
		Pr 4	3	12.50			
<b>H50 or H51</b>	Intellectual stimulation	Pu 4	6.50	24	-2.30	0.02	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H51</b>
		Pr 4	3	12.50			

The first sub-hypothesis was  $H1_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Inspirational Motivation* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Inspirational Motivation*, based on their responses to the MLQ. So, Table 4.18 displays that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Inspirational Motivation* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H1_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H1_1$ .

The second sub-hypothesis was  $H2_0$ : There were no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Individualized Consideration* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Individualized Consideration* based on their responses to the MLQ. As a result, Table 4.18 reports that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Individualized Consideration* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H2_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H2_1$ .

The third sub-hypothesis was  $H3_0$ : There were no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Idealized Influence Behaviour* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Idealized Influence Behaviour*, based on their responses to the MLQ. Table 4.18 shows the null hypothesis  $H3_0$  was not rejected as it was found that public and private colleges leaders' mean scores on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Idealized Influence Behaviour*, where *Asymp. Sig.* was 0.08 which was more than (0.05). This means that here, there were no significant differences in practicing this style between the leaders of the public and private colleges. So, the null hypothesis  $H3_0$  was not rejected.

The fourth sub-hypothesis was  $H4_0$ : There were no significant differences between public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Idealized Influence Attribute* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the

leadership style of *Idealized Influence Attribute*, based on their responses to the MLQ. Table 4.18 displays that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Idealized Influence Consideration* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H4_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H4_1$ .

The fifth sub-hypothesis was  $H5_0$ : There were no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Intellectual Stimulation* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Intellectual Stimulation*, based on their responses to the MLQ. Table 4.18 reports that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Intellectual Stimulation* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H5_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H5_1$ .

In general, there was a statistically significant difference between leaders of the public and private colleges in practising the leadership style of transformational (Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, Idealized Influence Attribute, and Intellectual Stimulation). This means that leaders of the public colleges were more likely to be transformational than those in the private colleges.

**Key Hypothesis (B).** There are no statistically significant differences in the *Leadership Style of Transactional* between leaders of the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann-Whitney. Thus, Table 4.19 displays results of differences in sub-hypotheses for dimensions of transactional style between the public and private colleges.



**Table 4.19:** The results of difference hypotheses of leadership style (transactional) through using Mann-Whitney part B

Hypothesis	Leadership style of transactional between public & private colleges	Mann-Whitney U Test SPSS					Results
		N	Mean Rank	Sun of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	
<b>H1<sub>0</sub> or H1<sub>1</sub></b>	Contingent reward	PU 4	6.50	26	- 2.32	0.02	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H1<sub>1</sub></b>
		PR 4	3	12			
<b>H2<sub>0</sub> or H2<sub>1</sub></b>	Management-by-exception active	PU 4	5.25	21	-.86	0.38	Null hypothesis <b>H2<sub>0</sub></b> not rejected due to there is no statistically significant differences between PU & PR colleges
		PR 4	3.75	15			
<b>H3<sub>0</sub> or H3<sub>1</sub></b>	Management-by-exception passive	PU 4	3.50	14	- 1.16	0.24	Null hypothesis <b>H3<sub>0</sub></b> not rejected due to no statistically significant differences between PU & PR colleges
		PR 4	5.50	22			
<b>H4<sub>0</sub> or H4<sub>1</sub></b>	Laissez-faire	PU 4	4.63	18.50	-.14	0.88	Null hypothesis <b>H4<sub>0</sub></b> not rejected due to there is no statistically significant differences between PU & PR colleges
		PR 4	4.38	17.50			

The first sub-hypothesis was  $H1_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Contingent Reward* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Contingent Reward*, based on their responses to the MLQ. So, Table 4.19 displays that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the private college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Contingent Reward* was statistically significantly greater than the public college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H1_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H1_1$ .

The second sub-hypothesis was  $H2_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Management-by-Exception Active* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Management-by-Exception Active*, based on their responses to the MLQ. Table 4.19 reports that the null hypothesis was not rejected due to the public and private college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Management-by-Exception Active*, where *Asymp. Sig.* was 0. 0.38 which was more than (0.05). This means there were no significant differences in practising this style between leaders of the public and private colleges. So, the null hypothesis  $H2_0$  was not rejected.

The third sub-hypothesis was  $H3_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Management-by-Exception Passive* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Management-by-Exception Passive*, based on their responses to the MLQ. Table 4.19 shows the null hypothesis was not rejected due to the public and private college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Management-by-Exception Passive*, where *Asymp. Sig.* was 0. 0.24 which was more than (0.05). This means, there were no significant differences in practising this style between leaders of the public and private colleges. Therefore, the null hypothesis  $H3_0$  was not rejected.

The fourth sub-hypothesis was  $H4_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Laissez-Faire* compared with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the leadership style of

*Management-by-Exception Passive*, based on their responses to the MLQ. Table 4.19 shows the null hypothesis was not rejected due to the public and private college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the leadership style of *Laissez-Faire*, where Asymp. Sig. was 0. 0.38 and it is more than (0.05). This means, there were no significant differences in practising this style between leaders of the public and private colleges. So, the null hypothesis  $H_0$  was not rejected. In conclusion, the results of survey showed a statistically significant difference between leaders of the public and private colleges in practising the leadership style of transactional (contingent reward) and this dimension was practised by leaders of private colleges more so than by leaders of the public colleges. However, there were no statistically significant results between leaders of the public and private colleges in practising a leadership style of transactional dimensions (management-by-exception active, management-by-exception passive, and laissez-faire). Thus, the survey results suggest that leaders in both college types may “avoid getting involved when important issues arise”, while around a quarter of them “delay responding to urgent questions”, “avoid making decisions”, and “are absent when needed”.

#### 4.8.2.2 Hypotheses of difference in regarding to the strategic planning process

$H_0$ : There are no statistically significant differences in practising *the strategic planning process* between the public and private colleges under study, as measured by Mann-Whitney U test. Thus, Table 4.19 illustrates there were statistically significant differences between leaders of the public and private colleges in practising *the strategic planning process*, where Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$ .

**Table 4.20:** Results of difference hypotheses in practicing *the strategic planning process* through using Mann-Whitney

No 12	Strategic Planning process	N	Mean Rank	Sun of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)	Results
H <sub>0</sub> - H <sub>1</sub>	PU colleges	15	19.23	288.50	-2.32	0.02	Rejected null hypothesis H <sub>0</sub> in favour of alternative hypothesis H <sub>1</sub>
	PR colleges	15	11.77	176.50			

#### 4.8.2.3 Hypotheses of differences in regards to organisational success

**Key Hypothesis:** There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the *strategic planning process* SPP and the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the *strategic planning process*, based on their responses to the SPP. Thus, Table 4.20 shows that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the *strategic planning process* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H1_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H1_1$  (see Appendix J).

**Table 4.21:** Results of difference hypotheses in regards to organisational success by using Mann-Whitney

Hypothesis	Dimensions of organisational culture between PU & PR colleges	Mann-Whitney U Test SPSS					Results
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	
H1 <sub>0</sub> or H1 <sub>1</sub>	Learning-growth perspective	PU 13	20	260	-4.33	0.00	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H1<sub>1</sub></b>
		PR 13	7	91			
H2 <sub>0</sub> or H2 <sub>1</sub>	Internal processes perspective	PU 8	10	80	-1.26	0.20	Null hypothesis <b>H2<sub>0</sub></b> not rejected due to there not being statistically significant differences between PU & PR colleges
		PR 8	7	56			
H3 <sub>0</sub> or H3 <sub>1</sub>	Customer-society perspective	PU 8	11.25	90	-2.31	0.02	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H3<sub>1</sub></b>
		PR 8	5.75	46			
H4 <sub>0</sub> or H4 <sub>1</sub>	Financial perspective	PU 13	19.46	253	-3.98	0.00	Rejected null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis <b>H4<sub>1</sub></b>
		PR 13	7.54	98			

The first sub-hypothesis was  $H1_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Learning-growth perspective* with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Learning-growth perspective*, based on their responses to the organisational success OS. Thus, Table 4.21 show that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of *Learning-growth perspective* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.00 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H1_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H1_1$ .

The second sub-hypothesis was  $H2_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Internal Processes perspective* with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Internal Processes perspective*, based on their responses to the OS. Table 4.21 shows the null hypothesis was not rejected due to the public and private college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of *Internal processes perspective*, where *Asymp. Sig.* was 0.20 which was more than (0.05). This means, there were no significant differences in practising this perspective between leaders of the public and private colleges. So, the null hypothesis  $H2_0$  was not rejected.

The third sub-hypothesis was  $H3_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Customer-society perspective* with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Customer-society perspective*, based on their responses to the OS. Table 4.21 reports that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of the *Customer-society perspective* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the the null hypothesis  $H3_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H3_1$ .

The fourth sub-hypothesis was  $H4_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the *Financial perspective* with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of the *Financial perspective*, based on their responses to the OS. Table 4.21 shows that the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the private college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their achievement of the

*Financial perspective* was statistically significantly greater than the public college leaders' mean score, where Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) was 0.02 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H_{40}$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H_{41}$ .

In general, there were no statistically significant differences between the public and private colleges regarding dimensions of organisational success (learning-growth, customer-society, and financial perspectives). Furthermore, there were no statistically significant differences between the public and private colleges in regards to the dimension of organisational success (internal processes perspective). This illustrates a similar performance in terms of organisational success in both college types.

#### 4.8.2.4 Hypotheses of difference in regards to the organisational culture

**Key Hypothesis:** There are no significant differences in the *Organisational Culture* between the public and private colleges under study, as measured by the Mann-Whitney U test. However, Table 4.22 illustrates that there were statistically significant differences between leaders of the public and private colleges in practising the organisational culture.

**Table 4.22:** Results of difference hypotheses in practising *the strategic planning process* by using Mann-Whitney U test

No 12	Organisational culture	N	Mean Rank		Sun of Ranks	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Results
H10- H11	Managerial effectiveness self-rating	PU13	17.31		225	-2.54	.01	Rejected null hypothesis $H_{0}$ in favour of the alternative hypothesis <b>H1</b>
		PR13	9.69		126			
H20- H21	Managerial effectiveness	PU12	16		192	-2.43	.01	Rejected null hypothesis $H_{20}$ in favour of the alternative hypothesis <b>H21</b>
		PR 12	9		108			

The first sub-hypothesis was  $H_{10}$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating* with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Managerial Effectiveness Self-*

*Rating*, based on their responses to the organisational culture OC. Table 4.22 shows the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that the public college leaders' mean score on their perceptions of their use of *Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating* was statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)* was 0.01 which was less than (0.05). Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H1_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H1_1$ .

The second sub-hypothesis was  $H2_0$ : There are no significant differences between the public college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Managerial Effectiveness* with the private college leaders' mean score on perceptions of their use of *Managerial Effectiveness*, based on their responses to the OC. Table 4.22 shows the null hypothesis was rejected as it was found that public and private college leaders' mean scores on their perceptions of their use of *Managerial Effectiveness* were statistically significantly greater than the private college leaders' mean score, where *Asymp. Sig.* was 0.01 which was more than (0.05). This means there were no significant differences in practising this perspective between leaders of the public and private colleges. Hence, this allowed for the rejection of the null hypothesis  $H2_0$  in favour of the alternative hypothesis  $H2_1$ .

These results demonstrate that leaders of the public colleges were more likely to be successful than those of the private colleges when it came to their managerial effectiveness. With respect to the correlation hypotheses, these findings showed a significant positive relationship between the independent variable (leadership style) and the dependent variables (strategic planning and organisational success) of the study. Also, the strongest relationship rate was between the leadership style and strategic planning where there was a significant positive relation. The lowest relationship was between the strategic planning and the organisational success variable, which was because most of the public and private Iraqi colleges did not employ strategic planning in the correct way. With respect to the effect hypotheses, the findings of the simple regression analysis showed a significant positive effect for leadership style on strategic planning. In addition, there was a significant positive effect for leadership style on organisational success, thus emphasising the vital importance of leadership style. Thus, the research also confirmed a significant positive effect of the strategic planning process on organisational success.

Moreover, the findings of the Mann-Whitney U analysis found significant differences in the sub-hypotheses for the dimensions of transformational leadership style between the public and



private colleges, showing the predominance of this leadership in the public colleges and a transactional leadership style in the private colleges. In particular, leaders of the public colleges were found to practise inspirational motivation and strategic planning statistically significantly more so than leaders in private colleges. Similarly, the public colleges were statistically significantly more likely to be involved in learning growth in their organisations' success than the private colleges, and not surprisingly, the private colleges' focus on profit was evident in their financial perspective being statistically significantly higher compared with the public colleges. Also, since a statistically significant difference was found between the two college types in the practising dimension of managerial competency, showing public colleges to be superior overall, the results demonstrate that leaders of the public colleges were more likely to be successful than those in the private colleges in terms of their leadership, strategic planning and organisational success, aided by a supportive organisational culture.

#### **4.9 Summary of the chapter**

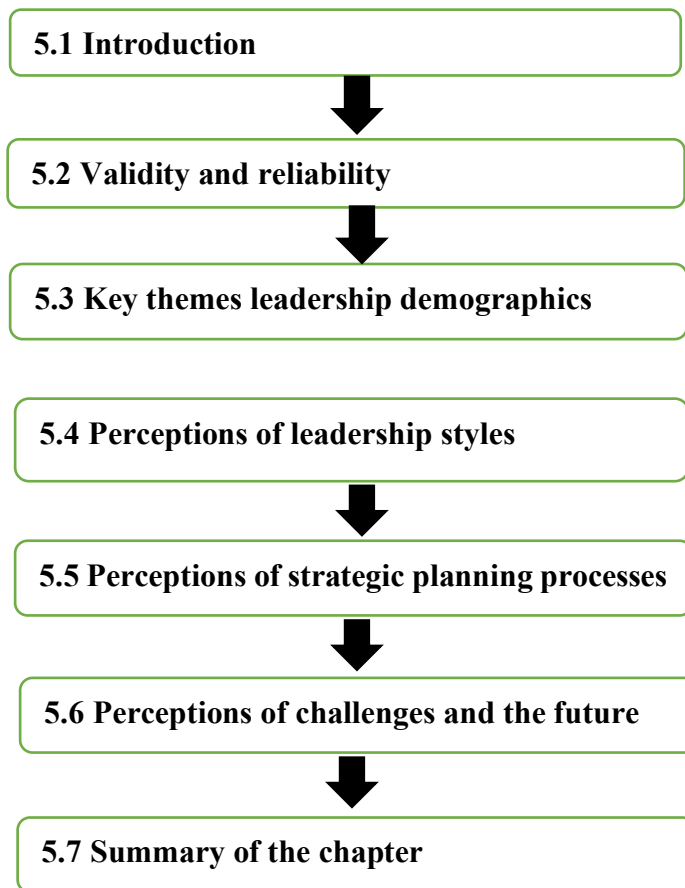
This chapter has explained the results of the analysis of quantitative data / questionnaires in nine sections. Section 1 started by presenting an introduction to this chapter. In Section 2, general explanations were provided to justify the quantitative approach. Section 3 discussed results of demographic data analyses in the study. Section 4 was focused on the results of the multi-factor leadership questionnaire. Section 5 displayed results of the strategic planning process of the study. Results of the balanced scorecard were discussed in Section 6. Section 7 discussed the results of the organisational culture. The study's hypotheses / inferential statistics were addressed in Section 8. Finally, this summary in Section 9 has concluded this chapter.

# **CHAPTER 5 REPORTING OF RESULTS OF QUALITATIVE DATA / INTERVIEWS**

## **5.1 Introduction**

Following Chapter 4's analysis of the quantitative data, this chapter reports on the results of the analyses of the qualitative data from the interviews conducted with a convenience sub-sample of the colleges' senior staff who completed the survey package. The interviewees were provided with a summary of the key findings of the survey package in relation to relevant aspects of the demographic data, leadership styles, the strategic planning process, organisational success, and the colleges' organisational culture, and they were asked for their reactions and opinions to gain further insights into the two college contexts. To assist with this analysis, and in accordance with Saldaña (2015) advice, NVivo software, as a specialist technique, was used to search and query the interview transcripts and code the data. As a result, after data cleaning, the researcher applied both manual methods and content analysis to code, recode, and generate categories and arrive at major themes (Mohammed et al., 2018). Thus, as part of the manual analysis, the researcher used a thematic method to extract and classify words and phrases that related to the main question of this study (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017; O'Neill, Booth, & Lamb, 2018) .

In short, this chapter's reporting of the results of this qualitative data analysis contains seven sections. Section 5.1 introduces the chapter, before Section 5.2. discusses issues of validity and reliability of the qualitative data. Section 5.3 reports on the emergent themes and interviewees' perceptions of the colleges' leadership demographics. Section 5.4 presents the results of the analysis of interviewees' perceptions of the colleges' leadership styles, while Section 5.5 discusses their perceptions of the colleges' strategic planning processes. Section 5.6 reports on the interviewees' perceptions of the challenges and considerations for the future, and lastly Section 5.7 presents a summary of the chapter. Thus, this chapter comprises seven sections, as shown in Figure 5.1.



**Figure 5.1:** Outline of Chapter 5

## **5.2 Validity and reliability**

While issues of validity and reliability were critical to the instruments and techniques applied in relation to the quantitative part of the research, as referred to in Chapters 3 and 4, these issues equally apply to the data collection and analysis of the qualitative part of the method (Abbaszadeh, (2012). According to (Noble & Smith, 2015), reliability and validity are highly critical issues for the analysis of qualitative data because of the possibility of risks associated with trying to accurately interpret participants' views in context. In the present research, for example, the interviewer, as the researcher and also an academic from Iraq, needed to guard against the possibility of bias and ensure the interviewees felt comfortable enough to provide their genuine opinions rather than be defensive or otherwise. Similarly, the technique of analysis of the transcripts must also guard against misunderstandings across responses. Therefore, the researcher adopted and documented the process and used the reputable software of NVivo. In addition, the researcher selected a total of 30 participants (18% of the total population) (O'Dwyer & Bernnauer, 2014) from the 163 participants who responded to the survey package which was representative of both group types. The researcher utilised the simple random sampling method in the selection of interviewees. However, nine participants withdrew because of their workloads, leaving a sample of 21: ten from the public colleges and eleven from the private colleges. Each group included the three levels of senior employees of Dean, Associate Dean, and Head of Department.

### **5.2.1 Validity**

The research literature, in the form of numerous studies, has discussed the issue of how to increase the validity of qualitative research results, with three main stages being identified as: creating, refining, and developing (Castleberry & Nolen, 2018; Gaber & Gaber, 2018; Merriam & Grenier, 2019; Natow, 2019; Shekhar, Prince, Finelli, Demonbrun, & Waters, 2019; Silverman, 2016; Yeong, Ismail, Ismail, & Hamzah, 2018). In keeping with this, the researcher employed NVivo software to assist with the analysis process, since it provides a logical, supportive and reliable technique that preserves the analysis history and is able to generate figurative information to assist with interpretation.

For the first stage, the researcher worked with the various areas of the interview schedule regarding interviewees' reactions to the survey results, this coding with respect to: (1) aspects of demographic data relevant to the study; (2) the colleges' leadership styles; (3) their strategic planning processes; (4) their organisational culture and performance; and (5) insights into the colleges' future needs and their recommendations for the future. During the second stage, the researcher refined those emergent items into a smaller set of categories. Then in the final stage, he scrutinised the categories for overlapping ideas to develop overarching key themes.

### 5.2.2 Reliability

Reliability is considered by Michael (2018) as the degree of consistency of results stemming from the same treatment, such that if the research is repeated at another time by another researcher, the results would be the same. Therefore, the process applied to the collection of data for the interviews needed to be consistent, such that outcomes of the qualitative analyses could be trusted, and the analysis needed to be consistent, through carefully preserving documents, files, records and notes. In addition, the selected interviewees were those senior employees who worked most closely with the respective colleges' strategic planning processes, and they were in leadership positions where they could be expected to be working towards organisational success.

As indicated earlier in Chapter four, all of the study questions that were designed in accordance with results of the quantitative analysis were used to organise the interviews with participants of the public and private colleges. All participants answered all of the questions of the interviews smoothly through clear questions, and the researcher's experience in interviews management enabled the interviewees to understand the interview questions. The qualitative pilot study feedback was received from the supervisory team. Also, all of the study questions were directly related to the main study aim titled:

“to explore the leadership style in relation to strategic planning and organisational success that can lead to improved organisational outcomes in private and public Iraq's colleges (PPICs)”.

Overall, Glesne (2016) has stated that the main purpose of the pilot's qualitative results is to provide helpful feedback to the researcher. For instance, they contributed to increasing the researcher's experience and knowledge in interviews management. Also, the qualitative study

permitted the researcher to learn skills and strategies for managing interviews, interaction and discussion, and focusing on active contributions and how roles could be distributed between the researcher and interviewees. Therefore, the pilot study was a valuable instrument as it improved and developed the design of the actual study.

### **5.3 Results of analysis of interviews**

The development of the questions for the semi-structured interviews, as mentioned earlier, were designed after the survey package data had been analysed, in order to follow up and follow through on emergent issues and trends. As also explained, the researcher, being bilingual, conducted the interviews in Arabic, the first language of the interviewees and their preference, for clarity and ease of communication. Each interview lasted a minimum of 45 minutes and comprised a total of 21 members of the senior leadership teams, with ten participants from the public colleges and 11 from the private colleges.

#### **5.3.1 Overview of emergent themes**

Table 5.1 shows the frequency count for the key themes that emerged from both college types, and the separate breakdown for each group, e.g. public senior leaders versus private college leaders. The contrast between each group is further evidenced in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2, which show the respective NVivo word clouds, which highlight the contrast between the public colleges' close association with, and dependence on, government regulation and the private colleges' greater freedom to conduct their business for profit. Nevertheless, there was also strong evidence that in both groups the broader societal culture had a strong influence on practices along with the instability of Iraq as a developing country, that continues to be impacted by unrest. Similarly, the issue of employee incentives or lack thereof, organisational culture and information communication technologies were also raised as important for the future and for any change to occur. These issues are reinforced in Figure 5.3, which provides a detailed graphical comparison of the two college types' interviewee responses. Each of these themes are further illuminated and

discussed in the following sub-sections and then, in terms of the implications for the demographics of the college leadership, the colleges' leadership style, organisational culture and performance, and their strategic planning processes.

**Table 5.1:** Key themes emerging from the public and private colleges' interviewees and frequency count

Theme	<i>PU+PR</i>	Public Colleges	Private Colleges
	<i>f</i>	<i>F &amp; %</i>	<i>F &amp; %</i>
1. Corruptive practices	16	5 (50%)	9 (80%)
2. Skills	15	10 (100%)	5 (45 %)
3. Policy & Rules	15	10 (100%)	5 (45 %)
4. Culture	12	5 (50%)	7 (65 %)
5. Professional Development	8	5 (50%)	3 (30%)
6. Budget	8	8 (80%)	0
7. Organisational Culture	6	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
8. Instability	5	2 (20%)	3 (30%)
9. Incentive	5	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
10. Viable Degree & Rank	6	5 (50%)	1 (10%)
11. ICT	4	2 (20%)	2 (20%)
12. Preserving the status quo	4	1 (10%)	3 (30%)
13. Financial Success	2	0	2 (18%)
14. Top Management	2	0	2 (18%)

*f* – frequency count

PU+PR- public and private colleges – interviewees' combined frequency of reference

PU- frequency of reference by public college interviewees

PU- Frequency of reference by private college interviewees

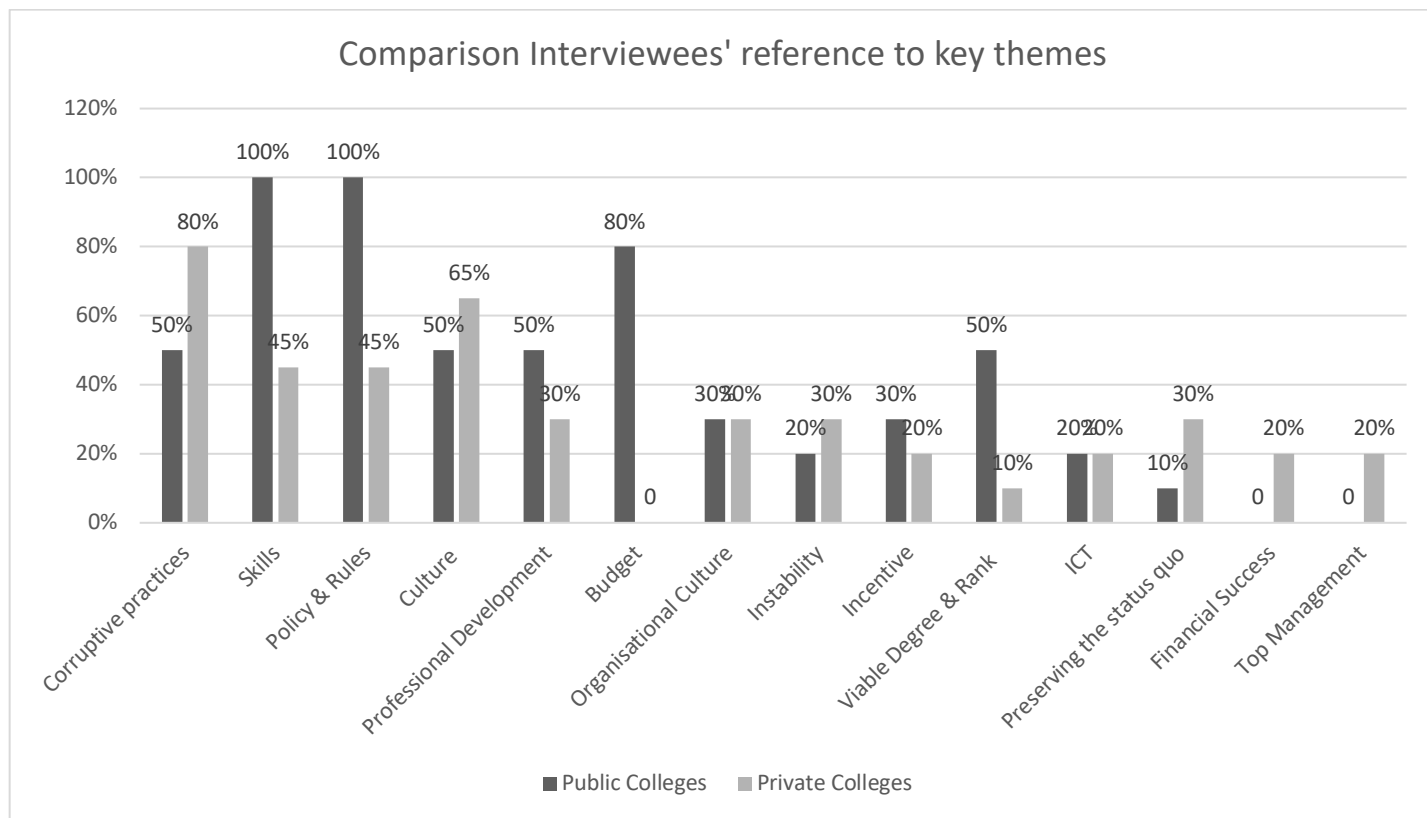


**Figure 5.2:** NVivo word cloud for public college leaders' key themes



**Figure 5.:** NVivo word cloud for private college leaders' key themes





**Figure 5.4:** Comparison of frequency counts of private college leaders' reference to key themes

Figure 5.3 also clarifies the public colleges' greater concern for staff having the requisite skills and noting of policy and rules in their practice. The staff also tended to be more concerned about the need for professional development. As well, their budget was regulated by government, whereas private colleges, as noted, were concerned about their financial success, and similarly their top level management and preservation of the status quo, since their colleges were funded by private investors. Although raised by a small number of the interviewees, information communication technology was a concern as it was recognised as an important component of their colleges' operations going into the future. Both groups of interviewees were also aware of the need for, and influence of, staff having incentives to excel in their role and make a contribution. In

contrast, in the public colleges there was more concern for the importance of the reputation of the college and the recognition/valuing of their degree qualifications.

### 5. 3. 2 Perceptions of the demographics of the colleges' leadership

With regards to the results of the survey outcomes relating to the demographics of the colleges' leadership groups, the interviewees confirmed that it was typical for there to be fewer women at the top in both college types. The analysis showed that this issue was relevant to the four key themes of culture, the country's instability, corruptive practices, and the importance of college leaders having the appropriate skills. Cultural issues were raised as having a strong influence on the ability of females to take up leadership roles. The traditional gender role of females being expected to marry and undertake family duties was the most prevalent reason. Over 80% of each group were specific in noting that: *There are few women in leadership positions because of the culture of Iraqi society that does not encourage them but expects them to be married and caring for a family.* For instance, PU5 noted: *Women are low in leadership positions because it is a society where men are seen as the traditional leaders, with the traditional gender roles and responsibilities.* On the other hand, with regards to the private colleges' different employee make up, PR6 explained:

*There are low numbers of women in leadership positions in private colleges because staff are typically those who have retired at age 63 but by that age women are seen as having little time, poor health, family responsibilities (grandchildren), and also have a good pension.* (PR6)

The survey finding of 25% of women being in leadership positions was questioned by approximately a quarter of interviewees in each college type, thus bearing out the general view of participants that it was difficult for women to rise up to senior leadership. In addition, the issue was raised regarding women needing to have breaks to their careers to have a family, which was seen as limiting promotional opportunities. However, culture was also highlighted as having a strong impact since there was the view that some members of society believed women should not

be working or were unable to do certain jobs. It was also pointed out that the circumstances of the country's instability had a serious impact on women being able to safely travel to and from work. The majority of interviewees in both college types were of the view that there were fewer women in leadership positions because of the unstable, unsafe and insecure environment of Iraq. Thus, Iraq remains a relatively unsafe and to a large extent unstable environment such that travel to work, including in the evening, is seen as potentially dangerous and particularly dangerous for females. It is therefore not surprising that there would be fewer female leaders as this reflects this situation, besides being related to cultural norms where females are generally expected to be nurturers, caring for their families at home.

The theme of corruption refers to interviewees' explanations that employment practices play a large role in preventing women from taking up leadership roles. Most of the leadership positions were perceived as not being allocated based on the effectiveness and efficiency of the potential employee because there were no clear managerial systems in place to ensure an equitable process. Rather, it was perceived that selection was based on the preferences of political parties; as PU9 notes: *Women are poorly represented in leadership positions because of the influence of the political parties on appointments to these jobs.* This was reinforced by PR9's highlighting of informal relations along party lines between top level management and political parties, especially in private colleges: *Women are under-represented in leadership positions because of personal and social relations with top management, e.g. university president - a relative or same political party.*

In addition, it was purported that women were also disadvantaged because of lack of skills to carry out the leadership roles. This was raised in relation to both college types, and is illuminated by PU7's comment that *women may not gain leadership positions because they do not have the interpersonal skills, and also lack of knowledge and experience.* However, it was noted by a small minority of interviewees in both college types that they did not care whether the leader was male or female, "so long as they have the experience, abilities, skills, and behaviours to do the job". This reinforces interviewees' concern for staff having the requisite skills to be effective and efficient in their work, making suitability for the role a crucial element with regards to managing the human and financial resources, as well as academic programs in both college types.

### 5.3.2.1 Ages of the leaders in the public and private colleges

The findings of the survey showed that the majority of the leaders were aged between 35-45 years in both college types. In discussing this with interviewees, this was seen as generally applicable for a range of reasons. These reasons related to the key themes of the need for skills, issues of organisational culture, and influence of corruptive practices, as well as policy and rules, budget matters and private enterprise in private colleges.

The interviewees in both colleges were generally divided regarding young leaders' skills with some seeing them as having *higher-level abilities and skills for modern educational programs*, and others being of the view that they were inexperienced in management and leadership and lacked knowledge to do this. Both groups also indicated that their organisational culture had an important role to play. Besides the positions being available to any age group, younger leaders were seen as more motivated than their older counterparts, but they were also seen as valuable because they were more likely to undertake teaching, research and publishing. However, it was also pointed out by both groups that there were fewer younger leaders in the private colleges because they tended to employ retired public faculty members for most of their leadership positions. In addition, a minority of interviewees, as noted earlier in relation to recruitment, noted that appointment practices may enable younger leaders to take up leadership positions when they may not be the most eligible for the role. This was seen as occurring through favouring the relatives of the people in power; for instance, PU10 noted that: *These young leaders are appointed because they have personal and social connections with top level management in the public sector or the investor/developer of the private college*. Other comments in relation to this referred to the key theme of policy and rules, where employees in the public colleges were guaranteed their employment until age 63. Yet there were advantages for promotion in that *young leaders get leadership positions because of the Iraqi Higher Education Ministry scholarships that allow academics to travel to overseas universities to upskill* (PR8). In addition, the private college interviewees noted that, as their colleges were for profit, this impacted on their promotional opportunities compared with the public colleges.

Thus, the age demographic provided insights into how the business of the colleges might be influenced with regards to their leadership potential and influenced performance outcomes. It

would seem that some faculty members, and particularly the older members, may prefer their academic role rather than the uptake of leadership, as they may not necessarily be equipped or motivated to change.

#### 5.3.2.3 Academic level and years of service of leaders in the public and private colleges

In following up with the interviewees regarding the academic level of the leaders in the public and private colleges, their responses related to the key emergent themes of issues with policy and rules, corruptive practices, skills, organisational culture, and the instability of the country.

Policy and rules were seen as exerting a strong influence on staff academic levels because, as noted in relation to the discussion of age, these were seen as promoting opportunities for leadership for some in the public colleges. Consideration in more depth showed that to be in a faculty leadership role, staff needed to be at least at the Associate Professor academic level. However, it was also found that sometimes the Ministry of Higher Education (HEM) appointed leaders who were only at the lecturer level because of an agency system, as noted by PU2 and PR9. Also, PU2 advised: *lecturers are in leadership positions because of the HEM demands for those who wish to be promoted to achieve research outcomes and publishing in Q1 journals that are indexed in Scopus.* This point was only raised by interviewees from the private colleges. In addition, the impact of the war and continuing political unrest was also said to have led to the law preventing the employment of some previously established academics who were working with the previous regime before 2003. PU5 and PR 1 noted: *lecturers are in leadership positions because those who could have done the job from the previous regime have been prevented according to the laws of the current government.*

The issue of corruptive practices was also raised again in terms of appointment to higher academic levels. All but one interviewee described how people at the lecturer level were in leadership positions because of their personal and social connections to top level management in public colleges or the investor/developer of the private colleges. This also included a political dimension, with PU3 noting: *lecturers are in leadership positions because of appointment through the influence of political parties.* Moreover, with regards to this, all but one interviewee made the point that in their view lecturers did not have enough experience and efficiency to take up the

college leadership roles. Similarly, as noted earlier, the interviewees, and more so those in the public colleges raised the issue of their organisational culture in seeing it as being impacted by some academic's preferences for maintaining their academic focus rather than moving into leadership and management.

Thus, the interviewees generally confirmed the importance of leadership skills for their organisation and the need for a sound promotional system. However, they also identified that academics' preferences needed to be taken into account as it could not be expected that all would seek promotion to leadership and management, such that a focus on and provision of mentoring may be an option to address the shortage. Yet, in the current environment of Iraq facing continued safety challenges and to a large extent instability, it is very difficult to arrange for visiting distinguished academics and scholars, or indeed to travel abroad for current academic employees. Thus, it is not surprising that there would be quite a number of academics who have the title of lecturer in leadership positions.

Besides academic level being an issue in relation to the colleges' leadership, the years of service that people gave to their leadership role was also raised as a factor that impacted on the potential of others for promotion. The interviewees from both college types, besides continuing to highlight the inequitable practices involved, again noted the relevance of maintaining those people who were highly skilled and efficient and their preference for the accompanying higher salary. Thus, preservation of the status quo was identified as a way of reducing risk if changes in leaders were made. Yet, on the other hand, the weakness of HEM's policy and rules was noted with regards to ensuring fairness, particularly in private colleges.

The issue of corruptive practices was raised by the vast majority of interviewees in both college types, noting leadership positions in the private colleges were appointed through the financial investor. This contrasts with the process of the public colleges where leaders are appointed through the top-level management. Nevertheless, it was emphasised that appointments could be made on the basis of socio-political reasons as opposed to the person having the academic level, skills and knowledge. For instance, PU4 and PR3 noted that *people stay in these top positions because they have personal, social and tribal relations with those who appoint them*. Interviewees indicated that a democratic process was absent in the appointment of leadership positions. More than half of the interviewees from both college types were of the view that leadership staff were kept on in the

long term because of the private interests of the top management in the public colleges or of the financial investor in the private colleges. For example, those in management were aware of the profitability of a private college. Mostly, the investor in the private college selected the college's top level management team, who were then responsible for managing the money. As a consequence, it was pointed out that they had the freedom to decide who should receive scholarships and attend conferences. However, it was also suggested by more than half of each group that in some situations there may be some misappropriation of funds to favour personal needs rather than college and student needs. PR2 explained:

*Both public and private colleges can be influenced by a political party, e.g. Sunni and Shiite. Most investors require the support of a political party to open a college. There are rules about opening a college that require academics but also funding is needed. A college may be affiliated with a particular religious group/political party and take students from that group. (PR2)*

Similarly, both groups, and particularly public college interviewees, were of the view that financial and administrative corruption practices assisted the leaders to stay in leadership positions for longer. For example, PR9 noted:

*This situation occurs where people are not replaced because of financial and administrative corruption of the people in the top-level management, which may be related to their personal and social relationships. (PR9)*

It was also found that preserving the status quo of the colleges' leadership team was perceived as an important element in keeping the top-level management 'safe' because of the possibility that change may impact the college's present status or goals. Raised by more than half of the public college interviewees and two private college interviewees, this was reinforced by PU6's comment that *management prefers to stay with the persons they know if they are happy with them and not take the risk of changing staff – they have a fear of changing*. Also, a quarter of each group highlighted the importance of an established working relationship; as PR5 expressed: *the achievement of good working relationships between new leaders and top management is highly valued so people are kept in positions for longer to maintain harmony*. Thus, having good working

relationships between new leaders and top-level management was perceived as a vital factor to maintain some leaders in their positions for a longer period. This also highlighted the issue of skills again as being critical to the maintenance of leaders in their positions, regardless of the appointment process. This was raised by interviewees in both groups who noted that expert and professional leaders continued in the leadership positions for a long time according to their skills, abilities and perceived ‘good behaviour’ – maintaining the status quo. However, in the public colleges it was noted that government rules existed such that leaders who were college heads of departments usually served a term of two years, whereas the Dean of a college served four years. At the end of these periods, the higher leadership, e.g. the President of the university, typically assessed the situation and may provide an extra year. Nevertheless, interviewees described situations where a new person was appointed who was a personal preference of higher management. However, while this raised the issue of the Higher Education Ministry needing to strengthen their policies and rules to ensure fairness in procedures, particularly in private colleges, it was concluded that there were significant incentives for most leaders to be in their positions for a longer time because of high salaries and higher status, so most were keen to stay. Thus, much depended on them meeting the requirements of their superiors, although with different emphasises between the two college types.

#### **5.4 Interviewees’ perceptions of college leadership styles**

The interviews explored the results of the MLQ, seeking the interviewees’ reactions to the findings that leadership style in public colleges was perceived as more likely to be transformational compared with the private colleges’ more transactional styles, such as contingent reward and management-by-exception. In addition, it was shared with the interviewees that it appeared that there were similarities between the two groups in their perceptions of some presence of laissez faire leadership style. In addition, the interviews included the finding that the MLQ analysis showed that leadership in the public colleges was perceived as more effective than in the private colleges.

In relation to the interviewees’ views on the presence of transformational leadership style in the public and private colleges, the themes that emerged as most relevant related to policy and



rules, college organisational culture, incentives, and corruptive practices. The issue of policy and rules was reported to have a strong influence on the ability of leaders to practice a transformational leadership style. All of the interviewees in both college groups confirmed the following observation by PU5 that: *leaders of public colleges are appointed for two years with the possibility of being extended to four years which provides some stability and opportunity to be transformational*. Similarly, PU8 noted that: *Since the process of changing the leaders of public colleges is well known, it provides some stability for the leaders to engage people in making changes, but regulations need to be followed as well*. However, it was also pointed out by PR3 that *in order to lead any changes in the public colleges or build new buildings, the decisions are dependent on the government. There is not so much review of leaders' performance as salary is guaranteed*. Thus, while the results found public colleges more likely to be practising transformational leadership, the interviewees explained that there was limited flexibility in that administrative authority played a key role in shaping and practising the possibility of transformational leadership style in the public colleges. Nevertheless, compared with the private colleges, interviewees illuminated the fact that their operations were more geared to profit, which meant that there was more emphasis on 'getting the job done'. For example, PR10 emphasised that *because of the culture being influenced by the goal to make a profit, most of the faculty members and staff get on with the job and leaders are obeyed*. A further drawback to private colleges practising transformative leadership was evident in PR2's comment that *the process of changing the leaders of private colleges is rapid so there is less opportunity for being transformative*. Thus, interviewees in both groups types showed an awareness of the importance of the length of time leaders were in their positions as an important factor impacting on the quality of leadership possible. Having a guaranteed reasonable length of time in the leadership positions was seen as necessary to exercise transformative leadership, and in the absence of longer-term appointments it was more likely that transactional leadership would prevail.

In addition, with regards to the length of the appointment of staff to leadership positions, interviewees were also able to illuminate additional factors that impacted on the potential for transformative leadership or transformational leadership styles to predominate. Firstly, all interviewees raised the issue of lack of incentives for staff in the public colleges. For example, PU8 commented that *management in public colleges cannot give financial rewards because of a*

*limited budget. This contrasts with PR3's comment that in the private colleges leaders have unlimited financial and administrative authority so within our culture staff are happy to receive financial rewards.*

This matter was raised through interviewees' answers in both group types. ST10 reinforced that limited financial rewards could lead to making leaders of the public colleges more transformative because of this situation. This freedom of private college leaders managing their business and the availability of a budget to provide incentives to staff reinforced the survey result's finding that private colleges were more likely to be practising transactional leadership style. It is also important to note that the influence of the political parties was seen as having a significant impact on appointments of leaders and, in turn, the way a college was led and managed. This was seen as more relevant to the public colleges since the private colleges' leadership was linked to profitability. It was the view of all interviewees, as exemplified by PU9's comment that *the political parties play a major role in the selection of college leaders so leadership styles may vary.* Moreover, such appointments also added to the lack of skills in leadership such that when this occurred, the possibility of transformative leadership was seen as being compromised; e.g. PR7 noted: *faculty members and staff of public colleges do not obey the leaders because the leaders' behaviour is not seen as appropriate because they are appointed by a political party.* This situation was raised by interviewees in both college types.

The responses of the interviewees identified a very complex situation that was strongly influenced by the key differences between the two college types' *raison d'être*: public colleges' budgeting by government and private colleges' ability to financially profit. It was therefore not surprising that transactional leadership was more prevalent in the private colleges. PR5 explained: *The main goal in the private colleges is to gain students who pay fees so to make a profit, although the educational services have to meet the prospective students' needs, therefore leadership style is not seen as so important.* Thus, with a greater focus on pleasing a college's financial investor, interviewees were of the view that management actions were geared towards employment of leaders and managers and workplace practices that best supported that goal. Increased student numbers and completions were seen as very important. Moreover, it was the interviewees' view on both sides that typically leaders were maintained in their positions in private colleges based on their loyalty to the investors, which was symbolised by their management styles of contingent

reward and management-by-exception active. This issue was well defined by almost all interviewees from both groups. Furthermore, these transactional styles were confirmed in interviewee comments that in private colleges *the wages, rewards, and incentives are good* (PR10), and PU1's comment: *Since the wages, rewards, and incentives are good in a private college, contingent reward leadership style works well*. Overall, the transactional style was seen as more relevant to the private colleges because, as explained in PU5's words: *private colleges are free to get on with their work with little Ministry of Higher Education control over the way they are run*. However, only a minority of interviewees from both college types called for greater accountability, which reflected interviewees' recognition of a significant tendency for staff to preserve the status quo.

Similarly, the same range of issues was raised in relation to interviewees' views on the survey's finding that a laissez faire leadership style was evident in both the public and private colleges but a little more so in private colleges. Besides, interviewees had the opinion that laissez faire leadership style was more prevalent than the survey found, and there was consensus that it was fostered because of corruption in appointment practices. This was because staff could be appointed for political and cultural reasons, and were typically under-qualified. In addition, financial incentives in private colleges, as part of the role, were seen as promoting the circumstances that created laissez-faire leadership. Furthermore, PR6 expressed the opinion that:

*the personal, social tribal relations have more influence on both private and public colleges, such that improving leadership would not easily make a difference as informal relations, loyalty and sincerity for the investor and top management have led to put the wrong person in wrong place.*

This view was common to both groups, with PR10 noting that: *given the existing social culture and organisational culture, there is a fear of changing leadership style and a greater fear of the risk of practising change in the private colleges because of the emphasis on profit*. Moreover, both the potential challenges of the socio-cultural/political context and the colleges' organisational cultural contexts led PR6 to explain that:

*The many problems associated with the influence of the tribes and political parties prevent leaders from exercising their leadership; associated with this is a culture of violence where there may be enemies both in society and the colleges, including members of the militia.*

While only three public college interviewees described this detail, it helps to explain how both the external and internal environments may negatively impact on successful leadership in the colleges. In turn, this reinforced interviewees highlighting the importance of “not rocking the boat” making preservation of the status quo the easiest option in both types of college.

### **5.5 Interviewees’ perceptions of their colleges’ performance and strategic planning processes**

This section reports on the interviewees’ perceptions of their respective colleges’ performance and strategic planning processes. They were made aware of the survey package results, which found that staff in both college types were perceived as struggling with the various stages of the strategic planning process. This included formulation, implementation, and evaluation, such that it was concluded that while documents may exist, they are typically “just ink on paper”, rather than being used to drive and evaluate their business practice and performance. The interviewees were also informed that the results of the survey package showed that the vast majority of respondents believed strategic planning to be very important but more than half had not undertaken any training. The survey respondents were of the view that the college leaders identified a lack of expert and specialist human resources to support their strategic planning process, and there were issues with communication systems, and in some cases difficulties in reconciling personal and public interests. Thus, the interview results and emergent themes helped further explain: (1) how the college went about planning to try to successfully deliver their education programs in public and private colleges; (2) the impact of the lack of strategic planning skills; (3) the role of cultural issues in implementing successful strategic planning processes; (4) the influence of government policy and rules; and (5) perceptions of the impact of preserving the status quo. The researcher also explored interviewees’ view of the way their college went about planning to try to successfully deliver its education programs. This included the extent to which their colleges had developed a

vision, mission, a set of values and goals, and from their personal perspective what their hopes and dreams were for the future.

The way the colleges went about their strategic planning to be able to successfully deliver their education programs was found to vary across the colleges and the public and private sector. All interviewees in both college types, except one in a public college, pointed to the lack of organisational structure to support a systematic approach to strategic planning. For instance, PR7 noted: *there is no specialised committee, unit, or experts in the strategic planning process*. All public college interviewees raised the issue of lack of budget to support strategic planning; for example, PU9 stated: *there is not enough budget to enable the leaders to practise the strategic planning process*. In addition, the majority of interviewees in both college types stressed that the process was not implemented; e.g. PR6 advised: *we just read and teach strategic management, but we cannot implement it*. While this shows a contrast between the two college types, in private colleges lacking budget, they may have a budget but according to the interviewees the organisational culture was such that leaders were reluctant to engage. For instance, PR1 explained: *most leaders are retired, and they do not care about success of implementing strategic planning*, while PR8 reported: *the rapid changes in top management (Dean) make it difficult*. Also, in both college types, responses reflected a lack of support from the top-level management/investors; as PR4 explained: *some leaders try to do strategic planning, but they face limitations with the top management and investors*. Nevertheless, it is important that policy and rules expected strategic planning to be applied, with the majority of interviewees from both college types (80%) being in agreement with PU5's comment that they did "just normal planning according to common interests between the college and its ministry".

But this was further illuminated by approximately a quarter of each group advising that frequent policy changes were unhelpful. For instance, PR7 stated: *the higher education ministry continually changes decisions making it very confusing and difficult to plan*. However, the issue of strategic planning reinforced the way practice differed according to colleges' public or private status. Three-quarters of interviewees in the private colleges were of the opinion that most of their leaders were more interested in their salaries and the extra benefits associated with their job than engaging in strategic planning. By contrast, PU6 commented that: *strategic planning is removed from reality*

*due to the leader's exaggeration and "showing off" in their plans when the resources are not available to achieve the goals*, which suggests that in public colleges there are attempts to comply.

Importantly, while the interviewees saw a lack of effectiveness and efficiency as major factors impacting on the strategic planning process, apart from the need for supportive organisational committee structures and budget, stronger leadership and coordination from the Higher Education Ministry, the most significant drawbacks were identified as lack of skills and lack of professional development opportunities.

## **5.6 Challenges and considerations for the future**

This section discusses challenges and considerations for the future of the higher education section in general, but in particular in the Iraqi higher education sector, such as interviewees' recommendations for improving leadership in the colleges and their advice on change and aspirations. These challenges and considerations may improve and develop the performance of the public and private colleges in the future, and the improvements and developments through the recommendations of the current study could lead to achieving organisational success.

### **5.6.1 Interviewees' recommendations for improving leadership in the colleges**

As noted earlier, there was a strong consensus among the interviewees that improved leadership across the colleges in both sectors could have a significant positive impact on the colleges' performance and success. Interviewees, who were senior leaders in their colleges, highlighted the need for clear strategic planning advice, besides appropriate budget allowances for the work, but most of all they argued for professional development opportunities to be able to acquire the skills to confidently put into practice what they had learned. In order to facilitate this, interviewees offered a variety of suggestions. After pointing out that a previously well-established leadership institute had closed when the war started in 2003, it was suggested by a third of the total sample that this needed to be reopened. It was also advised that there had been a budget for professional development and training that ended in 2014, which most interviewees (80%) recommended renewing. While 36% of private college leaders and 70% of public college leaders

were specific about all leaders needing to do training, approximately a third of each group thought it should be mandated. PU8 stated: *each leader needs to complete a leadership training course in the leadership style that suits the conditions of their new position with expert and professional trainers*. On the other hand, PR2 advised: *the Iraqi Higher Education Ministry must issue instructions that force leaders to undertake training courses in leadership and administration before they take up their leadership positions*. As well, 40% of public college interviewees and 30% of private college interviewees believed there needed to be compliance at the time of leaders' appointments. For instance, PU5 stated: *Appointment to a leadership position must depend on the person fulfilling conditions that include experience, integrity, effectiveness and efficiency, scientific title, and characteristics of personality*.

Approximately a quarter of each group recommended that senior leaders should have the opportunity to go to developed countries for training according to their needs. The comment by PU9, which was reinforced by approximately a fifth of each group, was that: *institutes, centres, continuing learning offices, and consulting offices should be reintroduced*. This revealed a serious gap in the provision of professional development for education leaders as a result of the disruption of war and almost two decades of unrest.

The interviewees were of the opinion that providing these changes at the top level would yield very important benefits for the operations and the performance of both the public and private colleges, and in the long run the colleges' ranks and valuing of their degrees. As PU4 stated: *these changes will make the Iraqi public colleges occupy a higher rank within the global set of universities*, while PR7 stated: *these changes will make the private colleges more reliable and distinguished in the eyes of the public*. Over half of the private college interviewees showed a concern for their students being able to obtain jobs upon graduation, with PR3 commenting that: *these changes will improve the colleges' outcomes such that graduates will be able to obtain good jobs*. Similarly, 20% of public college interviewees advised, as per PU10's comment, that: *these changes will create some new specialisations in higher studies that will better meet the public needs*. Private college interviewees also saw their recommendations to improve leadership as helping to improve their organisational performance and in turn their profit, while a fifth of public college interviewees believed the change would position the Iraqi public colleges in a more competitive position 'with the respectable colleges in the world'.

Interviewees' responses demonstrated their perceived importance of their college degrees' rank and relevance to the job market. These are critical considerations in any strategic plan that can make the colleges more viable and prestigious. Although the private colleges tended to seek to improve their reputation mostly within the domestic market, the suggested changes to improve leadership should help make outcomes for both groups more in accordance with the overall needs of the marketplace. Moreover, interviewees reinforced the importance of their colleges' financial success, seeing it as an essential factor to consider in making the colleges successful, especially for the private for-profit sector, but also for the public colleges that were very much more dependent on the government for their budget.

Other improvements that the interviewees linked to having more effective leaders and strategic planning processes in place related to more frequent interactions with the government education authority, increasing staff's understanding of the way strategic planning works, encouraging them to participate in offering new ideas and creativity, achieving greater employee and student satisfaction, and helping reduce inequitable and corruptive practices.

Moreover, the suggested changes were seen by all interviewees as supporting them to enhance their practice and even introduce distance education. PU5 stated: *these changes will help improve the educational programs and develop them according to modern education techniques in global universities*. Similarly, the importance of the changes showed that just over half of each group saw them as an advantage because staff would be more aware of having a coordinated approach. For instance, PR7 emphasised: *these changes will help faculty members gain more understanding of the practical and theoretical aspects of delivering education in the colleges*. Important also was the interviewees' recognition of the need to improve the colleges' access to the Internet. Having a stable and efficient Internet service was seen as paramount to the change. This related to the effectiveness of their ability to communicate internally and externally, and also the marketing of their degrees. It also related to the interviewees' aspirations to introduce distance education so that students could continue to work while they studied online. Combined with the suggested increase in the Ministry of Higher Education's role in greater coordination of regulated practices, the improvements the interviewees attributed to the promoting and delivery of their degrees through information communication technologies (ICTs), which was seen as a major necessity. Having access to ICTs to support their work was also seen as a strategy to achieve greater transparency in



their work and therefore help reduce inequitable and corruptive practices. PU2 noted: *these changes [introduction of ICT] will enable the public and private colleges to introduce distance education*. Also of note was the fact that half of the private college interviewees saw the introduction of ICT in their workplace as being more equitable. PR2 stated: *these changes will make workplace practice fairer for staff and students in the faculty*, thus adding to the importance of both staff and student satisfaction. The scope of the Internet service was identified as needing to infiltrate all aspects of staff work by 60% of both groups. This is evident in the comment by PR7 who stated: *supply Internet services for all of faculty members, and staff offices, and Wi-Fi in study halls in all the Iraqi colleges, so that ICT is developed and improved to do the job for staff and students*. Thus, not only was organisational culture raised as being able to improve, through the introduction of ICTs, but students' daily lives on campus together with their learning experiences were also seen as being able to be improved as well.

#### 5.6.2 Interviewees' advice on change and aspirations for the future

The results of the analysis of interviewees' responses as to how the colleges might go about making their suggested changes further emphasised the need for staff professional development and review of appointment processes, as well as immediate uptake of ICTs, as described above, which reflected a revamping of courses and pedagogy, a review of policy and rules and standardisation of entry requirements, and provision of staff incentives.

More detailed ideas were offered regarding the need for staff professional development to enable the proposed changes to occur. Half of the interviewees from each college type recommended funding various initiatives, including forming connections with specific universities around the world for mutual cooperation. PU7 advised to: *make agreements with some respected universities in the world to exchange knowledge and create new educational programs. For example, a loan or exchange system or visiting professor*. As a result of academics' time abroad, it was the view that upon their return they would be able to *transfer the culture of education from the developed countries into the practices of the Iraqi colleges* (PU4).

An additional strategy that was suggested by three public college interviewees was the provision of time on-the-job on a weekly basis to undertake professional development. This suggestion

would allow for some personal planning and would be open to staff connecting across colleges and also building closer relationships with business and industry relevant to their field. As PU10 stated:

*Provide faculty members in both government and private colleges one day per week to learn about the practical aspects of the discipline or field of study, not just the theoretical aspects, so they can explain and transfer that knowledge to their students. Students are not involved in formalized practicum experience or on-the-job learning, although they can visit workplaces, but the experience is unstructured.*

In addition, in highlighting the need for contemporary pedagogy and workplace practices, the importance of making the use of ICTs obligatory was evident in PR2's statement:

*In the private colleges there is a need to move the old and retired leaders from the leadership positions to the teaching work because they have classic and traditional thinking and teaching expertise [however] it needs to be acknowledged that these older teachers are seen as being able to teach well within the existing system that does not use computers and the Internet other than data display in lectures using PowerPoint.*

Similarly, the importance of improved pedagogical approaches and quality learning materials as well as appropriate staffing was further shown to be necessary to achieving the change. This was raised by both private and public college interviewees (20% and 50%, respectively), as exemplified in PU5's comment: *There is a need to put the appropriate person in the appropriate position and reorganize provision of information and ensure appropriate planning and processes to ensure high quality learning materials and appropriately qualified staff are in place to teach.*

In addition, the theme of policy and rules emerged in both public college and private college interviewees' discussions on how practices might change to address the issues raised in the results of the survey package (up to 40% and 20%, respectively). Differences in practices because of the 'for profit' versus the 'not for profit' divide between the two college types was raised in the form of a concern for standards. This was evident in one fifth of interviewees' responses from both sectors and reflected in PR8's advice:

*change the entry requirements for students going into private colleges to be only slightly less than those for the public colleges to ensure greater equivalence, since at present entry standards are much lower in the private colleges.*

Similarly, PU4 advised to: *change the current culture where weak students search for the weakest colleges with the poorest teaching capacity to obtain their degrees, where they are just paying the fees without any hard study, attending, and homework.*

Thus, the issue of need for standard practices between college types continued to be highlighted in terms of adherence to policy and rules. This is reinforced by a comment of PR7, who advised to:

*Introduce processes and rules that will prevent those faculty members whose teaching behaviour is inappropriate for teaching, because they are not equipped to deal ethically, morally and educationally with either the students or the educational materials and programs. In fact, some of these people are corrupt.*

As well, PR2 recommended to: *ensure that some conditions are in place that can be enforced to cause the investors in the private colleges to introduce a PhD degree and strategies to ensure professional operations of the college.* It was also recommended that class size in each college type should be the same in keeping with the Ministry's regulations, as currently *private colleges take more students than the government regulates . . . on the basis of not being able to build extra teaching rooms* (PU7).

Also, in terms of adherence to policy and rules, a minority of interviewees in both college types also alluded to the need 'to fight' inequitable and corruptive practices as raised earlier. Again, these were seen as related to the influence of the wider culture of society in terms of membership and loyalty to specific tribes and political groups. Almost three-quarters of the private college interviewees compared with one in 10 (10%) of public college interviewees highlighted specifically the need for processes to prevent administrative and financial corruption. However, a minority of interviewees also saw a need for processes and rules to ensure that academic staff's behaviour was appropriate such that they would be *equipped to deal ethically, morally and*

*educationally with either the students or the educational materials and programs* (PR11). Thus, it was emphasised that *appointments to leadership positions must depend on the person fulfilling conditions that include experience, integrity, effectiveness and efficiency, scientific title, and characteristics of personality* (PU5). Approximately one third of the private college interviewees argued for this, along with 40% of those from the public colleges.

In general, the way forward was seen as depending on the support to design and implement major changes, which once in place were seen as influencing the need for the college degrees to gain higher rankings and to be more applicable to business and industry needs. The need to design reliable programs to be suitable to the open market needs and the global environment was reinforced as well. Moreover, the restructuring of the colleges was seen as vital to support strategic planning and improve the scientific, financial, administrative, and marketing operations. A team approach to making the change was seen as necessary in both college types, where leaders and all staff would have acquired more relevant skills to meet their responsibilities. In addition, incentives were seen as an important way of motivating staff's commitment. This was raised particularly in the private colleges, but equally applicable in public colleges, and captured in the need to provide *excellence awards and gifts to the faculty and staff who are distinguishing themselves in their work* (PR2).

## **5.7 Summary of chapter**

This chapter has reported the results of the analysis of qualitative data from the interviews conducted with a sample of 21 senior leaders from both the public and private colleges (10 and 11, respectively) who had completed the survey package. Essentially, these results reinforced the survey findings and further illuminated the various issues that arose. More in-depth, descriptive information was provided by participants, which provided a clearer picture of the challenges facing both the higher education system and the senior leaders within it. These results further confirmed and highlighted the implications stemming from the different college types' predominant and contrasting leadership styles. They also showed how issues with administrative and pedagogical practices created significant challenges and impacted on students and staff in a range of ways. Of note was the power of elements of both the internal and external sociocultural environments that

were seen as influencing policy and rules, including the appointment of leadership staff. However, interviewees were able to offer valuable ideas for reform, where senior leadership staff were seen as in much need of professional development opportunities. Interviewees aspired to creating connections with universities abroad in addition to bringing back services that had been cut because of the country's long-term unrest. They also recognised the contribution that the introduction of reliable Internet would provide to enhance communication, promotion of courses, course pedagogy and as well as the colleges' administrative and strategic planning processes. Still, the desired change was seen as dependent on cultural change and access to financial and human resources.

## **CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

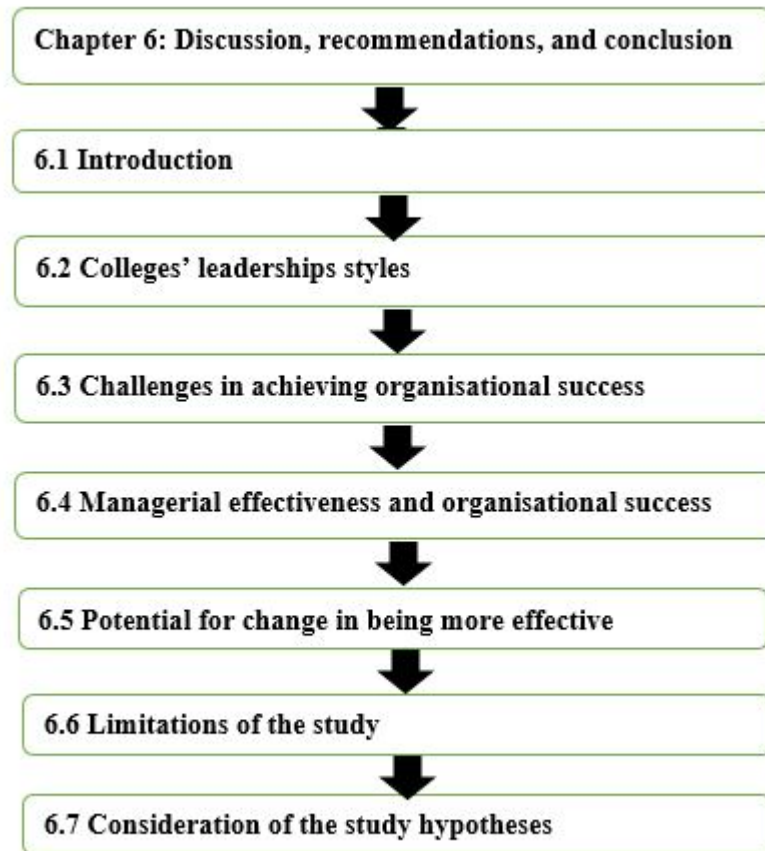
### **6.1. Introduction**

The focus of this study was the Iraqi higher education sector in Baghdad capital city. The previous two chapters, four and five, have reported the results of senior leaders' views of the leadership styles, strategic planning processes, organisational success, and organisational culture present in a sample of public and private colleges. Data were triangulated through the use of a survey, followed by a sub-sample of interviews. This chapter seeks to answer the research questions and how the research makes a contribution to knowledge. To reiterate the research questions: (1) What current leadership styles are present in Iraqi public and private colleges?; (2) What challenges do the colleges face in achieving organisational success?; and (3) How might these colleges adapt and change their practices to be more effective in achieving their goals? This chapter presents the discussion and conclusions, and considers the research limitations, as well as making recommendations for the colleges and the ministry, and future research.

Divided into eight sections, the chapter begins with this introduction, Section 6.1. Then, Section 6.2 discusses the colleges' leadership styles and the demographic characteristics of the colleges' leaders. Section 6.3 discusses the challenges in the colleges achieving organisational success, with Section 6.4 covering their managerial effectiveness, while Section 6.5 examines the potential for change in being more effective to achieving their goals. Section 6.6 presents the research contribution to knowledge. This is followed by Section 6.7, which considers the limitations of the study, before Section 6.8 presents the conclusions, including the recommendations and implications for future research. This chapter covers eight sections, which are presented in Figure 6.1.

Overall, the research results provide strategic advice on how to create more effective practices to achieve more positive educational outcomes for the Iraqi higher education colleges, which was the focus of the study. It includes how both business practices and teaching and learning might be improved and government policy and regulation may be tightened to better address current challenges facing such Iraqi tertiary institutions, as potentially key change

agents in a developing country that remains disrupted by long-term war and current unrest. It highlights a model for enabling a transitional pathway to more effective equitable educational services and college employment and related conditions.



**Figure 6.1:** Outline of Chapter 6

## 6.2 The colleges' leadership styles

Research question one asked “What current leadership styles are present in the Iraqi public and private colleges?” This question was important as it acknowledged the place of leadership in the colleges' operations in terms of its capacity to influence planning processes. Generally, findings of the study showed that leaders of the public and private colleges were implementing both transformational and transactional leadership styles in part. However, there were some differences with respect to the various factors involved. While leaders of the public colleges tended to use the transformational style factors more frequently than the leaders of the private colleges, the private college leaders perceived their colleges as mainly practising transactional styles, particularly contingent reward and management-by-exception active. These differences in the practising of leadership styles were relatively large for both groups, hence implying a possibly important reason for any differences in performance and outcomes between the two college types. However, the research also suggested that the leaders in both groups did not have a clear understanding of leadership and the various styles and ways they may influence an organisation's culture and ultimately achievement of outcomes.

With respect to the transformational leadership style factors of Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA), Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB), Individualized Consideration (IC), Inspirational Motivation (IM), and Intellectual Stimulation (IS) for both groups, the findings showed that most leaders of the public colleges indicated they practised a transformational style more than the leaders of the private colleges. This was particularly the case with regard to the factors of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, the latter being statistically significant compared with the private colleges. This result reflects that of (Al-Husseini & Ibeltagi, 2016), and indicates public college leaders' identification of the related behaviours in their completion of the MLQ. Also, the dimension of idealised influence was identified by the public college leaders more so than in the private colleges, suggesting these leaders were more likely to gain the respect and trust of their staff, and may encourage them more effectively to meet their goals. For example, this includes developing their courses and publishing their research, as well as aspiring to participate in training programs and adopting new technology to foster improvement when available. Similarly, in relation to the dimension of individualised considerations, this result confirmed public colleges leaders as more likely to be encouraging staff, personally, by listening to their ideas and including them in seeking solutions to emergent work problems.



Hence, responses of the leaders of the public colleges indicated they were working more cooperatively, collaborating with their faculty staff, paying more attention, and providing opportunities for staff to have input into their work practices, as compared with leaders in the private colleges. This further implies that leaders of the public colleges enhanced and encouraged confidence in staff to participate, such that attention to achieving outcomes and addressing any challenges was at the fore.

Although most of leaders of the public colleges tended to use transformational leadership styles, it was also found that they used other styles depending on the circumstances. However, there was evidence of leaders in public colleges being transactional and authoritative at the same time. Whilst these styles may be necessary at times, this indicates there may be room for building better understandings of how building interpersonal relationships supports working together. This again reinforces the need for professional development. In addition, the need for professional development opportunities in this regard emerged as central to the research findings with respect to the organisational culture in both groups of colleges.

With regard to the factors of transactional leadership style - Contingent Rewards (CR), Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA), and Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP) - most leaders of the private colleges perceived themselves to be practising this style compared with the public colleges, especially as noted with regards to contingent reward and active management-by-exception. Prevalence of leaders in the private colleges using this style showed that as 'for profit' organisations it was important for staff to comply with getting the job done. Moreover, provision of rewards in exchange for efforts or compliance was seen central to practice. In this context, staff would become aware or learn that they were expected to perform their work in exchange for the leader's approval of some kind, which typically reduced commitment to trying to do their best. This contrasts with the findings of (El Amouri & O'Neill, 2014), who compared the leadership style of nurse leaders in public and private hospitals in the United Arab Emirates. They found greater compliance in public hospitals and more transformative leadership in private hospitals, but the latter staff included expatriates who had undertaken some kind of relevant training.

Not surprisingly, given the trend towards transactional leadership style and compliance in the private colleges, the present study also found these leaders indicating less use of intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, compared with public college leaders. This typically involved achieving the essential outcomes by implementing a system of rewards

coupled with building in techniques to avoid errors. Also, although the leaders of the public colleges used factors of transformational style, they recognised the importance of the need to vary their leadership style according to the circumstances, thus reporting that they used factors of contingent rewards only when necessary.

With respect to the style of Laissez Faire (LF), the study's findings showed a similar response from participants from both college types, suggesting, generally, minimal use. However, with regard to behaviours where leaders were "avoiding getting involved when important issues arise", private college leaders reported more use compared to public college leaders, suggesting them to be less concerned about monitoring what was happening in their workplace. In addition, leaders of the public colleges showed greater awareness and concern in noting they "did not delay answering urgent questions" compared with leaders in the private colleges. Again, these differences in practice regarding leadership styles appear to reflect key differences in the two college types' organisational cultures and responses to top level management. These contrasts in leadership styles in the two college types impacted on staff perceptions of the way they should do their work and the extent to which they felt they had a voice in decision-making. They contributed to understanding their organisational culture, and in turn, were influenced by the way leaders were employed, particularly in private colleges where tenure may depend on achieving higher profitability and maintenance of the status quo.

In the main, the reasons that emerged regarding laissez-faire leadership styles being present in both groups also related to the sociocultural situation in terms of the influence of local political parties and tribes on the selection and change of senior staff. This practice contributed to the appointment of leaders who may lack both knowledge and experience in leadership as well as management. In addition, as noted with respect to private colleges, the need for profitability also impacted on staff appointments and changes. Thus, the combination of leadership teams did not necessarily have the leadership knowledge and skills to develop organisational cultures that would enable strategic planning processes and plans to best achieve organisational success. As a consequence of these issues, the leaders in the private colleges were concerned about changing their leadership style in case the subsequent change to workplace practices might interfere with achieving their institution's profit.

A second, socioculturally related influence involved both the presence of Iraqi tribal, political, and militia groups, or a combination, as having an impact on leadership appointments. This is a commonly recognised aspect that has also been identified as influencing business and

employment in the oil sector, including corruptive practices (Skelton & Saleem, 2019). In this context leaders may be discouraged from exercising leadership except to represent their 'referees', and associated with this is the legacy of a culture of violence where there may be 'enemies' within the society and the college observing appointees' behaviours. This socio-political, cultural aspect is borne out in Skelton and Saleem's (2019, p. 14) report where they note that "in this narrative, federal and local government agencies such as the BOC [Basra Oil Company] and the employment offices have become thoroughly embroiled in a nepotistic system favouring those with party and militia connections". Therefore, particularly in private colleges, where the major aim of leaders is to please the top-level management to meet the college investor's financial goals, such influences are present, and therefore may ultimately impact on the quality of course delivery and assessment at the expense of profitability. An additional factor in the appointment of senior staff is the reduced pool of potential applicants. This is also partially due to the migration of academics to other countries because of the past war and continued unrest and disruption, as well as the security situation. Thus, taking into account all of these issues and the need for senior staff to be better prepared for their leadership roles, this shows that their lack of effectiveness and efficiency acts as a barrier to change.

With respect to findings on the leadership styles regarding Effectiveness (E), Extra Efforts (EE), and Satisfaction (S), the achievement of these was more prevalent in the public colleges than in the private colleges. This reinforced the notion that leaders in the public college, overall, were significantly more positive, and more consistently so, than the leaders in the private colleges in terms of their business practices. Importantly, for the achievement of the institutions' goals, these qualities are critical for organisational success that takes into account a range of goals, including course quality, teaching and learning, and assessment, rather than profitability being the overriding criterion, as seemed to be the danger in private colleges. Thus, it was noted that public colleges, as government funded institutions, may not have the same financial pressures as private colleges (e.g. profit focused), but, participants complained of limited budgets. Thus, it appeared that government regulatory processes in those colleges may receive more attention. However, generally, there was a call for better coordination of practices by the Ministry of Higher Education, and a call for more funding for public colleges.

Therefore, when taken in conjunction with the two college types' reported core leadership styles, transformative versus transactional in public and private colleges respectively, this also helps to explain the fact that public colleges should be more committed

to achieving their institutional goals. Yet, the research findings also suggested several other key reasons for this major difference in the two types of colleges' leadership style. Firstly, staff in the public colleges were reported to have greater job security and therefore stability in their leadership roles. Similarly, they were perceived as carrying out their duties more in keeping with government regulations, but with limited flexibility and administrative authority compared with leaders in private colleges. In addition, the processes for changing public college leaders were found to be clearer and well known to staff, therefore again providing some stability for the leaders to engage people in making changes. In contrast, in the private colleges, where the institutions were intent on making a profit, leadership roles were reported as less stable since performance was largely connected to this single variable. Furthermore, the leader's performance in the public colleges was seen as more under scrutiny because they were appointed through the Ministry of Higher Education selection processes.

Thus, this contrast between the two college types and the impact of the private colleges' financial independence and profitability goal also extended to the fact that leaders in the private colleges had unlimited financial and administrative authority, and within their organisational culture staff were happy to receive financial rewards. Moreover, since private college leaders and staff were not generally governed by the rules of the ministry, because of their independence they apparently had an extensive flexibility. In addition, the process of changing leaders was seen as being rapid in order to respond to achieving financial profit, so there was less demand for implementing transformative leadership. Thus, it was understandable that the focus would be more on transactional leadership styles.

#### 6.2.1 The demographic characteristics of college leaders

Findings of the demographic characteristics of the study's sample showed important information about leaders in both the public and private colleges with regard to gender, age, title, current position, tenure, and any uptake of leadership training courses. With respect to the gender of the study's sample, it was found that most of the leadership positions in both college types were occupied by males. The main reasons for this were attributed to the lack of fair criteria to enable female academics to be promoted to leadership positions, in combination with other reasons such as sociocultural considerations, and the instability of the country and safety concerns regarding travelling to and from work. In addition, participants reported unfair

employment practices and were concerned about the need for college leaders to have the appropriate skills not being the key reason for selection. Thus, this situation emerged also as a contributing factor to the perceived difficulties associated with the colleges' organisational culture and the socio-political culture of the wider society, in general.

With respect to the age of leaders, the results showed that across both college types 56% of the participants who were in leadership positions were 45 years old or younger, although the private colleges included a greater percentage of older leaders at 30% compared with only 14% in the public colleges. One reason for the larger older age group in the private colleges was the practice of retired academics being re-employed in the private colleges. However, other factors that emerged related to the recruitment practices particularly in the private sector. It was found that these leaders may lack knowledge and skills in relation to leadership and management, and they experienced a lack of professional development opportunities or role models. In addition, it was found that the academic title of leaders in both groups could be influenced by the culture of the organisation, particularly with regards to policy and rules. For example, the study found that a large proportion of leaders in the private colleges (41%) were senior lecturers compared with only 23% in public colleges, because most of them did not follow the policy and rules of the ministry. Thus, this could be a contributing factor to the lower performance of the private colleges compared with the better performance of the public colleges, which employed 32% associate professors in keeping with the higher education policy, compared with only 13.7% in the private colleges, suggesting that private colleges accrued financial savings in terms of academic employment practices. Moreover, the research showed that with respect to the current position of leaders in both groups, the majority were Heads of Departments, thus substantiating their ability to respond to the data collection instruments from a position of knowledge about the respective college types. This means that information, advice, responses, suggestions, and recommendations should have a veracity in terms of the perceived practices and experiences about the study's focus on leadership styles, strategic planning processes, organisational success, and organisational culture.

In relation the leadership positions in both groups, several key elements were found to affect the participants' tenure, including their skills but also their ability to contribute to preserving the status quo. Moreover, internal organisational cultural practices, and in some cases incentives, and particularly in the public colleges, adherence to government policy and rules, were key considerations. However, the participants in the private colleges were more

likely to attribute issues with tenure to practices that were subjective, such that results showed most leaders of the private colleges stayed in their leadership positions because of decisions by the colleges' financial investors. Thus, most of these leaders in the private colleges needed to comply with the investors' requirements rather than operate in the public interest of the college. In contrast, in the public colleges, it was shown that the law of the government's higher education sector was uppermost, ensuring that the tenure of those staying in leadership positions was between the required two to four years, according to their effectiveness and efficiency. While this likely contributed to more effective outcomes of the government colleges, since these appointment practices and tenure related more to qualifications and skills, it was still reported that in some cases unfair practices and personal interests were evident in the strategic planning process.

### **6.3 Challenges in the colleges achieving organisational success**

Research question two asked "What challenges do the colleges face in achieving organisational success?" To answer this question, the study considered the relationship between leadership style, strategic planning and organisational success through its application of the MLQ and the balanced score card, and the testing of the study hypotheses. The findings regarding the colleges' strategic planning processes were very revealing in terms of the need for improvement for both groups. It was found that both the public and private colleges were struggling at each stage of the strategic planning process: (1) formulation, (2) implementation, and (3) evaluation. However, as the research found, while 'strategic plans' were generally prepared, they were limited in their actioning and impact on operations. Thus, both college groups were not really implementing actual strategic planning because of the absence of expertise and experience, and a lack of valuing of the practices that form part of the strategic process. Moreover, it was found that, in some cases, this led to copying other strategic plans and objectives from successful colleges around the world, where they were accessible online. Thus, there tended to be a lack of evidence of its implementation, together with the importance of making the connections between the different processes and elements, in understanding planning to achieve set goals. Overall, the study identified six aspects of strategic planning applicable to both college types that were necessary to be able to plan and improve in this regard. These were: (1) participation of faculty members and staff, (2) tools and supported

factors through a process of strategic plan formulation and implementation, (3) need for a professional training course in the strategic planning process, (4), ICT, and (6) value of the strategic planning process.

### 6.3.1 Participation in the strategic planning process

The research found that college staff had limited participation in the strategic planning process and it was not embedded in their organisational culture. Also, no connections were made between the strategic planning process and the local business community to be able to identify the degree needs and other strategic data for planning. This applied to both college types, where the respective colleges' councils' membership was mainly comprised of presidents and senior leaders. This was mainly due, as noted earlier, to their limited understanding of the concepts and the processes involved, such that it was not understood as a strategic aspect of being able to take such action to achieve set goals. Thus, this lack of knowledge contributed to a lack of relevance to reality and so staff participation, which was not only confined to staff, also did not recognise faculty needs nor displayed a consideration of the student body. There was a need identified to involve the broader stakeholders of government, private sector, and other societal organisations in planning to take account of the challenging context of Iraq, including employment potential and employability skills. Unemployment has averaged at 13% over the past four years with the Iraqi government, in conjunction with the Federal Public Service, creating a graduate job seeker and professional skills and abilities 'tawtheel' portal in recognition of the need to improve the economic environment (Iraqi Business News, 2020). Improvements in this area would encourage staff, as participants, to gain a deeper understanding, and be able to take more responsibility in contributing to the SPP and be more forward-looking. In this way college leaders would appreciate staff as a resource in bringing their new ideas and potential creative solutions to respective challenges. In addition, the leaders in this study were generally well aware of the need for improvements but also that the task was not easy. Hence, there is a dire need for professional development and additional resources to ensure the actual planning process is strategic, connected to existing performance data, and implemented with appropriate performance monitoring and evaluation.

Although the number of participants in the respective college types' strategic planning processes was found to be very limited, the public colleges were somewhat more inclusive than

the private colleges. Again, this could be said to relate to the issue of profitability overriding the need to ensure strategic planning took place. Also, there was a need to link this with the setting of targets and monitoring of performance outcomes through a range of measures. However, it was noted that the absence of external stakeholders' participation in the colleges' councils created a gap in them being able to have the best information from the community and business regarding their knowledge and needs to feed into the process. So, it was found that this represented a missed opportunity for the colleges to access a valuable resource, which could improve their knowledge about the needs of the marketplace.

#### 6.3.1.2 Formulation of tools to support the strategic planning process

The lack of tools required to support the strategic planning process also emerged as an important finding of the research. The study found that besides lack of knowledge about the strategic planning process, both college types lacked the basic tools to plan strategically and implement the process, although the public colleges were a little better prepared. For example, there was weakness in the infrastructure components of the information system in the colleges under study. In addition, available data and information were limited and the strategic nature was weak. It was also reported to be inaccurate in relation to its representation of environmental variables. One major drawback was the lack of information communication technology and fast reliable Internet speed. There was also a perceived lack of devices to support regular and easy connectivity. This prevented the ability to connect to strategic data and information to support top management members decision-making in an appropriate way and timeframe. The absence of a specialised strategic information support system, therefore, highlighted how college leaders were further challenged in being able to strategically plan and take actions to enable monitoring and evaluation to build on their present performance and to inform improvements. Moreover, formulating strategic alternatives becomes very difficult under these circumstances as planning depends on the ongoing provision of data and information that is accurate and actual. Similarly, without improvements in the country's uptake of technology for education and learning, and also business, the capacity to facilitate growth is limited, with its GDP remaining low (Lubis et al., 2017). Thus, the adoption of information communication technologies to support all business and teaching practices is essential to the colleges' adaptation and change for greater success.



### 6.3.1.3 Awareness of support factors for strategic planning

As can be appreciated, with the general lack of awareness and knowledge of the importance of strategic planning in managing an educational institution to achieve planned outcomes, there was also a general lack of awareness of support factors for the process. It was found that various areas considered critical to success required illumination in the context of the strategic planning process in both college types. These included the role of organisational culture, the need for clear policies and rules, and staff knowledge and skills. Although these critical elements were vital to the colleges to succeed in achieving their goals the research showed that the leaders in both groups were struggling in this regard. Their current organisational cultures, policies and rules were seen as not supportive of effective strategic planning processes. For example, there was typically an absence of specialised committees, other work units, or staff with expertise in the SPP. While there appeared to be potential for budget allocation to support strategic planning in the private colleges, although not seen as a priority, this appeared not to be the case in the public colleges. In addition, despite some leaders in some colleges being designated to teach strategic management, they were not implementing the plans in which they had previously had input. Further to this, it was found that the leaders were most concerned about the benefits and salaries they received as opposed to being concerned about the success of the strategic planning process in their colleges. However, it was reiterated that an additional confusion for the college leaders was the rapid changes in policies and decisions made by the ministry. This was identified as making it difficult to plan for both college types and even more so where changes of leaders at the level of Dean occurred. Thus, despite the colleges identifying their mission, vision, values and objectives, there was a lack of strategic approaches to their planning and any subsequent implementation. Without the knowledge and skills, and the supporting policies and rules, and with the appropriate governance mechanisms in place, it is not surprising that an organisational culture able to aspire to achieve the organisation's objectives was not evident.

### 6.3.1.4 Provision of training courses for the strategic planning process

With respect to the need for training programs, the findings of the study indicated that more than half of leaders in both groups had not participated in recent times. First of all, most training

programs on the topic of strategic planning within the colleges were poorly designed because of a lack of specialised expertise and/or the involvement of external consultants in the subject. Also, there was no requirement to force leaders to take up training in strategic planning, thus maintaining the absence of knowledge and ability for leadership in this regard. Secondly, it was found that some leaders did not like to participate in courses to improve and develop their abilities and skills in strategic planning and leadership, since they viewed themselves more as managers and senior persons of authority. Thirdly, the lack of understanding of how strategic planning works to facilitate achieving an organisation's goals and their monitoring and evaluation has led to top level management not appreciating viewing the future in this way. Fourthly, this lack of understanding and valuing of strategic planning has meant that allowing leaders to attend training courses is not a priority for the budget. In addition, most leaders reported insufficient time to participate in training programs. Finally, although there were many opportunities to study how strategic planning works overseas between 2003 and 2014, processes of selection for uptake were again seen as being influenced by socio-cultural factors, which resulted in people, whose role was not necessarily specialised in strategic planning being sent abroad for training rather than the most eligible people. (This opportunity was not available from 2015 onwards because of war and the disruption of ISIS until most recently, when it was resumed for the public college leaders only).

#### 6.3.1.5 Issues associated with implementing the strategic planning process

Findings of the study showed that most leaders in the public and private colleges believed that strategic planning was of significant importance in spite of them lacking up-to-date knowledge and practical experience, or training, in both groups. The reasons for this related to their awareness that organisations needed to use it as a critical tool to analyse both the internal and external environment in order to know how to improve an organisation's business outcomes. However, although most leaders said that strategic planning was important, they did not apply it because they had no previous experience about its formulation, implementation, and evaluative aspects. On the other hand, it was found that other leaders had little awareness of what the strategic planning process meant or comprised, but they revealed that if they were to admit that or say that it was unimportant, they would be embarrassed and ridiculed. In addition, a minority of leaders in both groups admitted they argued that strategic planning was important

to be perceived favourably, but they noted that if they were to seriously implement it then this would disrupt the status quo, particularly in private colleges. For example, it could mean making difficult decisions about standing down existing staff, and engaging new staff with the requisite skills. In addition, the leaders in both types of colleges were well aware that once they had taken up their positions they faced many problems in carrying out their role. Whether they had leadership and strategic planning expertise or not, they noted that their work was difficult because in actual fact most colleges in both sectors did not have a serious strategic planning process owing to the changing environment regarding the ministry's decisions and policies. This particularly applied to the private colleges where the college investor's changes were motivated by being a 'for profit' organization. Thus, ensuring the implementation of the strategic planning process in the colleges' aims for organisational success presented a major challenge for both college types.

#### **6.4 Considering managerial effectiveness and organisational success**

This section discusses the results of the investigation of the colleges' organisational success (OS) in relation to the measuring of performance outcomes, where the balanced scorecard (BCS) was adopted as a modern and comprehensive approach. To reiterate, the BSC allows the measuring of OS across four dimensions: the customer-society perspective (CS), learning-growth perspective (LG), internal processes perspective (IP), and financial perspective (F). From this emerged three key aspects that distinguished the OS common to both groups. These encompassed staff having a viable degree and rank, the requisite skills, and financial stability.

In respect to having appropriate qualifications and rank, the study found that the public colleges were perceived by both groups of participants as 'higher ranking' than the private colleges. The qualities of their faculties and staff were seen as contributing to this view, and in addition their students/graduates were also viewed more favourably. The public colleges were also noted as providing scholarships, and organising conferences, and their facilities, in terms of buildings, were seen as superior to the private colleges. Thus, this amounted to the view that overall, the public colleges had a better reputation than the private colleges. Nevertheless, the private colleges were reported as having better electronic equipment and software compared with the public colleges, and they were also seen as providing better entertainment for students because they were "for profit" companies and had more financial capacity at the same time as

being higher education organisations. This meant the private colleges may be providing a more socially attractive environment and recognising the value of technology, compared with the more traditional academic context of the public colleges. With respect to the expertise of academic staff, the study found that in general the public college staff were more experienced and were better qualified than those in the private colleges, which added to them being more highly respected.

Thus, the private colleges were in a better position to be more financially successful having the freedom to charge and change fees for service. In contrast, the public colleges depended on government finance, except for some that were able to add to their budget by offering evening classes, but only for small fees. Therefore, the private colleges were unable to compete on this aspect, yet they were more successful in terms of educational outcomes and reputation. Nevertheless, the research found there was a need to improve senior staff's leadership and strategic planning knowledge and skills in order to better set goals and improve their ability to monitor and evaluate performance to broaden the concept of organisational success and its understanding.

#### 6.4.1 Managerial effectiveness - self-rating

This section further illuminates organisational success by considering the workplace in the colleges. Based on the survey and interviews, four key factors emerged as impacting on organisational culture that reflected their values and expectations: perceived managerial effectiveness based on self-ratings; managerial competence; comparison of their own competency; and perceived skills for success. Managerial effectiveness emerged as a key consideration with regards to organisational culture in both college types, but the way the two different types of colleges (public and private) worked suggested differences in values, beliefs and behaviours of the people involved. This applied particularly to managing teams, building staff interpersonal relationships, systems of control, employees' motivations, coordination between units and departments, addressing customer service/student satisfaction, managing enculturation, continuous improvement, managing competitiveness and competency, and fostering innovation. Although the organisational culture in the public colleges was found to be more collaborative or less hierarchical than in the private colleges, there was room for improvement in both cases. There was a need for professional development of all staff to help

change values and practices. They need to move away from traditional aspects of management or laissez-faire leadership to differentiate both transformational and transactional styles as those that can foster improved planning and workplace practices, and ultimately outcomes.

#### 6.4.1.2 Managerial competency

In relation to managerial competency, around half of those in leadership positions in both the public and private colleges were not ambitious or confident in terms of moving up the promotional ladder. Three major reasons emerged in explanation, which related to organisational culture, need for upskilling/knowledge, and perceived unfair or corrupt practices in making appointments, as discussed earlier.

It was reported that apart from particular appointees who were focused on satisfying the requirements of top-level management, the various incentives to take on higher level positions were not encouraging people to apply for promotion. These incentives related to higher salary earnings and other reasonably attractive benefits, as well as the prestige of the position. Thus, the colleges were not necessarily attracting a large pool of potential leaders or motivating staff from within. While it was the view of some participants that potential leaders in the public colleges preferred to undertake research rather than take up leadership positions, others expected that most of their colleagues would aspire to obtaining a leadership role. Nonetheless, a changing situation in appointments in the private colleges in terms of moving into leadership positions may not represent the same stability as in the public colleges, if for instance profitability is linked to leadership success.

In addition, it is not surprising that many leaders in this study were lacking in knowledge and skills to perform their roles, where the ability to strategically plan and motivate staff to collaborate on achieving set goals is seen as vital to success. Most leaders in the study did not have the requisite academic and administrative qualifications for their leadership roles in their colleges. Therefore, these leaders, with limited experience in both leadership and management, were unable to carry out their work in a highly effective manner. This was because of lack of ability to deal with strategic planning with a sufficient depth of understanding, and a lack of appreciation of the connection between planning and the need for data to monitor and evaluate progress towards the college goals.

As noted earlier, the appointment of leadership staff can be strongly influenced by the political parties and tribes, which in turn can impact on the people selected, since they are members of the local community's socio-political and cultural context. In this regard it was found that some potential leaders preferred not to be promoted because they could be targeted both in the community and in their role in the college as having the power to provide academic qualifications outside the required process and standards. This situation as a barrier was exacerbated by the fact that some private colleges were owned by political parties and religious organisations. However, even though leaders of the public colleges were generally more regulated in their work practices in terms of government policy, it was also found that their selection of leaders such as Dean and Associate Dean could be influenced by the socio-political parties.

#### 6.4.1.3 Managerial effectiveness

Managerial effectiveness as a basic factor underpinning a positive organisational culture plays a vital role in ensuring staff commitment to getting the job done. The study's findings showed that it was this was higher in the public colleges than the private colleges in being able to coordinate between units and departments, motivate employees, manage customer service, manage enculturation, pay attention to continuous improvement, and manage competitiveness and competency. In addition, managerial effectiveness was higher in the public colleges than in the private colleges, when it came to interpersonal relationships, which would be expected, given their more transformative leadership styles, and greater ability to foster innovation. In contrast, both college types seemed to be on a par in the skill of managing their workplaces. However, even though skills of managerial effectiveness were reasonable in both college types, the research showed there was still a need to improve and develop skills in accordance with modern approaches. This reinforced the theme of the need for information communication technologies to underpin both business and teaching practices, together with professional development opportunities.

### **6.5 Potential for change to be more effective in achieving goals**

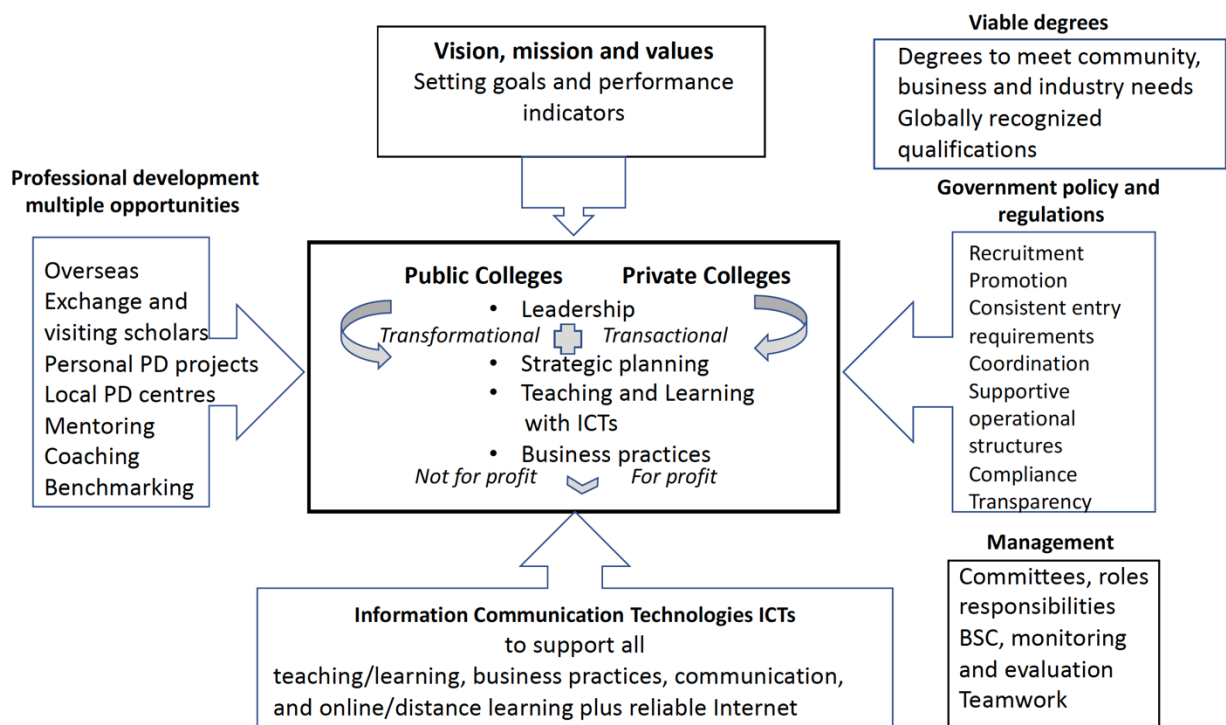
The third and last research question asked "How might these colleges adapt and change their practices to be more effective in achieving their goals?" As a result of this empirical research,

implications were found to advise on the improvement of practices for all those involved, as well as the potential to be useful to others in the field. The findings have the capacity to inform both policy and practice in the colleges under study and beyond, in Iraq. They have particular relevance for developing countries where there are similar challenges, including long term disruption and economic downturn, social upheaval and so called 'brain drain', besides addressing the particular socio-political cultural impacts. This research also highlights the importance of higher education in such contexts where there is high unemployment and difficulties in obtaining work or gaining skills easily, and in the case here of academics needing to access opportunities for professional development relevant to leadership and management. By identifying the challenges facing the organisations in this research and their strengths and weaknesses, possible solutions and alternatives to policy and practice may be addressed. Based on the research results, this section looks at the implications for improvement. They relate to the participating college leaders' perceived needs, taking into account existing policies of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. They address the current status of the leadership styles and strategic planning processes in the need for improvement to be able to better cope. This considers the challenges of both the internal and external environment in order to achieve better organisational success. In advocating for transformational change, it is suggested that not only should there be a transitional strategy in place, but there needs to be a series of transitional support mechanisms to help modify the effects of the current challenges to facilitate new practices into the future. Figure 6.2 provides an overview of how the practices of the colleges might be enhanced to be more effective in setting and achieving college performance goals. It acts as a guide to fostering and enabling change through drawing together the elements of a model for future practice. This guide can inform recommendations for the future for the colleges and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research.

Figure 6.2 highlights the need for the colleges to have a clear vision, mission and values to underpin their goal setting and operations. It acknowledges that more than one leadership style can apply to achieving the best outcomes from staff and the strategic planning process and business practices. The need to be aware of the two types of colleges' major differences, in being profit orientated or not, is highlighted, but at the same time the model calls for consistency in the application of government policy and regulatory practices across both college types. Besides noting the importance of the colleges' degrees being relevant to business

and industry needs, and the need to consult with community on this, it responds to participants' call for global recognition and relevance of skills and qualifications.

To enhance the management of the colleges, the model emphasises the need for supportive operational structures, such as committee processes, use of the balanced score card, ongoing monitoring and reporting, and evaluation. It also takes note of the importance of working to create organisational cultures where there is teamwork and collaborative practice that go hand-in-hand with fostering inclusive and transformative practices. The model further promotes the two major needs necessary to help the transformation, which participants identified as opportunities for professional development and the uptake of information communication technologies in every aspect of business and teaching. This model advocates a strengthening of the role of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research for both college types and more responsibility for public colleges to have sufficient budget to enhance their practices accordingly.



**Figure 6.2:** Overview of enhancement of practices to be more effective in achieving college goals



### 6.5.1 Implications for both public and private colleges

The research findings have substantial implications for both the public and private colleges, and the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research to help improve the way higher education is planned and delivered. It has implications for the leadership skills of those who are empowered in leadership roles and top-level management. The findings highlight the way the participating leaders perceived their leadership, strategic planning and management practices, besides their workplace organisational culture, and performance. Strategically, the research also indicated the need to embed new processes that would enable compilation of data to support the ongoing operations and their short- and long-term monitoring and evaluation. This would facilitate the leaders' ability to implement performance measures that feed into a systematic approach to planning, thus changing practices to enable organisational success within their challenging circumstances.

#### 6.5.1.1 Implications of the demographic characteristics in both groups

In relation to gender of leaders, the study found that there should be criteria and processes for selecting college leaders that ensure a merit-based process applicable to both college types. These criteria need to depend on critical factors, such as relevant skills and abilities, knowledge, experience, and integrity, and personality characteristics, and provision of professional development as necessary. As a result, these significant factors should enable qualified faculty members and staff to aspire to leadership positions, regardless of gender. Thus, this provides a strategy that has the capacity to begin to improve the current organisational culture, even though it is not an easy task and will be a relatively slow process as new skilled leaders gradually take over. In addition, this requires serious consideration and particularly where it may be more difficult to administer, for example in the private colleges where existing practices are more personalised and are linked to meeting financial goals.

With respect to the age of leaders, even though there is a high percentage in the 35-45 years age group, the study shows that owing to the disruptive challenging context of Iraq, there is a need for professional development to ensure improved understanding of the task of leading and managing, and evaluating to meet their respective institution's goals. This professional development should include acquiring strategic planning skills and strategies and

understanding performance data in relation to goal setting and the college's mission, vision and values. This could be achieved in multiple ways such as enrolment in international programs or the employing of expertise to provide training on site or staff developing their own projects, including research projects on a topic of need. A collaborative workplace with regular sharing of strategies between colleges within groups would foster interest and provide opportunities for joint research. The provision of training would also allow the colleges to eventually provide their own high quality courses to help build and sustain capacity in this area. As an approach to improvement in higher education, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research could also consider granting scholarships for leaders to spend short-term visits at universities in developed countries to explore their leadership and management practices. With cooperation from the visiting institution, it might be possible to provide a visiting leadership scholar with intensive short-term, project-based learning experience that could be credited towards a course in higher education in the field of modern leadership and creative management systems. It would be advantageous for the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research to mandate leaders to undertake training courses where they take up their leadership positions and ensure updating to keep abreast of new developments, e.g. application of information communication technologies to their work. Moreover, the provision of professional development and training courses should be a part of the colleges' budgets. It is further suggested that an educational institute such as the past High Institute for Administrative Leaders, which closed in 2003 as a result of the war, be considered as another strategy to educate and prepare current and future leaders in higher education. This would receive the respect of existing leaders and authorities.

In relation to the appointment of academics to leadership positions, the research findings suggest a need to ensure appointments to Dean and Associate Dean/Head of Department are made at the Professor and Associate Professor level, respectively. This approach, which is typical of most universities, would help to raise the status of the role and, especially in the private colleges, ensure appropriately qualified academic leadership, since these levels are not necessarily followed there. In addition, it is advisable to ensure that duration of appointments follow the policy and rules of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Ensuring such action adds to the potential to build leadership and management capacity over time and helps outlaw nepotistic influences, including appointments of

unqualified applicants or facilitating much longer term appointments, thus improving practices to better achieve organisational success.

Attention is also drawn to the need for the college leaders to ensure continuous research into their local area and the identification of students' needs to ensure their programs offer links to business and industry needs, e.g. a focus on employability. Ensuring links to the community to gather these data and engagement with business and industry leaders would feed into strategic planning on marketplace needs for both college types.

#### **6.5.1.2 Implications for leadership and strategic planning for both groups**

With respect to the leadership styles prevalent in the colleges, the research findings suggest that in the main the leaders may be limited in being able to be transformative, although the public college leaders perceived their use to be significantly higher than the private college leaders. This is because of the lack of support and opportunity, and their lack of professional development with regards to understanding the possible styles and their implications for their workplace practices, as well as the impact on staff behaviour. In addition, where government policy and regulation were being followed, there was evidence of transactional leadership styles, and some focus on compliance in the public colleges, including contingent reward. However, because of the lack of skills in strategic planning, and a need for a systematic focus on data to inform monitoring organisational success, leaders appear limited in being able to make the connections between their leadership and developing an organisational culture that can mobilise staff. Yet, in contrast, the private college leaders, in their clear need to improve profits, may have short or longer duration positions depending on their ability to meet the college investor's needs. In addition, the research suggests that the organisational culture of the colleges is also more compliant in the public colleges while private colleges tend to be more independent and profit driven. This contrast seems to be the result of different funding models and the extent to which the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research policy is implemented and translated in detail. It is also necessary to consider the sociocultural influences on practice, for example the research showing that the various political parties and tribes could be a powerful influence on appointments and practices, as well as militia groups. Thus, this highlights the added difficulties for colleges aiming to adhere to government policy and procedures and at the same time bring their strategic plans to success.

Apart from those leaders who demonstrate laissez-faire leadership (tending to avoid responsibilities by being indecisive or untimely in taking appropriate action) the remaining three transactional factors strongly relate to the leader as the authority for ensuring compliance. While management-by-exception – active differs from passive, as the leader actively monitors staff to try to avoid mistakes, no significant difference was found between the two college groups for this and the use of laissez-faire approaches. Importantly, as Walumbwa, Wu, and Orwa (2008) have specified, none of the transactional factors alone would motivate staff and help build positive interpersonal relationships as do transformative styles. Neither could be expected to help leaders to develop trust and open communication to support the collaborative approach that is necessary for engaging staff in the development of effective strategic plans. Thus, transformational leaders are needed to create democratic work places where staff's views are sought and they are used to work together to achieve strategic objectives. This requires business practices that develop staff's 'intrinsic motivation' as opposed to motivation reliant upon extrinsic factors, e.g. punishment. Moreover, transformational leadership style is better suited to the colleges' need to transform their practices, because it focuses on encouraging staff to take some responsibility to help resolve the challenges and simultaneously build confidence to help address negative views about change (Del Castillo, n.d., cited in Bass, 1998). All-in-all, facilitating changes in the leadership style of the colleges very much depends on fulfilling staff professional development needs, particularly to better understand how the styles impact on practice.

In addition, the findings on the way leaders are appointed have major implications for the colleges being able to make positive changes for the future. Unless policy and procedures can be implemented fairly and ethically, the research implies that the selected leaders may be ill-equipped to work to address the challenges their colleges' face going into the future. Therefore, there is a need to enhance the processes of selection, appointment, and promotion of leaders as well as highlight the characteristics of integrity, knowledge, experience and qualifications. The research suggests that to counter the strong influence of the socio-political cultural context, the MHESR needs to play a stronger regulatory role. This is also relevant to the impact of the different funding models of the two college groups, since motivation to make a profit by the private colleges can act as a disincentive to address the factors that drive high quality services and programs. Fourthly, excellent faculty members travelling to other countries should be encouraged; thus, the best strategy to do that is to provide good salaries

and a safe life. Professional development needs in both groups also extend to staff understanding the concepts of organisational success, and the role that the collection of performance data plays in the strategic planning process.

## **6.6 Research contribution to knowledge**

According to Liu and Bian (2020) and Murner (2020), a thesis's findings and ideas/work should be unique and useful. Thus, this thesis' contribution to knowledge, encompasses the three aspects of theory, practice, and policy. Firstly, the findings of this study make a significant and original contribution to extending current theoretical and practical knowledge with regards to the nature, scope and depth of the relations and impact among the study's variables, which are the colleges' leadership styles, strategic planning, organisational culture and success. This study has progressed the knowledge about this particular group of public and private colleges, which have increased in numbers in Iraqi higher education sector since the disruption of war in 2003 and beyond. Moreover, this study has taken account of leaders in both types of colleges, public and private, unlike other studies. Also, the study adds to the body of knowledge in terms of the colleges in both groups needing to be fully aware of the role of leadership styles in impacting their organisational culture. Furthermore, they need to grasp how work practices impact on gaining staff support for developing their strategic plans. Similarly, they require an understanding of the data required to measure performance in order to achieve organisational success. This represents a cognitive shift in both college groups.

The study also adds to the body of knowledge in terms of these colleges in both groups needing to consider their leadership styles in relation to practice, organisational culture, strategic planning and performance outcomes. Moreover, the study's method of data collection included a demonstration of a critical practical approach to planning and thinking about the participants' colleges' performance, by involving participating leaders in applying the balanced score card. This also enabled the depth of discussion in the interviews. More specifically, the study makes a contribution to knowledge regarding how leadership styles, strategic planning, organisational culture and organisational success relate together, and are interdependent, and how strategic planning needs to be improved in these colleges in higher education in Iraq. It is also the first study that investigates the relationship between these four concepts in relation to

the context of a Middle Eastern country, namely Iraq, and its particular unsettled context, and as a developing country.

The study provides a model of practice and recommendations to both enable and ensure that these Iraqi colleges can develop their business and educational operations to better satisfy the community's education needs, and adapt to competition and growth, despite the ongoing turbulent environment. The recommendations have the capacity to help evaluate current policy and practices in Iraqi higher education in the ministry and therefore extend the research of the research findings being specific to the sample. With respect to the practical aspect, this study has collected significant and original data and information via a mixed methods approach (qualitative and quantitative) with regards to LS, SP, OS and OC in both groups of the Iraqi higher education sector. It also provides a conceptual framework that can be adapted for other sectors outside higher education, where this should enable organisations to evaluate their leadership styles, strategic planning process, and organisational culture in order to improve their organisational success. In addition, the qualitative findings added to the triangulation of the data, thereby enhancing reliability and validity of the quantitative findings. This reflects actual work experiences, where the qualitative investigative method (interview) can improve and increase the reliability and validity of the quantitative study's results (King et al., 2019). Therefore, the empirical findings of this study should be more beneficial when practically applied to the policy of the Ministry of the Higher Education and Scientific Research in Iraq.

## **6.7 Limitations of the study**

The study was able to address the research questions through gathering data from leaders of both the public and private colleges, via the adoption of both a survey and interview technique, in a mixed methods approach. The findings of the study have also raised some critical issues and concepts that can serve as a basis for improving and developing skills, knowledges, and experiences for the colleges to evaluate their managerial processes with regards to leadership, strategic planning, and organisational success and culture in the Iraq higher education sector. These results have applicability to developing countries in general, particularly the Middle East, which comprises eighteen countries with similar Arabic language and cultural backgrounds. However, as noted earlier, since Iraq is a developing country with a history of

war and ongoing disruption from 2003 to the present time, the researcher was unable to travel to the country or engage in gathering data more widely than Baghdad city. This meant that, though randomly selected, the college population for the research operated in the capital city, where they were close to the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, thus excluding the outer regions. Thus, the researcher is cautious in terms of generalising the results to the remainder of the country. However, they can be said to be highly relevant because all colleges across the country are required to follow the same higher education policy, and are operating in the same socio-political context, which was found to have a major influence on practice. It is also noted that the interviews were conducted by telephone because of the difficulties involved in the researcher traveling to Iraq. Therefore, this format may have limited the openness and effectiveness of the communication between researcher and interviewee. Also, the researcher had limited access to any documents that may have indicated the results of the colleges' performance in both groups. In addition, the political and security issues prevented some of the participants from answering all interview questions. Similarly, the study was not able to explore in-depth the nature of the impact of the cultural gaps and pedagogical issues related to the leaders' education backgrounds of knowledge about leadership styles, and strategic planning understanding.

## **6.8 Conclusions**

The study focused on examining the leadership styles and strategic planning processes in relation to the organisational success of the selected public and private colleges in Iraq. Leaders from both college types completed a survey package, with a sub-sample participating in follow-up interviews through a mixed methods approach. The college leaders were in leadership positions of Dean, Associate Dean, and Head of Department. The data collection allowed the investigation of their perceived leadership styles and planning processes. It provided insights into their current practices and applied the balance scorecard. This had a dual role in engaging them in an exploration of their learning and growth, their college's internal processes, customer and society satisfaction, and financial performance, besides demonstrating a potential strategy for them to use in the future.

The research also showed that both college types experienced similar challenges. However, the 'for profit' focus of the private colleges, which were financed by investors, set

them apart from the public colleges that received their budget from the government. This difference produced different drivers of practices even though government policies applied in both cases. The financial model of the private colleges gave them more freedom in their business practices compared with the public colleges that faced and followed greater regulation. However, the leaders in both college types were shown to be struggling with their strategic planning and needed to gain a deeper understanding of the process and how data were required to inform on their performance outcomes. In addition, the need for staff appointment processes that ensured leaders were qualified and sufficiently experienced to do the job was emphasised. In addition, the Iraqi culture, in terms of the traditional gender roles and responsibilities, combined with the country's instability and safety issues, also emerged as the reason for a much smaller proportion of women being in leadership positions in both public and private colleges. The culture of Iraqi society traditionally does not encourage women to have careers but expects them to be married and caring for their family first. Thus, the proportion of females in the sample was just over a quarter for each college type, which surprising for some interviewees. It was also found that, despite the fact that knowledge, experience and professional development are typically viewed as necessary to carry out a leadership role successfully, the research revealed that reports of corrupt practices demonstrated a devaluing of the need. This applied to some extent to appointing leaders in both college types as top-level management appeared not to care about staff being adequately qualified and experienced to do the job.

Thus, the change required to achieve improved performance, demands a cognitive shift away from the leaders and staff's routine practices and maintenance of the status quo, to be more professional and collaborative. But this needs to occur in the context of leadership styles that would enable the transformation of their workplaces. Such change was found to require professional development for all staff. This applied particularly to those in leadership positions to understand the difference between leadership and management, and how leadership styles impact on organisational culture, and the enculturation of staff, in order to achieve organisational success. It was found that the model of strategic planning required greater staff involvement and a collaborative approach. This also extended to the need to make connections out into the community to business and industry to ensure their respective degrees were meeting societal workplace needs. Moreover, the leaders in the study were eager for their colleges to enhance their reputations to ensure they ranked well both locally and globally in



the future. The focus on improvement also included academics having the time to research and publish on a par with their international counterparts.

Building connections with universities abroad to enable leaders and other college staff to undertake professional development through visiting scholarships was also seen as a major way forward to bridge the knowledge and skills gap. Also, in terms of encouraging staff professional development and participation, a range of suggestions were made. These included resurrecting past professional development centres and creating other new ways of training. Besides leaders in both college types needing more knowledge and tools to support the process of strategic planning and implementation, they were also perceived to need encouragement from their top-level management. The leaders need to understand when, how and why they are successful, and facilitate discussions and collaboration involving mentoring of staff and use of strategies to engage staff, such as project-based learning. The employment of experts in strategic planning was seen as vital so that staff could make the necessary links between their plans and performance indicators, and actual data.

The organisational culture of the colleges was seen as reflecting a lack of collaboration and teamwork that is necessary to foster the required change. Even though public college leaders saw themselves practising inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation are statistically significantly more important factors for private college leaders, and it was concluded that most leaders in both college types tended to preserve the status quo. This lack of evaluative action reflects a strong socio-political cultural influence on current college practices. For example, various social groups, e.g. tribes, political parties and militia, may have a powerful impact on the selection of leaders, and amongst the private college leaders on the length of their term in office. In this respect, the emergent themes from the interviews provided a deeper understanding of such influences on the respective colleges. They further illuminated the context of Iraq as a developing country that faces broader societal disruption and cultural impacts. In addition, the country lacks the advantage of reliable information communication technologies that are essential for both business practices and teaching and learning support. The introduction of information communication technologies is essential for future improvement, not only for the colleges but for business/economic growth in general. As confirmed by Dimelis and Papaionnou (2010), both developed and developing countries typically increase their productivity (GDP) as a result of the adoption of information

communication technologies. However, not only do the college staff require professional development opportunities that address issues of leadership style and its relationship to developing a positive organisational culture and ability to strategically plan, they also need skills in the application of information communication technologies to their business practices and teaching and learning. The college leaders in this study were generally aware of the need to move their practices into a more 21st century learning approach, but apart from the potential difficulties of effective Internet, other issues were seen as impacting on change. In the private colleges, where profit was the major goal, there was less motivation to enhance pedagogy and business practices. In contrast, the public college leaders were better positioned to change but had limited budgets. Thus, the research highlighted the importance of the role of government in facilitating change. This was because the public colleges' need for a less frugal budget depended on government. In addition, the ministry was seen as having a responsibility to deal with the issues raised that were associated with inequitable and corrupt practices since it controlled policy and regulation, and could potentially ensure monitoring and enforcement. Thus, the basis for moving forward, as projected in Figure 6.2's model, is underpinned by multiple opportunities for professional development, government policy and regulation, and the adoption and support of information communication technologies.

While this research provides important and strategic advice for the colleges and the ministry, it is noted that future research may wish to extend inquiry into the employees who are not in leadership positions to compare their perceptions with those of the leaders. This would further triangulate the data by comparing the perceptions of leaders and their employees. In addition, this study included interviews with only two female leaders, since few females manage to become leaders, and it is generally culturally inappropriate for a male researcher to interview a female. Thus, future research would benefit from a more in-depth study from the perspective of female academics and leaders. As well, given that the findings of this research identify major challenges in relation to leadership, strategic planning, and organisational culture, as well as inequitable practices resulting from the influence of the wider socio-political culture, this suggests the need to replicate this research in other sectors, such as in health, oil, housing, transport, and communications.

### **6.8.1 Recommendations**

The recommendations emerging from the study relate to the major emergent themes of: (1) acquisition of leadership and strategic planning skills and professional development; (2) the need for information communication technologies to support business operations and teaching, learning and assessment; (3) development of new community engagement processes to involve business and industry in the design of degrees to meet workplace needs; (4) the need to raise the rank, reputation and valuing of the colleges through national and global recognition/valuing of their degrees and qualifications; and (5) the need for stronger quality assurance practices and regulations to address inequitable/corruptive practices.

#### **6.8.1.1. Recommendation 1**

Once professional development can begin, and if information communication technologies can be utilised to support both business and course/learning delivery, there should be great potential for improved service and in turn high quality outcomes. New knowledge can positively reflect on leaders' behaviours and dealings with staff by activating their skills, and motivations, and building trust, where collaboration and teamwork can lead to better performance. This has the potential to enable leaders on both sides to move towards practising transformational styles in a democratic way rather than being dictatorial, where the need for some transactional style has also been shown to be necessary with regards to protocols and administrative processes. In this way, change can be fostered to improve the current organisational culture and improve practices and outcomes. Thus, the study recommends an understanding of and emphasis on the importance of transformational styles for both groups. This is because of their potential to positively affect the leadership of the strategic planning processes, and the use of strategies, such as the balanced score card, to drive understanding and planning based on data. In addition, the emphasis on the need for information communication technologies at the same time plays a crucial role in creating change to achieve organisational success and a productive organisational culture.

#### **6.8.1.2. Recommendation 2**

In addition to the views and advice of the college leaders from both groups, research also supports the need for information communication technologies to be introduced with the

appropriate training to support the colleges business operations as well as teaching, learning and assessment. As noted earlier, as a developing country Iraq stands to significantly increase its GDP (Dimelis & Papaionnou, 2010) through the uptake of technology. As an essential strategy to enhance performance, it will allow for the use of various software to support the collection of performance data and ensure monitoring and evaluation of outcomes. This strategy also has the capacity to shift the colleges' teaching and learning to a more communicative, dialogic model where academics and students have access to Internet resources and degree programs have the potential to be offered online. An additional advantage of this is the provision of greater support for professional development, academics' international collaboration, research and publications, as well as related understanding and opportunities.

#### 6.8.1.3. Recommendation 3

The research has shown that college leaders were concerned about the need for data from business and industry to feed into planning of their degree programs to ensure their currency. This was also seen as a strategic move in countering the potential for private enterprise to value income from fees over relevance of a degree. Thus, it is recommended that colleges develop community engagement planning processes to involve business and industry into the design of their degrees to ensure they meet workplace needs. This may be actioned in various ways, including setting up advisory boards, collaborating with the Iraqi Chambers of Commerce, organising work-integrated learning experiences and involving guest lecturers from business and industry connections.

#### 6.8.1.4. Recommendation 4

This recommendation responds to the research major theme of the need to raise the rank, reputation and valuing of the colleges by ensuring the degrees and qualifications are of a global competitive standard. It is also relevant to Recommendation 3 in that college leaders emphasised the need for degrees to be relevant to the skills that future employers required. However, this recommendation highlights the need for high quality degree programs, and highly qualified academics with research track records and publications. This may be achieved

through development of connections with respected universities abroad to collaborate and possibly benchmark in both strategic planning and in teaching, learning and assessment.

#### 6.8.1.5. Recommendation 5

This final recommendation responds to the need to address the influence of the wider socio-political cultural influences on the colleges' operations by strengthening the regulatory responsibilities of the ministry. There is a need for a review of policy and rules and the way they are implemented and monitored in both public and private colleges to ensure greater compliance. This is necessary to ensure stronger quality assurance practices are in place and policy regulations are followed to address the potential for corrupt practices. This would help address the divide between the public educational services funded by government and those provided by the 'for profit' private colleges and thus ensure greater parity.

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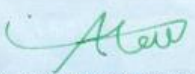

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## APPENDIX A: Researcher's Scholarship Details

<b>Ministry Of Higher Education &amp; Scientific Research UNIVERSITY OF BAGHDAD Cultural Relations Dept.</b>		<b>وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي رئاسة جامعة بغداد قسم العلاقات الثقافية</b>
No.: 364 Date: June 25, 2013		العدد: التاريخ:
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>To Whom it May Concern</b></p> <p>We would like to confirm you that Mr. <b>MOHAMMED MATOOK ABOOD</b> is an Iraqi scholarship nominee/<b>University of Baghdad</b> to obtain Ph.D. degree in three academic years, in addition to the assigned language courses. The student will be financially sponsored covering tuitionfees and the language courses. The nominee will be granted a monthly salary that covers clothing fees, books and health insurance annually.</p> <p>For Thesis writing, two-way tickets and other miscellaneous expense, all of these fees will be paid to the student through the Iraqi Cultural Attaché.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Best Regards</p> <p style="text-align: center;"></p> <p><b>Assist. Prof. Dr. Alaa Kareem Mohammed</b> Vice President for Scientific Affairs, Baghdad/IRAQ</p> <p style="text-align: right;"></p>		

## **APPENDIX B: Iraqi Governmental Higher Education System**

### **The standards which determine the students selection for public or private colleges**

According to the recent Ministry reports (Ministry, 2019a); Ministry (2019d), the entry standard for students enrolling in public or private colleges is students' Year 12 achievement issued by their high school. For example, in the public colleges, if students achieve 95-100, they may enrol into the medical discipline, and a result of 85-94 enables entry into the engineering discipline, and similarly 75 – 84 applies to the sciences discipline, and so on, without incurring any financial costs, thus free of charge. However, of note is the fact that, according to the Ministry (2019c), students who do not attain these required entry scores for their discipline of interest may still enrol in any discipline if they choose to study through the private colleges but they are required to pay fees. However, Al-Rubaie (2014) has stated that most of the students prefer to study in the Iraqi public colleges, rather than private colleges, for a variety of reasons: the public colleges are the oldest; have more experience; have achieved a higher rank; are free of charge; good faculty; have an excellent reputation; and big buildings. For these reasons most Iraqi students prefer the public colleges.

### **The private higher education system in Iraq**

The philosophy of human resources development is mainly related to the philosophy of the political, economic and social system of the state (Khattab, 2017). For example, in the capitalist system, problems of labour and economic activities determine the directions of educational policies (both quantitatively and qualitatively) according to its philosophy. Also, Taqah (2010) has pointed out that most developing countries still have no clear philosophy about their human resources development within the framework of an educational policy that is consistent with their requirements and conditions. Where the human resources development is an aim that can be reached, it is achieved through a series of decisions and policies of human investment

according to the education system and the pattern of production prevailing in society (Nasser, 2016).

Based on that, there are some economists who have different views on the content and dimensions of higher education. In the capitalist system, some economists, such as Friedman, argue that the state does not intervene in financing, directing, and covering costs of the educational institutions (Taka & Agelan, 2005). In contrast, other systems allow educational institutions to cover their costs by imposing appropriate wages that pay the beneficiaries through the granting of loans; these are then repaid to the creditor (government) when students acquire a job. This philosophy is successful and at the same time it reinforces the principle of private ownership and achieving profits. However, Glewwe and Muralidharan (2016) have argued that in most developing countries, higher education is provided free of charge by the state because free education is part of the philosophy of the political system, which primarily aims to improve the living standards of individuals and continue the policy of supporting them by the state.

Since Iraq is a developing country that depends on the philosophy of free higher education through the development plans of human resources that were prepared and implemented during the 1970s and 1980s, this has led to improving investment in higher education by increasing the volume of allocated financial investments. A consequence of this was that there has been an increase in the number of universities and educational institutions, and a raising of the level of quality during that period (Mazawi, 2017; Taka & Agelan, 2005). However, an economic embargo during the 1990s had negative effects on the overall economic and social activity in the country, and led to the adoption of a new strategy for higher education in allowing the private sector to provide university education (Al-Tikriti, 2005). Therefore, at the end of the nineteen eighties, Iraq started applying a plan for private education in order to encourage private investment in creating private colleges (Taka & Agelan, 2005). This means that Iraq had a clear philosophy in developing and orientating human resources and creating an appropriate systems and frameworks that were consistent with the nature of the circumstances in that period.

Hence, private education has played an essential role in supporting human resource development through the ensuing capacity building and efficiencies that have led to creating positive competition, rather than negative, within government higher education. Thus, today the Iraqi government provides free education through public colleges but allows private fee-



paying colleges to operate at the same time. Therefore, the inclusion of both public and private education provides a united approach and response to the increasing student demand to enrol in the colleges at various ages and stages.

## History of private higher education in Iraq

The private universities and colleges are comprised of the vital institutions of the Iraqi higher education sector. They are responsible for the educational preparation of specialised and scientific staff who are vital to the country's productive activities and societal needs (Sadik, 2018). This responsibility has created specialised employers and employees in various economic sectors, considering the rapid increasing in the volume of secondary education in terms of the number of graduates and the increasing demand by students for these colleges (Al-Allaf, 2009). The main aim of private education is to build a knowledge society that is able to respond to the many changes and societal developments that require new curricula and strategic plans to recruit and mobilise human resources in achieving sustainable development and covering market needs. This applies especially to the fields of knowledge of education and scientific research, in order to achieve high quality and performance.

Therefore, in 1963, private higher education started in Iraq and the University College was the first university that was founded by the Teachers' Union. In 1968, the name of the university college was replaced by the name "Mustansiriyah University". In 1974, the Mustansiriyah University became a public university by decision no 102. During that period (1974 - 1986), the private higher education in Iraq did not get enough attention. In 1987, decision no.814 was issued in order to establish and organise the private universities and colleges. In 1988, the Iraqi regime started to care about the private higher education, where between 1988 - 1996 nine colleges were established, as shown in Table 1.3.

**Table 1.2:** The private colleges that were established between 1988 – 1996.

No	Name of college	No of Departs	City or province	Year
1	Al-Turath University College	13	Baghdad	1988
2	Almamon University College	12	Baghdad	1988
3	Alrafidain University College	16	Baghdad	1988
4	AlMamoun University College	11	Baghdad	1990
5	Shatt Al-Arab University College	5	Basrah	1993

6	Al-Maarif University College	9	Anbar	1993
7	Al-Hadba'a University College	10	Mosul	1994
8	Baghdad College for Economic Sciences University	5	Baghdad	1996
9	Al Yarmouk University College	7	Diyala	1996

Source: Ministry of higher education and scientific research / department of private education  
2018-2019

In 8/1996, the first Law of the Private Universities and Colleges, No. 13 was issued. This law considered the private universities and colleges are non-government and non-profit organisations. This law established 34 private colleges and 7 universities, as shown in Table 1.4.

**Table 1.3: The private colleges and universities that were established according to Law 1996 no 13.**

No	Name of college	No of Departs	City or province	Year
1	Baghdad College of Medical Sciences	2	Baghdad	2000
2	Al al-bayt University	11	Karbala	2004
3	Islamic University	5	Babylon	2004
4	Islamic University	12	Najaf	2004
5	Dijlah University College	14	Baghdad	2004
6	Alsalam University College	16	Baghdad	2004
7	Alkafeel University	8	Najif	2004
8	Madenat Alelem University College	9	Baghdad	2005
9	Sheikh Tusi University College	5	Najif	2006
10	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	11	Baghdad	2009
11	Al Rasheed University College	2010	Baghdad	2010
12	Iraq University College	5	Basrah	2010
13	Sader Al Iraq University College	5	Baghdad	2010
14	Al Qalam University	13	Kirkuk	2010
15	Alhussain University College	6	Karbala	2010
16	Al-Hikma University College	7	Baghdad	2010
17	Al-Mustaqbal University College	17	Baghdad	2010
18	Imam University College	3	Salahuddin	2010
19	Hilla University College	11	Babylon	2011
20	The Osol Aldeen University College	7	Baghdad	2011

21	AL-ESRAA University College	18	Baghdad	2013
22	AlSafwa University College	10	Karbala	2013
23	Kut University College	9	Kut	2013
24	Al-Mustafa University College	6	Baghdad	2013
25	Mazaya University College	11	Dhi Qar	2013
26	AlNoor University College	11	Mosul	2013
27	Alfarahidi University	16	Baghdad	2013
28	Al-kunooze University College	4	Basrah	2013
29	Al Farabi University College	13	Baghdad	2013
30	Albani University College	5	Baghdad	2013
31	Taf University College	3	Karbala	2014
32	Zahrawi University College	4	Karbala	2014
33	Alnukhba University College	5	Baghdad	2014
34	Al-Nisour University College	8	Baghdad	2014
35	Fiqh University College	2	Najif	2014
36	Bilad Al Rafidain University College	20	Diyala	2014
37	National University of Science and Technology	4 colleges	Dhi Qar	2015
38	Al_Amal University College	3	Baghdad	2015
39	Basrah University College of Science and Technology	4	Basrah	2015
40	Uruk University College	13	Baghdad	2015
41	Al-Hadi University College	11	Baghdad	2016

Source: Ministry of higher education and scientific research / department of private education 2018-2019

In 2016, the government issued the second law of the private higher education No. 25 (Alowkake Iraq, 2016, May 19). According to Razzouki and Abdel Amir (2019), this law organised a new method for the mechanism of supervision of the Ministry of Higher Education in relating to the establishment and structure of the scientific departments. Also, it developed a mechanism of appointment of faculty and staff members, and a promotional process. In addition, this law allowed some colleges to upgrade to universities in 2018, including, Al-Turath University College that was established in 1988, Dijlah University College established 2004, and Alfarahidi University College that was established as recently as 2013. Furthermore, it explained the method of distribution and management of funds in order to provide the necessary requirements for the success of the educational and academic processes in all aspects. However, Jasim (2018) has argued that this law considers private colleges and universities as “for profit” organisations. Furthermore, they have to pay 3% of their total income from colleges or university that may reach between 25-27% from net profit to Higher Education Ministry

HEM. In addition, this law substantially raises profits of investors from 10% to 25% from the net profit of the college or university. As a result, this law has resulted in one institute, 5 colleges, and 18 universities (Ministry, 2019b), as shown in Table 1.5.

**Table 1.4:** The private colleges and universities that were established in accordance with Law 2016 no 25.

No	Name of college	No of Departs	City or province	Year
1	Albayan University	7 colleges	Baghdad	2016
2	Teachers Institute of Higher Studies	2	Najif	2017
3	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	8	Maysan	2017
4	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	6	Najif	2017
5	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	4	Muthanna	2017
6	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	4	Dhi Qar	2017
7	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	4	Diyala	2017
8	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	7	Saladin	2017
9	University of Imam Sadiq (AS)	6	Kirkuk	2017
10	University of Warith Alanbiyaa	11	Karbala	2017
11	Al-mustafa Alameen University	3 colleges	Baghdad	2017
12	Ashur University College	6	Baghdad	2017
13	University of Al-Ameed	3 colleges	Karbala	2017
14	Almanara University College of Medical Sciences	6	Maysan	2017
15	Al Ayen University	8	Dhi Qar	2017
16	Middle East College	3	Baghdad	2017
17	Al-Amarah University College	4	Maysan	2017
18	Jannat Iraq University College	1	Al Anbar	2017
19	Al - Zahra University	3 colleges	Karbala	2018
20	Al Kitab University	12	Kirkuk	2018
21	Islamic University	5	Al-Qādisiyyah	2018
22	American University	10 colleges	Baghdad	2019
23	University of Gilgamesh	3 colleges	Baghdad	2019

Source: Ministry of higher education and scientific research / department of private education 2018-2019

The established universities in provinces of Northern Iraq are associated into one region (Kurdistan Region KR). These universities have been established between 2004 – 2014 in accordance with law of private higher education in Ministry of higher education of Kurdistan

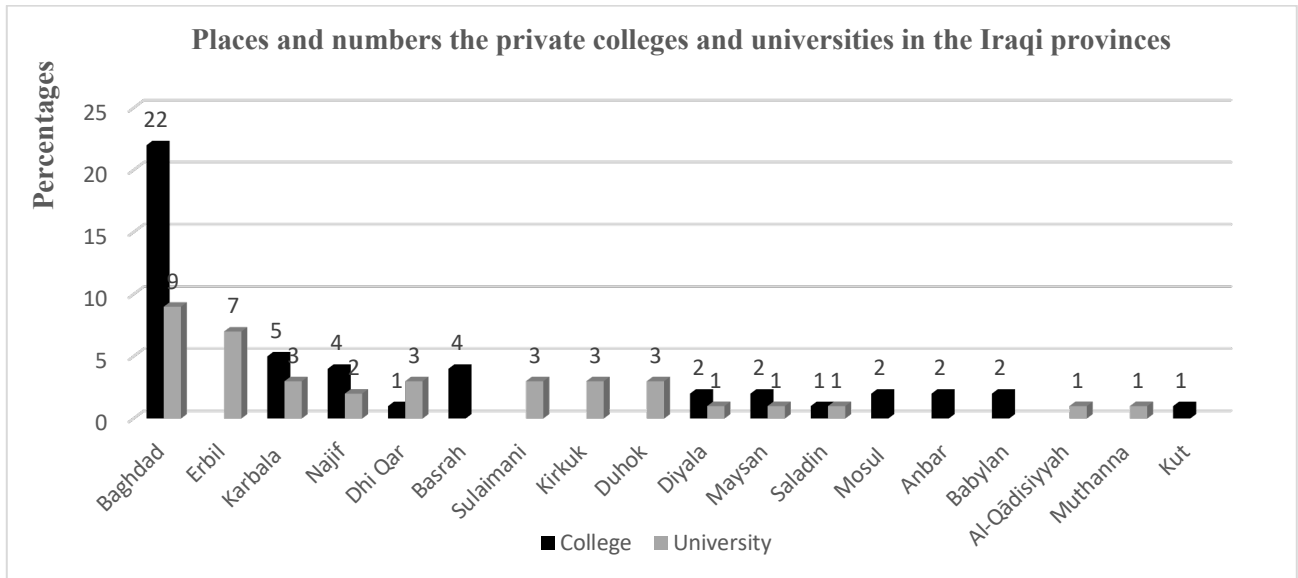
Region (Sadik, 2018). However, these universities were not acknowledged by the Iraqi HEM until 2017 (Ministry, 2019b). There are 13 of these universities, as shown in Table 1.6.

**Table 1.5:** The private universities that were established in Iraq Kurdistan Region in accordance with Law 2016 no 25.

No	Name of college	No of Departs	City or Province	Year of Establishment	Year of Acknowledgement by Iraqi HEM
1	Nawroz University	5 colleges	Duhok	2004	2017
2	The American University	7	Sulaimani	2007	2017
3	Cihan University	6 colleges	Erbil	2007	2007
4	Cihan University	6	Sulaimani	2007	2017
5	Lebanese French University LFU Erbil	4 colleges	Erbil	2007	2017
6	Tishk University	7	Erbil	2008	2017
7	University of Human Development	4 colleges	Sulaimani	2008	2017
8	Knowledge University	5 colleges	Erbil	2009	2017
9	Catholic University	7	Erbil	2012	2017
10	Bayan University	3 colleges	Erbil	2013	2017
11	The American University	5	Duhok	2014	2017
12	Cihan University	6	Duhok	2014	2017
13	International University of Erbil	4	Erbil	2014	2017

Source: Ministry of higher education and scientific research / department of private education 2018-2019

Thus, the researcher can provide detailed figures about the distribution of private colleges and universities in the Iraqi provinces that have been established since 1988 and current exist, according to their places and numbers, as shown in Figure 1.4.



**Figure 1.2:** Distribution of private colleges and universities in the Iraqi provinces

Figure 1.2 indicates that Iraq has 48 private colleges and 38 universities. Also, this figure reflects Baghdad city's substantially higher percentage of private colleges and universities (22 college, 45.83%; 9 universities, 23.68%) compared with other provinces from the total number private colleges and universities. However, the province of Erbil has just 7 universities 18.42%. On the other hand, half of Iraqi provinces have between just 1 to 2 private college and that is not fair. That means there are not actual standards in distributing the private colleges and universities in Iraqi provinces.

Figure 1.4 shows that Karbala has (5 college, 10.41%; 3 universities, 8.57%). Similarly, the province of Najif has (4 college, 8.33%; 2 universities, 5.71%) compared with the province of Dhi Qar that has (1 college, 2.08%; 3 universities, 8.57%). In contrast, the provinces of Sulaimani, Kirkuk, and Duhok have just 3 universities in each province 8.57. Again, provinces of Mosul, Anbar, and Babylon have just 2 universities in each province 5.71%. By contrast, the rest of the provinces Al-Qadisiyyah and Muthanna have just one college each.

## APPENDIX C: Overview of Relevant Empirical Studies

No.	Author, Title, & Year	Methods/sample	Aim / focus	Outcomes / Findings	Recommendation and Suggestion
1.	Alexandra L. (1999) A Strategic Planning Primer for Higher Education	brief history of strategic planning, emerging challenges in higher education (USA)	overview of the strategic planning process	basic models and steps of a strategic planning process, adapting strategic planning to unique needs of higher education	the need for strategy in higher education, and the dynamics of the university-based strategic planning
2.	Kotler, P. and Murphy, P.E., (2004). Strategic planning for higher education.	Survey study through reviewing literature review	Is there empirical evidence whether SP does or does not work in higher education. Does SP can be done poorly or it can be done well in Higher Education	Strategic planning “remains a powerful tool for advancing a college’s or university’s vision	Strategic planning, if properly implemented, can have a powerful impact on advancing and transforming colleges and universities.
3.	Taylor, J. and Machado, M.D.L., (2006), Higher education leadership and management: From conflict to interdependence through strategic planning.	This study is survey study about previous empirical literature in higher education institutions that relate about impact the leadership style and management in strategic planning process.	The purpose is to make ideal framework for strategic planning process in HEI that leads to achieve organizational success across good leadership and management	There are number from HEI still unable to do strategic planning because of weak leadership and lack of vision as well as organizational culture	SP is one of the most important tools of higher education for several decades depending on Abilities and skills of leaders if not that will lead to failure S P in HEOs because of weak leadership.
4.	Wang, C., Walker, E. A., & Redmond, J. L. (2007). Explaining the lack of strategic planning in SMEs: The importance of owner motivation.	Coopetition strategy model. Empirical study	The aim of this study is to identify ‘barriers’ that hinder planning in order that these may be overcome or else mitigated to encourage strategic planning in SMEs...	There are two key points. One, that the antecedents of planning have not been properly accounted for and; two, that studies investigating the lack of strategic planning in SMEs	Some factors for managers influenced by education, gender, ethnicity, social marginalisation, family commitments, and personal aspirations. Also, strategic planning drive business development, competitiveness and hence, economic success.
5.	Kaissi, A.A., Begun, J.W. and Welson, T., 2008. Strategic planning processes and hospital financial performance.	It is empirical research. Multiple linear regression analysis, deviations. Structural equations and interviews model. The sample was 138 chief executive officers (CEOs) of hospitals in the state of Texas	The purpose of this research is to provide evidence proves the association between strategic planning processes and financial performance	The sample shown % 87 percent from hospitals reported having a strategic plan. In addition, about one-half of the hospitals assigned responsibility for the plan only to the CEOs	The need to evaluating the cause-and-effect relationships between SPP and performance. Leader’s role in support the SPP is a key component. Also, support of government Stakeholder
6.	Judah, N. and Paul, O., (2009) (Strategic planning and	Survey study through reviewing literature review	how to run an education system within a larger national	Strategic planning offers education institution(s) opportunity to identify how it will commit resources over	Strategic planning is therefore an important approach to educational planning in modern world

No.	Author, Title, & Year	Methods/sample	Aim / focus	Outcomes / Findings	Recommendation and Suggestion
	implementation: An educational institution perspective.		development perspective through constraints	the long term in order to accomplish its mission.	
7.	Plant, T., (2009), Holistic strategic planning in the public sector.	A holistic strategy model. Empirical study	This article focuses on developing a holistic approach to strategic planning	Successful approach views all components in the process as an integrated system through a holistic strategic framework A lack of involvement of stakeholders.	The success of a strategy depends on good leadership, which will result in the development of a clear strategy.
8.	Fathi, M. and Wilson, L., 2009. Strategic planning in colleges and universities. Business Renaissance Quarterly.	This study is empirical in COLL and UNIVER	This article focuses on leader's roles in practicing SP process to achieve organizational success. The key function for SP is to achieve competitive advantage for COLL and UNIVER.	Successful approach will view all components in the process as an integrated system through a holistic strategic framework. S P is vital tool to the success of colleges and universities.	Colleges and universities must use S P in order to grow and prosper, so it leads to create and sustain competitive advantage. Major cause to failed SP is leaders so, lead to drop the performance colleges.
9.	Al-Turki, U., 2011. A framework for strategic planning in maintenance.	An analytical methodology is adopted to develop a systematic approach for implementing the framework	The aim is to introduce a framework for maintenance SP that takes into consideration the view of maintenance in relation to other parts of the organization at different levels.	The study finds that the involvement of major stakeholders as well as top management commitment is essential for the successful development of a maintenance strategic plan.	Practical implications–Senior maintenance managers and strategy developers may benefit from this study in developing their own plans.
10.	Ridwan, M.S. and Marti, J., 2012. The Study on Strategic Planning and Organizational Performance in the Regional Government	Case study model. It employed a qualitative research method for a framework. In addition, it used unstructured interviews. The population is the Indonesian banking both private and state banks. The total banks number is 26 bank and have chosen three banks as a sample.	The aim of this study is to explore reality the strategic planning practices in these banks. In addition, to understand the link between strategic planning practices, institutional context, and organizational performance	the role of CEO in all three banks have very crucial role in strategic planning process through given big picture of the future direction of the company in front of the staff (strategic planning team) and then strategic planning team translate the guidance of CEO in their strategic planning design	The strategic planning process be effective and useful, if their commitment and involvement with all over the organization. The future study needs to be examined using quantitative method with larger sample. To study impact strategic planning and leadership in organisational performance.
11.	Ofori, D. and Atiogbe, E., 2012. Strategic planning in public universities: a developing country perspective.	Empirical study on strategic planning in three public universities in Ghana.	The aim is to assesses strategy development, the implementation process, the main challenges to SP in public universities, and what their success factors?	Findings indicate that the nature, form, and sophistication of information and communication technology use influenced successful implementation of strategic plans for two public universities	It suggested that members of staff perceived strategic planning to be the responsibility of top management. There is little ownership and commitment by academic and other stakeholders.



No.	Author, Title, & Year	Methods/sample	Aim / focus	Outcomes / Findings	Recommendation and Suggestion
12.	Abdul Malik, S., Al Kahtani, N.S. and Naushad, M., (2013). Integrating AHP, SWOT AND QSPM in strategic planning-an application to college of business administration in SAUDI arabia.	Experimental study in HEs. It created new the strategy - formulation analytical framework. The sample is Dean, Assistant Dean for Quality & Development, Senior Consultant, Professors, Heads of Academic Departments and a Students.	This paper demonstrates the integration of the qualitative and quantitative techniques, SWOT, Strategic Planning with Analytical Hierarchy Process in crafting the strategy of a business.	The researchers integrated AHP, SWOT and QSPM in Strategic Planning at College of Business Administration Al Kharj (CBAK) in Saudi Arabia.	Mission development; goal setting; strategy development and selection; strategy implementation; and evaluation, review, adjustment. Also, it assures on leader role in S P.
13.	Zandi, G., Sulaiman, M., Al Atiyat, H.M. and Naysary, B., (2013), The strategic planning process and current practices.	It applied in two prominent, non-competing companies in UMW Toyota Sdn. Bhd and the Chemical Company in Malaysia and it adopted comparative qualitative case study.	The aim is to investigate in depth the different aspects, processes and practices employed by these well-known Companies for their SPP.	The research findings revealed common as well as distinctive strategic planning practices between the companies under the study.	The literature lacks a comprehensive explanation on how to achieve organisational success through strategic planning.
14.	Khan, M. (2014), Strategic Planning and Reality of External Environment	in the small and medium enterprises	To identify Strategic Planning and External Environment of Organizations in Contemporary Business	strategic planning perspective in developing countries is very limited	SP plays an important and key role in the success and survival of all kinds of business organizations. The SP is essential for any organization success.
15.	Howes, T.C.N, (2014), Strategic Planning Leadership	Empirical study in Illinois community colleges in an attempt to identify the leader responsible for facilitating the SPP	Leadership and planning are two essential components for the viability of community colleges.	The study found that individuals responsible for leadership activities highly correspond with the skills associated with behavioral LS ,	provide insight into the type of leadership needed for strategic planning in community colleges during these ever-changing times.
16.	Mano, M., Carvalho, F., Silva, M. and Rocha, F., (2015), Implications on the Design and Methodology of a Strategic Planning Process in a University.	This study is empirical and applied in University of Coimbra across SPP. This study depended on workshops method by three levels to lead (S P P) in university: the corporate level (university); the business level (the Faculties) and the functional level.	The purpose is to provide details the about design of a change model in a University by strategic SPP. Also, this study placed some principles and critical factors to achieve organisational success	This study highlighted on importance of leadership role to identify strategic direction is for the university and the double role of the rector and deans, at corporate and business level in SPP. It put framework.	Should be taken into account to give important inputs to a design process of SPP in the specific context HEs Institutions to achieve organisational success. As, it is important to make known that this is a shared vision (across top and middle management and main stakeholders)

No.	Author, Title, & Year	Methods/sample	Aim / focus	Outcomes / Findings	Recommendation and Suggestion
17.	Babafemi, I.D., (2015). Corporate Strategy, Planning and Performance Evaluation: A Survey of Literature.	Survey study of literature,	This study mainly focused on the connection between the strategic planning process and organizational performance	this article has argued that effective strategic planning indeed has a positive impact on organizational performance	The organizations that practice SP will be survived. The firms that embrace strategic planning will lead them to improve their performance.
18.	Elbanna, S., Andrews, R. and Pollanen, R., (2015). Strategic Planning and Implementation Success in Public Service Organizations: Evidence from Canada.	It is empirical in Canadian public sector that consists from three levels are federal, provincial and municipal. A structured online questionnaire was used to collect data from all three major levels of Canadian Governments. Survey participants were identified from online databases (organizational websites) by e-mail addresses were available.	To examine the role that formal strategic planning plays in determining the success of strategy implementation in a set of more than 150 public service organizations from Canada.	Formal strategic planning has a strong positive relationship with implementation, which, though mediated by managerial involvement, becomes even more salient in the face of stakeholder uncertainty	.SP helps in coordinating and integrating efforts, knowledge and capabilities to achieve the organization success. Also, SP has a positive and significant impact on managerial involvement that leads to the enhancement of managers' commitment to and alignment with public policy and organizational priorities
19.	Kohzadi, M. and Hafezi, S, 2016 The effect of strategic planning on organizational performance in industrial estate companies of Gachsaran 2014-2015 years	Empirical study, structural equation model with top managers of the companies. It applied on 102 managers (owners) of small industrial organizations. So, the sample of this research equal the study population	The aim of this study is to measure the effect of strategic planning on the performance of the organization as well as to evaluate this model.	The role of strategic management and its implementation in the industrial firms was poor toward the organisational performance. There is significant linear correlation between strategic planning and environmental change.	To apply further in depth research about strategic planning process and organisational success. To determine more involved elements in strategic planning process.



## APPENDIX D: Overview of Literature Review on Leadership, Strategic Planning, and Organisational Success in Iraq Context

**Table:** Overview of literature review on leadership, strategic planning, and organisational success in Iraq context

Author, title, and journal's name	Place of study and its type	Focus/aim	Finding	Recommendation
Al-Qaisi, F and Khawam, Z. (2015), The leadership skills and its impact in the strategic planning. Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences, vol 21, no. 86, pp.196-126	Empirical research in the Planning Ministry, Iraq – Baghdad.	To explore the leadership skills in the ministry and what the best style for it. Also, explore the relation and effect between the leadership skills and strategic planning.	The study's findings shown that leadership skills and strategic planning process have positive effect on improving the organisation's performance.	Must to enhance the leadership styles that lead to create effective administrative leaders that encourage to using the strategic planning and hence developing the performance.
Saeed and Muzaffar (2016) The impact of leadership styles in the crisis management center the strategic planning, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences (JEAS)/ Baghdad vol 22, no. 92, pp 159-196	Empirical research in the Ministry of Electricity Iraq – Baghdad.	To examine the relation and effect of the leadership styles and strategic planning.	There is significant correlation between strategic leadership and strategic planning	shpuld to invest the leadership role in formulation the strategic plans for the public organisations.
Al-Tai, A and Naji, M. (2015), The organisational change role in achieving the organisational success, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences vol. 21, no. 86, PP. 46-70	Empirical research in the Ministry of Oil, Iraq – Baghdad.	To explore the organisational change role in achieving the organisational success	The study's findings shown that leadership role has positive effect on organisational success.	Confirmed on studying importance of LS and SP together
Al-Jader, S. and Marjah, Z. (2016), the leadership skills in the organisational confidence, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences Vol. 22, No. 87, PP. 242-252	Empirical research in the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Iraq – Baghdad.	To examine the relation and effect of the strategic leadership skills in organisational trust	There is significant correlation between the leadership skills and organisational trust	Must to invest positive effect between the leadership styles and the organisational confidence in the strategic planning process to improving the organisational performance.
Al-Kubaisi, S. and Al-Kaoud, A, (2016), The role of academic leadership practices in activating human capital, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences, vol 22, no. 87, PP. 1-26.	Empirical research in some universities, Iraq – Baghdad.	To examine the relation and effect of the role of academic leadership practices in activating human capital	The study's findings shown that the role of academic leadership practices has positive effect on improving the organisation's performance.	The need to investing the academic leaders in Iraqi universities in the developing of a model of the performance management and human capital to raise the competitive ability of those universities in the local and international levels.

Al-Husseini,S and Elbeltagi, I. (2016), Transformative leadership and innovation:, journal Studies in Higher Education, vol. 41, no. 1, pp 159-181	A comparison study between Iraq's public and private higher education	To examine the relation and effect of transformative leadership and innovation	plays a pivotal role in enhancing product and process innovation and that the style would be ideal in an Iraqi educational context. As, it would promote strategies for developing innovation in both sectors	This study recommended both Transformative leadership and strategic planning process to improve the performance
Jassem, Humam Falah and Hussain, Farah (2017) Effective administrative leadership in the implementation of public policies, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences (JEAS)/ Baghdad,vol. 23, no. 98,pp 128-148	Analytical look at the Baghdad Province Council	To explore between effective administrative leadership and implementation of public policies	The Baghdad province council has no clear vision to build plans, long-term policies, which identifies through the obvious weakness in the performance and motivation of the employees	To conduct several similar researches in this field because vital of administration leadership in implementation of strategic policies
Saeed, Sana and Ali, Farah (2018), the Role of Personality characteristics of the leader in business organizations entrepreneurship, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences (JEAS)/ Baghdad,vol. 24, no. 109,pp 92-117	Empirical research in 13 private colleges in Baghdad city	To find the effective role of the personality characteristics of the Leader in achieving the entrepreneurship by studying the effect of the special dimensions of personality characteristics	the organizations use the entrepreneurship to achieve customers satisfaction through improving the levels of current services, and through the personality characteristics of leaders	This research recommended to conduct more researches in features of leadership and organisational success
Nader, AM and Jassim, AH (2019), role of strategic leadership in achieving organizational excellence, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences (JEAS)/ Baghdad, vol. 25, no. 114, pp 225-241	field research was one of organisations of Iraqi industry Ministry in Al-Faris General Company	To determine the role of strategic leadership in achieving organizational excellence	The strategic leadership is positively related with organizational excellence	A set of recommendations was formulated to who are interested in this subject
Hussein and Abdel Hassan (2020), the role of the strategic mind of human resources managers in strategic drift, Journal of Economic and Administrative Sciences (JEAS)/ Baghdad, vol. 26, no. 117, pp 200-211	Empirical study in one of organisations of Ministry of Industrial and Metals (Public Company of Concrete)	testing the relation between practices of the strategic leaders and implementation of organisation's strategic	The strategic leadership is positively related with strategy of organization	it suggested the need for research into the strategic leadership practices and the entrepreneurial dimensions in order to achieve success of the organisations

APPENDIX E: Results Variables of the Study in Relating to Cronbach's Alpha

Test

```
RELIABILITY
/VARIABLES=Q1 Q2 Q3 Q4 Q5 Q6 Q7 Q8 Q9 Q10 Q11 Q12 Q13 Q14 Q15 Q16 Q17 Q18 Q19 Q20 Q21 Q22 Q23 Q24
Q25 Q26 Q27 Q28 Q29 Q30 Q31 Q32 Q33 Q34 Q35 Q36 Q37 Q38 Q39 Q40 Q41 Q42 Q43 Q44 Q45
/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL
/MODEL=ALPHA.
```

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

➔ Leadership styles,

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.935	45

#### RELIABILITY

```
/VARIABLES=Q2 Q1 Q3 Q4 Q5 Q6 Q7 Q8 Q9 Q10 Q11 Q12 Q13 Q14 Q15 Q16 Q17 Q18 Q19  
/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL  
/MODEL=ALPHA.
```

### Reliability

#### Scale: ALL VARIABLES

#### → Strategic planning

##### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

##### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.924	19

#### RELIABILITY

```
/VARIABLES=Q1 Q2 Q3 Q4 Q5 Q6 Q7 Q8 Q9 Q10 Q11 Q12 Q13 Q14 Q15 Q16 Q17 Q18 Q19 Q20 Q21 Q22 Q23 Q24  
Q25 Q26 Q27 Q28 Q29 Q30 Q31 Q32 Q33 Q34 Q35 Q36 Q37 Q38 Q39 Q40 Q41 Q42  
/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL  
/MODEL=ALPHA.
```

### Reliability

#### Scale: ALL VARIABLES

#### → Balanced scorecard

##### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

##### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.924	42

#### RELIABILITY

```
/VARIABLES=Q1 Q2 Q3 Q4 Q5 Q6 Q7 Q8 Q9 Q10 Q11 Q12 Q13 Q14 Q15 Q16 Q17 Q18 Q19 Q20 Q21 Q22 Q23 Q24  
Q25 Q26 Q27  
/SCALE('ALL VARIABLES') ALL  
/MODEL=ALPHA  
/SUMMARY=TOTAL.
```

### Reliability

#### Scale: ALL VARIABLES

##### Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	87	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	87	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

##### Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.891	27



## APPENDIX F: Ethical Approval

### OFFICE OF RESEARCH

Human Research Ethics Committee

PHONE +61 7 4631 2690| FAX +61 7 4631 5555

EMAIL [human.ethics@usq.edu.au](mailto:human.ethics@usq.edu.au)



2 January 2018

Mr Mohammed Matook Al-Mahdi

Dear Mohammed Matook

The USQ Human Research Ethics Committee has recently reviewed your responses to the conditions placed upon the ethical approval for the project outlined below. Your proposal is now deemed to meet the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)* and full ethical approval has been granted.

Approval No.	H17REA244
Project Title	An Investigation of Leadership Style and the Strategic Planning Process in the Success of Public and Private Colleges in Iraq
Approval date	2 January 2018
Expiry date	2 January 2021
HREC Decision	<b>Approved</b>

The standard conditions of this approval are:

- (a) Conduct the project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments made to the proposal required by the HREC
- (b) Advise (email: [human.ethics@usq.edu.au](mailto:human.ethics@usq.edu.au)) immediately of any complaints or other issues in relation to the project which may warrant review of the ethical approval of the project
- (c) Make submission for approval of amendments to the approved project before implementing such changes
- (d) Provide a 'progress report' for every year of approval
- (e) Provide a 'final report' when the project is complete
- (f) Advise in writing if the project has been discontinued, using a 'final report'

For (c) to (f) forms are available on the USQ ethics website:

<http://www.usq.edu.au/research/support-development/research-services/research-integrity-ethics/human/forms>

Yours sincerely,



**Dr Mark Emmerson**  
Ethics Officer

# APPENDIX G: Survey Package Returns Aramax Receipt

**aramex** International Express Air Waybill

Copy 1

Barcode: 3368644171

Waybill Number: 771559365

Sender's Reference: Rushed Abdul Sahib

Receiver's Reference: All Jera

Sender's Address: 7717347495

Receiver's Address: 0909264881

Sender's Name: Shirley O'Neill

Receiver's Name: Head of School

Sender's Company: Faculty of Business Education

Receiver's Company: JARA University of Science

Sender's Country: Queensland

Receiver's Country: Australia

Sender's City: 1300

Receiver's City: 160

Sender's Zip: 715

Receiver's Zip: 875

Sender's Signature: [Signature]

Receiver's Signature: [Signature]

Weight: 0.5 kg

Volume: 1.0 m³

Declared Value: \$160

Insurance: 0.5/20

Payment: 0.00

Araxes Logo

## APPENDIX H: Overview of Descriptive Statistics

**Table: data analysis of Multifactor Leadership Style MLQ in the public colleges**

No	Items of Questionnaire	Not at all (1)		Occasiona lly (2)		Sometim es (3)		Often (4)		Frequentl y (5)		M	SD	CV
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
Q1 CR	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	9	16.1	3	5.4	5	8.9	16	28.6	23	41.1	3.73	1.45	38.87
Q2 IS	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	7	12.5	4	7.1	11	19.6	24	42.9	10	17.9	3.46	1.23	35.54
Q3 MBEP	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	25	44.6	16	28.6	9	16.1	6	10.7	0	0	1.92	1.02	53.12
Q4 MBEA	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	10	17.9	10	17.9	19	33.9	15	26.8	2	3.2	2.78	1.17	42.08
Q5 LF	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	21	37.5	11	19.6	8	14.3	9	16.1	7	12.5	2.43	1.45	59.67
Q6 IIB	I talk about my most important values and beliefs	13	23.2	5	8.9	12	21.4	13	23.2	13	23.2	3.14	1.48	47.13
Q7 LF	I am absent when needed	26	46.4	12	21.4	12	21.4	4	7.1	2	3.6	2.00	1.14	57
Q8 IS	I seek different opinions when I need to solve problems.	4	7.1	9	16.1	5	8.9	24	42.9	14	25.0	3.62	1.22	33.70
Q9 IM	I let people know I am positive about the future.	6	10.7	9	16.1	2	3.2	22	39.3	17	30.4	3.62	1.35	37.29
Q10 IIA	I expect people to be proud of the work they do with me.	9	16.1	6	10.7	2	3.2	18	32.3	21	37.8	3.64	1.48	40.65
Q11 CR	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	8	14.3	3	5.4	6	10.7	24	42.9	15	26.8	3.62	1.32	27.62
Q12 MBEP	I don't take any action until things go wrong.	30	53.6	12	21.4	4	7.1	8	14.3	2	3.2	1.92	1.23	64.06
Q13 IM	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	4	7.1	9	16.1	5	8.9	25	44.6	13	23.2	3.60	1.21	33.61

Q14 IIB	I stress the need to get the job done well.	4	7.1	8	14.3	3	5.4	19	33.9	22	39.3	3.83	1.29	33.68
Q15 IC	I make time to coach the people I work with.	4	7.1	8	14.3	3	5.4	16	28.6	25	44.6	3.89	1.31	33.67
Q16 CR	I make sure my staff understand the reward for getting the job done well.	4	7.1	10	17.9	4	7.1	20	35.7	18	32.1	3.67	1.29	35.14
Q17 MBEP	I make it clear that I believe "If it isn't broke, don't fix it."	9	16.1	20	35.7	17	30.4	5	8.9	5	8.9	2.58	1.14	44.18
Q18 IIA	I put the group goal before my personal goal.	6	10.7	9	16.1	8	14.3	5	8.9	28	50.0	3.71	1.48	39.89
Q19 IC	I treat my staff as individual not just members of a group.	11	19.6	4	7.1	6	10.7	21	37.5	14	25.0	3.41	1.44	42.22
Q20 MBEP	I have a clear vision of the future for our work.	27	48.2	10	17.9	11	19.6	5	8.9	3	5.4	2.05	1.24	60.48
Q21 IIA	I act in ways that build others' respect for me	7	12.5	9	16.1	3	5.4	5	8.9	32	57.1	3.82	1.55	40.57
Q22 MBEA	I give time to solving problems.	8	14.3	6	10.7	7	12.5	19	33.9	16	28.6	3.51	1.38	39.31
Q23 IIB	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of my decisions.	7	12.5	5	8.9	5	8.9	15	26.8	24	42.9	3.78	1.41	37.30
Q24 MBEA	I keep track of staff members' mistakes	4	7.1	9	16.1	5	8.9	23	41.1	15	26.8	3.64	1.24	34.06
Q25 IIA	I promote my authority and confidence.	5	8.9	9	16.1	3	5.4	20	35.7	19	33.9	3.69	1.33	36.04
Q26 IM	I articulate a compelling vision of the future.	6	10.7	8	14.3	2	3.6	23	41.1	17	30.4	3.66	1.33	36.33
Q27 MEA	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	10	17.9	10	17.9	22	39.3	5	8.9	9	16.1	2.87	1.28	44.59
Q28 LF	I avoid making decisions	27	48.2	6	10.7	11	19.6	7	12.5	5	8.9	2.23	1.40	62.78
Q29 IC	I treat my staff as individuals with different needs, skills and goals.	6	10.7	5	8.9	5	8.9	22	39.3	18	32.1	3.73	1.30	34.85
Q30 IS	I get staff to look at problems in different ways.	6	10.7	6	10.7	4	7.1	24	42.9	16	28.6	3.67	1.29	35.14
Q31 IC	I develop my staffs' strengths.	8	14.3	5	8.9	4	7.1	21	37.5	18	32.1	3.64	1.39	35.14
Q32 IS	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	8	14.3	6	10.7	13	23.2	15	26.8	14	25.0	3.37	1.35	40.05
Q33 LF	I delay responding to urgent questions.	23	41.1	14	25.0	5	8.9	8	14.3	6	10.7	2.28	1.41	61.84

Q34 IIB	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	6	10.7	6	10.7	9	16.1	19	33.9	16	28.6	3.58	1.30	36.31
Q35 CR	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	8	14.3	5	8.9	5	8.9	18	32.1	20	35.7	3.66	1.41	38.52
Q36 IM	I express confidence that goals will be achieved	7	12.5	5	8.9	3	5.4	18	32.1	23	41.1	3.80	1.39	36.57

**Contingent Reward (CR-4)**

**Idealized Influence Attributed (IIA-4Q)**

**Idealized Influence Behavior (IIB-4Q)**

**Individualized Consideration (IC-4Q)**

**Inspirational Motivation (IM-3Q)**

**Intellectual Stimulation (IS-4)**

**Laissez-faire (LF-4Q)**

**Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA-3Q)**

**Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP-4Q)**

**Effectiveness (E-4Q) / Extra Efforts (EE-3Q) / Satisfaction (S-2Q)**

**Table: data analysis of Multifactor Leadership Style MLQ in the private colleges**

No	Items of Questionnaire	Not at all (1)		Occasiona lly (2)		Sometim es (3)		Often (4)		Frequentl y (5)		M	SD	CV
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
Q1 CR	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	17	23.3	15	20.5	11	15.1	18	24.7	12	16.4	2.90	1.43	49.31
Q2 IS	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	3	4.1	25	34.2	18	24.7	21	28.8	6	8.2	3.02	1.06	35.10
Q3 MBEP	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	21	28.8	29	39.7	19	26	3	4.1	1	1.4	2.08	.939	44.71
Q4 MBEA	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	9	12.3	31	42.5	14	19.2	16	21.9	3	4.1	2.63	1.08	41.06
Q5 LF	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	9	12.3	22	30.1	19	26	16	21.9	7	9.6	2.86	1.18	41.26
Q6 IIB	I talk about my most important values and beliefs	5	6.8	21	28.8	16	21.9	19	26	12	16.4	3.16	1.21	38.29

Q7 LF	I am absent when needed	23	31.5	29	39.7	13	17.8	5	6.8	3	4.1	2.12	1.06	50.00
Q8 IS	I seek different opinions when I need to solve problems.	6	8.2	18	24.7	10	13.7	22	30.1	17	23.3	3.35	1.30	38.81
Q9 IM	I let people know I am positive about the future.	7	9.6	19	26	7	9.6	16	21.9	24	32.9	3.42	1.42	41.52
Q10 IIA	I expect people to be proud of the work they do with me.	8	11.0	11	20.5	9	12.3	25	34.2	16	21.9	3.35	1.32	39.40
Q11 CR	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	15	20.5	19	26.0	6	8.2	22	30.1	11	15.1	2.93	1.41	48.12
Q12 MBEP	I don't take any action until things go wrong.	26	35.6	28	38.4	4	5.5	10	13.7	5	6.8	2.17	1.25	57.60
Q13 IM	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	10	13.7	19	26.0	8	11.0	20	27.4	16	21.9	3.17	1.39	43.85
Q14 IIB	I stress the need to get the job done well.	9	12.3	13	17.8	14	19.2	19	26.0	18	24.7	3.32	1.35	40.66
Q15 IC	I make time to coach the people I work with.	12	16.4	12	16.4	9	12.3	14	19.2	26	35.6	3.41	1.51	44.28
Q16 CR	I make sure my staff understand the reward for getting the job done well.	11	15.1	17	23.3	12	16.4	16	21.9	17	23.3	3.15	1.41	44.76
Q17 MBEP	I make it clear that I believe "If it isn't broke, don't fix it."	21	28.8	24	32.9	14	19.2	13	17.8	1	1.4	2.30	1.11	48.26
Q18 IIA	I put the group goal before my personal goal.	16	21.9	15	20.5	7	9.6	18	24.7	17	23.3	3.06	1.51	49.35
Q19 IC	I treat my staff as individual not just members of a group.	22	30.1	15	20.5	9	12.3	16	21.9	11	15.1	2.71	1.47	54.24
Q20 MBEP	I have a clear vision of the future for our work.	20	27.4	35	47.9	8	11.0	7	9.6	3	4.1	2.15	1.06	49.30
Q21 IIA	I act in ways that build others' respect for me	9	12.3	21	28.8	13	17.8	11	15.1	19	26.0	3.13	1.40	44.73
Q22 MBEA	I give time to solving problems.	10	13.7	26	35.6	7	9.6	17	23.3	13	17.8	2.95	1.36	46.10
Q23 IIB	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of my decisions.	7	9.6	25	34.2	12	16.4	10	13.7	19	26.0	3.12	1.38	44.23

Q24 MBEA	I keep track of staff members' mistakes	10	13.7	20	27.4	12	16.4	17	23.3	14	19.2	3.06	1.35	44.12
Q25 IIA	I promote my authority and confidence.	11	15.1	23	31.5	7	9.6	13	17.8	19	26.0	3.08	1.46	47.40
Q26 IM	I articulate a compelling vision of the future.	7	9.6	23	31.5	6	8.2	14	19.2	23	31.5	3.31	1.44	43.50
Q27 MEA	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	8	11.0	23	31.5	20	27.4	19	26.0	3	4.1	2.80	1.07	38.21
Q28 LF	I avoid making decisions	22	30.1	28	38.4	12	16.4	6	8.2	5	6.8	2.23	1.17	52.47
Q29 IC	I treat my staff as individuals with different needs, skills and goals.	6	8.2	24	32.9	6	8.2	21	28.8	16	21.9	3.23	1.33	41.18
Q30 IS	I get staff to look at problems in different ways.	8	11.0	19	26.0	9	12.3	21	28.8	16	21.9	3.24	1.35	41.67
Q31 IC	I develop my staffs' strengths.	12	16.4	16	21.9	12	16.4	16	21.9	17	23.3	3.13	1.42	45.37
Q32 IS	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	12	16.4	18	24.7	10	13.7	21	28.8	12	16.4	3.04	1.36	44.74
Q33 LF	I delay responding to urgent questions.	19	26.0	23	43.8	13	17.8	6	8.2	3	4.1	2.20	1.05	47.73
Q34 IIB	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	9	12.3	23	31.5	6	8.2	21	28.8	14	19.2	3.10	1.36	43.87
Q35 CR	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	8	11.0	20	27.4	7	9.6	14	19.2	24	32.9	3.35	1.45	43.28
Q36 IM	I express confidence that goals will be achieved	10	13.7	18	24.3	9	12.2	15	20.3	21	28.4	3.26	1.45	44.47

**Table: Data analysis of the Strategic Planning Process SPP in the public colleges**

No	Items of Questionnaire	Not at all (1)		Almost never (2)		Sometimes (3)		Often (F&P) (4)		Almost like (5)		M	SD	CV
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
<b>Q1A</b>	There are resources for training staff in strategic planning.	15	26.8	10	17.9	13	23.2	14	25.0	4	7.1	2.67	1.30	48.7
<b>Q2A</b>	There are standards for measuring skills in strategic planning.	11	19.6	18	32.1	12	21.4	11	19.6	4	7.1	2.62	1.21	46.2
<b>Q3B</b>	Faculty and staff can participate in strategic planning.	10	17.9	9	16.1	19	33.9	16	28.6	2	3.6	2.83	1.14	40.3
<b>Q4A</b>	We review how well we are doing with providing a new strategic plan.	12	21.4	7	12.5	19	33.9	14	25.0	4	7.1	2.83	1.23	43.5
<b>Q5C</b>	We look for strategic planning in the way we assess workplace needs.	7	12.5	11	19.6	15	26.8	15	26.8	8	14.3	3.10	1.24	40.0
<b>Q6B</b>	Shareholders are available when we need them.	5	8.9	18	32.1	13	23.2	16	28.6	4	7.1	2.92	1.12	38.4
<b>Q7C</b>	Our policy is to make all communications open to receive strategic suggestions and advice.	7	12.5	14	25.0	9	16.1	24	42.9	2	3.6	3.00	1.15	38.3
<b>Q8C</b>	We keep pictures, written texts and objects about our vision and mission.	8	14.3	11	19.6	18	32.1	16	28.6	3	5.4	2.91	1.13	38.8
<b>Q9B</b>	Important decisions about successful strategic planning come through people participation at all levels.	7	12.5	9	16.1	19	33.9	14	25.0	7	12.5	3.08	1.19	38.6
<b>Q10A</b>	Strategic planning processes are helped by other people (shareholders and students).	10	17.8	10	17.8	20	35.7	14	25.0	2	3.6	2.78	1.12	40.3
<b>Q11B</b>	People from other different backgrounds work with us to help in preparing our strategic plans	11	19.6	8	14.3	24	42.9	11	19.6	2	3.6	2.73	1.10	40.3
<b>Q12A</b>	We have a training program to help us to be able to develop our strategic plan.	9	16.1	15	26.8	17	30.4	13	23.2	2	3.6	2.71	1.10	40.6



<b>Q13C</b>	We encourage staff and faculty to discuss strategic plans.	11	19.6	7	12.5	11	19.6	22	39.3	5	8.9	3.05	1.29	42.3
<b>Q14B</b>	We expect faculty and staff to talk with shareholders before they make important decisions.	9	16.1	10	17.9	17	30.4	13	23.2	7	12.5	2.98	1.25	41.9
<b>Q15A</b>	My ideas on improving strategic planning are encouraged and seen as useful.	9	16.1	7	12.5	10	17.9	18	32.1	12	21.4	3.30	1.37	41.5

A- Tools of the Strategic Planning Process

B- The Participants in the Strategic Planning Process.

C- The Supported Factors in the Strategic Planning Process

**Table: Data Analysis of the Strategic Planning Process SPP in the private colleges**

No	Items of Questionnaire	Not at all (1)		Almost never (2)		Sometimes (3)		Often (F&P) (4)		Almost like (5)		M	SD	CV
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
<b>Q1A</b>	There are resources for training staff in strategic planning.	31	42.5	13	17.8	14	19.2	9	12.3	6	8.2	2.26	1.34	59.29
<b>Q2A</b>	There are standards for measuring skills in strategic planning.	8	11.0	30	41.1	17	23.3	12	16.4	6	8.2	2.69	1.12	41.64
<b>Q3B</b>	Faculty and staff can participate in strategic planning.	14	19.2	20	27.4	20	27.4	16	21.9	3	4.1	2.64	1.14	43.18
<b>Q4A</b>	We review how well we are doing with providing a new strategic plan.	14	19.2	23	31.5	12	16.4	18	24.7	6	8.2	2.71	1.26	46.49
<b>Q5C</b>	We look for strategic planning in the way we assess workplace needs.	13	17.8	13	17.8	20	27.4	21	28.8	6	8.2	2.91	1.23	42.27
<b>Q6B</b>	Shareholders are available when we need them.	16	21.9	14	19.2	22	30.1	15	20.5	6	8.2	2.73	1.24	45.42

<b>Q7C</b>	Our policy is to make all communications open to receive strategic suggestions and advice.	9	12.3	18	24.7	19	26.0	18	24.7	9	12.3	3.00	1.22	40.67
<b>Q8C</b>	We keep pictures, written texts and objects about our vision and mission.	11	15.1	16	21.9	20	27.4	12	16.4	14	19.2	3.02	1.33	44.04
<b>Q9B</b>	Important decisions about successful strategic planning come through people participation at all levels.	9	12.3	21	28.8	21	28.8	13	17.8	9	12.3	2.89	1.20	41.52
<b>Q10A</b>	Strategic planning processes are helped by other people (shareholders and students).	10	13.7	25	34.2	19	26.0	14	19.2	5	6.8	2.71	1.13	41.70
<b>Q11B</b>	People from other different backgrounds work with us to help in preparing our strategic plans	12	16.4	23	31.5	21	28.8	12	16.4	5	6.8	2.65	1.14	43.02
<b>Q12A</b>	We have a training program to help us to be able to develop our strategic plan.	13	17.8	22	30.1	17	23.3	16	21.9	5	6.8	2.69	1.19	44.24
<b>Q13C</b>	We encourage staff and faculty to discuss strategic plans.	12	16.4	20	27.4	20	27.4	16	21.9	5	6.8	2.75	1.17	42.55
<b>Q14B</b>	We expect faculty and staff to talk with shareholders before they make important decisions.	18	24.7	24	32.8	11	15.1	14	19.2	6	8.2	2.53	1.28	50.59
<b>Q15A</b>	My ideas on improving strategic planning are encouraged and seen as useful.	15	20.5	21	28.8	15	20.5	15	20.5	7	9.6	2.69	1.27	47.21

Table: **Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the public colleges (Customer-society perspective).**

No		1- Customer-society perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	Q6	Does the college have reliable data on satisfaction levels of students and staff at other leading universities?	2	3.6	7	12.5	8	14.3	29	51.8	10	17.9	3.67	1.02	1.05
2	Q5	Does the college evaluate and take into account performance indicators such as success rates, drop out level, awards etc.)?	1	1.8	7	12.5	17	30.4	28	50.0	3	5.4	3.44	.85	.72
3	Q1	Does the college have a vision of who its students are?	4	7.1	2	3.6	21	37.5	29	51.8			3.33	.85	.73
5	Q8	Does the college get involved in social initiatives and assess societal needs?			8	14.3	24	42.9	23	41.1	1	1.8	3.30	.736	.54
6	Q7	Is this information used to establish reference values and to set more and more ambitious objectives?	2	3.6	9	16.1	21	37.5	22	39.3	2	3.6	3.23	.89	.80
4	Q2	Does the college interact with the students, gathering information on their current and future expectations and needs?	4	7.1	6	10.7	22	39.3	23	41.1	1	1.8	3.19	.92	.85
7	Q3	Are there efficient communication processes for the students, the staff and other members of the organisation?	2	3.6	7	12.5	29	51.8	17	30.4	1	1.8	3.14	.79	.63
8	Q4	Does the college take their complaints, suggestions and opinions into account?	1	1.8	12	21.4	23	41.1	20	35.7			3.10	.80	.64

**Table: Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the public colleges (Learning-growth perspective).**

No		2- Learning-growth perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	Q3	Are the needs and capacities of the staff identified through job specifications or a manual of work responsibilities?	4	7.1	8	14.3	18	32.1	25	44.6	1	1.8	3.19	.96	.92
2	Q2	Does this plan respect staff and ensure equal opportunities?	3	5.4	9	16.1	19	33.9	25	44.6			3.17	.89	.80
3	Q10	Does the college run regular process assessment programs such as internal or external audits, self-assessments etc.?	2	3.6	11	19.6	20	35.7	23	41.1			3.14	.86	.74
4	Q4	Are general, specific, individual or collective training plans drawn up and implemented?	2	3.6	9	16.1	25	44.6	20	35.7			3.12	.81	.65
5	Q6	Does the college take faculty and staff opinions into account?	4	7.1	4	7.1	26	46.4	20	35.7			3.10	.86	.75
6	Q11	Is the data collected from such exercises used to establish continual improvement plans and objectives?	2	3.6	12	21.4	21	37.5	21	37.5			3.08	.85	.73
7	Q9	Does the college ensure the effectiveness of its communication channels and their use as a media for sharing best practices and knowledge?	2	3.6	10	17.9	25	44.6	19	33.9			3.08	.81	.66

8	<b>Q12</b>	LG8- Is information relative to current and future tendencies (of a general and specific nature) systematically collected?	2	3.6	8	14.3	32	57.1	14	25.0			3.03	.73	.54
9	<b>Q8</b>	Does the college have and continually improve advanced communication tools (virtual secretary, meetings, surveys etc.) that facilitate the exchange of information with students, staff and the college community in general?	3	5.4	13	23.2	20	35.7	20	35.7			3.01	.90	.81
10	<b>Q5</b>	Does the college ensure that all faculty and staff participate in the development of different policies, strategies and activities?	5	8.9	8	14.3	25	44.6	17	30.4	1	1.8	3.01	.94	.89
11	<b>Q1</b>	Does the college have a HR management plan?	2	3.6	12	21.4	28	50.0	14	25.0			2.96	.78	.61
12	<b>Q7</b>	Is the participation, initiative and ideas of the members of the college valued and rewarded?	4	7.1	11	19.6	24	42.9	17	30.4			2.96	.89	.79
13	<b>Q13</b>	Is this information used as a basis for a SWOT analysis to determine improvement actions that can be taken?	5	8.9	7	12.5	32	57.1	12	21.4			2.91	.83	.70

**Table: Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the public colleges (Internal Processes Perspective).**

No		3- Internal Processes Perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	Q3	Is there a systematic process of identification and prioritisation of opportunities for immediate or continual improvement based on the measurement and results of operational performance and information on learning processes?	3	5.4	9	16.1	24	42.9	19	33.9			3.10	.88	.78
2	Q2	Demanded by the students and society?	4	7.1	10	17.9	21	37.5	20	35.7	1	1.8	3.07	.95	.90
3	Q1	Is creativity and innovation applied to the development of new educational services	5	8.9	9	16.1	20	35.7	22	39.3	1	1.8	3.05	.96	.92
4	Q8	Are there tools such as information points, bulletins or service guides that offer the college community information on new processes?	4	7.1	13	23.2	22	39.3	17	30.4			2.92	.91	.83
5	Q6	Are there efficient attention and communication processes directed at students, staff and members of the college community?	5	8.9	9	16.1	29	51.8	12	21.4	1	1.8	2.91	.90	.81
6	Q5	Do these systems identify process errors and facilitate improvement actions?	4	7.1	12	21.4	27	48.2	13	23.2			2.87	.85	.73
7	Q4	Is there an operational system of process management, regular self-assessments etc. in accordance with ISO or similar standards?	4	7.1	15	26.8	24	42.9	13	23.2			2.82	.87	.76
8	Q7	Does the college participate in informative sessions related to its study plans, services etc. with the objective of informing future and even current students?	3	5.4	14	25.0	32	57.1	6	10.7	1	1.8	2.78	.77	.60

**Table: Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the public colleges (Financial perspective).**

No		4- Financial perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree this (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
1	<b>Q2</b>	Is it regularly reviewed?	2	3.6	8	14.3	26	46.4	20	35.7			3.14	.79	.63
2	<b>Q3</b>	Is there evidence of a clear correlation between policy, strategy and the budgetary program?	2	3.6	11	19.6	25	44.6	18	32.1			3.05	.81	.67
3	<b>Q4</b>	Does the centre define an investment plan in accordance with its policy?	2	3.6	14	25.0	21	37.5	19	33.9			3.01	.86	.74
4	<b>Q7</b>	I let staff know that I think we will achieve our goals.	5	8.9	10	17.9	20	35.7	21	37.5			3.01	.96	.92
5	<b>Q6</b>	I talk positively about what we must do at work.	5	8.9	11	19.6	20	35.7	20	35.7			2.98	.96	.92
6	<b>Q11</b>	Does the college have an inventory management system?	3	5.4	12	21.4	25	44.6	16	28.6			2.96	.85	.72
7	<b>Q12</b>	Are resources correctly managed? Does consumption minimise waste and encourage the use of renewable resources?	5	8.9	9	16.1	25	44.6	17	30.4			2.96	.91	.83
8	<b>Q1</b>	Has the college developed and implemented an economic-financial strategy that is aligned with policy and strategy?	5	8.9	7	12.5	29	51.8	15	26.8			2.96	.87	.76
9	<b>Q5</b>	Within the investment plan, does the college analyse the most important investments, assessing Indicators such as profitability, recovery time and risk?	5	8.9	13	23.2	18	32.1	20	35.7			2.94	.98	.96

10	<b>Q8</b>	Does the college have a database of all suppliers?	5	8.9	13	23.2	20	35.7	18	32.1			2.91	.95	.91
11	<b>Q10</b>	Once the most interesting are identified, are cooperation and continuous improvement links established?	3	5.4	12	21.4	28	50.0	13	23.2			2.91	.95	.91
12	<b>Q9</b>	Is an assessment made of each one of them in relation to their alignment with the policy and strategy of the college?	5	8.9	13	23.2	22	39.3	16	28.6			2.87	.93	.87
13	<b>Q13</b>	Is the impact of the assets of the college on staff and society in general, considered in relation to questions of safety and hygiene?	10	17.9	11	19.6	18	32.1	17	30.4			2.75	1.08	1.17

Table: **Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the private colleges (Customer-society perspective).**

No		1- Customer-society perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	<b>Q6</b>	Does the college have reliable data on satisfaction levels of students and staff at other leading universities?	8	11.0	22	30.1	31	42.5	11	15.1	1	1.4	2.65	.91	.83
2	<b>Q5</b>	Does the college evaluate and take into account performance indicators such as success rates, drop out level, awards etc.)?	5	6.8	13	17.8	37	50.7	18	24.7			2.93	.83	.70
3	<b>Q1</b>	Does the college have a vision of who its students are?	3	4.1	7	9.6	26	35.6	37	50.7			3.32	.81	.66



4	<b>Q8</b>	Does the college get involved in social initiatives and assess societal needs?	5	6.8	14	19.2	34	46.6	20	27.4			2.94	.86	.74
5	<b>Q7</b>	Is this information used to establish reference values and to set more and more ambitious objectives?	6	8.2	18	24.7	34	46.6	15	20.5			2.79	.86	.74
6	<b>Q2</b>	Does the college interact with the students, gathering information on their current and future expectations and needs?	5	6.8	11	15.1	41	56.2	16	21.9			2.93	.80	.64
7	<b>Q3</b>	Are there efficient communication processes for the students, the staff and other members of the organisation?	5	6.8	17	23.3	17	23.3	14	19.2			2.82	.82	.67
8	<b>Q4</b>	Does the college take their complaints, suggestions and opinions into account?	3	4.1	10	13.7	40	54.8	20	27.4			3.05	.76	.58

**Table: Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the private colleges (Learning-growth perspective).**

No		2- Learning-growth perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	<b>Q3</b>	Are the needs and capacities of the staff identified through job specifications or a manual of work responsibilities?	5	6.8	16	21.9	36	49.3	16	21.9			2.86	.83	.70
2	<b>Q2</b>	Does this plan respect staff and ensure equal opportunities?	5	6.8	20	27.4	35	47.9	13	17.8			2.76	.82	.68

3	<b>Q10</b>	Does the college run regular process assessment programs such as internal or external audits, self-assessments etc.?	6	8.2	16	21.9	33	45.2	18	24.7			2.86	.88	.78
4	<b>Q4</b>	Are general, specific, individual or collective training plans drawn up and implemented?	9	12.3	18	24.7	35	47.9	11	15.1			2.65	.88	.78
5	<b>Q6</b>	Does the college take faculty and staff opinions into account?	12	16.4	19	26.0	30	41.1	12	16.4			2.57	.95	.91
6	<b>Q11</b>	Is the data collected from such exercises used to establish continual improvement plans and objectives?	9	12.3	11	15.1	33	45.2	20	27.4			2.87	.95	.91
7	<b>Q9</b>	Does the college ensure the effectiveness of its communication channels and their use as a media for sharing best practices and knowledge?	11	15.1	11	15.1	38	52.1	13	17.8			2.72	.93	.86
8	<b>Q12</b>	LG8- Is information relative to current and future tendencies (of a general and specific nature) systematically collected?	7	9.6	11	15.1	23	31.5	26	35.6	6	8.2	3.17	1.09	1.20
9	<b>Q8</b>	Does the college have and continually improve advanced communication tools (virtual secretary, meetings, surveys etc.) that facilitate the exchange of information with students, staff and the college community in general?	7	9.6	21	28.8	33	45.2	12	16.4			2.68	.86	.747
10	<b>Q5</b>	Does the college ensure that all faculty and staff participate in the development of different policies, strategies and activities?	8	11.0	22	30.1	32	43.8	11	15.1			2.63	.87	.76
11	<b>Q1</b>	Does the college have a HR management plan?	7	9.6	18	24.7	30	41.1	18	24.7			2.80	.92	.85
12	<b>Q7</b>	Is the participation, initiative and ideas of the members of the college valued and rewarded?	10	13.7	11	15.1	32	43.8	19	26.0			2.86	1.00	1.00
13	<b>Q13</b>	Is this information used as a basis for a SWOT analysis to determine improvement actions that can be taken?	8	11.0	17	23.3	28	38.4	20	27.4			2.82	.96	.92

**Table: Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the private colleges (Internal Processes Perspective).**

No		3- Internal Processes Perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	Q3	Is there a systematic process of identification and prioritisation of opportunities for immediate or continual improvement based on the measurement and results of operational performance and information on learning processes?	6	8.2	13	17.8	39	53.4	15	20.5			2.86	.83	.70
2	Q2	Demanded by the students and society?	5	6.8	10	13.7	43	58.9	15	20.5			2.93	.78	.62
3	Q1	Is creativity and innovation applied to the development of new educational services	8	11.0	13	17.8	25	34.2	27	37.0			2.97	.99	.99
4	Q8	Are there tools such as information points, bulletins or service guides that offer the college community information on new processes?	7	9.6	11	15.1	36	49.3	19	26.0			2.91	.89	.79
5	Q6	Are there efficient attention and communication processes directed at students, staff and members of the college community?	5	6.8	13	17.8	38	52.1	17	23.3			2.91	.82	.68
6	Q5	Do these systems identify process errors and facilitate improvement actions?	9	12.3	17	23.3	36	49.3	11	15.1			2.67	.88	.77
7	Q4	Is there an operational system of process management, regular self-assessments etc. in accordance with ISO or similar standards?	28	38.4	29	39.7	16	21.9					1.83	.76	.58

8	<b>Q7</b>	Does the college participate in informative sessions related to its study plans, services etc. with the objective of informing future and even current students?	5	6.8	13	17.8	35	47.9	20	27.4			2.95	.85	.73
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**Table: Data Analysis of the Balanced Scorecard BSC in the private colleges (Financial perspective).**

No		4- Financial perspective	Strongly Disagree (1)		Disagree this (2)		Unsure (3)		Agree (4)		Strongly Agree (5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	<b>Q2</b>	Is it regularly reviewed?	5	6.8	14	19.2	35	47.9	19	26.0			2.93	.85	.73
2	<b>Q3</b>	Is there evidence of a clear correlation between policy, strategy and the budgetary program?	6	8.2	21	28.8	32	43.8	14	19.2			2.73	.86	.75
3	<b>Q4</b>	Does the centre define an investment plan in accordance with its policy?	6	8.2	8	11.0	44	60.3	13	17.8	2	2.7	2.95	.85	.73
4	<b>Q7</b>	I let staff know that I think we will achieve our goals.	5	6.8	14	19.2	32	43.8	22	30.1			2.97	.88	.77
5	<b>Q6</b>	I talk positively about what we must do at work.	6	8.2	11	15.1	36	49.3	20	27.4			2.95	.87	.76
6	<b>Q11</b>	Does the college have an inventory management system?	6	8.2	13	17.8	33	45.2	21	28.8			2.94	.89	.80
7	<b>Q12</b>	Are resources correctly managed? Does consumption minimise waste and encourage the use of renewable resources?	8	11.0	19	26.0	25	34.2	20	27.4	1	1.4	2.82	1.00	1.01
8	<b>Q1</b>	Has the college developed and implemented an economic-financial strategy that is aligned with policy and strategy?	6	8.2	15	20.5	32	43.8	32	43.8			2.90	.90	.81

9	<b>Q5</b>	Within the investment plan, does the college analyse the most important investments, assessing Indicators such as profitability, recovery time and risk?	5	6.8	13	17.8	41	56.2	14	19.2			2.87	.79	.63
10	<b>Q8</b>	Does the college have a database of all suppliers?	4	5.5	16	21.9	35	47.9	18	24.7			2.91	.82	.68
11	<b>Q10</b>	Once the most interesting are identified, are cooperation and continuous improvement links established?	5	6.8	19	26.0	31	42.5	18	24.7			2.84	.87	.76
12	<b>Q9</b>	Is an assessment made of each one of them in relation to their alignment with the policy and strategy of the college?	21	28.8	33	45.2	19	26.0					1.97	.74	.55
13	<b>Q13</b>	Is the impact of the assets of the college on staff and society in general, considered in relation to questions of safety and hygiene?	9	12.3	16	21.9	31	42.5	17	23.3			1.97	.74	.55

**Table: Comparative Total Mean for the Balance Scorecard Subscales in the public and private colleges.**

Item		The Perspectives of Balance Scorecard (BSC)			
		Customer-society perspective	Learning-growth perspective	Financial perspective	Internal Processes
Total	Public Colleges	3.3	3.06	2.96	2.94
Mean	Private Colleges	2.93	2.79	2.75	2.75

**Table: Questionnaire items of the Organisational Culture part 1 for the public colleges**

No	Items of Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form	Poor (1)		Marginal (2)		Average (3)		Very Good (4)		Excellent ((5)		M	SD	CV
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			

1	Q9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).	1	1.8	2	3.6	5	8.9	26	46.4	22	39.3	4.17	.87	20.9
2	Q8	Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).	1	1.8	2	3.6	6	10.7	26	46.4	21	37.5	4.14	.88	21.3
3	Q12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).	1	1.8	1	1.8	8	14.3	26	46.4	20	35.7	4.12	.85	20.6
4	Q1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).	1	1.8	1	1.8	11	19.6	21	37.5	22	39.3	4.10	.90	22.0
5	Q5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).	1	1.8	1	1.8	12	21.4	20	35.7	22	39.3	4.08	.92	22.5
6	Q13	Overall management competency (general level of managerial ability)	3	5.4	2	3.6	8	14.3	19	33.9	24	42.8	4.05	1.10	27.2
7	Q7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).	1	1.8	2	3.6	11	19.6	22	39.3	20	35.7	4.03	.93	23.1
8	Q6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).	1	1.8	1	1.8	13	23.2	23	41.1	18	32.1	4.0	.89	22.3
9	Q10	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).	2	3.6	2	3.6	11	19.6	20	35.7	21	37.5	4.0	1.02	25.5

10	Q3	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards).	3	5.4	1	1.8	8	14.3	25	44.6	19	33.9	4.00	1.02	25.5
11	Q4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).	2	3.6	0	0	13	23.2	23	41.1	18	32.1	3.98	.94	23.6
12	Q4	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).	1	1.8	2	3.6	11	19.6	27	48.2	15	26.8	3.94	.88	22.3
13	Q11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).	2	3.6	1	1.8	11	19.6	26	46.4	16	28.6	3.94	.94	23.9

Table: Questionnaire items of the Organisational Culture part 2 for the public colleges

No		Items of Managerial Effectiveness	Of Little Importance (1)		Of Some Importance (2)		Moderately Important (3)		Very Important (4)		Critically Important ((5)		M	SD	CV
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%			
1	Q10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards).	0	0	2	3.6	9	16.1	18	32.1	27	48.2	4.25	.85	20.0
2	Q1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).	1	1.8	2	3.6	2	3.6	29	51.7	22	39.3	4.23	.83	19.6

3	Q8	Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).	0	0	1	1.8	8	14.3	25	44.6	22	39.3	4.21	.75	17.8
4	Q6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).	0	0	2	3.6	9	16.1	21	37.5	24	42.8	4.19	.84	20.0
5	Q9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).	0	0	3	5.4	7	12.4	23	41.1	23	41.1	4.17	.85	20.4
6	Q7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).	0	0	1	1.8	12	21.4	21	37.5	22	39.3	4.14	.81	19.6
7	Q11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).	0	0	2	3.6	6	10.6	31	55.4	17	30.4	4.12	.74	18.0
8	Q2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).	0	0	3	5.4	2	3.6	38	67.8	13	23.2	4.08	.69	16.9
9	Q12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).	1	1.8	3	5.4	5	9.5	30	53.0	17	30.3	4.05	.88	21.7
10	Q3	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).	0	0	4	7.1	9	16.1	25	44.6	18	32.1	4.01	.88	21.9
11	Q5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).	0	0	3	5.4	8	14.3	31	55.3	14	25.0	4.00	.78	19.5



12	Q4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).	0	0	2	3.6	12	21.4	28	50.0	14	25.0	3.96	.78	19.7
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Table: Questionnaire items of the Organisational Culture part 1 for the private colleges

No		Items of Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form	Poor (1)		Marginal) (2)		Average) (3)		Very Good (4)		Excellent (5)		M	SD	CV
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
1	Q1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).	1	1.4	1	1.4	12	16.4	31	42.5	28	38.4	4.15	.84	20.24
2	Q13	Overall management competency (general level of managerial ability)	0	0	4	5.5	14	19.2	29	39.7	26	35.6	4.05	.88	21.73
3	Q12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).	0	0	2	2.7	15	20.5	36	49.3	20	27.4	4.01	.77	19.20
4	Q3	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).	0	0	3	4.1	16	21.9	32	43.8	22	30.1	4.00	.83	20.75

5	Q8	Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).	0	0	2	2.7	16	21.9	38	52.1	17	23.3	3.95	.75	18.99
6	Q11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).	0	0	3	4.1	14	19.2	39	53.4	17	23.3	3.95	.77	19.49
7	Q2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).	0	0	2	2.7	15	20.5	41	52.2	15	20.5	3.94	.72	18.27
8	Q10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards).	3	4.1	0	0	12	16.4	42	57.5	16	21.9	3.93	.87	22.14
9	Q4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).	1	1.4	1	1.4	20	27.4	32	43.8	19	26.0	3.91	.84	21.48
10	Q5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).	0	0	3	4.1	20	27.4	30	41.1	20	27.4	3.91	.84	21.48
11	Q9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).	0	0	4	5.5	14	19.2	43	58.9	12	16.4	3.86	.75	19.43
12	Q6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).	3	4.1	4	5.5	12	16.4	37	50.7	17	23.3	3.83	.98	25.59
13	Q7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).	2	2.7	5	6.8	17	23.3	34	46.6	15	20.5	3.75	.95	25.33

Table: Questionnaire items of the Organisational Culture part 2 for the private colleges

No		Items of Managerial Effectiveness	Of Little Importance (1)		Of Some Importance (2)		Moderately Important (3)		Very Important (4)		Critically Important ((5)		M	SD	CV
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%			
1	Q1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).	3	4.1	1	1.4	6	8.2	29	39.7	34	46.6	4.23	.96	22.70
2	Q2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).	1	1.4	1	1.4	8	11.0	41	56.1	22	30.1	4.12	.76	18.45
3	Q3	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).	2	2.7	1	1.4	9	12.3	35	47.9	26	35.6	4.12	.88	21.36
4	Q4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).	2	2.7	2	2.7	9	12.3	32	43.8	28	38.4	4.12	.92	22.33
5	Q6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).	1	1.4	2	2.7	12	16.4	39	53.4	19	26.0	4.00	.81	20.25
6	Q12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).	3	4.1	3	4.1	10	13.7	32	43.8	25	34.2	4.00	1.0	25.00
7	Q5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).	2	2.7	2	2.7	12	16.4	38	52.1	19	26.0	3.95	.88	22.28

8	Q9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).	1	1.4	3	4.1	12	16.4	40	54.8	17	23.3	3.94	.83	21.07
9	Q8	Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).	1	1.4	4	5.5	14	19.2	35	47.9	19	26.0	3.91	.89	22.76
10	Q10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards).	1	1.4	3	4.1	16	21.9	36	49.3	17	23.3	3.89	.85	21.85
11	Q11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).	1	1.4	3	4.1	19	26.0	27	38.3	22	30.1	3.89	.95	24.42
12	Q7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).	2	2.7	6	8.2	16	21.9	30	41.1	19	26.0	3.79	1.0	26.39

## APPENDIX I: The Instrument of Study (Questionnaire) *English and Arabic versions*

An Investigation of Leadership Style and the Strategic Planning Process of Public and Private Colleges in Iraq: empirical study



My name is Mohammed Al-Mahdi. I am a PhD student at USQ under the supervision of *Prof. Shirley O'Neill and A/Prof. Henriette van Rensburg*. The following questionnaire is intended to investigate leadership style and the strategic planning process of public and private colleges in Iraq. Formal ethical approval has been acquired from USQ Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval # H17REA244). Your participation is valuable and will contribute to improving the performance of the Iraqi higher education sector by applying critical insight into all of leadership style, the strategic planning process, organisational success, and organisational culture. Your participation in this study is purely voluntary and can be withdrawn at any time, prior to submitting your completed survey. The study team appreciates your support and time. The outcomes of this study aim to contribute to improving the total productivity for public and private colleges in Iraq.

### Part A: Demographic Information

Please place a cross X to tell what is applicable to you:

Gender	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Age	>36 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	36-45 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	46-55 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	56-65 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<65 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Title	Lecturer	<input type="checkbox"/>	Senior Lecturer	<input type="checkbox"/>	Associate Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Current position in college	Head of Department	<input type="checkbox"/>	Associate Dean	<input type="checkbox"/>	Dean	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Years in current position	>1 yr	<input type="checkbox"/>	2-3 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	3-4 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	4-5 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<5 yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Have you participated in strategic planning training courses?	If Yes, How many?		No	
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Have you participated in leadership training courses?	If Yes, How many?		No	
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## Part B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Thinking about you doing your work - please rate how frequently you do each of the following actions in the list below.

Place a cross X in the appropriate box. Rate 0 if you do not do it at all; rate 1 if you do it occasionally, rate 2 if you do it sometimes, rate 3 if you do it often and rate 4 if you do it frequently. An example is provided:

No	In my workplace.....	0	1	2	3	4
99	I have time to priorities my tasks before I begin my work.				X	

1- Not at all    2- Occasionally    3- Sometimes    4- Often    5- Always

No	In my workplace.....	1	2	3	4	5
1	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts					
2	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
3	I fail to interfere until problems become serious					
4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise					
6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs					
7	I am absent when needed					
8	I seek different opinions when I need to solve problems.					
9	I let people know I am positive about the future.					
10	I expect people to be proud of the work they do with me.					
11	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
12	I don't take any action until things go wrong.					
13	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					

No	In my workplace.....	1	2	3	4	5
14	I stress the need to get the job done well.					
15	I make time to coach the people I work with.					
16	I make sure my staff understand the reward for getting the job done well.					
17	I make it clear that I believe "If it isn't broke, don't fix it."					
18	I put the group goal before my personal goal.					
19	I treat my staff as individual not just members of a group.					
20	I have a clear vision of the future for our work.					
21	I act in ways that build others' respect for me					
22	I give time to solving problems.					
23	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of my decisions.					
24	I keep track of staff members' mistakes					
25	I promote my authority and confidence.					
26	I articulate a compelling vision of the future.					
27	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards					
28	I avoid making decisions					
29	I treat my staff as individuals with different needs, skills and goals.					
30	I get staff to look at problems in different ways.					
31	I develop my staffs' strengths.					
32	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
33	I delay responding to urgent questions .					
34	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission					
35	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations					
36	I express confidence that goals will be achieved					
37	I am effective in meeting my job-related needs					
38	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying					
39	I get others to do more than they expected to do					
40	I am effective in representing others at the college's council					
41	I work with others in a satisfactory way					
42	I heighten others' desire to succeed					
43	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements					
44	I increase others' willingness to try harder.					
45	I lead a group that is effective					

## Part C: Strategic Planning Process Questionnaire (SPPQ)

Thinking about the way your college plans place a cross **X** on the rating that best describes your workplace situation. Strategic planning means the process you use to make plans to help your college be successful.

1- Not at all like this 2- Almost never like this 3- Sometimes like this 4- Often like this 5- Almost like this

No	In my workplace.....	1	2	3	4	5
1	There are resources for training staff in strategic planning.					
2	There are standards for measuring skills in strategic planning.					
3	Faculty and staff can participate in strategic planning.					
4	We review how well we are doing with providing a new strategic plan.					
5	We look for strategic planning in the way we assess workplace needs.					
6	Shareholders are available when we need them.					
7	Our policy is to make all communications open to receive strategic suggestions and advice.					
8	We keep pictures, written texts and objects about our vision and mission.					
9	Important decisions about successful strategic planning come through people participation at all levels.					
10	Strategic planning processes are helped by other people (shareholders and students).					
11	People from other different backgrounds work with us to help in preparing our strategic plans					
12	We have a training program to help us to be able to develop our strategic plan.					
13	We encourage staff and faculty to discuss strategic plans.					
14	We expect faculty and staff to talk with shareholders before they make important decisions.					
15	My ideas on improving strategic planning are encouraged and seen as useful.					

1. Have you ever attended a seminar or other learning session on strategic planning?

a. Yes. b. No.

2. On a scale of 0 to 10 where 0 means 'no knowledge at all' and 10 means 'highly expert' how do you rate your strategic planning ability? Rating: \_\_\_\_\_

3. Regardless of your responses above what level of value do you place on strategic planning?

a. Very high. b. High. 3. Moderate. c. Low. d. Very Low. e. None.

4. What percentage of your time do you spend in planning?

a. 0-5%. b. 6-10%. c. 11-20%. d. 21-30%. e. 31-40%. f. 41-50%. g. More than 50%.

5. List the roles of all the Academic staff who participate in your college's planning processes, for example, Dean, Lecturer:

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**Part D - The Balanced Scorecard Questionnaire (BSCQ) - checklist** (Elola, Tejedor, & Tejedor, 2016a)

*To be completed by those who lead the strategic planning processes.*

In the Balanced Scorecard there are three major questions that provide an opportunity for you to tell me your ideas. Take your time answering; your input is essential to help improve the approach to planning in colleges like yours.

- 1- Based on your opinion, please list the five most useful strategies/actions your organisation should do now to improve the strategic planning in the workplace?

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- 2- Based on your opinion, what characteristics does a good leader in your workplace need to have to help staff provide high quality effective strategic planning? Please list as many as you can but at least five.

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- 3- In your opinion, what actions does a good leader in your workplace need to do now to help staff to provide high quality effective strategic planning? Please list as many as you can but at least five.

Based on your knowledge and experience please rate the extent to which your college meets the requirements of the following questions across the four perspectives of customer-society, learning growth, internal processes and financial:

**1- Strongly Disagree 2- Disagreed 3- Unsure 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agreed**

No	Thinking about my college .....	1	2	3	4	5
<b>1: Customer-society perspective</b>						
1	Does the college have a vision of who its students are?					
2	Does the college interact with the students, gathering information on their current and future expectations and needs?					
3	Are there efficient communication processes for the students, the staff and other members of the organisation?					
4	Does the college take their complaints, suggestions and opinions into account?					
5	Does the college evaluate and take into account performance indicators such as success rates, drop out level, awards etc.)?					
6	Does the college have reliable data on satisfaction levels of students and staff at other leading universities?					
7	Is this information used to establish reference values and to set more and more ambitious objectives?					
8	Does the college get involved in social initiatives and assess societal needs?					
<b>2 Learning-growth perspective</b>						
9	Does the college have a HR management plan?					
10	Does this plan respect staff and ensure equal opportunities?					
11	Are the needs and capacities of the staff identified through job specifications or a manual of work responsibilities?					
12	Are general, specific, individual or collective training plans drawn up and implemented?					
13	Does the college ensure that all faculty and staff participate in the development of different policies, strategies and activities?					
14	Does the college take faculty and staff opinions into account?					

No	Thinking about my college .....	1	2	3	4	5
15	Is the participation, initiative and ideas of the members of the college valued and rewarded?					
16	Does the college have and continually improve advanced communication tools (virtual secretary, meetings, surveys etc.) that facilitate the exchange of information with students, staff and the college community in general?					
17	Does the college ensure the effectiveness of its communication channels and their use as a media for sharing best practices and knowledge?					
18	Does the college run regular process assessment programs such as internal or external audits, self-assessments etc.?					
19	Is the data collected from such exercises used to establish continual improvement plans and objectives?					
20	LG8- Is information relative to current and future tendencies (of a general and specific nature) systematically collected?					
21	Is this information used as a basis for a SWOT analysis to determine improvement actions that can be taken?					
<b>3 Internal processes perspective</b>						
22	Is creativity and innovation applied to the development of new educational services					
23	Demanded by the students and society?					
24	Is there a systematic process of identification and prioritisation of opportunities for immediate or continual improvement based on the measurement and results of operational performance and information on learning processes?					
25	Is there an operational system of process management, regular self-assessments etc. in accordance with ISO or similar standards?					
26	Do these systems identify process errors and facilitate improvement actions?					
27	Are there efficient attention and communication processes directed at students, staff and members of the college community?					
28	Does the college participate in informative sessions related to its study plans, services etc. with the objective of informing future and even current students?					
29	Are there tools such as information points, bulletins or service guides that offer the college community information on new processes?					
<b>4 Financial perspective</b>						
30	Has the college developed and implemented an economic-financial strategy that is aligned with policy and strategy?					
31	Is it regularly reviewed?					

No	Thinking about my college .....	1	2	3	4	5
32	Is there evidence of a clear correlation between policy, strategy and the budgetary program?					
33	Does the centre define an investment plan in accordance with its policy?					
34	Within the investment plan, does the college analyse the most important investments, assessing Indicators such as profitability, recovery time and risk?					
35	I talk positively about what we must do at work.					
36	I let staff know that I think we will achieve our goals.					
37	Does the college have a database of all suppliers?					
38	Is an assessment made of each one of them in relation to their alignment with the policy and strategy of the college?					
39	Once the most interesting are identified, are cooperation and continuous improvement links established?					
40	Does the college have an inventory management system?					
41	Are resources correctly managed? Does consumption minimise waste and encourage the use of renewable resources?					
42	Is the impact of the assets of the college on staff and society in general, considered in relation to questions of safety and hygiene?					

### Part E: The Organisational Culture Questionnaire (OCQ)

This part asks you about the organisational culture of your workplace. The organisational culture refers to the way your organisation works, its values and the behaviours of the people involved. Adapted from (Schein, 1990).

#### **PART 1: Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form**

For questions 1–15, please rate your effectiveness in performing the following skills. Use the following scale in your rating:

5—Outstanding

4—Very Good

3—Average

2—Marginal

1—Poor

No	Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form	1	2	3	4	5
1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).					

2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).					
3	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).					
4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).					
5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).					
6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).					
7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).					
8	Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).					
9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).					
10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards).					
11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).					
12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).					
13	Overall management competency (general level of managerial ability)					

14. On the basis of your level of management competency, how high in the organization do you expect to go in your career? (check only one of these five choices).

- 5- President of the university
- 4 - Associate university presidents
- 3 - Dean
- 2- Associate Dean
- 1- Not higher than the current situation

15. Compared to all other managers you've known, how would you rate your own competency as a manager of managers?

- 5—Top 5%
- 4—Top 10%
- 3—Top 25%
- 2—Top 50 %
- 1—In the bottom half

## **PART 2:**

What skills, do you think are important for you to succeed?

Note: The scale changes for question 1–12. Please read carefully. In order to succeed in your current position, how important is each of the following skills? Use the following scale to rate:

- 5—Critically Important  
 4—Very Important  
 3—Moderately Important  
 2—Of Some Importance  
 1—Of Little Importance

No	Managerial Effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
1	Managing teams (building effective, cohesive, smooth-functioning teams).					
2	Managing interpersonal relationships (listening to and providing supportive feedback to others).					
3	Managing the development of others (helping others improve their performance and obtain personal development opportunities).					
4	Fostering innovation (encouraging others to innovate and generate new ideas).					
5	Managing the future (communicating a clear vision of the future and facilitating its accomplishment).					
6	Managing continuous improvement (fostering an orientation toward continuous improvement among employees in everything they do).					
7	Managing competitiveness (fostering an aggressive orientation toward exceeding competitors' performance).					
8	Energizing employees (motivating others to put forth extra effort and to work aggressively).					
9	Managing customer service (fostering a focus on service and involvement with customers).					
10	Managing acculturation (helping others become clear about what is expected of them and about organizational culture and standards).					
11	Managing the control system (having measurement and monitoring systems in place to keep close track of processes and performance).					
12	Managing coordination (sharing information across functional boundaries and fostering coordination with other units).					

استمارة استبيان وقائمة فحص الدراسة

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

جامعة جنوب كوينزلاند / استراليا  
 كلية القانون والاعمال والتعليم  
 قسم ادارة الاعمال

م/أنموذج استبيان للدراسة الموسومة ((التحقق في النمط القيادة وعملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي في نجاح الكليات العامة والخاصة في العراق )) دراسة ميدانية في بعض الكليات الحكومية والاهلية

الذوات عمداء الكليات، مساعدي العمداء ورؤساء الاقسام العلمية المحترمين...

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته...

يقوم الباحث بدراسة تهدف إلى (التحقق في النمط القيادة وعملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي في نجاح الكليات العامة والخاصة في العراق).. وفي إطار ما تتمتعون به من خبرة ودراية في ميدان عملكم، ولكونكم الأقدر من غيركم على تحديد هذه العلاقة من مواقعكم القيادية.

عليه يضع الباحث بين أيديكم استبانة الاستقصاء الميداني المرفقة، والتي تضم مجموعة فقرات التي تعبر عما يدور حولك خلال أداء واجباتك سواء على مستوى القسم او على مستوى مجلس الكلية، وسيكون لتعاونكم البناء، وإسهامكم الفاعل في الإجابة الدقيقة والموضوعية عن جميع فقرات الاستبانة دوراً بارزاً في نجاح هذه الدراسة.

يرجى مراعاة الجوانب الآتية:-

1- لا حاجة لذكر الاسم الشخصي على الاستمارة.

2- ستقتصر المعلومات المعطاة من قبلكم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط.

3- يرجى عدم ترك أي فقرة دون إجابة.

4- توجد بدائل متدرجة أمام الفقرات، والمطلوب اختيار البديل الذي يعكس أفضلية وجهة نظرك إلى الحالة.

5- وردت مصطلحات (النمط القيادي، عملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي، والنجاح التنظيمي عبر بطاقة الاداء المتوازن والثقافة التنظيمية) في الاستبانة، وسيجري توضيح المقصود منها قبل الولوج في فقرات الاستبانة.

ننتهز هذه الفرصة لنعرب لكم عن وافر تقديرنا واحترامنا لأرائكم وتعاونكم..

ومن الله التوفيق والسداد

الباحث

المشرف المساعد

A/Pr Henriet van Rens

طالب دكتوراه ادارة

المشرف

Prof. Shirley O'Neill

م/ محمد معتوق المهدي

عميد كلية التعليم

الجزء أ : معلومات شخصية

يرجى وضع علامة X أمام ما ينطبق عليك:

جنس	الذكر	انثى
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العمر	أكبر من 36 سنة	45-36 سنة	55-46 سنة	65-56 سنة	أقل من 66 سنة
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العنوان	مدرس	استاذ مساعد	أستاذ مشارك	استاذ
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الوضع الحالي في الكلية	عميد	مساعد عميد	رئيس القسم
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عدد السنوات في الوضع الحالي	أقل من 1 سنة	3-2 سنوات	4-3 سنوات	5-4 سنوات	أكثر من 5 سنوات
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هل شاركت في دورات تدريبية في التخطيط الاستراتيجي؟	إذا كان الجواب نعم، كم عدها؟	لا
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هل شاركت في دورات تدريبية على القيادة؟	إذا كان الجواب نعم، كم عدها؟	لا
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جزء ب : النمط القيادي: فيما يلي قائمة جمل وصفية تصف نمطك القيادي، يرجى إعطاء حكمك حول مدى اتفاق ذلك مع سلوكك القيادي في كليتك. لذا يرجى تقييم مدى تكرار كل من الإجراءات التالية في القائمة أدناه. ضع علامة (X) في المربع المناسب. رقم (1) إذا كنت لا تفعل ذلك على الإطلاق، رقم (2) إذا كنت تفعل ذلك في نادر، رقم (3) إذا كنت تفعل ذلك في بعض الأحيان، رقم (4) إذا كنت تفعل ذلك غالبا، ورقم (5) إذا كنت تفعل ذلك دائما.

لا	الفقرة	1 مطلقا	2 نادرا	3 أحيانا	4 غالبا	5 دائما
1	أمنح الآخرين المساعدة مقابل جهودهم.					
2	أعيد فحص فرضيات بيئة عمل الكلية لكي أتأكد من أنها مناسبة.					
3	أخفق في التدخل حتى تصبح المشكلات خطيرة وجادة.					



4	أركز انتباهي على الأمور الخارجة عن المألوف، وعلى الأخطاء والاستثناءات، والأمور الخارجة عن المعايير.				
5	أتجنب التورط عند ظهور أو نشوء قضايا حساسة ومهمة.				
6	أفصح وأعبر عن أهم قيمي ومعتقداتي.				
7	لا أتواجد عند الحاجة.				
8	أبحث الأمور من زوايا واتجاهات متعددة عند حل المشاكل والقضايا.				
9	أتحدث بتفاؤل وأمل عن المستقبل.				
10	أعزز الافتخار بالآخرين كونهم مرتبطون ويتعاملون معي.				
11	أناقش بدقة كل فرد مسؤول عن تحقيق أهداف العمل.				
12	أنتظر حتى تحدث الأخطاء ثم أبادر في التحرك لتصحيحها.				
13	أتحدث بحماس عما يجب تحقيقه.				
14	أؤكد على أهمية وجود شعور قوي تجاه الأهداف والغايات.				
15	أبذل جهداً بالتعليم والتوجيه.				
16	أوضح المرءود المتوقع الذي سيتلقاه الفرد عند تحقيق الأهداف.				
17	أعزز فكرة: "إذا كان الشيء يعمل لا تصلحه" أي لا تحرك ساكناً.				
18	أتغاضى عن مصالحى الشخصية مقابل مصلحة الجماعة.				
19	أعامل كل فرد كشخص متميز وليس مجرد فرد في المجموعة.				
20	أظهر بان المشاكل يجب أن تكون مزمنة قبل أن أبادر بحلها.				
21	أتصرف بطرق تعزز احترام الآخرين لي.				
22	أركز جل اهتمامي للتعامل مع الأخطاء والشكاوى والإخفاقات.				
23	أنظر للاعتبارات الأخلاقية عند اتخاذ القرارات .				
24	أتابع بدقة جميع الأخطاء.				
25	أظهر الشعور بالقوة والثقة.				
26	أعزز بعد النظر للمستقبل.				
27	أتجنب اتخاذ القرارات.				
28	أعتبر بان لكل فرد احتياجات وقدرات وتطلعات خاصة تميزه عن الآخرين.				
29	أشجع كل فرد على النظر إلى الأمور والمشاكل من عدة زوايا واتجاهات .				
30	أساعد كل فرد في تنمية قدراته ونقاط قوته.				
31	أقترح طرق جديدة للنظر في كيفية تحقيق مهام العمل.				
32	أتاخر في الرد على أسئلة وقضايا ملحة.				
33	أؤكد على أهمية وجود إحساس مشترك برسالة الكلية وأهدافها.				
34	أعبر عن الرضا والسرور عندما ينجز الفرد المطلوب والمتوقع منه.				
35	أقوم بتمثيل كل التدريسين والموظفين بشكل فعال لدى مجلس الكلية.				
36	ألتزم بشكل فعال بمتطلبات واحتياجات الكلية.				

الجزء ج - التخطيط الاستراتيجي يعني العملية التي تستخدمها لوضع الخطط التي تساعد كليتك على أن تكون ناجحة.

ضع علامة X على التقييم الذي يصف أفضل وضع في مكان العمل.

رقم (1) لا يوجد ذلك على الإطلاق، رقم (2) نادراً، رقم (3) بعض الأحيان، رقم (4) غالباً، ورقم (5) دائماً.

ت	في مكان عملي .....	1	2	3	4	5
1	توجد وسائل لتدريب الموظفين على التخطيط الاستراتيجي.					
2	هناك معايير لقياس المهارات في التخطيط الاستراتيجي.					
3	يمكن للكلية والموظفين المشاركة في التخطيط الاستراتيجي.					
4	نراجع مدى نجاحنا في تقديم خطة استراتيجية جديدة.					
5	نحن نبحث عن التخطيط الاستراتيجي من خلال تقييم احتياجات مكان العمل.					
6	اصحاب المصلحة (منظمات او/ وافراد عامه وخاصه) متوفرون عند الحاجة اليهم.					
7	سياستنا هي جعل جميع الاتصالات مفتوحة لتلقي الاقتراحات الاستراتيجية والمشورة.					
8	نحن نبقى الصور والنصوص المكتوبة والأشياء حول رؤيتنا ورسالتنا.					
9	هناك قرارات هامة بشأن التخطيط الاستراتيجي الناجح تأتي من خلال مشاركة الناس على جميع المستويات.					
10	يتم مساعدة عمليات التخطيط الاستراتيجي من قبل أشخاص آخرين (اصحاب المصلحة والطلبة).					
11	هناك جهات اخرى حكوميه وغير حكوميه تعمل معنا للمساعدة في إعداد خططنا الاستراتيجية.					
12	لدينا برنامج تدريبي لمساعدتنا على تطوير خطتنا الاستراتيجية.					
13	نحن نشجع الموظفين وأعضاء هيئة التدريس لمناقشة الخطط الاستراتيجية.					
14	نتوقع من أعضاء هيئة التدريس والموظفين التحدث مع اصحاب المصلحة (منظمات او/ وافراد عامه وخاصه) قبل اتخاذ قرارات هامة.					
15	يتم تشجيع افكاره حول تحسين التخطيط الاستراتيجي ويرونها مفيدة.					

1. هل سبق لك أن حضرت ندوة أو ورشة عمل تعليمية / تدريبية حول التخطيط الاستراتيجي؟

ا. نعم. ب. لا.

2. كيف تقيم قدرتك في التخطيط الاستراتيجي، اعطي نفسك درجة من صفر إلى 10 حيث صفر يعني "لا معرفة على الإطلاق" و 10 يعني "خبير عاليه" ؟ تقييم: \_\_\_\_\_

3. بغض النظر عن اجاباتكم اعلاه، ما هو مستوى القيمة التي تمنحوها لعملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي؟

ا. عالي جداً. ب. عالية. ج. متوسطة. د. منخفض. هـ. منخفض جداً. و. لا شيء.

4. ما هي نسبة الوقت الذي تقضيه في التخطيط؟

(ا) 0-5% (ب) 6-10% (ج) 11-20% (د) 21-30% (هـ) 31-40% (و) 41-50% (ي)

أكثر من 50%.

5. إدراج أدوار جميع أعضاء هيئة التدريس الذين يشاركون في عمليات التخطيط للكلية، على سبيل المثال، عميد، معاون

العميد، رئيس القسم .....

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#### الجزء د - استبيان بطاقة الأداء المتوازن – قائمة المراجع ( Elola, Tejedor & Tejedor 2016 )

هي أحد استراتيجيات إدارة الأداء التي تمكن المدراء من معرفة مستوى الاداء لمنظماتهم وكيف يتم تنفيذ الأنشطة من قبل الموظفين ولرصد ومتابعة العواقب الناجمة عن ذلك، وفي بطاقة الأداء المتوازن هناك ثلاثة أسئلة رئيسية توفر فرصة لتخبرني عن أفكارك. خذ وقتك للإجابة. ان المدخلات الخاصة بك أمر ضروري للمساعدة في تحسين النهج للتخطيط في الكليات مثل كليتك.

- 1- بناء على رأيك، يرجى ذكر الاستراتيجيات / الإجراءات الخمس الأكثر فائدة التي يجب على مؤسستك القيام بها الآن لتحسين التخطيط الاستراتيجي في مكان العمل؟

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- 2- بناء على رأيك، ما هي الخصائص التي يحتاجها القائد الجيد في مكان عملك لمساعدة الموظفين على توفير جودة عالية من التخطيط الاستراتيجي الفعال ؟ يرجى إدراج أكثر عدد منها على أن لا يقل عن خمسة.

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- 3- برأيك، ما هي الإجراءات التي يقوم بها القائد الجيد في مكان عملك الآن لمساعدة الموظفين على توفير تخطيط استراتيجي فعال عالي الجودة؟ يرجى إدراج على الأقل خمسة إجراءات.

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4- بناء على معرفتك وخبرتك يرجى تقييم المدى الذي تلبينه كليتك لمتطلبات الأسئلة التالية عبر المنظورات الأربعة التي هي، رضا العملاء والمجتمع (الطلبة والمنظمات الحكومية وغير الحكومية)، التعلم والنمو، والعمليات الداخلية ، والاداء المالي:

العدد	الفقرة	5 اتفق بشدة	4 اتفق	3 لا جواب	2 لا اتفق	1 لا اتفق بشدة
<b>1: منظور العملاء والمجتمع</b>						
1	هل لدى الكلية رؤية من هم طلبتها؟					
2	هل تتفاعل الكلية مع الطلبة، وتجمع المعلومات عن توقعاتهم واحتياجاتهم الحالية والمستقبلية؟					
3	هل هناك عمليات اتصال فعالة للطلاب والموظفين وغيرهم من أعضاء الكلية؟					
4	هل تأخذ الكلية شكاويهم واقتراحاتهم وأرائهم بعين الاعتبار؟					
5	هل تقوم الكلية بتقييم ومراعاة مؤشرات الأداء مثل معدلات النجاح، ومستوى التسرب، والجوائز وما إلى ذلك؟					
6	هل لدى الكلية بيانات موثوقة عن مستويات رضا الطلبة والموظفين في الكليات الرائدة الأخرى؟					
7	هل تستخدم هذه المعلومات لتحديد القيم المرجعية ووضع أهداف أكثر طموحا؟					
8	هل تشارك الكلية في المبادرات الاجتماعية وتقييم الاحتياجات المجتمعية؟					
<b>2 منظور النمو والتعلم</b>						
9	هل لدى الكلية خطة لإدارة الموارد البشرية؟					
10	هل تضمن هذه الخطة للموظفين والتدريسين تكافؤ الفرص على حد سواء؟					
11	هل يتم تحديد احتياجات وقدرات الموظفين من خلال الوصف الوظائف أو دليل مسؤوليات العمل؟					
12	هل يتم وضع وتنفيذ خطط تدريبية عامة أو محددة أو فردية أو جماعية؟					
13	هل تضمن الكلية مشاركة جميع أعضاء هيئة التدريس والموظفين في تطوير سياسات واستراتيجيات وأنشطة الكلية؟					
14	هل تأخذ الكلية آراء هيئة التدريس والموظفين في عين الاعتبار؟					
15	هل يتم تقدير ومكافأتها مشاركة ومبادرة وأفكار هيئة التدريس والموظفين؟					
16	هل تقوم الكلية تستمر الكلية بتحسين أدوات الاتصال المتقدمة (السكرتير الافتراضي، والاجتماعات، والدراسات الاستقصائية وغيرها) التي تسهل تبادل المعلومات مع الطلاب والموظفين ومجتمع الكلية بشكل عام؟					
17	هل تملك الكلية قنوات اتصال وتواصل الخاصة فاعلة كوسيلة إعلامية لتقاسم أفضل الممارسات والمعرفة؟					
18	هل تقوم الكلية ببرامج تقييم منتظمة مثل التدقيق الداخلي أو الخارجي والتقييم الذاتي وما إلى ذلك؟					
19	هل تستخدم البيانات التي تم جمعها من هذه التقييمات في وضع خطط وأهداف التحسين المستمر؟					

العدد	الفقرة	5 اتفق بشدة	4 اتفق	3 لا جواب	2 لا اتفق	1 لا اتفق بشدة
20	هل يتم جمع المعلومات المتعلقة بالوضع الحالي والميول المستقبلي(ذات الطبيعة العامة والخاصة) بشكل منهجي؟					
21	هل تستخدم هذه المعلومات كأساس لتحليل SWOT لتحديد إجراءات التحسين التي يمكن اتخاذها؟					
<b>3 منظور العمليات الداخلية</b>						
22	هل يطبق الإبداع والابتكار في تطوير الخدمات والاساليب التعليمية الجديدة					
23	تلبية طلبات واحتياجات الطلبة والمجتمع؟					
24	هل هناك عملية منهجية لتحديد أولويات للتحسين الفوري والمستمر استنادا إلى قياس نتائج الأداء التشغيلي والمعلومات عن عمليات التعليم المستمر؟					
25	هل هناك نظام تشغيلي لإدارة العمليات والتقييمات الذاتية المنتظمة وما إلى ذلك وفقا لمعيار IOS أو معايير مماثلة؟					
26	هل تحدد هذه الأنظمة أخطاء العملية وتسهل إجراءات التحسين؟					
27	هل هناك اهتمام فعال وعمليات تواصل موجهة نحو الطلبة والموظفين واصحاب المصلحة؟					
28	هل تشارك الكلية في جلسات إعلامية تتعلق بخططها الدراسية وخدماتها وما إلى ذلك بهدف إعلام الطلبة الحاليين وحتى الطلبة المستقبليين؟					
29	هل هناك أدوات مثل جهاز الاعلام أو النشرات التي تقدم معلومات عن العمليات الجديدة لمجتمع الكلية؟					
<b>4 المنظور المالي</b>						
30	هل طورت الكلية ونفذت استراتيجية اقتصادية - مالية تتماشى مع سياساتها واستراتيجيتها؟					
31	هل تتم مراجعتها بانتظام؟					
32	هل هناك دليل على وجود علاقة واضحة بين السياسة والاستراتيجية وبرنامج الميزانية؟					
33	هل تحدد الكلية خطة استثمارية وفقا لسياساتها؟					
34	ضمن الخطة الاستثمارية، هل تقوم الكلية بتحليل أهم الاستثمارات، وتقييم المؤشرات مثل الربحية، وقت الاسترداد والمخاطر؟					
35	أنا اتحدث بشكل إيجابي حول ما يجب علينا القيام به في العمل.					
36	انا ادع الموظفين والهيئة التدريسية أن يعرفوا بأننا قادرين على تحقيق أهدافنا.					
37	هل لدى الكلية قاعدة بيانات لجميع الموردين؟					
38	هل يتم تقييم كل واحد منهم فيما يتعلق بمواءمتها مع سياسة واستراتيجية الكلية؟					
39	حالما يتم تحديد افضل الموردين، هل يستمر التعاون وتحسين الروابط معه؟					
40	هل لدى الكلية نظام إدارة المخزون؟					
41	هل تتم إدارة الموارد بشكل صحيح؟ هل يقلل الاستهلاك من النفايات ويشجع استخدام الموارد المتجددة؟					

العدد	الفقرة	5 اتفق بشدة	4 اتفق	3 لا جواب	2 لا اتفق	1 لا اتفق بشدة
42	هل أثر أصول الكلية على الموظفين والمجتمع بشكل عام، فيما يتعلق بمجال الصحة والسلامة؟					

**الثقافة التنظيمية:** هذا الجزء يدور حول الثقافة التنظيمية لمكان عملك. تشير الثقافة التنظيمية إلى الطريقة التي تعمل بها منظمته وقيمتها وسلوكيات الأشخاص المعنيين. ( Schein 1984 )  
يرجى التأكد من الرد على الفقرات التي تسلكها في الواقع معظم الوقت، وليس كما كنت ترغب في التصرف. إذا كنت غير متأكد من الجواب، يرجى تخمين أفضل ما لديكم. لا توجد اجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة.  
يرجى وضع علامة إجاباتك أدناه.

#### نموذج التقييم الذاتي الفعال للفعالية الإدارية

لأسئلة 1-15، يرجى تقييم فعالية الخاص بك في أداء المهارات الآتية. استخدم المقياس التالي في تقييمك:

لا	الفقرة	5 متميز	4 جيد	3 متوسط	2 هامشي	1 ضعيف
1	إدارة الفرق (بناء فرق فعالة ومتماسكة وسلسة الأداء).					
2	إدارة العلاقات الشخصية (الاستماع إلى وتقديم ردود فعل داعمة للآخرين).					
3	إدارة تطوير الآخرين (مساعدة الآخرين على تحسين أدائهم والحصول على فرص التنمية).					
4	تشجيع الابتكار (تشجيع الآخرين على الابتكار وتوليد أفكار جديدة).					
5	إدارة المستقبل (التواصل مع رؤية واضحة للمستقبل وتيسير إنجازه).					
6	إدارة التحسين المستمر (تعزيز التوجه نحو التحسين المستمر بين الموظفين في كل ما يفعلونه)					
7	إدارة التنافسية (تعزيز التوجه نحو المبادرة و نحو تجاوز المنافسين في الأداء).					
8	تنشيط الموظفين (تحفيز الآخرين على بذل المزيد من الجهد والعمل بقوة).					
9	إدارة خدمة العاملين ( تعزيز التركيز على الخدمة والمشاركة مع العاملين).					

10	إدارة التآزر (مساعدة الآخرين تصبح واضحة حول ما هو متوقع منهم و حول الثقافة والمعايير التنظيمية).				
11	إدارة نظام التحكم (وجود المقاييس وأنظمة الرصد المعمول بها للحفاظ على المسار الصحيح من العمليات والأداء).				
12	إدارة التنسيق (تبادل المعلومات عبر الحدود الوظيفية وتعزيز التنسيق مع وحدات أخرى).				
13	الكفاءة الإدارية الكلية (المستوى العام للقدرة الإدارية).				

14 على أساس مستوى كفاءتك الإدارية، ما هو المدى الذي يمكن ان تتدرج فيه صعودا في حياتك المهنية؟ (اختر واحد فقط من هذه الخيارات الخمسة)

5 -رئيس جامعه 4- معاون رئيس جامعه 3- عميد كلية 2- معاون عميد 5- ليس اعلى من الوضع الحالي

15. بالمقارنة مع جميع عمداء ومعاوني عمداء، وروؤساء الاقسام الآخرين الذين عرفتهم ، كيف تقيم معدل كفاءتك كمدير للموظفين؟

5-أعلى 5% 4-أعلى 10% 3-أعلى 25% 2-أعلى 50% 1-في النصف السفلي

يرجى اعطاء مدى أهمية كل من المهارات الآتية:

لا	الفقرة	5 مهتم جدا	4 مهتم	3 متوسط الاهتمام	2 مهتم الى حد ما	1 غير مهتم
1	إدارة الفرق (بناء فرق فعالة ومتماسكة وسلسة الأداء).					
2	إدارة العلاقات الشخصية (الاستماع إلى وتقديم ردود فعل داعمة للآخرين).					
3	إدارة تطوير الآخرين (مساعدة الآخرين على تحسين أدائهم والحصول على فرص التنمية).					
4	تشجيع الابتكار (تشجيع الآخرين على الابتكار وتوليد أفكار جديدة).					
5	إدارة المستقبل (التواصل مع رؤية واضحة للمستقبل وتيسير إنجازه).					
6	إدارة التحسين المستمر (تعزيز التوجه نحو التحسين المستمر بين					

					الموظفين في كل ما يفعلونه)	
					إدارة التنافسية (تعزيز التوجه نحو المبادرة و نحو تجاوز المنافسين ' في الأداء).	7
					تنشيط الموظفين (تحفيز الآخرين على بذل المزيد من الجهد والعمل بقوة).	8
					إدارة خدمة العاملين ( تعزيز التركيز على الخدمة والمشاركة مع العاملين).	9
					إدارة التأزر (مساعدة الآخرين تصبح واضحة حول ما هو متوقع منهم و حول الثقافة والمعايير التنظيمية).	10
					إدارة نظام التحكم (وجود المقاييس وأنظمة الرصد المعمول بها للحفاظ على المسار الصحيح من العمليات والأداء).	11
					إدارة التنسيق (تبادل المعلومات عبر الحدود الوظيفية وتعزيز التنسيق مع وحدات أخرى).	12



## APPENDIX J: Mann-Whitney Analysis and Hypotheses Testing of the Study

### Part A: Hypotheses of difference in regarding to leadership styles

#### Mann-Whitney Test of Inspirational Motivation

Ranks				
CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	6.50	26.00
	Private Colleges	4	2.50	10.00
	Total	8		

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

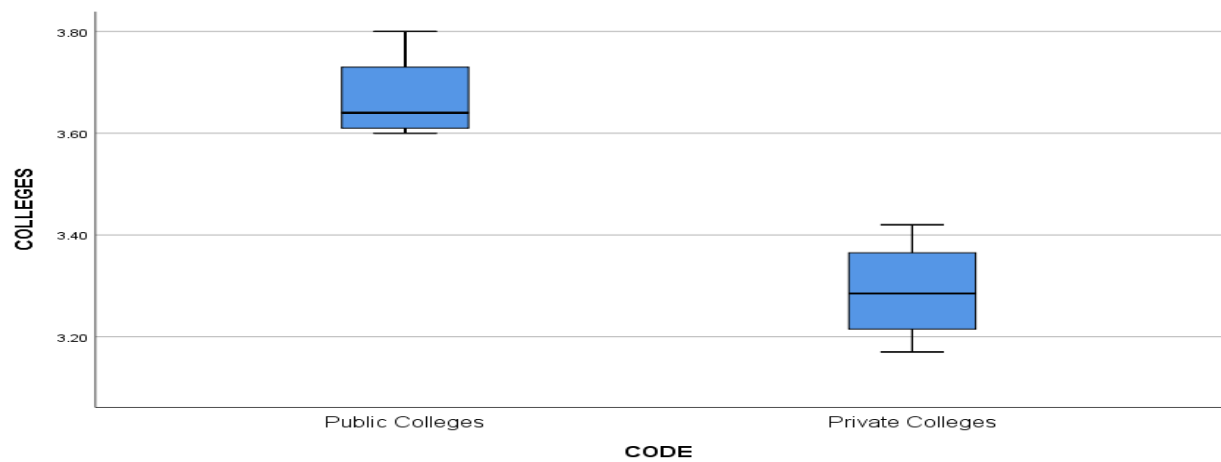
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	10.000
Z	-2.309
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.021
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.029 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

#### Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Individualized Consideration

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

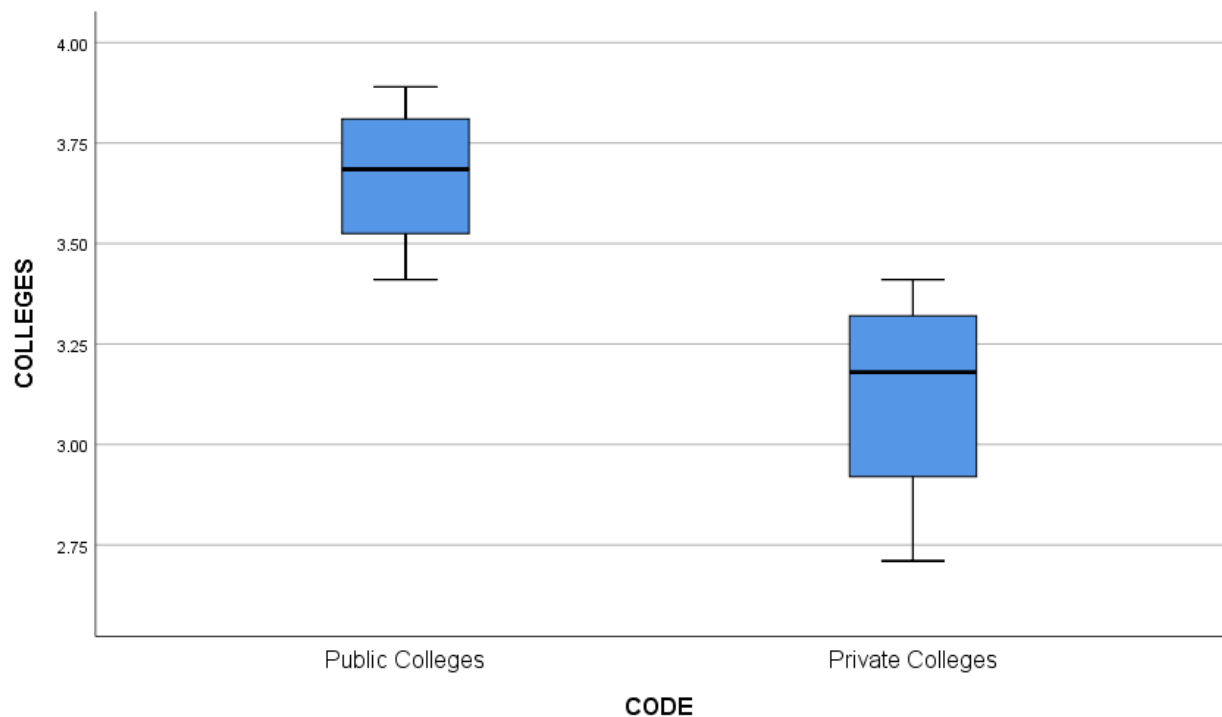
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	.500
Wilcoxon W	10.500
Z	-2.178
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.029
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.029 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Idealized Influence Behavior

Ranks				
	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	6.00	24.00
	Private Colleges	4	3.00	12.00
	Total	8		

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	COLLEGES
Mann-Whitney U	2.000
Wilcoxon W	12.000
Z	-1.732
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.083
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.114 <sup>b</sup>

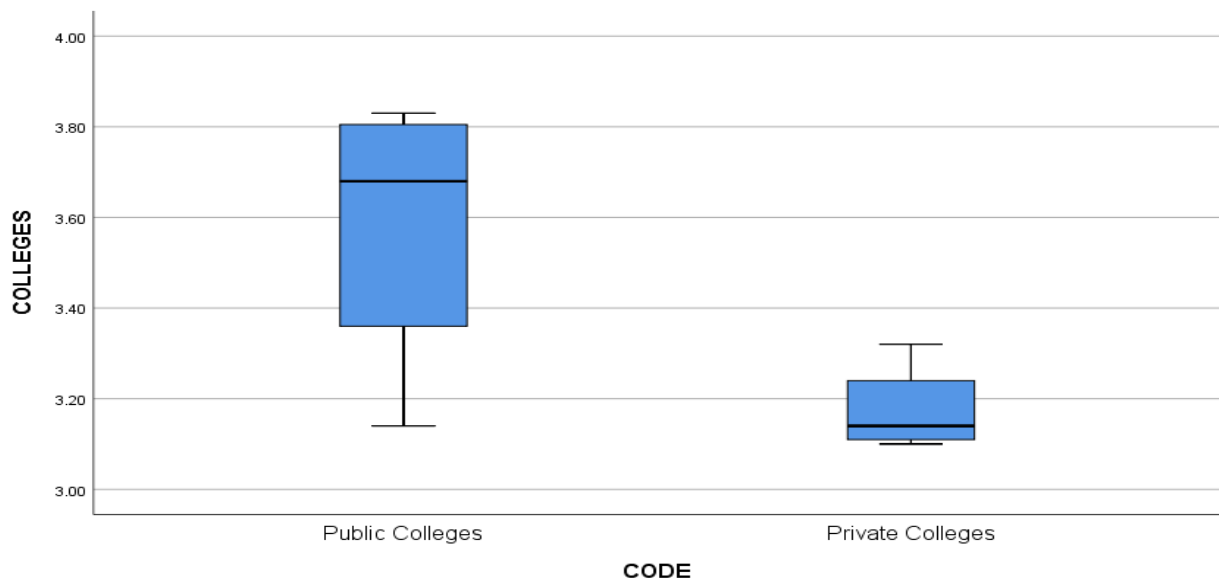
a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

## Case Processing Summary

CODE Cases

		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Idealized Influence Attributed

Ranks				
	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	6.50	26.00
	Private Colleges	4	2.50	10.00
	Total	8		

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	COLLEGES
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	10.000
Z	-2.309
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.021
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.029 <sup>b</sup>

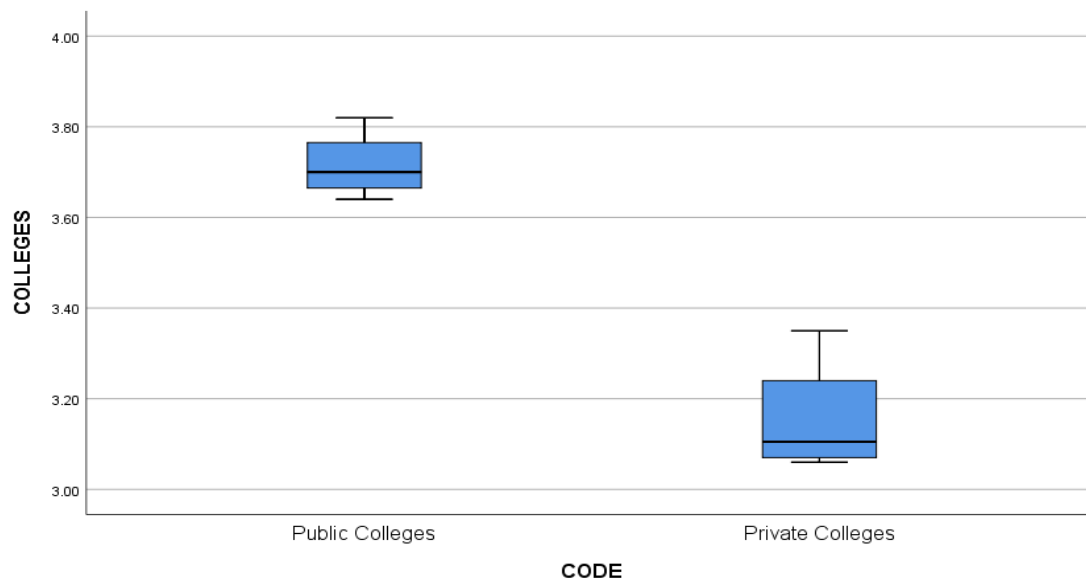
a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

## Case Processing Summary

		Cases	
CODE	Valid	Missing	Total

		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Intellectual Stimulation

Ranks				
	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	6.50	26.00
	Private Colleges	4	2.50	10.00
	Total	8		

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	COLLEGES
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	10.000
Z	-2.309
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.021
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.029 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

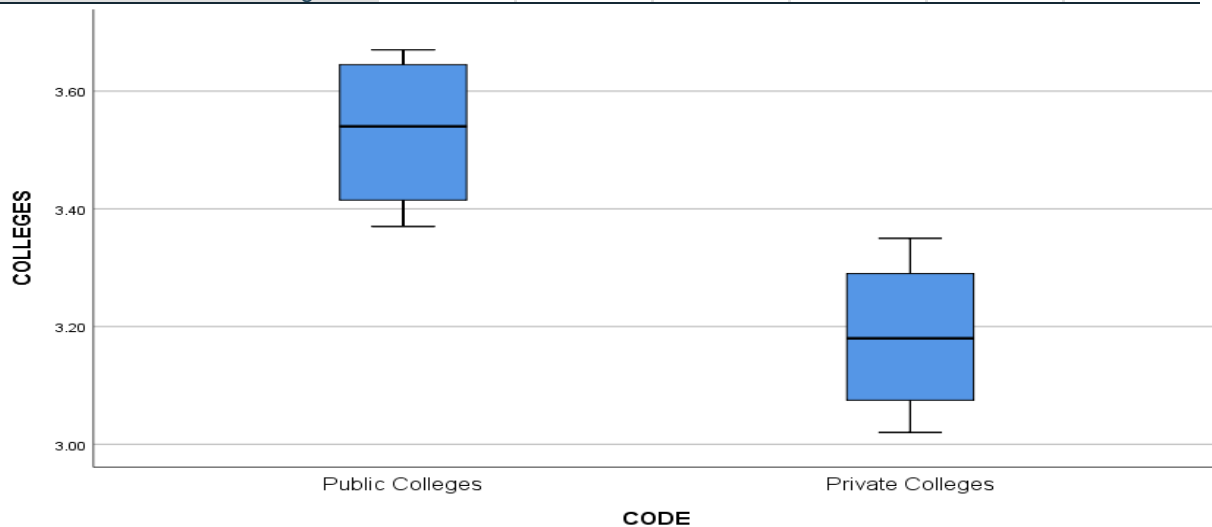
b. Not corrected for ties.

## Case Processing Summary

CODE

Cases

		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Contingent Reward Ranks

	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	6.50	26.00
	Private Colleges	4	2.50	10.00
	Total	8		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

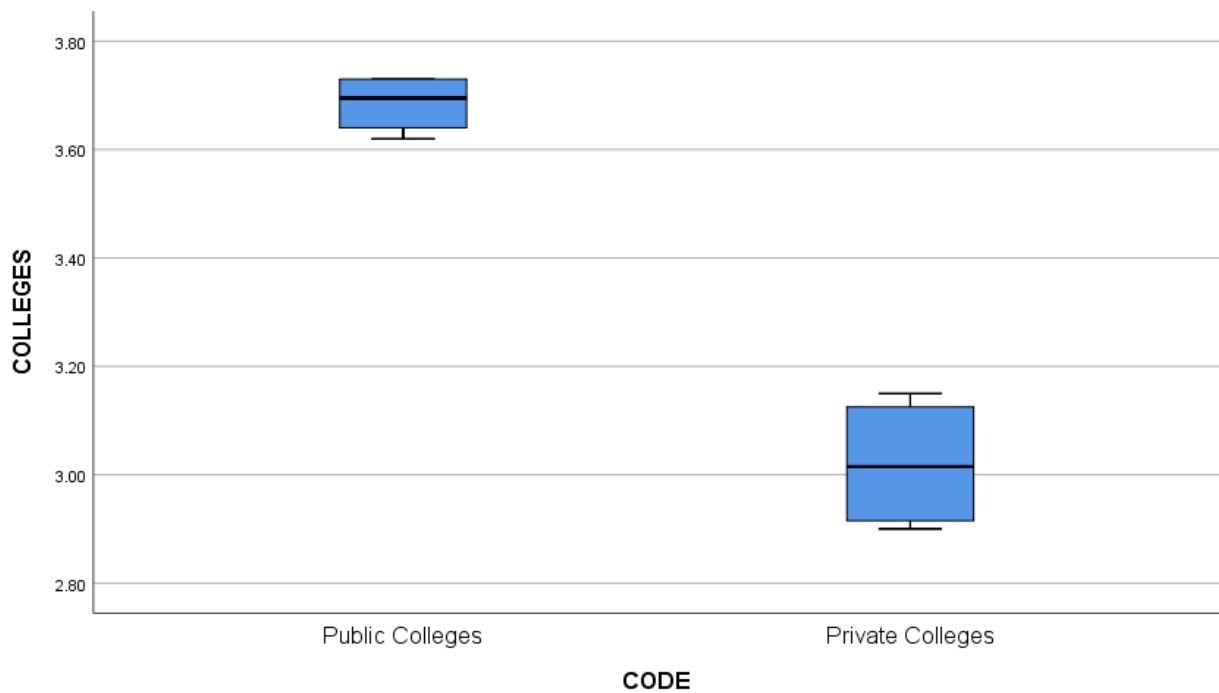
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	10.000
Z	-2.323
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.020
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.029 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

## Case Processing Summary

		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



### Mann-Whitney Test of Management-by-Exception Active Ranks

	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	5.25	21.00
	Private Colleges	4	3.75	15.00
	Total	8		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

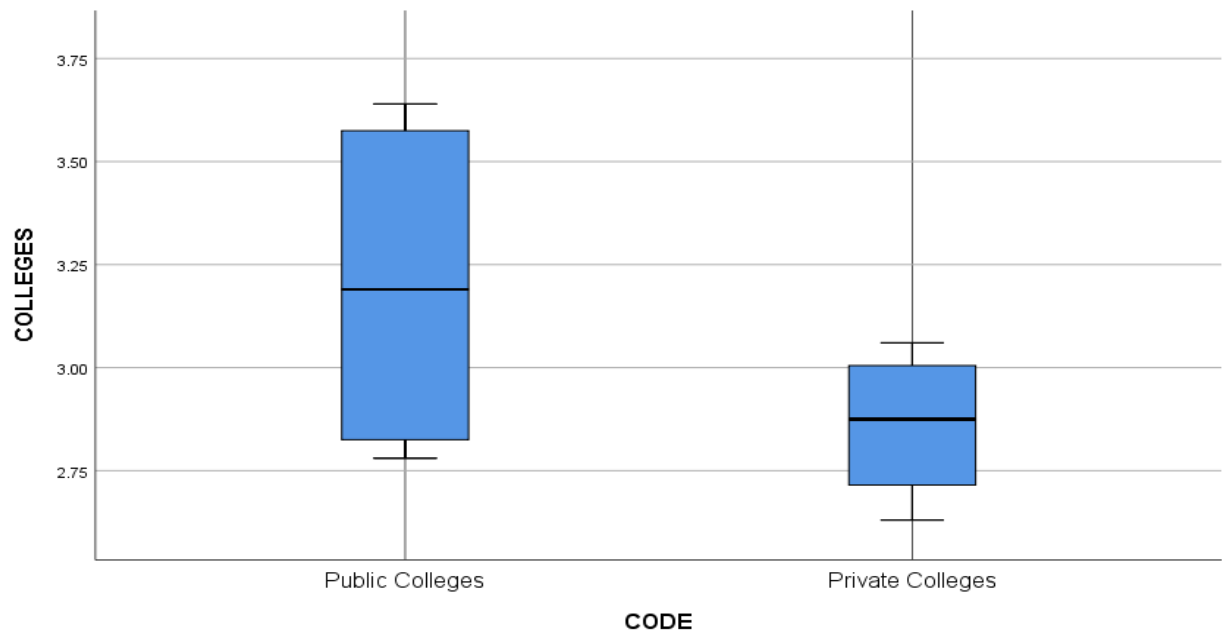
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	5.000
Wilcoxon W	15.000
Z	-.866
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.386
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.486 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Management-by-Exception Passive

### Ranks

	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	3.50	14.00
	Private Colleges	4	5.50	22.00
	Total	8		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	4.000
Wilcoxon W	14.000
Z	-1.162
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.245
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.343 <sup>b</sup>

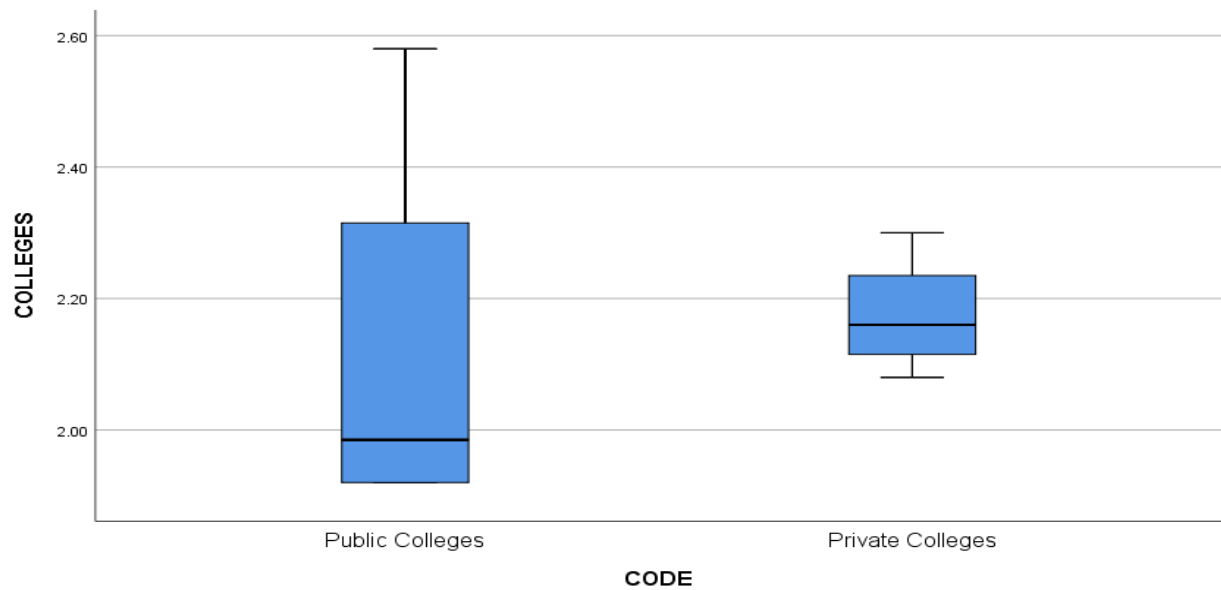
a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%





## Mann-Whitney Test of Laissez-Faire

### Ranks

	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	4.63	18.50
	Private Colleges	4	4.38	17.50
	Total	8		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

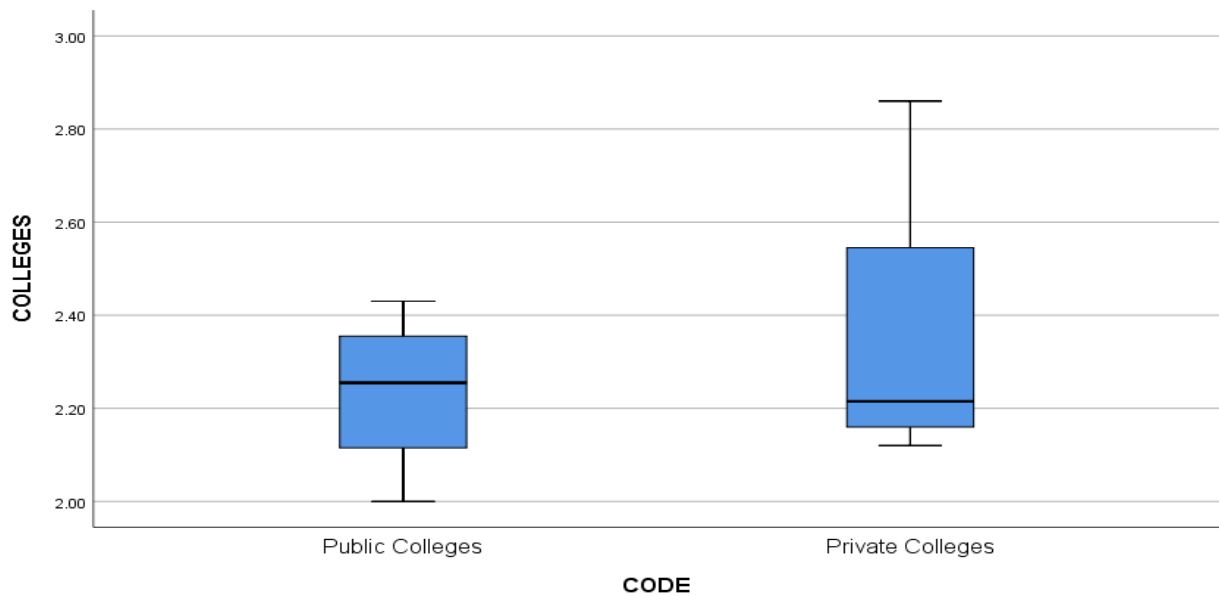
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	7.500
Wilcoxon W	17.500
Z	-.145
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.885
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.886 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Effectiveness

Ranks				
	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	5.75	23.00
	Private Colleges	4	3.25	13.00
	Total	8		

## Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

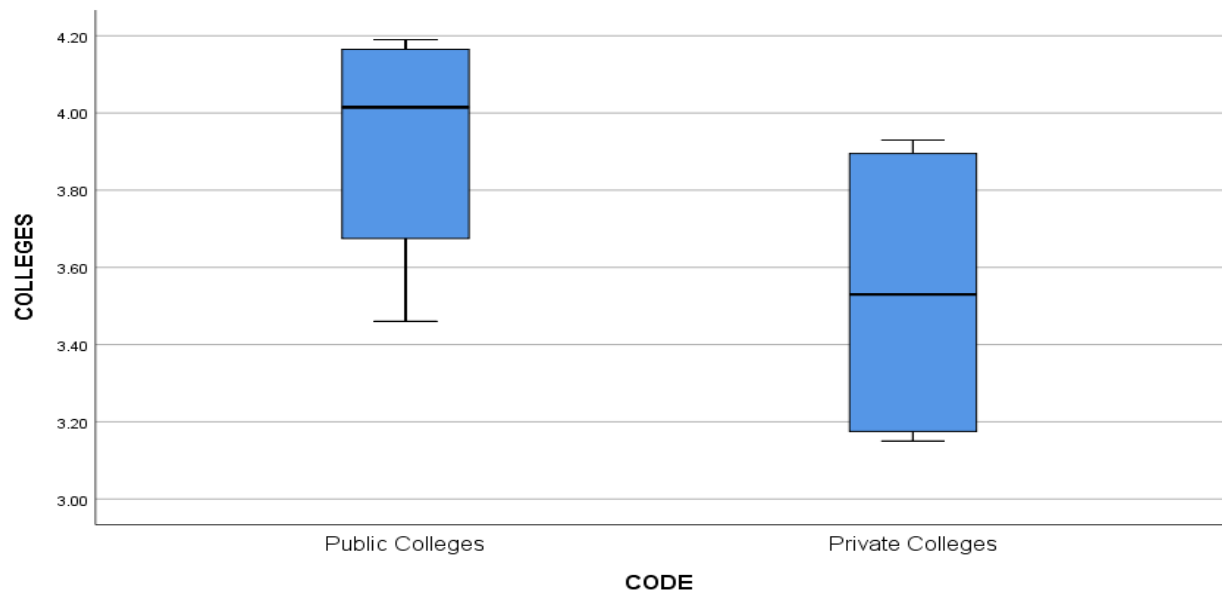
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	3.000
Wilcoxon W	13.000
Z	-1.443
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.149
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.200 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

## Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%
	Private Colleges	4	100.0%	0	0.0%	4	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Extra Effort

Ranks				
	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	3	5.00	15.00
	Private Colleges	3	2.00	6.00
	Total	6		

## Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

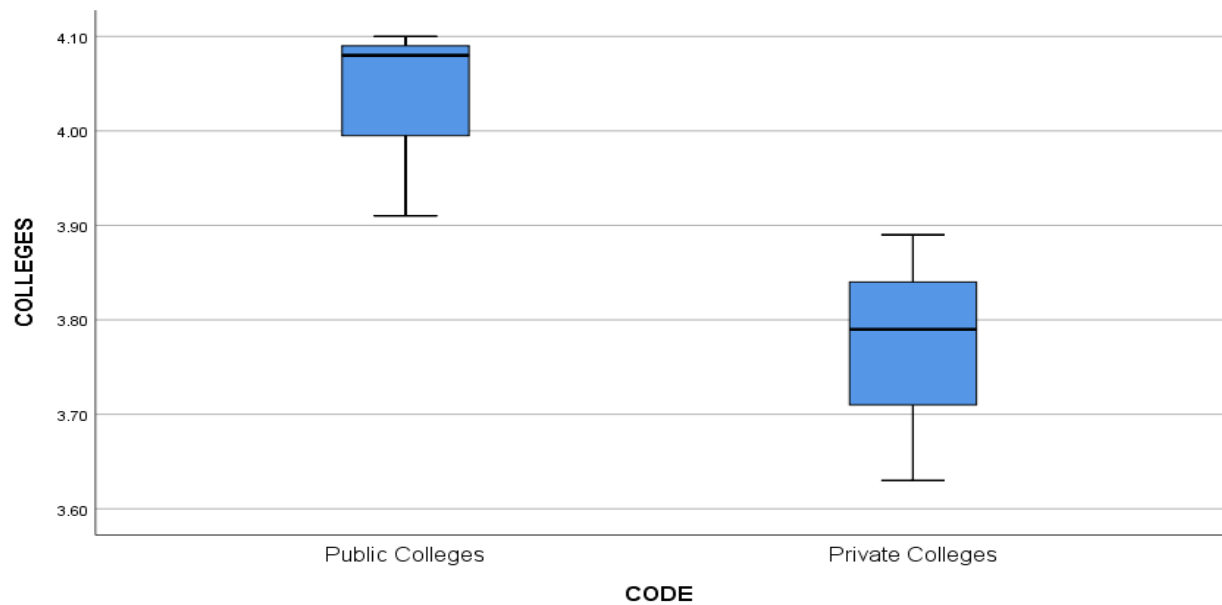
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	6.000
Z	-1.964
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.050
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.100 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

## Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	3	100.0%	0	0.0%	3	100.0%
	Private Colleges	3	100.0%	0	0.0%	3	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Satisfaction

### Ranks

	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	2	3.50	7.00
	Private Colleges	2	1.50	3.00
	Total	4		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

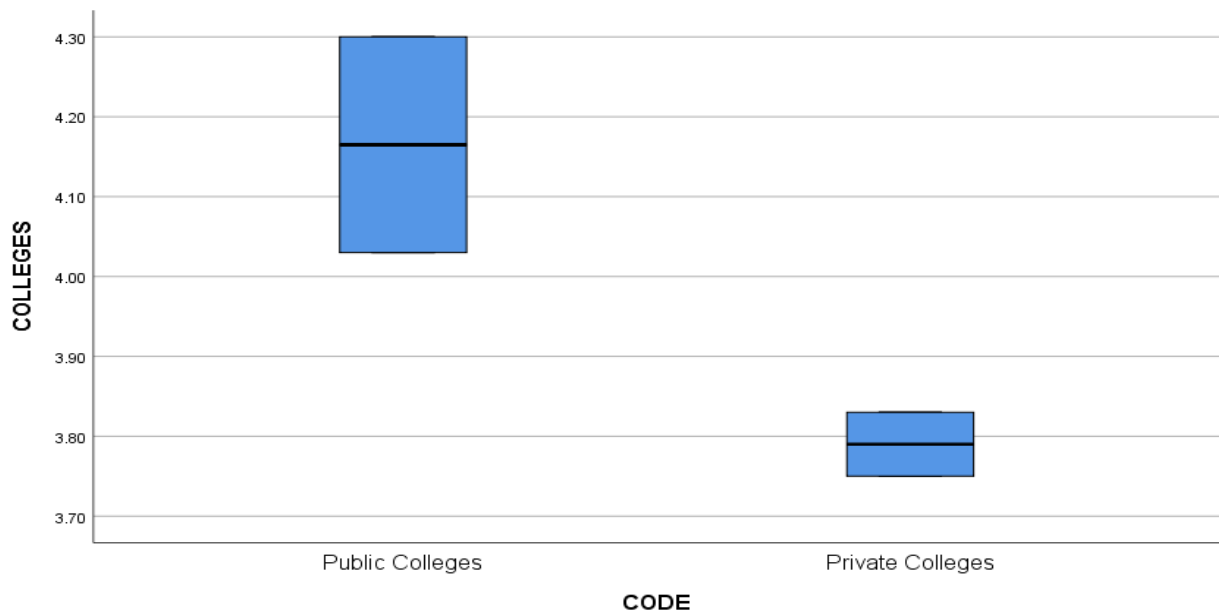
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	3.000
Z	-1.549
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.121
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.333 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

CODE		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	Public Colleges	2	100.0%	0	0.0%	2	100.0%
	Private Colleges	2	100.0%	0	0.0%	2	100.0%



## Part B: Hypotheses of difference in regarding to the strategic planning process

### Mann-Whitney Test of STRATEGIC PLANNING SIGNIFICANT

		Ranks		
groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
Colleges	Public COLLEGES	15	19.23	288.50
	Private Colleges	15	11.77	176.50
	Total	30		

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

Colleges	
Mann-Whitney U	56.500
Wilcoxon W	176.500
Z	-2.326
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.020
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.019 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: groups

b. Not corrected for ties.

#### Statistics

Colleges			
Public COLLEGES	N	Valid	15
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.9007

	Median		2.9100
	Skewness		.418
	Std. Error of Skewness		.580
	Kurtosis		-.201
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.121
Private Colleges	N	Valid	15
		Missing	0
	Mean		2.7247
	Median		2.7100
	Skewness		-.634
	Std. Error of Skewness		.580
	Kurtosis		1.784
	Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.121

### Parts C: Hypotheses of difference in regarding to the organisational success Mann-Whitney Test of Customer-society perspective

#### Ranks

	Code	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Colleges	Public Colleges	8	11.88	95.00
	Private Colleges	8	5.13	41.00
	Total	16		

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

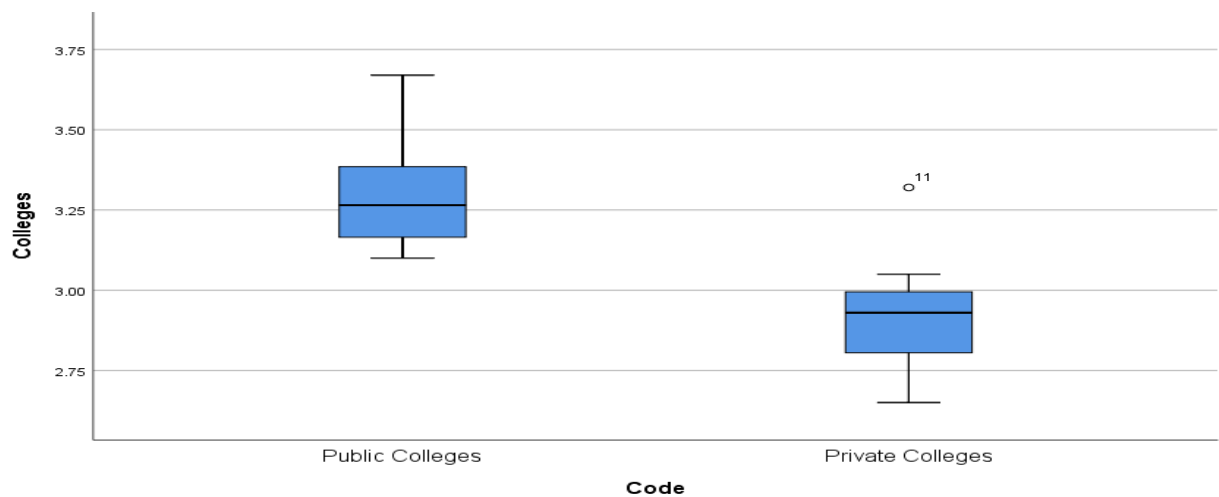
Colleges	
Mann-Whitney U	5.000
Wilcoxon W	41.000
Z	-2.838
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.005
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.003 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: Code

b. Not corrected for ties.

#### Case Processing Summary

		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Colleges	Public Colleges	8	100.0%	0	0.0%	8	100.0%
	Private Colleges	8	100.0%	0	0.0%	8	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Internal processes perspective

Ranks				
	code	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
colleges	Public Colleges	8	9.50	76.00
	Private Colleges	8	7.50	60.00
	Total	16		

## Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	colleges
Mann-Whitney U	24.000
Wilcoxon W	60.000
Z	-.843
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.399
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.442 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: code

b. Not corrected for ties.

## Mann-Whitney Test of Learning-Growth Perspective

### Ranks

	code	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
colleges	Public Colleges	13	19.12	248.50
	Private Colleges	13	7.88	102.50
	Total	26		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	colleges
Mann-Whitney U	11.500
Wilcoxon W	102.500
Z	-3.749
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.000 <sup>b</sup>

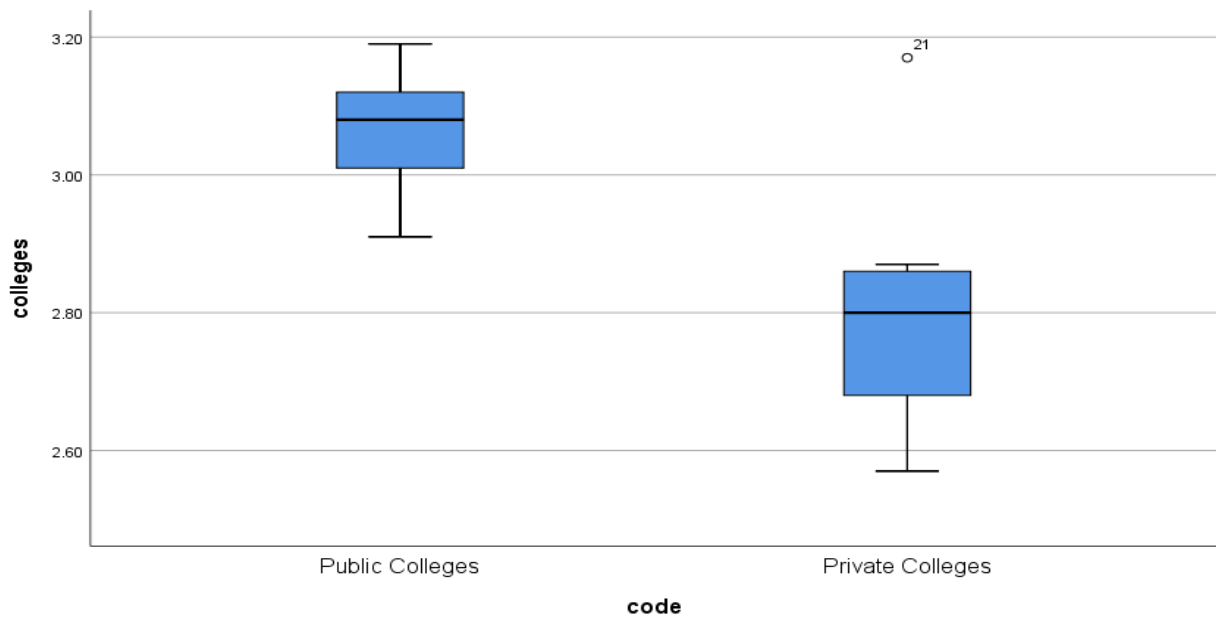
a. Grouping Variable: code

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

		Cases					
		Valid		Missing		Total	
code		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
colleges	Public Colleges	13	100.0%	0	0.0%	13	100.0%
	Private Colleges	13	100.0%	0	0.0%	13	100.0%





## Mann-Whitney Test of Financial Perspective

### Ranks

	code	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
colleges	Public Colleges	13	17.31	225.00
	Private Colleges	13	9.69	126.00
	Total	26		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

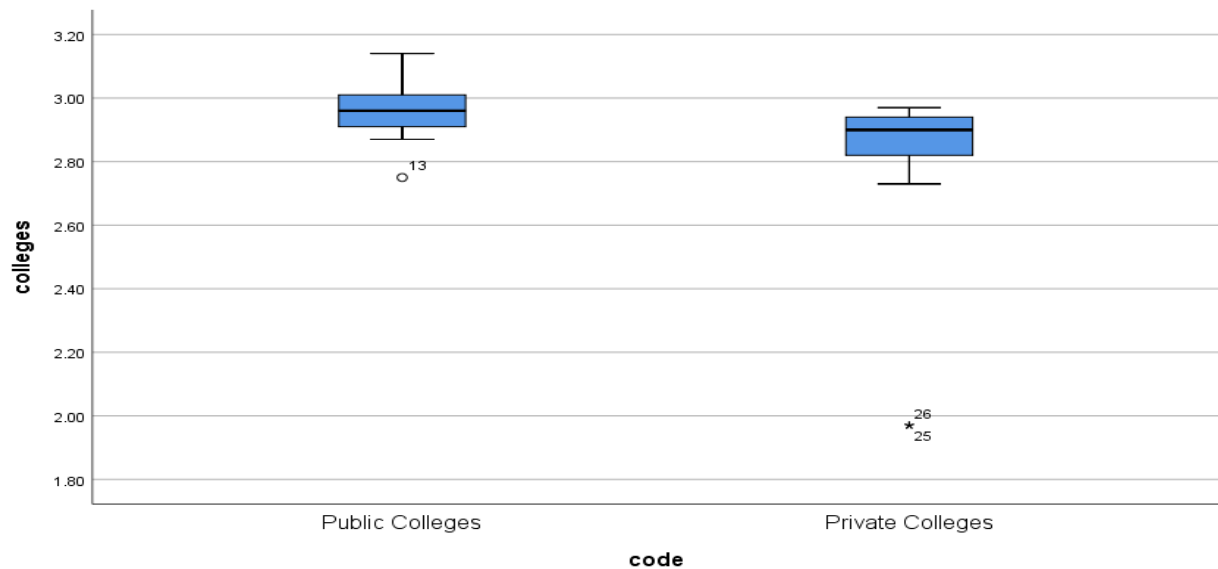
	colleges
Mann-Whitney U	35.000
Wilcoxon W	126.000
Z	-2.544
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.011
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.010 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: code

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

		Cases						
		Valid		Missing		Total		
code		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	
colleges	Public Colleges		13	100.0%	0	0.0%	13	100.0%
	Private Colleges		13	100.0%	0	0.0%	13	100.0%



## Part D: Hypotheses of difference in regarding to the organisational culture

### Mann-Whitney Test of Managerial Effectiveness Self-Rating Form

#### Ranks

CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	PU	13	17.31
	PR	13	9.69
	Total	26	

#### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

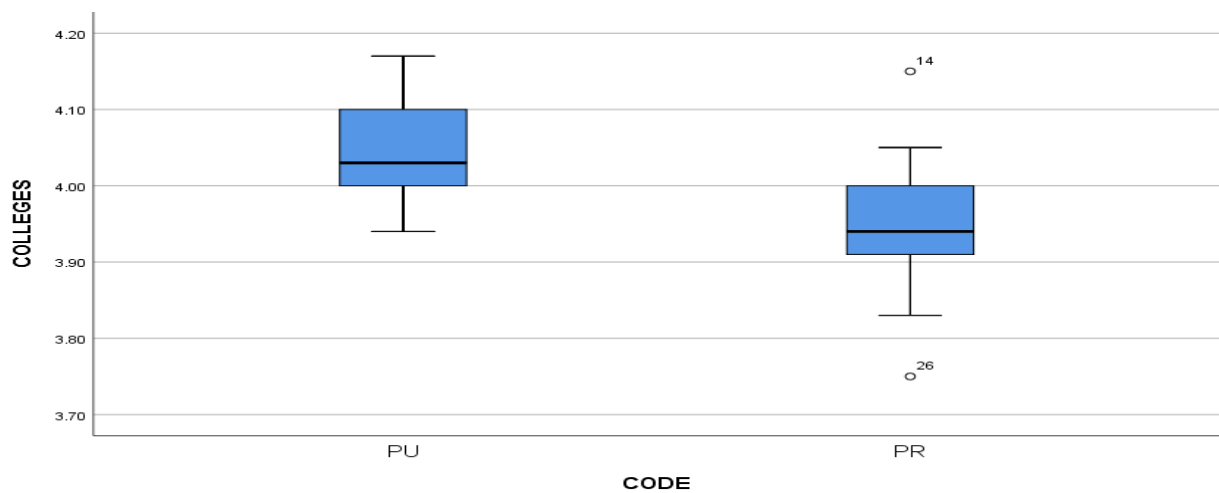
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	35.000
Wilcoxon W	126.000
Z	-2.546
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.011
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.010 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

#### Case Processing Summary

CODE	N	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
		Percent		N	Percent	N	Percent
COLLEGES	PU	13	100.0%	0	0.0%	13	100.0%
	PR	13	100.0%	0	0.0%	13	100.0%



## Mann-Whitney Test of Managerial Effectiveness

### Ranks

	CODE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
COLLEGES	PU	12	16.00	192.00
	PR	12	9.00	108.00
	Total	24		

### Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

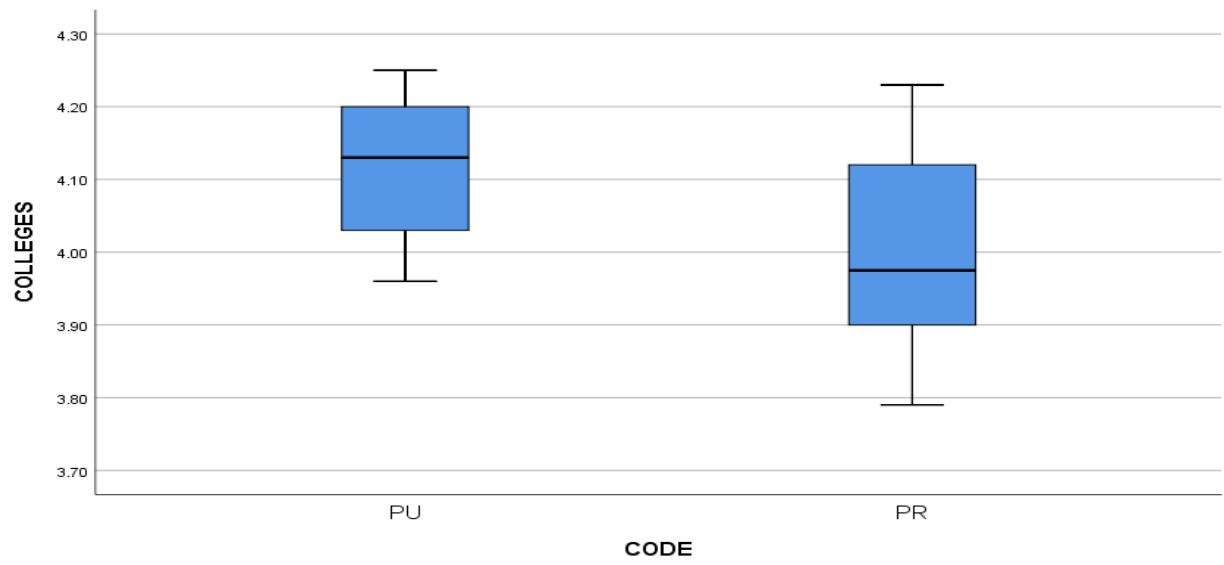
COLLEGES	
Mann-Whitney U	30.000
Wilcoxon W	108.000
Z	-2.433
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.015
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.014 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: CODE

b. Not corrected for ties.

### Case Processing Summary

		Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
CODE	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	
COLLEGES	PU	12	100.0%	0	0.0%	12	100.0%
	PR	12	100.0%	0	0.0%	12	100.0%



## **APPENDIX K: The Interview Schedule of the Study - *English and Arabic***

### *Versions*

#### **Focused Interview Schedule College Senior Staff – 45 minutes**

**TITLE OF PROJECT:** An Investigation of Leadership Style and the Strategic Planning Process in the Success of Public and Private Colleges in Iraq

#### **Introductions**

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my research project.

As you know I am following up with some staff to explore the results of the survey. I have listed some aspects of the results that I would appreciate your comments about for me to be able to better understand the issues involved. Please note there are no right or wrong answers – I am focused on understanding your experience and your views and advice in relation to the survey results.

For example: What do you think about these results? Why?

#### **Section One: Facts about staff in leadership positions:**

- 1- Three quarters of the staff in positions of leadership such as Dean, Associate Dean, and head of department are male compared with one quarter being female.
- 2- More than half of the staff in leadership positions are less than 36-45 years.
- 3- More than half of staff in leadership positions are at the academic levels of lecturer and senior lecturer.
- 4- A quarter of the staff in leadership positions have been doing their leadership role for more than 5 years.
- 5- Approximately half of the staff in leadership positions have not been involved in any leadership training.
- 6- Would you like to add anything else to your views on the way colleges should staff their leadership teams?
- 7- If you had the power to make any changes what would you do?
- 8- Please tell me why you think these kinds of changes would be valuable.
- 9- In your view what differences would these changes make?

## **Section Two: Staff perceptions of their colleges' Leadership Styles**

- 1- Please look at the definition of transformational leadership.

Transformational leaders are more collaborative and charismatic and encouraging of staff input into decision-making, and they are more communicative and approachable. Survey results suggest that the leadership style in public colleges is more likely to be transformational than in private colleges.

- 2- A: This question is for leaders of PUCs. Look at the definition of “contingent reward” leadership style. The survey results suggest that this is much more prevalent in private colleges than in the public colleges.

The survey results suggested that approximately 45% of those in leadership positions practiced “contingent reward” leadership style – which means they tended to reward staff only if they showed they were complying with the rules or orders such as “providing assistance in exchange for efforts”, “making sure staff understood the reward for getting the job done”, “expressing satisfaction when staff meet expectations” and “discussing in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets”.

B: This question is for leaders of PRCs. Please look at the definitions of leadership styles again.

In the private colleges the survey results suggest that those in leadership positions are less likely to be leading in a transformational way. That is, they may not be providing inspirational motivation, having an idealized influence, considering individuals and providing intellectual stimulation. This means that their leaderships styles tend to be more focused on making their staff follow the rules.

Does this fit with your experience? And Can you help explain this result? Why?

- 3- Look at the definition of “Laisses faire” leadership style.

This style is obviously one that is not encouraged for good leadership. However, the survey results suggest that this is evident to some extent in both private colleges and public colleges but a little more so in public colleges.

The survey results suggested that almost a third of those in leadership positions tend to “avoid getting involved when important issues arise” and around a quarter “delay

responding to urgent questions” and “avoid making decisions”, and 10% “are absent when needed”.

Does this fit with your experience? Can you help explain this result?

### **Section Three: Thinking about your college’s Strategic Planning Process**

**1. Please tell me about how your college goes about planning to try to successfully deliver its education programs.**

**2. Please tell me about your colleges hopes and dreams for the future?**

**3. Does your college have the following aspects in its plans? If “no” can you tell my “Why not”?**

If yes can you tell me what they are and please send me copies or links to your web site if you have them on there.

- **Mission, Vision, Values, and Goals**

**4. In your opinion is your college achieving its strategic focus?**

What are three reasons for your view about this?

**5. How many of staff report directly to you? \_\_\_\_\_**

**6. How many staff members in your college are involved in your planning processes? \_\_\_\_\_**

**7. The survey results suggested that about three quarters of both private and public colleges tended not use the well-known tools to help them with their strategic planning processes.**

Can you tell me why? My ideas on improving strategic planning are encouraged and seen as useful. For example.

**8. The survey results suggested that only between 20-35% of college staff in leadership roles participated in strategic planning processes in both private and public colleges.**  
Can you tell me why?

9. The survey results suggested that only between 20-35% of college staff in leadership roles received support to help them with their strategic planning in both private and public colleges.

Can you tell me why? Our policy is to make all communications open to receive strategic suggestions and advice.

10. The survey results suggested that more than half of college staff in leadership roles in both private and public colleges had not received any training on how to strategically plan for improving college outcomes for the present and the future.

Can you tell me why?

11. In spite of lack of knowledge, practice and training almost three-quarters of the leaders surveyed in both private and public colleges believed strategic planning was important. In the light of this why do you think the leaders in this survey have not taken any action to introduce strategic planning sessions in (a) private/(b) public colleges?

12. In your opinion taking all of our discussions into account “What are the challenges that your college faces in ensuring strategic planning processes are: (i) implemented and (ii) both leadership staff and other staff are: (a) trained and (b) included in the planning?

#### **Section Four: The colleges’ Performance Outcomes and their Organisational Culture**

- 1- The survey results suggest that the public colleges’ performance outcomes are higher than those of private colleges between approximately 75-85%.

Are you able to give your opinion on any reasons why this might be so?

- 2- The survey results suggest that approximately half of those in leadership positions did not have an ambition to move up the promotional ladder in either the public colleges’ or private colleges in the study.

Are you able to give your opinion on any reasons why this might be so? What is your experience with this?

- 3- The survey results showed that approximately half of those in leadership positions in both private and public colleges believed they were more competent than the leaders above them in both public colleges’ or private colleges in the study.



Are you able to give your opinion on any reasons why this might be so? What is your experience with this?

Also, if you think of something after the interview is over please contact me and let me know on e-mail: MohammedMatook.Al-Mahdi@usq.edu.au

Phone: +61423173080

Thank you very much for participating in this interview and for giving your time for my research. It is greatly appreciated.

#### جدول مقابلة

جدول مقابلة يركز على كبار موظفي الكلية - 45 دقيقة

عنوان المشروع: بحث أسلوب القيادة وعملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي في نجاح الكليات الحكومية والخاصة في العراق  
مقدمات

شكراً لموافقتك على المشاركة في مشروع البحث الخاص بي.

كما تعلم ، أتابع بعض الموظفين لاستكشاف نتائج الاستطلاع. لقد أدرجت بعض جوانب النتائج التي سأكون ممتناً لتعليقاتك بشأنها لكي أتمكن من فهم القضايا المطروحة بشكل أفضل. يرجى ملاحظة أنه لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة - أنا أركز على فهم تجربتك وآرائك ونصائحك فيما يتعلق بنتائج الاستبيان.  
على سبيل المثال: ما رأيك في هذه النتائج؟ لماذا؟

#### القسم الأول: حقائق حول الموظفين في المناصب القيادية:

1-1 ثلاثة أرباع الموظفين في المناصب القيادية مثل عميد ، وعميد مساعد ، ورئيس القسم هم من الذكور مقارنة مع ربعهم من الإناث.

من وجهة نظري ، أعتقد أن قدرة الرجال على إدارة الدفة في المنصب أوسع عمقاً من النساء ناهيك عن إن النساء عاطفيات أكثر من الرجال، فضلاً عن إن المجتمع العراقي هو مجتمع ذكوري ويؤمن ان يكون الرجال في هذه المناصب . لهذا السبب ، يفضل المجتمع العراقي الذكور أكثر من الإناث.

2. أكثر من نصف الموظفين في المناصب القيادية أقل من 36-45 سنة.

لا أعتقد ذلك، إيماناً بأن عامل الخبرة هو الأساس في هكذا مناصب، لذا فإن أغلب الأشخاص من اصحاب المناصب في القطاع الحكومي هم من كبار العمر، على عكس القطاع الخاص، أغلبهم من فئة الشباب بسبب روح المغامرة وحب الاستطلاع واللبث السريع عن السمعة والمكانة.

3 - أكثر من نصف الموظفين في المناصب القيادية هم على المستوى الأكاديمي من المحاضر وكبير استاذ مشارك

إذا ما أردنا الإجابة عن هذا السؤال فإن إجابته تنقسم الى شقين الأول فيما يخص الجامعات الحكومية والتي يتطلب فيها الحصول على منصب قيادي ان يكون على الاقل حاصل على مرتبة استاذ مساعد وفي حالة تعذر ذلك يمكن اسناد المنصب الى

من هو بمرتبة مدرس. اما الجامعات الأهلية فأن الامر سيان فيما يخص تولي المنصب حسب وجهة نظر المستثمر هو الذي يحدد ضوابط استلام المنصب.

#### -4 يقوم ربع الموظفين في المناصب القيادية بدور قيادي منذ أكثر من 5 سنوات.

مثمنا تطرقنا سابقاً واجبنا إن عامل الخبرة هو الحاسم لمعرفة كفاءة وفاعلية الاشخاص الذين يديرون هذه المناصب، فضلاً عن عدم ايمان العديد من القادة بوجود شخص اخر يستطيع ادارة المنصب بعد تخليه عنه.

#### -5 لم يشارك حوالي نصف الموظفين في المناصب القيادية في أي دورة تدريبية على القيادة.

أتفق مع ذلك ، بعض القادة في المناصب القيادية لا يؤمنون بتطوير وتحسين القدرات والمهارات. أيضاً ، ليس هناك شرط أن يكون القادة لديهم دورة تدريبية في القيادة. باعتبار ان الكارزمة هي شيء فطري عند القادة.

#### -6 هل ترغب في إضافة أي شيء آخر لوجهات نظرك حول الطريقة التي يجب على الكليات من خلالها تدريب فرق القيادة الخاصة بها؟

نعم ، ان اغلب الجامعات العريقة تدخل صناع القرار فيها في دورات قيادة من أجل صقل مواهبهم ومن ثم الحفاظ عليهم، لذا أود أن تضع في توصياتك البحثية ان يكون كل قائد حاصل على دورة تدريب في القيادة تتناسب وظروف الوضع الجديد.

#### -7 إذا كان لديك القدرة على إجراء تغييرات ، ماذا ستفعل؟

بالطبع ، إذا كان لديّ قوة ، فسوف أعمل على إجراء بعض التغييرات المهمة. أولاً ، تفعيل نظام الأعارة بين الجامعات للاستفادة من التراكم المعرفي لبعض الأساتذة. ثانياً ، الاستعانة ببرامج التعليم الإلكتروني لتحقيق الفائدة للجميع من خلال التركيز على منح شهادات رمزية وفخرية للقادة المتميزون. أخيراً ، سوف أقوم بتطوير وتحسين تقنية المعلومات والاتصالات خطوة بخطوة .

#### -8 من فضلك قل لي لماذا تعتقد أن هذه الأنواع من التغييرات ستكون ذات قيمة.

إن إدارة هذه التغييرات سوف تفتح آفاق المستقبل أمام الجامعات لطرق باب العالمية على وزن جامعة هارفرد. وفقاً لهذه التغييرات ، سوف يقومون بتطوير وفتح بعض المساحات الجديدة وفقاً للاحتياجات الوطنية والدولية.

#### -9 في رأيكم ما الاختلافات التي من شأنها أن تجعل هذه التغييرات؟

من وجهة نظري ، هذه التغييرات ستجعل الكليات العراقية تحتل مرتبة أعلى. أيضاً ، فإن معظم الطلاب بعد الانتهاء من الدراسة يحصلون على وظائف جيدة.

### القسم الثاني: تصورات الموظفين حول أساليب القيادة في كلياتهم

#### -1 يرجى النظر في تعريف القيادة التحويلية.

القيادة التحويلية هي أكثر تعاونية وجذابة وتشجيع على الموظفين في صنع القرار ، وهم أكثر تواصلًا وتوددًا. لذا ، تشير نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن أسلوب القيادة في الكليات العامة من المرجح أن يكون تحويليًا أكثر من الكليات الخاصة. من وجهة نظري ، فإن القادة في الكليات العامة هم أكثر عرضة للتغيير لأن لديهم وقتًا محدودًا في مناصبهم. على سبيل المثال ، وفقاً لقانون التعليم العالي العراقي ، لا يمتلك عميد الكلية سوى أربع سنوات ليبقى في منصبه ولرئيس القسم عامين

فقط. لذلك ، لديهم الوقت الكافي لإدارة موظفيهم ووظائفهم بأفضل طريقة. ولكن في الكليات الخاصة ، سيلعب المستثمرون دورًا كبيرًا في اختيار القادة وفقًا لمعاييرهم الشخصية لأن أهدافهم هي فقط الأرباح مع بعض التغييرات الطفيفة.

**-2يرجى النظر في تعريفات أساليب القيادة مرة أخرى.**

في الكليات الحكومية ، تشير نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن أولئك الذين يشغلون مناصب قيادية من المرجح أن يقودوا بطريقة تحويلية. أي أنه من المرجح أن يكونوا يوفرون دوافع ملهمة ، ولهم تأثير مثالي ، مع الأخذ بعين الاعتبار الأفراد وتقديم التحفيز الفكري. وهذا يعني أن أساليب قيادتهم تميل إلى التركيز بشكل أكبر على تشجيع موظفيهم على القيام بعمل جيد بشكل إيجابي وتعاوني.

### **-3انظر إلى تعريف أسلوب القيادة الفوضوية. "Laisses faire"**

من الواضح أن هذا النمط لا يشجع على القيادة الجيدة. ومع ذلك ، تشير نتائج الدراسة الاستقصائية إلى أن هذا واضح إلى حد ما في كل من الكليات الخاصة والكليات العامة ، ولكن بدرجة أكبر في الكليات العامة.

تشير نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن ما يقارب ثلث من يشغلون مناصب قيادية يميلون إلى "تجنب الانخراط عند ظهور قضايا مهمة" وحوالي الربع "التأخير في الرد على الأسئلة العاجلة" و "تجنب اتخاذ القرارات" ، و 10٪ "غائبون عند الحاجة". هل هذا مناسب لخبرتك؟ هل يمكنك المساعدة في توضيح هذه النتيجة؟

في العراق يوجد توجه حالي أن يكون اصحاب المناصب القيادية هم من ينتمون الى الطبقة السياسية لينتم التغطية عن الاخطاء التي يتم ارتكابها، علماً أن هؤلاء القادة في الواقع ، ليسوا مؤهلين ليكونوا في هذه المناصب القيادية.

### **-4انظر إلى تعريف أسلوب القيادة "المكافأة الطارئ". تشير نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن هذا منتشر / سائد أكثر انتشارًا في الكليات الخاصة منه في الكليات العامة.**

أشارت نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن حوالي 45٪ ممن يشغلون مناصب قيادية يمارسون أسلوب القيادة "المكافأة الطارئة" - مما يعني أنهم يميلون لمكافأة الموظفين فقط إذا أظهروا أنهم يمتثلون للقواعد أو الأوامر مثل "تقديم المساعدة مقابل الجهود" "التأكد من فهم الموظفين للمكافأة لإنجاز المهمة" ، "التعبير عن الارتياح عند مقابلة الموظفين للتوقعات" و "مناقشة شروط محددة من المسؤول عن تحقيق أهداف الأداء."

هل هذا مناسب لخبرتك؟ وهل يمكنك المساعدة في توضيح هذه النتيجة؟ لماذا؟

توجه الكليات الحكومية فيما يخص انظمة الاجور والحوافز والمكافآت ضعيف جداً مقارنة بالكليات الاهلية صاحبة التفوق بالموارد المالية وكما هو معلوم فإن هدفهم هو تجاري تحقيق الارباح أكثر ما يمكن. لهذه الأسباب تفضل الكليات الخاصة هذا الأسلوب لتحقيق الأهداف التنظيمية.

### **القسم الثالث: التفكير في عملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي للكليات**

**1. من فضلك أخبرني عن كيفية ذهاب كليتك للتخطيط لمحاولة تقديم برامجها التعليمية بنجاح.**

على مستوى الوزارات كافة لا توجد عملية تخطيط استراتيجي ومنها وزارة التعليم العالي العراقية وكذلك الجامعات الحكومية لا تمارس عملية تخطيط استراتيجي وليس لديها (المهمة والرؤية والقيم والأهداف) وحالياً يتم وضع خطة إستراتيجية للتعليم العالي تدعى بالرؤية الوطنية.

## 2. من فضلك أخبرني عن آمال جامعتك وأحلامك للمستقبل؟

نتمنى أن ترتقي جامعة بغداد وترجع الى سابق عهدها في مطاف الكليات الراقية والتي كان لديها سمعة على الصعيد المحلي والدولي والاقليمي ، لكن من الصعب جداً تحقيقها بسبب التغيرات البيئية وقرارات التعليم العالي العراقية.

## 3. هل لدى كليتك الجوانب التالية في خططها؟ إذا كان "لا" ، فيمكنك أن تخبرني "لماذا لا"؟

إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم ، فيمكنك أن تخبرني بما هي عليه ، ويرجى إرسال نسخ أو روابط إلى موقع الويب الخاص بك إذا كان لديك هناك.

• الرسالة ، الرؤية ، القيم والأهداف

نعم ، لدينا المهمة والرؤية والقيم والأهداف وبالأماكن العثور عليها على موقع الكلية الالكتروني

## 4. برأيك ، هل تحقق كليتك تركيزها الاستراتيجي؟

ما هي الأسباب الثلاثة لوجهة نظرك حول هذا؟

في الواقع ، هناك ثلاثة أسباب رئيسية. أولاً ، ليس لدينا وقت كافٍ لتحقيق الخطط الإستراتيجية وفقاً للجدول الزمني بسبب الأعياد الدينية والوطنية والأوضاع الأمنية أيضاً. الثانية ، ليس لدينا ما يكفي من الميزانية والموارد المالية لتحقيق الأهداف. السبب النهائي ، عدم وجود الموارد البشرية والتعيينات. على سبيل المثال ، وفقاً لقانون وزارة التعليم العالي العراقية ، فإن سن التقاعد هو 63 سنة وكل أعضاء هيئة التدريس في هذا السن لديهم ألقاب على الأقل ، أستاذ مساعد ، أستاذ مشارك ، وأستاذ ولديهم معارف وخبرات ممتازة ، وبالتالي سوف يغادرون الكليات الحكومية إلى الكليات الخاصة. بالإضافة إلى نقص تكنولوجيا المعلومات والاتصالات لدعم عملية التخطيط.

## 5. كم عدد الموظفين الأكاديميين العاملين في كليتك؟ حوالي 260 شخصاً

## 6. كم من هؤلاء الموظفين يقدمون لك تقارير مباشرة؟ حوالي 10 ٪

## 7. كم عدد الموظفين المشاركين في عمليات التخطيط في كليتك؟ حوالي 5 ٪ أعضاء مجلس الكلية

## 8. ما عدد الموظفين في كليتك الذين يشاركون في عمليات التخطيط الخاصة بك؟ أعضاء مجلس الكلية حوالي 13 شخصاً.

## 9. أشارت نتائج الدراسة الاستقصائية إلى أن حوالي ثلاثة أرباع الكليات الخاصة والعامة لا يميلون إلى استخدام الأدوات المعروفة لمساعدتهم في عمليات التخطيط الاستراتيجي.

هل تستطيع ان تقول لي لماذا؟

في الواقع ، لا توجد خطة استراتيجية. فضلاً عن ذلك كيف يمكننا دعم عملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي والوزارة والجامعة تصدران قرارات متناقضة. لذلك ، لا توجد عملية تخطيط استراتيجي مجرد وثيقة استراتيجية. على سبيل المثال ، لدينا القدرة على توظيف التخطيط الاستراتيجي، ولكن لا يتم تشجيعه من قبل الإدارة العليا بسبب مركزية قرارات وزارة التعليم العالي..

10- أشارت نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن ما بين 20 إلى 35٪ فقط من أعضاء هيئة التدريس في المناصب القيادية شاركوا في عمليات التخطيط الاستراتيجي في كل من الكليات الخاصة والعامة.

هل تستطيع ان تقول لي لماذا؟

في الواقع، هذه النسبة صحيحة لأن ليس كل الموظفين على جميع المستويات يمكنهم المشاركة في عملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي. أيضاً، عدم وجود المساهمين في هذه العملية عندما نحتاج إليها. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، لدينا وقت قصير في هذا الموقف. لذا، كيف يمكن التخطيط لمدة عامين فقط. من الصعب للغاية أن نجعل الخطط الاستراتيجية ناجحة.

11- أشارت نتائج الدراسة الاستقصائية إلى أن ما بين 20 إلى 35٪ فقط من موظفي الكلية في الأدوار القيادية حصلوا على دعم لمساعدتهم في التخطيط الاستراتيجي في كل من الكليات الخاصة والعامة.

هل تستطيع ان تقول لي لماذا؟

نعم، أوافق على ذلك، وكما هو معلوم فإن التخطيط الاستراتيجي يتطلب فترات زمنية طويلة من أجل تنفيذها. والواقع عكس ذلك أذ أن هناك وقت قصير لإعداد الخطة الاستراتيجية وفي نفس الوقت لا يهتم أحد بمتابعتها وتنفيذها. لذا، فإن جميع النصوص والكتابات المكتوبة حول رؤيتنا ورسالتنا وقيمنا وأهدافنا هي مجرد حبر على ورق.

12- أشارت نتائج الدراسة الاستقصائية إلى أن أكثر من نصف موظفي الكلية في الأدوار القيادية في كل من الكليات الخاصة والعامة لم يتلقوا أي تدريب على كيفية التخطيط الاستراتيجي لتحسين نتائج الكلية للحاضر والمستقبل.

هل تستطيع ان تقول لي لماذا؟

هذا صحيح، شاركت فقط نسبة قليلة من القادة في المناصب القيادية في دورات تدريبية في التخطيط الاستراتيجي، خاصة قبل عام 2015 مع أفضل الجامعات الألمانية والأسترالية والبريطانية. ولكن في عام 2015، وبسبب الأوضاع الأمنية الهشة والحروب والصراعات الداخلية، وضعف التمويل للجوانب البحثية والأنفاق موجه بشكل كامل للدفاع والداخلية. أصبحت مشاركات الاساتذة شبه معدومة في دورات التخطيط الاستراتيجي الخارجي والاقتصار على دورات ضعيفة بالداخل.

13 - على الرغم من قلة المعرفة والممارسة والتدريب، يعتقد ما يقرب من ثلاثة أرباع القادة الذين شملهم الاستطلاع في كل من الكليات الخاصة والعامة أن التخطيط الاستراتيجي مهم.

في ضوء هذا السبب، هل تعتقد أن القادة في هذا الاستطلاع لم يتخذوا أي إجراء لتقديم جلسات التخطيط الاستراتيجي في (أ) الكليات الخاصة (ب) العامة؟

أتفق تماماً مع ذلك ونعتقد أن عملية التخطيط الاستراتيجي هي العمود الفقري لكل منظمة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، هناك اعتراف جيد من قبل معظم القادة بأهمية التخطيط الاستراتيجي، ولكن ليس لديهم أي عملية تخطيط استراتيجي جادة بسبب القرارات الثابتة التي تصدرها وزارة التعليم. لذا، كيف يمكننا فعل ذلك. لسوء الحظ، من الصعب للغاية قول ذلك.

14- في رأيك نأخذ جميع مناقشاتنا في الاعتبار "ما هي التحديات التي تواجهها كليتك في ضمان عمليات التخطيط الاستراتيجي هي: (1) نفذت و (2) كل من موظفي القيادة والموظفين الآخرين هم: (أ) مدربين و (ب) المدرجة في التخطيط؟

ندعوا الله عز وجل، ان يساعدنا من أجل النهوض ومكافحة كل هذه التحديات من أجل وضع وتنفيذ وتقييم خطط إستراتيجية جيدة في كليتنا.

#### القسم الرابع: نتائج أداء الكليات وثقافتها التنظيمية

1-تشير نتائج الدراسة الاستقصائية إلى أن نتائج أداء الكليات العامة أعلى من نتائج الكليات الخاصة التي تتراوح بين 75 و 85٪ تقريباً.

هل تستطيع إعطاء رأيك حول أي أسباب قد تكون كذلك؟

في رأيي ، أوافق على ذلك لأن الكليات الحكومية لديها تجارب ضخمة وفقاً لسنها التي أدت إلى أن تكون في مرتبة جيدة ، وأعضاء هيئة التدريس والموظفين افضل ، ومباني الكبيرة ، وجودة الطلبة مقارنة بالكليات الأهلية. كما أن الكليات الحكومية أقدم من الكليات الأهلية. ومع ذلك ، فإن الكليات الأهلية لديها وضع مالي أفضل من الكليات الحكومية.

2-تشير نتائج الاستطلاع إلى أن ما يقرب من نصف من يشغلون مناصب قيادية لم يكن لديهم طموح لتحريك السلم الترويجي سواء في الكليات العامة أو الكليات الخاصة في الدراسة.

هل تستطيع إعطاء رأيك حول أي أسباب قد تكون كذلك؟ ما هي تجربتك مع هذا؟

في الواقع ، بعض القادة في المناصب القيادية ليس لديهم أمل في أن يكونوا في مستوى أعلى بسبب تدخل الأحزاب السياسية في احتلال هذه المناصب القيادية. أيضاً ، بعض القادة يحبون إرضاء الذين في الإدارة العليا ، ولكن في الواقع أنهم يحبون أن يكونوا في منصب أعلى كمعاون عميد ، عميد ، وحتى رئيس الجامعة. ونتيجة لذلك ، يحبون أن يكونوا في نفس الموقف.

3-أظهرت نتائج المسح أن حوالي نصف من يشغلون مناصب قيادية في كل من الكليات الخاصة والعامة يعتقدون أنهم أكثر كفاءة من القادة فوقهم في كليتي الكليات العامة أو الكليات الخاصة في الدراسة.

هل تستطيع إعطاء رأيك حول أي أسباب قد تكون كذلك؟ ما هي تجربتك مع هذا؟

أنا أتفق مع ذلك بالتأكيد لأن معظم القادة الذين هم في القيادة العليا يأتون عبر أحزابهم السياسية خاصة في الكليات الحكومية وليس لديهم كفاءات علمية وإدارية كافية في إدارة كلياتهم. أيضاً ، واجبات ومهام رؤساء الإدارات أصعب من واجبات عميد ومعاون عميد. لهذه الأسباب هم أكثر كفاءة من قادتهم.

أيضا ، إذا كنت تفكر في شيء بعد انتهاء المقابلة يرجى الاتصال بي واسمحوا لي أن أعرف على

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شكراً جزيلاً لك على المشاركة في هذه المقابلة ولإعطائك الوقت الكافي لبحثي. هو حقا عن تقديره.

## APPENDIX L: Matrix of Correlations Among the Study Variables

### Correlations

			LS	SPP
Spearman's rho	LS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.644**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	129	129
	SPP	Correlation Coefficient	.644**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	129	129

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### Correlations

			LS	BSC
Spearman's rho	LS	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.507**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002
		N	129	129
	BSC	Correlation Coefficient	.502**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
		N	129	129

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### Correlations

			SPP	BSC
Spearman's rho	SPP	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.451**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.007
		N	129	129
	BSC	Correlation Coefficient	.451**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.
		N	129	129