EVALUATING LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN THE OMANI PRIVATE SECTOR: AN

EMPIRICAL STUDY

OF THE NATIONAL CEO PROGRAM

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Acknowledgements

Dedication

This Doctoral in Business Administration thesis is dedicated to the loving memory of my great and lovely parents, Hamood and Maryam Al-Sawai, who raised me to love, respect, achieve, and believe, but they did not live to see this great accomplishment. I also dedicate this thesis to my step-mother, Saeed Al-Masroori.

Abstract

Developing the next generation of private sector Omani leaders is a visible demonstration of the importance and value that the Sultanate assigns to the private sector's role in the future performance of Oman's economy, which will deliver clear results within the context of rapid changes in the global economy. However, transfer of learning is still not well understood, particularly in the Arab Gulf States. Therefore, the present study focuses on this leadership transfer of learning from private sector companies and seeks to understand how the Omani private sector develops efficient leaders for senior positions. This study employs a qualitative approach using semi-structured interviews with two groups. The first group includes individuals in management and programme design in private Omani organisations, and the second group consists of participants of The National CEO Program. Supporting business growth national CEO program is best Practices in Oman private sectors in term strategic provider of future leaders' development solutions.

The aim of this study is to evaluating leadership development and practices in Oman Private sector: an empirical study of national CEO program, the main question is: How can the Omani private sector develop effective leaders for senior positions? The subsidiary three questions are:

RQ1: What approach to leadership development?

RQ2: What are existing solution and assessment of leadership development?

RQ3: Is the numbers of leaders begin Developed for present and future is sufficient for Oman Private sector?

The development of the model of leadership development and transfer of learning is a significant theoretical contribution of the study because it is the first type of model in Omani culture and it links leadership development with transfer of learning. The results of this study are expected to contribute to real-world practice by offering a suitable model for the Omani labour market that develops leadership development programmes and transfers learning in the Omani cultural environment.

Declaration

I confirm that this thesis is my own work and that all published or other materials consulted have been acknowledged in the text or the bibliography. I confirm that this thesis has not been submitted for a comparable academic award.

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List of Abbreviations

Doc 1: Document One

Doc 2: Document Two

Doc 3: Document Three

Doc 4: Document Four

GT: Grounded theory

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

CSR: Corporate social responsibility

GCC: Gulf Cooperation Council

RQ: Research Question

LD: Leadership Development

LDP: Leadership Development Programme

Diwan: Diwan Court Affairs

ROI: Return on investment

PPP: Public Private Partnership

NCP: National CEO Program

DBA: Doctor in Business Administration

HR: Human Resources

HRM: Human Resource Management

CEML: Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership

MNC: Multi-national Corporation

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The growing recognition that leadership development involves more than just developing individual leaders has led to a stronger focus on the context in which leadership is developed, on more thoughtful consideration about how best to use leadership competencies, and on work/life balance issues. Future trends include exciting potential advances in globalisation, technology, and return on investment, and new ways of thinking about the nature of leadership and leadership development (Kincaid & Gordick, 2003).

It is vital to equip leaders with the right skills and capabilities to empower the private sector and lead Oman towards increased competitiveness and growth at the regional, national, and international levels.

The aim of this research is to evaluate leadership development and practices through an empirical study of The National CEO Program of Oman and to demonstrate modern usage of the grounded theory approach to gain an understanding of how a leadership development strategy in the Omani private sector could be implemented most effectively. The objective of the research is to provide an understanding of how to develop effective leaders for Oman's private sector and to review future challenges and opportunities that face the Sultanate.

Studies on leadership practice encompass adapted versions of grounded theory (Lakshman, 2007; Rowland & Parry, 2009) and critical-realist approaches which construct a socially derived theory of a phenomenon (Kempster and Parry, 2011). Hence, they are suitable for studying the development of senior leaders in complex cultural environments such as Oman. Considering the aforementioned notion of leadership practice, interest in leadership encompasses the traditional roles, activities, responsibilities, purposes, daily functions, and correlated exchanges that occur *in situ* (Ely et al., 2010). The renewed emphasis on leadership is premised on the context of the post-industrial age (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007) through

which technically skilled and dynamic knowledge workers operate within the context of a neoliberal economy (Elaluf-Calderwood & Sorensen, 2005; Horwitz et al., 2003; Calo, 2008; Mayer & Nickerson, 2005; Thorpe et al., 2011). The characteristics of knowledge workers are growing exponentially in importance, whereby flexibility, dynamism, individualism, and self-direction are at odds with the more conventional characteristics of the manual worker who relies on bureaucratic organisation and hierarchical forms of management and control for his or her labour-based activities (Blackler, 1995).

1.2 Background to the study and summaries of previous DBA works (Doc 1, Doc 2, Doc 3, and Doc 4)

Doc 1, which appeared in the DBA Journal, is a draft research proposal and plan that addresses some of the major issues related to the inefficient working arrangements of the private sector in Oman. The document raises a question on the gap in leadership skills among the citizens of Oman which is forcing the private sector to involve the out-group (expatriates) and promote them to administrative positions at companies. The draft research proposal describes the problems prevailing among the regions of Oman and the inefficient operation of the country's private sector, which influences overall economic growth. The research addresses the manners in which the private sector displays inefficiencies in its work systems. The proposal explores solutions and offers an approach to improve the efficiency of the private sector in Oman, including improving the leadership skills of the local people, which is expected to bring positive changes to Oman's economic growth.

The second DBA document is Doc 2, the final research proposal for which limited information was available that related to the applicability of the concept of leadership in the Arab Gulf States, particularly the Sultanate of Oman. The purpose of this final research proposal was to develop an understanding of the unique context of Oman and to determine the interpretation of leadership development within the private sector. The national strategic vision of Oman's Vision 2020 seeks to encourage, support, and develop the role of the private sector, enabling it to act as a major factor in driving the national economy. Furthermore, the Sultanate has

emphasised the need to train the private sector labour force by adopting effective leadership strategies. Leadership in organisations in the private sector appears to be somewhat traditional, as encapsulated in the use by senior managers of command, power, or coercion. Along with the authoritarian style adopted by leaders in private sector organisations, leadership in Oman is also a function of intuitive decision making and Islamic management that considers the tribe and the family as the second priority when developing the culture of organisations. This thesis aims to explore leadership in the private sector of the Sultanate of Oman using both primary and secondary research.

The third DBA document is Doc 3. This document contained the critical literature review and the initial development of the conceptual framework, in which effective leadership skills are viewed as an important tool to enabling organisations to remain successful in the competitive market and within the context of rapid changes in the global economy. An understanding of how to implement effective leadership skills is still lacking, particularly in the Arab Gulf States. Therefore, this study focuses on effective leadership development strategies and approaches adopted by organisations operating in the private sector of Oman, and seeks to understand how the Omani private sector develops effective leaders for senior positions. To achieve this understanding, a qualitative approach has been employed that conducts semi-structured interviews at Omani private organisations. The results of this study are expected to contribute to real-world practice by offering a model for the Omani labour market that develops effective leadership skills.

The fourth DBA document is Doc 4. This document is a report on a small empirical project through which discussions on leadership development were recognised in the extended literature as a key enabler of private sector development. This assumption was tested in the context of the implementation of Oman's Vision 2020 Omanisation policy. Adhering to the principles of grounded theory, live insights and descriptions of the current reality were revealed. Although the importance of leadership development is generally recognised by empowered (decision-making) stakeholders of the Omanisation policy, it is not believed to

currently play any role in the development of a strong and sustainable private sector as a sphere for preferred employment opportunities for the people of Oman. Al-Sawai's (2013) model is revisited in light of emerging findings from the empirical exploratory evidence. Although concepts such as entrepreneurship come to the fore, leadership development initiatives are viewed as prerequisites for the economic self-sustainability of the Omanisation policy, which goes beyond its initial mere replacement of expatriates with natives. Leadership development in the context of the public sector is acknowledged as being governed by historical artefacts, whose meaningful discovery would go beyond the scope of this DBA study. Leadership is generally understood to draw on a positivistic set of hard skills; yet, only a small proportion of high-potential people are believed to have the qualitative character traits that make a natural leader. As a result, the model of Al-Sawai (2013) is extended to reflect the supportive and evaluative frameworks that are viewed as enablers of private sector development, which hinges on a life-stage-based human capital development framework centred on leadership development initiatives.

The final DBA document is Doc 5, which is a thesis entitled:

Evaluating leadership development in the Omani private sector: an empirical study of the National CEO Program

1.3 Motivation for the research
Very little understanding exists about the applicability of the concept of effective leadership in the Arab Gulf States, particularly in the Sultanate of Oman. Research undertaken in the area of effective leadership is largely North American and European in nature, and only limited empirical research has emanated from Oman's private sector regarding the concept of leadership. The Sultanate possesses excellent opportunities for local and international economic growth. A vibrant and thriving private sector is recognised as one of the key drivers that contribute to inclusive and sustainable socioeconomic development. Investing in private sector leadership is a proven way to have a substantial impact at both organisational and national levels, making private sector leaders a catalyst for transformational change

(https://ceo.om/en/the-program/overview). Moideenkutty et al. (2011) claimed to be among the first researchers to undertake a study of human resource management (HRM) practices and organisational performance in the Arabian Gulf region. In reference to Oman, they stated that very little is known about HRM within the context of private sector organisations. This research tapers this narrow focus by providing significant insights into effective leadership development strategies and approaches adopted by organisations operating in the private sector of Oman, and by understanding how the Omani private sector develops effective leaders for senior positions. The National CEO Program is used as a case study to review the future challenges and opportunities that faces the Sultanate. Research by Sattayaraksa and Boon-itt (2016) highlighted the mediating roles of organisational learning and innovation culture on their relationship with CEO transformational leadership.

The end of the programme will address the opportunities available to various economic sectors to achieve economic growth in the Sultanate and how the Sultanate of Oman can employ their resources to support the desired growth.

Under the patronage of the Diwan of the Royal Court, The National CEO Program is an initiative launched by the Public Private Partnership Taskforce (Sharaka). It is the first of its kind in the Sultanate, and its goal is to develop the next generation of private sector Omani leaders and executives.

The National CEO Program is a visible demonstration of the importance and value that the Sultanate assigns to the private sector's role in the future performance of Oman's economy, and one which is expected to deliver clears results.

The National CEO Program is designed to address the private sector's emerging need for talented business leaders and executives who are empowered to meet the challenges of the marketplace and embrace the opportunities offered by the Sultanate's economy. This exclusive programme is based on global best practices and the latest leadership thinking and learning methodologies, as follows.

Unique collaboration – The programme draws on the expertise of a world-class partner – IMD of Switzerland, one of the world's finest business schools – to offer a multi-dimensional and enriching learning experience.

Broad appeal and accessible – The programme is designed to benefit Omani business people from organisations of various sizes across diverse sectors and regions of the country.

Fully integrated programme – The programme represents a combination of learning, coaching, and practical application to create a measurable impact at individual, organisational, and sectoral levels (http://ceo.om/en/about-us/introduction).

The Research Question (RQ) for this study is defined as follows:

'How can the Omani private sector develop effective leaders for senior positions?'

The objective of the research question is to provide an understanding of how to develop effective leaders for Oman's private sector and to review the future challenges and opportunities of the Sultanate. At the end of the programme, opportunities available to the various economic sectors to achieve economic growth in the Sultanate and methods that the Sultanate can implement to employ their resources to support the desired growth are addressed.

Given the wealth of practitioner literature on leadership development programmes (LDPs), their main concepts and applicability to the setting of Oman are reviewed and assessed. In this respect, scope and inclusion are two fundamental elements. For example, what is the scope of leadership development programmes? Do they focus only on candidates and training interventions internal to the organisation or do they also focus on external ones? Would only certain high-potential candidates benefit from LDPs or should they be open to all staff? Is the priority the development of a learning knowledge-based organisation, or is the aim to separate individuals and disproportionally support their skills development? Here, the focus is on the evaluation of individuals' skills acquisition trajectory through structured or unstructured job

assignments and reflections. What is the process of 'graduating' from a leadership development programme? Will everyone be promoted or might some candidates be demoted?

In this context, the roles of HR/personnel departments and the aforementioned external training providers are not examined in this study.

This study seeks to evaluate leadership development and practices through an empirical analysis of The National CEO Program of Oman Effectiveness to reflect the extent to which an organisation might realise its goals (Zheng et al., 2010) by investing in leadership development solutions. The perspective from which the leadership solutions' evaluation is conducted matters and needs to be stated. Is the leadership development programme evaluated from the perspective of the individual benefactor, the future leader candidate, the firm's bottom line, or its contribution to realising Oman's Vision 2020? Studies have evaluated the leadership development focus on the importance of transcending conventional attention to standard underpinnings of training and development evaluation practices, and recognising the notion of open systems that have emergent and unknown properties (Chessbrough, 2006). This first requires an open and flexible culture and suitable conditions for innovation to flow.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

It is important to note that the sequencing of the chapters has been somewhat influenced by the presentation and ordering requirements of the Doctorate in Business Administration (DBA) and that, unusual for a grounded theory study, the literature review is presented before the presentation and discussion of the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Locke, 2001; Charmaz, 2006; Birks & Mills, 2011). However, the literature review formed part of the iterative research cycles and was not concluded in isolation, but was guided by the emerging ideas and concepts confirming or disputing the inductive and adductive reasoning from which the direction of the path has emerged.

Chapter One introduces the reader to this iterative research journey. The chapter explains the study's background and the author's motivation, identifies the knowledge gap, and provides an overview of Doc 5.

Chapter Two reviews an evaluation of leadership development programmes in term of their models, approaches, and transfers of learning with respect to the process. The theory is reconstructed towards a grounded theory model of LD within the business framed by grounded theory (GT) concepts that emerge from Chapter Five. The theory is presented through a narrative that weaves together participants' stories and the connected extant literature, moving from an abstract understanding that is rendered meaningful for practice through a series of models across the LD journey. This journey informs the final iteration of the LD model. Chapter Three presents the conceptual model and a LD module.

Chapter Four presents the research's methodological choice and subsequent journey towards a novel transfer theory through a constructivist grounded theorising process that follows the approach of Charmaz (2006).

Chapter Five presents the data generated from participants' individual and collective stories of their experiences coaching within their businesses and The National CEO Program, and from interviewees' memories. The interviewees provided rich data from 'the construction of meaning' and recollections which sparked further insights into the relational nature of the transfer phenomenon and the significance of the support for sense-making made explicit through the coding process (Mills et al., 2006, p. 9).

Chapter Six closes the research journey and presents the conclusions and recommendations that emerge from this constructivist grounded study of leadership development in a firm and the transfer of learning. Implications for future research, together with contributions to the theory and practice of transfers are outlined. The chapter closes with reflections on the research journey, its challenges and limitations, and the immeasurable academic, professional, and personal developments resulting from undertaking this DBA.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

This chapter presents a review of the literature on the evaluation of leadership development programmes and the transfer of learning in an organisation. Because the main aim of this thesis is to evaluate The National CEO Program initiated by the Sultanate of Oman, Section 2.1 of this chapter focuses on the evaluation techniques presented by different scholars, Section 2.2 addresses how learning is transferred.

2.1 Evaluation of Leadership Development Programmes

This section presents a review of the literature that evaluates leadership programmes, in which a number of models are elaborated on and critically analysed.

2.2.1 Introduction

A number of organisations spend considerable amounts each year conducting leadership development programmes. This is evidenced by the fact that investments in leadership development programmes have increased by 15% in the United States, which spends more than $70 billion on such programs; approximately $130 billion annually is spent internationally (Leonard, 2014). The common concept in conducting these programmes is to improve leadership skills that can be used to lead organisations towards the achievement of goals. The question that arises is whether or not these programmes have an impact on the effectiveness of the leadership process. Therefore, human resource practitioners are keen to adopt appropriate evaluation methods to analyse changes in management and the manifestation of these changes in the overall enhancement of the leadership process (Sadler-Smith, 2011). These programmes need to be evaluated because companies invest heavily in them, making it important to analyse the returns on such investments and ensure their future improvement (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009).

Many studies are dedicated to this topic, particularly the evaluation methods for assessing the effectiveness of leadership development programmes. Before proceeding to these methods, it is necessary to fully comprehend the main terms of the question, which are 'leadership', 'leadership development', and 'evaluation'.

2.1.2 Leadership and Leadership Development Programmes

A number of scholars have studied the concept of leadership, and their studies have thrown light on different viewpoints surrounding the concept, together with theories related to leadership emerging in the twentieth century (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2011). Arguably, the concept of leadership was familiar in the times of Caesar and Pluto, but had quite a different meaning than that of present times (Bass & Bass, 1981). Leadership scholars have proposed many theories regarding this concept and have added much to the field of leadership research. Viewed from a broader perspective, leadership can be explained as the joint influence to bring about transformation through leaders' insights and actions (Manning, 2012).

In former times, leaders were thought to have heroic personalities in association with greatness, as claimed by Galton (1870). However, with the emergence of Trait Theory by Bernard (1926), leadership was considered to belong to people with innate qualities. Some people have quite distinctive natural traits, such as intelligence, vigilance, vitality, flexibility, and interpersonal skills, which are inborn, distinguish them from common people, and denote them as 'leaders' (Bernard, 1926). However, this theory may be criticised because it explains leadership by focusing on the individual characteristics of leaders but also by ignoring other angles, such as different life circumstances, cultural background, and other environmental factors that are crucial to determining personality (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Behavioural theory emerged in the twentieth century, which reformed the traditional view of leadership from the previously described traits and more towards the behaviour of leaders, and practitioners focused on what leaders do in different situations – also known as situational leadership (Halpin & Winer, 1957). The theory suggests that leadership behaviour derives from specific constructs that can be known and learnt through practice. In the meantime, Ohio State University and the University of Michigan concentrated on leadership research, pointed out important issues, and developed new theories (Keith, 1981; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Blake et al., 1964). According to Blake et al. (1964) and Warrick (1981), leadership style can be classified on the basis of the extent of concern for both productivity and employees, known as a managerial grid.

Subsequently, Saal and Knight (1988) added to the literature the concept of the contingency approach, where leaders are supposed to behave differently on the basis of different contingencies or situations. However, along with the emergence of the style theory of leadership, in which leaders adopt different styles in different situations, situational leadership theory also emerged. Situational leadership theory was first introduced by (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) and a number of subsequent refinements and developments have been made. Situational leadership theory suggests that it is not necessary for a single leadership style to be adopted in all situations, but rather that a leader must be able to modify his or her leadership according to different situations (Graeff, 1997).

A more recent concept of leadership by Northouse (2010) was more subjective: '…the process, where the leader gives motivation or inspiration to the participants for realizing any objectives along with steering the organization in the most effective manner that provides more cohesiveness and consistency…' (Northouse, 2010, p. 5). This concept is consistent with the transformational leadership concept that calls for leaders to act as managers of change to bring about important changes among people to achieve extraordinary performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Another recent perspective on leadership theory is that leadership as a process is present at all levels of organisations, and comprehending how leadership functions *in* the organisation instead of understanding its function *on* the organisation is required (Grint, 2007). Arguably, leadership development is a social process and not a single occurrence. Regarding the learning of leadership, Grint (2007, p. 233) stated that '…the learning of leadership may be, as Aristotle implied, not just learning a body of theoretical knowledge – *episteme* – and not merely captured by replicable skills – *techné* – but rather something including practical wisdom – *phronesis*…' Thus, Grint (2007) argued that leadership cannot be learned through specific development courses, but rather requires experience and the ability to relate previous experiences to new ones.

Quite apart from these concepts, leadership means different things to different people with differing viewpoints (Hannum, Martineau, & Reinelt, 2007). Although no absolute definition exists, that effective leadership leads to organisational success in practice is supported (Kraus & Wilson, 2012). However, although effective leadership is important for success, the development of effective leaders can be a cumbersome task.

During the past 20 years, a number of leadership development approaches have been employed by companies to enhance the effectiveness of their leadership, such as classroom training, coaching and mentoring, 360-degree feedback, action learning, perplexing job tasks for development reasons, and many more (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2006). Regarding the various development approaches, (Taylor, De Guerre, Gavin, & Kass, 2002) argued that current challenges affect past approaches: '…the global challenges now occurring demand approaches to leadership education that are profoundly different from those that have served well in the past…' Thus, leadership development programmes must confront contemporary challenges to improve the results, and emphasis should be paid to their evaluation. The next section explains the evaluation concept, with insights into its different definitions and methods.

2.1.3 Evaluation

The concept of evaluation has been comprehended by many scholars because it has its roots in almost all disciplines (Calidoni-Lundberg, 2006). In broader terms, evaluation can be viewed as being free from all disciplines, as Mary Thorpe stated, '…Evaluation is the collection of, analysis and interpretation of information about any aspect of a programme of education or training as part of a recognised process of judging its effectiveness, its efficiency and any other outcomes it may have…' (Ellington et al., 1993, p.122). Generally, the main purpose of evaluation is to assess the result of any project or programme. However, Rowntree (1992) argued contrarily that evaluation is not always a case of a simple assessment, but may focus holistically on any programme and consider all contexts, in contrast to an assessment that only reviews a single participant's contextIn line with this argument, Alvino and Perisco (2009)in a book by Cartelli and Palma (2009), claimed that evaluation is a multi-dimensional construct which requires consideration of all of the dimensions and factors that also interact and affect

one another. Furthermore, the approaches and information required arguably depend on the main objective and purpose of the evaluation (Cartelli & Palma, 2009).

Evaluation within a specific context can be comprehended as '… a periodic, systematic, and in-depth assessment of whether a programme has achieved its objectives and whether unintended outcomes have also occurred...' (Goyal et al., 2010, p.2). The words 'unintended outcomes' show that unexpected results can occur that can be either positive or negative, thus explaining the vastness of the concept of evaluation of a programme.

The needs for an evaluation and its benefits have been outlined by many scholars in the literature (Goyal, Pittman, & Workman, 2010). The importance of conducting the evaluation of a programme is explained, which delivers an understanding of why and how the programme was conducted. According to Dochy and McDowell (1997), evaluation is basically a tool for learning purposes, and the evaluation of a programme results in important recommendations that can be employed in the future to make the programme more effective (Dochy & McDowell, 1997). In addition, Vedung (1997) stated a similar line of reasoning about evaluation, which is a '…tool to determine the worth and value of public programmes, with the purpose of providing information to decision-makers and improving institutional performance in the spirit of looking backwards to improve forward directions…' (p. 33).

Learning may be the main objective of an evaluation, where the question is asked regarding whether a programme is effective in bringing the changes desired in an organisation and is fit for future purposes, as suggested by the literature (Calidoni-Lundberg, 2006). Evaluation considers the programme's effectiveness, efficiency, and things that are not working, and can stimulate a constant evaluation cycle leading towards systematic and all-inclusive organisational learning (Goyal, Pittman, & Workman, 2010).

Furthermore, an evaluation can strengthen a programme, revealing ways to make strategic decisions regarding programme implementation that further strengthen the programme's desired outcomes (Hannum, Martineau, & Reinelt, 2007). Similarly, Baehr (2004) also

provided evidence of the benefit of evaluation in making crucial decisions, where the quality of these decisions is interlinked with the quality of the evaluation made.

The importance of evaluation is also evidenced in the study conducted by Russon and Reinelt (2004), where 55 leadership development programmes for the Kellogg Foundation were evaluated to assess the present standing of struggles in leadership programmes concerned with change. The evaluation resulted in data on looked-for and unpremeditated consequences and methods of evaluation (Russon & Reinelt, 2004).

2.1.4 Models and Approaches for Leadership Development Programmes

This sub-section presents a number of models and approaches for evaluation purposes. As previously discussed, leadership development programmes are fairly common today, with organisations investing much of their financial resources (Raelin, 2004). However, somewhat astonishing is that the outcomes that lead to more successful leadership behaviour are deficient in evidence of resilience (Burke & Day, 1986; Moxley & Wilson, 2010; Collins & Holton, 2004). Typically, it is rare that training or leadership development programmes are evaluated. According to Bersin (2006) during his investigation of more than 140 organisations, only small portions (2.6%) of total budgets are allocated to the evaluation of leadership programmes. It is also apparent that organisations have been struggling to estimate the value created by these programmes (Bersin, 2006).

Although a number of explanations support the need for evaluations, Collins and Holton (2004) note that the main reasons for any deficiency are budget limitations in terms of money and time and the complications present in the evaluation of leadership development programmes given their subjective nature. Limited budget and lack of time result in a trade-off between the development programmes and their evaluation, such that the development of programmes is frequently selected over evaluation projects. An important part of an evaluation is that a variety of educational or training methodologies exist, and evaluating different methods and comparing the techniques, such as on-the-job training, mentoring and coaching, and classroom conferences, is very cumbersome. Moreover, calculating organisational results

within these development programmes is challenging because of the complications inherent in the factors associated with the programmes. Additionally, no absolute evaluation framework exists to successfully pursue organisational performance results (Collins & Holton, 2004).

On the basis of the current literature on this issue, thoughtful evaluation in advance is recommended to determine whether the development programme can certainly be effective (Cherniss, 2009). A number of scholars focused on evaluation of the effectiveness of these leadership programmes, and some models and analysis methods existing in the literature follow below.

The literature on the methodologies and approaches for evaluating effectiveness suggests that many scholars have also used a meta-analysis model to evaluate developmental programmes. Of all of these studies, Burke and Day (1986) was among the most significant. They conducted slightly less than 70 studies from 1951 to 1982 using meta-analysis techniques to determine the effectiveness of interventions made to evaluate the performance of a group or team members at various organisational levels. Whilst they may have used different research designs for each study, they always found satisfactory results through the meta-analysis technique. For instance, in one of their studies, Burke and Day (1986) used a meta-analysis technique and concluded that substantial improvements could be observed in the knowledge and skills of leaders when they were offered the right development programmes. Meta-analysis is a useful technique that can be performed on six different fields of studies, with leadership being one of the most important. Meta-analysis is used to evaluate different enactments of development programmes, such as coaching, behavioural modelling, and many others. Meta-analysis can easily highlight the effectiveness of leadership programmes, yet – at the same time – many studies suggest that it does not cover a number of other important aspects of leadership development programmes. Thus, the results collected through a meta-analysis may not be valid until improvements at the personal, team, and organisational levels have been introduced. Therefore, the studies of Burke and Day (1986) are not enough to

prove the validity of the meta-analysis technique for the purpose of evaluating leadership development programmes, which is why further research is needed.

Other researchers such as Collins and Holton (2004) extended the research of Burke and Day (1986) through further analysis. They conducted up to 83 studies from 1982 to 2001 and suggested various training models using different methods to examine the behaviour, knowledge, and performance of participants. They also showed the impact and effectiveness of various development programmes. Moreover, Collin and Holton (2004) suggested that training programmes alone are responsible for the failure or success of organisations. In addition, their study suggested that an organisation needs to focus on evaluating investment budgets to safeguard their ROI by employing development programmes. Collin and Holton (2004) justified the validity of former studies' meta-analysis technique conducted by Burke and Day (1986).

The pyramid evaluation model of Kirkpatrick (1994) is another important model that has been extensively used to evaluate the effectiveness of development programmes. The pyramid evaluation model framework has four different but related levels, including: reactions, learning, transfer, and result. The first level of evaluation – *reaction* – explains the first-hand reaction of programme members. At this level, members' experiences are evaluated to establish whether they viewed the programme affirmatively or progressively. The second level of evaluation – *learning* – outlines the information gained from the programme and how it was acquired. The third level of evaluation is *transfer*, in which members' knowledge and the degree to which they are putting it into practice is assessed. The transfer stage also explains how members apply the knowledge gained to particular situations and conditions. For instance, in a leadership development programme, some leadership behaviours can be learned by leaders and transferred to other situations. The last level of evaluation is *result*, in which implications of the experience, learning, and transfer are explained. This level is concerned with the final impact. In other words, the result of any development programme is concerned with measuring

the return on investment or evaluating improvements in the organisation's financial performance (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009).

The Kirkpatrick pyramid is a significant yet complex evaluation model. At each level, different information is required to analyse and evaluate the results, which makes the entire pyramid critical. The information needed to evaluate the first level can be effortlessly collected through simple questionnaires and other sources, such as financial information on the company and professional data. Whilst collecting information is not difficult, assessing and evaluating the collected information is a complex and difficult task in the Kirkpatrick pyramid (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2009).

In addition, Moller and Millan (1996) argued that, in the Kirkpatrick evaluation model, evaluations mainly depend on the lower levels, where instruments are frequently misinterpreted. Most of the time, organisations perform different types of evaluations, but many of them focus only on the first level. Seventy-one percent of evaluations assessed improvements at level two, i.e. learning. In contrast, only 43% of organisations assessed transference of learning following the development of the programme and reached level three, i.e. transfer (Sugar, 2014). Similarly, only a few respondents were found who applied their knowledge to calculating and measuring results and reached the fourth level.

The Kirkpatrick model laid the foundation for many other evaluation models. Examples of such models are the input-process-output model (Bushnell, 1990), the systematic model of factors, the five-level model (Kaufman, Keller, & Watkins, 1995), and the training outcome model (Richey, 1992); however, the Kirkpatrick model remains one of the most significant. Despite its various advantages and usefulness, the Kirkpatrick model also has many limitations that have been highlighted by researchers in their studies. According to Bates (2004), the Kirkpatrick evaluation lacks a number of contexts. For instance, it does not include other important programme design factors, organisational factors, and many other factors. Likewise, the assumption that creates a causal relationship between the levels and result of the evaluation is ambiguous (Bates, 2004). Such a vague and ambiguous association diminishes the validity of

the results of the Kirkpatrick model. The third and last limitation is that, although each subsequent level provides more valuable information than the previous one, it may lack validity because of a weak association between the levels and the information that can be used in practice (Bates, 2004).

The third important framework for the evaluation of development programmes is provided by Brinkerhoff (1988). The Brinkerhoff model is based on the evaluation and analysis of training and human resource development mediation. It is in cyclic form, comprised of six phases. These can be categorised into four phases of performance mediation, the first of which is performance analysis, which determines the needs of the programme and whether or not they are required. The second phase is design, which explains the programme's structure. The third is implementation, which describes the process of conducting the programme. The final phase is evaluation, in which the programme's impact is determined at the end. The aim of Brinkerhoff's model is to evaluate the entire human resource mediation procedure. The six stages in the cyclical view of Brinkerhoff's model are goal setting (assessing current performance and identifying the need for training when an issue is worth focusing on); programme design (the structure of the entire programme and all types of interventions are analysed); programme implementation (applying and conducting the programme is assessed and its performance is evaluated); immediate outcomes (emphasises the learning taking place during the intervention); intermediate outcomes (centres on the repercussions of the intervention); and impact and worth (evaluates the effects of the programme on the organisation by assessing whether or not it has provided the projected results and has fulfilled the performance gap) (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2009).

Another model known as TEEM, which is similar to the Brinkerhoff model, is also important for evaluating development programmes. TEEM, which stands for training efficiency and effectiveness model, was suggested by Lincoln and Dunet (1995) and includes four stages: 1) analysis, 2) development, 3) delivery, and 4) results. TEEM advocates the need to focus on

evaluation during the entire training and development programme, and decisions must be made according to the information given at every phase (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2001).

Holton also provided the HRD evaluation model. The three outcomes recognised in this model are personal performance, learning, and organisational results. These three outcomes can be affected by both primary and secondary factors that can have a significant impact on personal performance. These factors are programme structure, transfer circumstances, and the drive to convey learning. Similarly, other factors, such as learners' responses, intellectual level, aptitude, and enthusiasm to learn, also have a significant impact on learning outcome. In addition, the organisational result is impacted by factors such as the prospects of ROI, internal and external issues, and objectives of the organisation (Holton E. F., 1996).

It has been argued in the literature that the Holton evaluation model has equal significance to Kirkpatrick evaluation levels (Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000). The strongest points of the Holton model are that it recognises some particular variables which have a significant impact on the development of the programme. This model also provides a linkage between the important variables to the factors, predictions, and hypothesis, which makes it more valid than the other models (Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000). Furthermore, the model is considered one of the best evaluation models for programme development because it is based on a theory-focused method of evaluation (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2001).

The most popular model of Kirkpatrick, Philips and Philips (2002) extended its use by refining the levels and adding ROI evaluation (Day, 2014). This framework for the evaluation of a leadership development programme was used by Taylor (2009) to evaluate a customised leadership programme and was adapted by Philips and Philips (2002), who employed the seven-tier framework. This framework has been used by more than 3,000 organisations to evaluate the net results and profits for human resources. The following figure shows the seven-tier model/framework for the evaluation of a leadership development programme, and three columns explain the entire evaluation programme: the first column provides seven levels

of evaluation (tiers); the second column explains the data needed for the evaluation and from where it is to be obtained; and the third column recommends different data collection methods.

The seven-tier framework for evaluation outlines the data sources and methods to use to collect data for each tier. The first tier is concerned with the collection of information on member satisfaction and prearranged action, such as obtaining a response to the positive and negative aspects of the programme and reassessing the quality of the programme. In the second tier, the information collected is linked to members' learning, such as measuring whether members are able to recall the training messages and topics. The third tier explores the application of the obtained learning in real-life situations; in other words, it calculates the degree to which members adopted the looked-for leadership behaviours. In the fourth tier, the total expenditures incurred to conduct the programme are anticipated to match the costs with the benefits of the programme. The fifth tier is concerned with anticipating the tangible benefits of the programme and explicitly calculated in monetary terms, such as a rough assessment of the value of the programme in view of the number of members in an organisation. In the sixth tier, the intangible programme benefits are assessed, such as enhancements to motivating members to adopt leadership roles. As a final point, Tier 7 is concerned with calculating an average ROI each year for the leadership programme. In this scenario, Phillips and Phillips (2002) defined ROI using the following formula:

ROI % = [The total financial benefit to the participants' organisation for one year ($)] [The total programme cost ($)] x 100% / The total programme cost ($)

The approaches towards evaluation as previously discussed are systematic models, which are often criticised in the literature because of the limited contexts used (Day, 2014). Arguably, these models and approaches are based on the positivist philosophy of evaluation, which requires certain factors to measure the impact of an evaluation (Coldwell & Simkins, 2011). However, more recent approaches towards the evaluation of leadership development programmes are based on a phenomenological philosophy given the inherent nature of leadership development. Leadership development is a process, or phenomenon, as previously

argued (Northouse, 2010). Phenomenological philosophy purports to include different contexts of leadership development, and the literature has found two important approaches, including cultural factors and all stakeholders in an organisation. The following approaches are those that consider different contexts of leadership programmes during an evaluation.

The stakeholder approach towards an evaluation is another approach that is important to consider (Michalski & Cousins, 2001). The fundamental idea of this approach is that a number of people and groups have a vested interest in the leadership development programme in an organisation; therefore, any attempt to plan, develop, provide, and assess a leadership programme must consider the requirements and desires of all of these stakeholders (Nickols F. , 2003). Usually, a development programme's stakeholders are comprised of learners and their managers, supporters, programme designers, coaches, programme suppliers, and the programme community (Cousins, 1995; Nickols F. , 2003). Although the leadership development evaluation literature has claimed the stakeholder approach as being fairly developed, it is comparatively infrequently used in evaluation on a practical basis, in contrast to other approaches (Michalski & Cousins, 2001; Nickols F. , 2003).

Nonetheless, the stakeholder perspective has some limitations (Key, 1999), and opponents (Jennings, 1999) have engaged in significant debates over the leadership domain (Donaldson & Preston, 1995) which is progressively revealed in activities employed by management to evaluate leadership development programmes (Fraser & Zarkada-Fraser, 2003; Nickols F. , 2005). Additionally, Nickols (2003) argued that using this approach in evaluating leadership development programmes is a step in the right direction.

The CIRO approach to the evaluation of leadership development programmes is founded on four factors: context (evaluate the programme's needs and objectives on the basis of organisational climate and culture), input (evaluate the design and delivery of the programme), reaction (evaluate the obtaining and using of data regarding the quality of the programme experience), and results (evaluate the overall achievements of the programme at the immediate, intermediate, and ultimate levels) (Warr, Bird, & Reckham, 1970). According to

Tennant, Boonkrong, and Roberts (2002), the CIRO model concentrates on evaluations both before and after the training programme. The positive point of this model is that it also takes into account the contexts and input or programme tools (Tennant, Boonkrong, & Paul, 2002).

A cultural approach towards the evaluation of leadership development programmes is the most recent concept as mentioned by Edwards and Turnbull (2013), who argued that existing studies overlooked the importance of the cultural context in learning from development programmes because learning is embedded in the culture of an individual and an organisation, particularly regarding leadership development (Edwards & Turnbull, 2013). In this scenario, leadership development is considered a social process which is highly influenced by the cultural context (Hotho & Dowling, 2010).

The cultural approach towards evaluation suggests that a need exists to concentrate on all levels of change, for instance, the individual, organisational, community, and global levels, with the assistance of biographical timelines and all important past events. This approach recommends that the cultural context must be addressed at all of these levels. The leadership development programme should consider all cultures, subcultures, and organisational contexts for effective training outcomes, and the evaluation should start from the design phase of the programme. A cultural-based approach uses open questions in interviews that focus on all factors of culture, such as language, narratives, myths, olden times, and power crescendos (Edwards & Turnbull, 2013).

Many scholars pay attention to critiques of previous evaluation models and offer a number of explanations for carrying out evaluations. Easterby-Smith (1994) placed these identified reasons into four comprehensive categories : proving, improving, controlling, and learning. The Easterby-Smith approach found a discrepancy between two types of evaluations: summative and formative evaluations. A summative evaluation is concerned with the application of the programme, whereas a formative evaluation is concerned with the learning gained through the programme. Furthermore, this model also highlighted a difference in the evaluation process and outcome, which is quite accommodating because the evaluation can focus on how

learning has occurred (process) and the effect of this learning (outcome) (Easterby-Smith, 1994). The four purposes of an evaluation are subsequently explained.

Proving: is concerned with the value and effect of the programme, aiming to prove convincingly that a change has taken place because of the development programme. Proving can also be associated with conclusions on the worth of the development programme, where questions are answered regarding whether the right thing has been performed, is performed well, and if it has repaid the investment (Sloman, 1999).

Improving: is a constructive purpose to determine unambiguously the enhancements or improvements required in the development programme. Improving also addresses the processes needed to guarantee whether the current or prospective development programme and training activities have resulted in improvements (Sloman, 1999).

Learning: is a purpose through which the evaluation becomes the most crucial part of learning in a development programme. The effective transfer of knowledge is the main process in the development programme and any training activity. At this juncture, evaluation is related to the courses performed to deliver a reasonable understanding and practices for persons and teams, either on or off the job, and to ensure that they can be calculated quantitatively (Sloman, 1999).

Controlling: is involved in the monitoring of quality factors in a more comprehensive manner with respect to both content quality and delivery quality to match recognised standards. Controlling implicates the data exchange to ascertain whether or not the organisational development programme and professionals have met the desired objectives, have delivered the accepted specialist services, and have used resources in an efficient and effective manner (Sloman, 1999).

Arguably, organisations usually adopt the 'improving' part and want to ensure that the outcomes that have been gained were as intended, as per the 'proving' part (Rae, 2002). All four grids have similar significance, and which of the four purposes is most suitable to adopt

depends on the standing, roles, and duties of the organisation. Thus, arguably, this model is quite flexible and can be adapted to a specific organisation on the basis of the structures and processes used to obtain the satisfaction of internal and external customers, investment organisations, and stakeholders (Hirsh et al., 2001). In addition, Easterby-Smith (1994) has highlighted that these four purposes (learning, monitoring, improving, and improving) overlap, and one can concentrate the evaluation in just one or two areas.

Because the factors identified by other scholars (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2009; Russel, 1999) can easily be categorised under these four broad purposes, this thesis has opted to use this model for the evaluation of a leadership development programme. In addition, Gold et al. (2010) proposed another purpose – influence – meaning that a programme might be influenced by the provider (e.g. HRD practitioner).

Arguably, most evaluation models for leadership development programmes focus on a single strategy and evaluate a particular impact, regardless of the broader questions that must be answered. Hannum et al. (2007) argued about questions that must be addressed, such as the impact on trainees, whether they feel engaged in the programme, and whether it has long-term effects. It is important to establish whether or not what has been learned in the development programme has been properly transferred to the trainees, an issue addressed in Section II.

2.2 Transfer of Learning
This section presents a review of the existing literature on the topic 'transfer of learning', where the concepts of learning and transfer are discussed to obtain insights. Moreover, these studies discussed the transfer of learning process from the different viewpoints that exist in the literature.

2.2.1 Introduction
In today's world, the increase in globalisation and competition in markets has allowed organisations to employ strategic defences to gain an edge over competitors, including incentives, employee participation in decision making or employee engagement, and training and development programmes. As a means to achieve good performance in organisations, the

training and development of employees appears to be more prevalent in discussions (Combs J. G., Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006). According to Bhatti and Kaur (2009), training and development, especially in the context of leadership programmes, are significant and trustworthy methods to improve the skills and efficiency at both employee and organisational levels. To achieve the overall organisational objectives, leadership development programmes must be planned to enable learning to be successfully transferred to employees' skillsets (Bhatti & Kaur, 2009). In line with this argument, Lehmann-Willenbrock and Kauffled (2010) reasoned that organisations are spending a lot on leadership development, and it is vital for them to enhance the knowledge, capabilities, behaviour, and skills of their workforce because they are constantly fronting worldwide competition (Lehmann-Willenbrock & Kauffeld, 2010). Effective leadership development programmes are evidenced as enhancing the knowledge, abilities, and skills of the workforce, allowing such programmes to provide leverage to the organisation's success (Combs J. , Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006; Barling & Cooper, 2008).

From an organisational perspective, learning from leadership development or training programmes is seldom adequate in itself when deciding on the effectiveness of any programme. Rather, the '*positive transfer of learning*' can be judged as effective or not, and is the degree of transference of the learning gained from the training programme that can be practiced on the job which also results in significant modifications to job performance. As Goldstein and Ford (2002) argued, such a positive transfer of learning is the supreme interest of training endeavours in any organisation. Therefore, issues around investing in leadership development programmes are usually concerned with the transfer of learning, on the basis of which organisations have good/bad returns on these investments. The transfer problem has steered many scholars to research the transfer of learning process and the factors affecting this process to be able to enhance the probability of applying learning to practice. Thus, to obtain insights into this transfer of learning, the next section identifies some learning theories and models.

2.2.2 Learning Definition and Theories

In the most basic form, learning can be defined as '…a change in behaviour that is due to experience…', as stated by Houwer et al. (2013, p.1). However, it is argued in the literature that this basic definition of learning is not sufficient, and that behavioural change does not necessarily occur because learning has occurred (Domjan, 2010; Ormrod, 2008). In contrast, Burns (1995) stated that, '…learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour including both observable activity and internal processes such as thinking, attitudes and emotions…' (p. 99). This statement shows that Burns (1995) counted motivation in his definition of learning, reflecting that it may not be necessary for learning to be demonstrated in apparent behaviour until instructive training has occurred. In line with this definition, Dojman (2010) also regarded the term learning as '…enduring changes in the mechanisms of behaviour…' (p. 17).

2.2.3 Transfer of Learning

This section presents a review of the existing literature on the transfer of learning. A large body of literature is dedicated to the definition, theories, and models of transfer of training. However, the definition and theories – although important to leadership development – are not part of the research question.

2.2.4 Concept of Transfer of Learning

The concept of transfer of learning has been defined by many of researchers and scholars (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010; Burke & Hutchins, Training transfer: an integrative literature review, 2007; Cheng & Ho, 2001; Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Many of the scholars defined the concept of transfer of learning with the assistance of two dimensions. The first dimension is generalisation, which explains the extent to which knowledge and skills may be acquired in a learning setting and applied in different settings. The second dimension is maintenance, which explains the extent to which the changes that result from a learning experience persist during a period (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

Therefore, the transfer of training in general can be defined in simple terms as the application of knowledge and skills on the job that are attained from the training. A study by Baldwin and

Ford (1988) provided a detailed explanation of the process of transfer of training,how transfer of training occurs, when the learned behaviour is generalised to the context of the job, and how long this transfer persists and is maintained by the individual. The positive transfer of training required by organisations is also discussed in the literature and is defined as the *effective* application of the knowledge and behaviour attained from training in the context of the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). in contrast, Blume et al. (2010) argued that the transfer of learning is a dynamic and complicated process which needs to be comprehended, and the factors that affect this process should be controlled for effective transfer of learning.

2.2.5 The Process of Transfer of Learning and Factors affecting the Process

Many models and frameworks have been presented in the literature, and this section reviews some of these models to gain insights into the transfer process. Among these, Ford and Baldwin (1988) presented a *transfer of learning model* that is the most recurrently mentioned in the transfer process field. Their framework provides an understanding of the process of transfer of learning by structuring a qualitative review into a model. The transfer process is explained in terms of training inputs, training outputs, and transfer conditions. Training inputs include trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment, which have been emphasised in the literature. Training outputs contain learning and retention of this learning. Transfer conditions encompass the two main constructs of its definition, which are generalisation (of skills and knowledge attained during training in the job context) and maintenance (maintaining the learning over a longer period) (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). The following figure illustrates the model presented by Baldwin and Ford (1988).
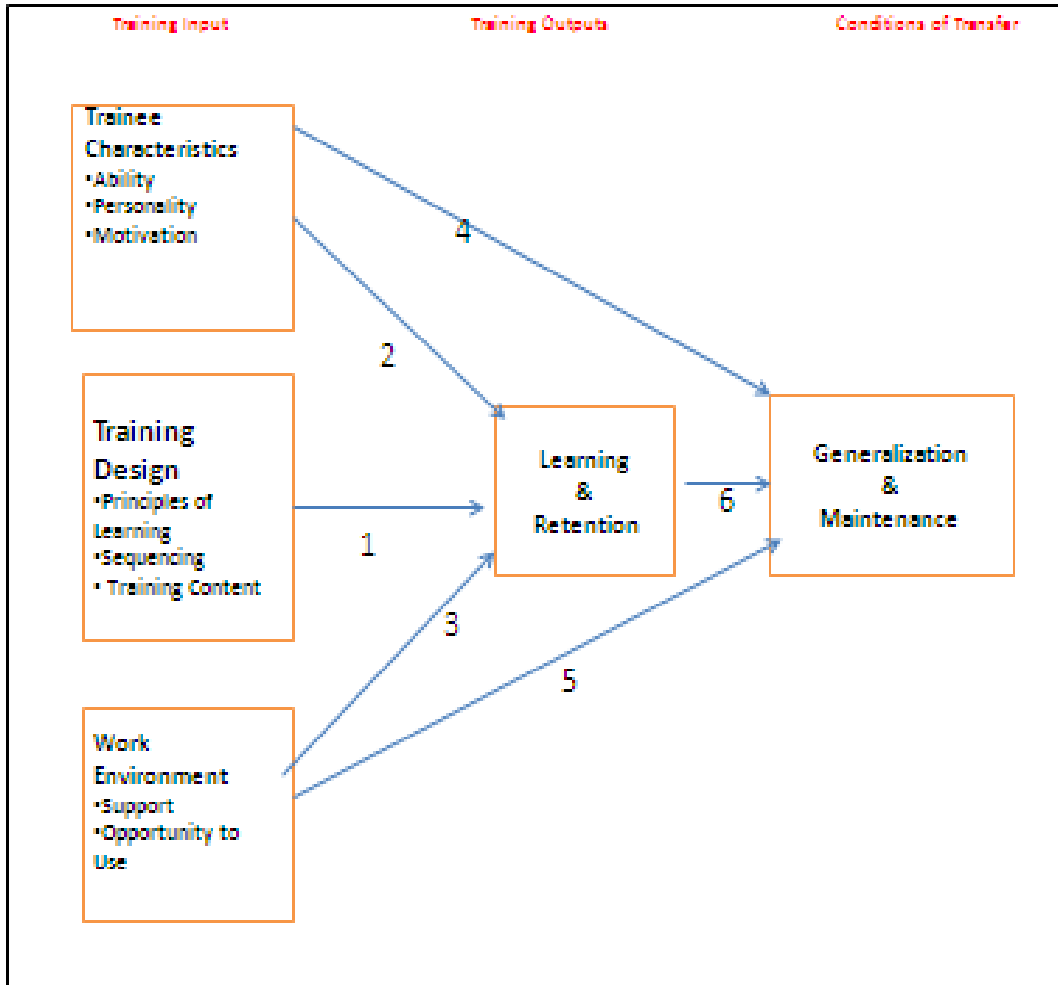
Figure 1: A Model of the Transfer Process. Adapted from Baldwin and Ford, 1988

Regarding leadership programme inputs, some factors mentioned in the model affect every

construct. Trainee characteristics involve several important aspects: the trainee's personality,

abilities, motivation towards training, and skills. The factors included in the training design are

the main purpose of the training, the order of the entire programme, the methods used in

training, and the integration of learning ideologies. The work environment encompasses

factors such as the setting for the transfer process, social support of controllers and

colleagues, and opportunities to apply the learned behaviour and methods on the job (Baldwin

& Ford, 1988).

We can link this transfer of training model with the work environment factors discussed by

Rouillier and Goldstein (1993), in which the transfer situation or climate is defined in terms of

two classifications: one is situational cues and the other is consequences. Support for the manager, colleagues, and supervisors, the chances given to practise the learning on the job, and the accessibility of the tools needed for effective training are placed in the situational cues (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). In contrast, consequences encompass encouraging or discouraging responses from colleagues and supervisors when trainees attempt to practically employ their learning on the job; in other words, consequences include punishments (Burns, 1995; Laird, 1985).

The main purpose of Baldwin and Ford (1988) was to provide a critique of existing transfer research and to recommend directions for future research. Baldwin and Ford (1988) conducted almost 63 empirical tests from 1907 to 1987, providing detailed study and research on the main findings of the association of training input aspects and the transfer process. Therefore, Baldwin and Ford are considered pioneers of the efforts related to transfer of training. In contrast, similar to all models, some limitations and weak aspects exist. The model suggested some deductions to assist in attaining information; however, these inferences are not suitable for contemporary research. The information provided was from a short period and based on certain perceptions and single sources. Despite such limitations, only Baldwin and Ford provided a basis for the transfer of training and highlighted many other important aspects of training and learning.

Similar to Baldwin and Ford (1988), Foxon (1994) also provided a five-stage model, as cited by Russ-Eft and Preskill (2001), in which the five stages that explain the transfer process are affected by supporting and constraining factors, including intention to transfer (decision to apply learning); initiation of transfer (apply learning on the job); partial transfer (apply learning inconsistently); conscious maintenance of the transfer (chooses to apply); and unconscious maintenance of the transfer (unconsciously apply the learning) (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2009).

A few scholars (Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Noe & Ford, 1992; Tannenbaum & Yukl, Training and development in work Organisations, 1992) transcribed the updated reviews on the transfer of the training process to expand the work contributed by Baldwin and Ford (1988), and Ford

and Weissbein (1997) performed updated work. Cheng and Ho (2001) also reviewed the literature on the transfer of training, and further argued about the factors that affect the transfer process. According to Cheng and Ho (2001), there are four critical stages in the transfer of learning process that are attained from blending two models: one is training effectiveness, as outlined by Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1991), and the other is evaluation of training outcomes (Kirkpatrick D. , 1994).

As argued by Cheng and Ho (2001), the four stages in the transfer process are *pre-training motivation* (defined as the intentional struggle in the direction of learning the subject matter of the training programme), *learning* (defined as the process of becoming proficient in the subject matter being discussed in the training programme), *training performance* (defined as assessment of the degree to which the trainee has gained from the training programme), and *transfer outcomes* (achievements gained by the trainee and their practical application in the context of their jobs, which can be advantageous for both the organisation and the trainee). Examples are behavioural alteration, observed after-training behaviour, expected transfer of learning, skills continuance, job success, and so on.

In addition, some important factors affecting the transfer process were tested by Cheng and Ho (2001). Nine factors appear in three categories of variables, including individual variables, motivational variables, and environmental variables. The effect of these variables on the transfer process is discussed. The individual variables are mainly locus of control, as suggested by Tziner, Haccoun and Kadish (1991), and self-efficacy, as argued by Bandura (1997). Other individual factors, such as trainee characteristics (Baldwin & Ford, 1988), are found in the literature. The results indicate the positive impact of the individual factors, especially self-efficacy (Chiaburu & Douglas, 2008), on all stages of the transfer process (Cheng & Ho, 2001). The results regarding the motivational variables, including job behaviour, organisational commitment, trainee response towards training efforts, and after-training interventions, all affect the transfer process and determine trainee motivation towards the training programme, which is the most important aspect (Cheng & Ho, 2001). Other

environmental factors that affect the transfer process include learning culture, task limitations, and social support in the organisation. All of these identified factors affect the transfer process. Indeed, the transfer of learning, which is the main objective of the training programme, can be achieved by controlling these factors.

In addition, a number of similar factors affecting the transfer of learning are identified by Burke and Hutchins (2007), who evaluated the relationship of these factors with the transfer, including *learner characteristics*, *training design*, and *delivery*, as well as *environmental factors.* The findings suggest that some of the *learner characteristics* were strongly or moderately related to transfers, such as cognitive ability, self-efficacy (assessment of a person regarding his capability to do a specific task), motivation (a person's concentration, direction, and determination in the struggle to achieve a goal), negative affectivity, openness to experience, perceived utility of a programme, career planning, and organisational commitment. For *training design and delivery*, learning goals, content relevance, practice and feedback, behavioural modelling, and error-based examples have a strong effect on transfer. Moreover, for *environmental factors*, transfer climate, peer support, opportunity to perform, and supervisory support strongly affect the transfer. These factors are identified through the integration of a vast pool of literature, which shows that many are empirically supported (Burke & Hutchins, 2007).

Apart from the environmental factors, situational factors arguably have an effect on the transfer, as suggested by Cheramie and Simmering (2010), who tested these factors and found that transfer of learning is stronger with higher perceived accountability and low conscientiousness (disorganised employees), signifying the application of formal controls on leadership development programmes to increase learning. In line with this argument, the critical role of accountability is debated in the literature on the transfer of learning. Burke and Saks (2009) offered a theoretical model by implementing the pyramid of accountability by Schlenker (1997), which explains the transfer of training process that occurs because of accountability. The following figure shows three links in the pyramid. When these links are

strong, set prescriptions are suggested as being followed by the actors because they believe it is their responsibility to realise these prescriptions. Regarding accountability, Burke and Saks (2009) argued that these linkages in the pyramid suggest strategies to control the training outcomes that the organisation seeks.

A recent development in the literature in the area of the transfer of learning is the framework of transfer of learning as provided by Bhatti and Kaur (2010). This framework mainly focuses on the impact of individual factors and training design factors on the transfer of training. As the literature suggests, trainees' engagement with the training content can enhance the transfer of training and highlights the importance of factors, such as trainees' reaction to the programme, perceived content validity leading towards enhanced self-efficacy that further results in motivation to apply the learning, and finally to the transfer of training (Robotham, 2004). Regarding training design, Nikandrou et al. (2009) claimed that the overall planning and structure of the training has a significant impact on the transfer of learning and the overall success of the training programme. Additionally, 'Bhatti and Kaur (2010, p. 657)'stated that '…the goals and the extent of training, the training methods and means, as well as the training place and equipment, are important factors related to training programme planning. All these help employees transfer training to the workplace…'

The framework emphasises the effect of the training design on motivation and, thus, on the transfer of training. This framework can be linked to Baldwin and Ford (1988) because it focuses on trainee characteristics and the impact of transfer design on transfer motivation, leading towards the transfer of training. However, the framework lacks work environment factors which also affect the transfer. Bhatti and Kaur (2010) further contended that the perceived content validity has a multi-dimensional role in that a trainee who views the content according to the needs of his or her job increases efficacy and motivation. However, this framework can be criticised on the basis of empirical validity because it arguably lacks the empirical evidence of these effects. Therefore, to confirm the validity of this model, one has to test it empirically. Interestingly, motivational impact on the transfer process was relatively

recently tested empirically by Hussain (2011) and Bhatti et al. (2014) and was found to have a positive relationship. Additionally, an integrated model presented by Gegenfurtner et al. (2009) found precursors, associates, and consequences of motivation to transfer by reviewing a large body of literature.

The model highlighted the individual, training-related, and organisational factors affecting the motivation to transfer and argued for the importance of attributes or behaviour before, during, and after the training programme. The basics of this model can be found in Ford and Baldwin (1988), who associate the individual, training-related, and organisational factors with training input factors, such as trainee characteristics, design, and work environment, respectively. However, the model emphasises the training period (pre, during, and post training). Again, the motivation to transfer is placed between training inputs and transfer of training, indicating its mediating role. More recently, motivation for transfer has been argued to play a crucial and mediating role between trainee characteristics and transfer of training in the transfer process (Grohmann et al., 2014). The recognition of this association (motivation–transfer) is highly important for successful transfer of training and, as Grohmann et al. (2014) argued, understanding the parameters of motivation in the transfer process could result in developing better instruments for the transfer of training.

Nikandrou et al. (2009) also argued that the most important factors affecting the transfer of learning are trainee perceptions, which are central to the trainee context. However, organisational factors also have their effects. In contrast to these arguments, Homklin et al. (2014) argued that social support or the support of colleagues leads to a stronger transfer of training. The organisational factors suggested by Gegenfurtner et al. (2009) include social support from both colleagues and management. However, Homklin et al. (2014) found that managerial support had no noticeable effect on the transfer of training. Nevertheless, arguably, to improve the transfer of training, it is crucial to develop a culture in which colleagues' support is increased.

Another systematic model that emphasises trainee characteristics is provided by Nikandrou et al. (2009), and is another form of the model in Ford and Baldwin (1988). Whereas this comprehensive model suggests that trainee perception affects the goals determined by motivation to learn and transfer of learning, it arguably further suggests that the transfer affects the organisation's performance. Transfer of training positively affects performance, as argued by Saks and Burke-Smalley (2014), who also claimed that such a transfer plays a mediating role among training mechanisms and organisational performance. Significant organisational consequences are suggested as being achieved by conducting development programmes and applying approaches to enable and strengthen the transfer.

Adding to the literature, Locht et al. (2013) tested the effect of identical elements defined as '…aspects resembling participants' work situation…' (p. 422), motivation to learn, and expected utility on the transfer of learning. They argued that these three factors affect the transfer in a unique way, in which identical elements and expected utility are directly related to transfers, whereas the motivation to learn acts as a mediator between these relations. For these reasons, it is suggested that training organisations must focus on identical elements to enhance the outcomes of the transfer. Additionally, according to 'Johnson et al. (2012),', the empirical evidence found that leaders involved in setting goals for behavioural changes enhanced their behaviour more than those who are not involved, signifying that an important predictor of transfer of learning is the goal-setting performed by leaders.

Moreover, Leimbach (2010) reviewed 32 studies on the transfer of learning process and its effectiveness on organisations' performance. Three broad categories emerged in which all transfer process activities could be grouped according to their impact. The model has its foundation in the model by Baldwin and Ford (1988).

Learner readiness is the first category (associated with trainee characteristics in the model of Baldwin and Ford (1988)), in which trainees are motivated to learn or are prepared for the programme and believe that if their career goals are aligned with the programme, their self-efficacy and analysis of skill criteria will increase. Learning transfer design (associated with the

training design) includes practice and modelling activities to enhance the transfer, and applies this learning to specific jobs. Organisational alignment, linked to the work environment factors from Baldwin and Ford (1988), includes the guarantee of managerial and peer support, activities for aligning the learning to specific jobs, and the promotion of a learning culture. Leimbach (2010)' argued that every category with transfer activities has an effect on organisational performance. Although few organisations demonstrated noticeable changes after the training programme, the results can be significantly improved if all of the learning techniques are employed in the training programme, as suggested by Leimbach (2010).

Regarding organisational learning and the evaluation of transfer of learning, Griffin (2001) provided a workplace learning conceptual model and learning evaluation framework based on contemporary research on the transfer of learning and programme theory. He further argued that for better evaluation of learning, one has to gain insights into the transfer process, and the evaluation framework must be built on the basis of this process. The workplace learning model and evaluation framework is a detailed framework through which the learning process (from pre-learning, learning trigger and need, learning event, application, and impact of learning) is linked with the evaluation criteria, and examples of measures related to each criterion are also given. Evaluation design is viewed as being developed in the second stage of the learning process and is key to an effective evaluation. In the literature, evaluation design is suggested as needing to start in the early stages rather than after the training programme (Jaidev & Chirayath, 2012; Griffin, 2011). In additional, Russ-Eft and Preskill (2009) argued that to evaluate the transfer of learning, the process should begin by evaluating trainee reactions, trainee learning, and trainee transfer (extent of application), followed by the transfer results.

One postulation to make is that most of the literature has concentrated on detecting and evaluating the intensity of the factors related to the transfer process rather than measuring what has actually been transferred by the training programme. In this regard, Culpin et al. (2014) attempted to evaluate the transfer of learning after the implementation of a leadership development programme. Culpin et al. (2104) proposed that the transfer of learning depends

on practical mechanisms or learning materials that foster a change in attitude, where the learning material in the leadership development programme follows four fundamental philosophies: effective engagement, partial previous knowledge, strong application of learning in an organisation, and opportunity given to employees to recurrently practise learning. To enhance the transfer in leadership development programmes, organisations must focus on the learning material types and their four principles (Culpin et., 2014), as previously discussed.

Transfer of learning has been a topic of debate since the 1940s, whenever organisations are searching for ways to gain positive transfer of training (Schneider, 2014). For an effective transfer of learning, developing a learning culture that plays a supporting role for trainees is needed, and organisations must focus on supporting factors and control inhibiting factors. According to Schneider (2014), the evaluation of learning is highly significant because the transfer of learning is a key solution to many management issues.

2.4 Chapter Conclusion

Section 2.1 addressed the concept that evaluating outcomes of leadership development programmes is difficult and the concept of evaluating the different methods, models, and approaches for LDP in creating better leaders to meet future challenges.

Section 2.2 addressed the concept that any evaluation must be posited in a conceptual model which is appreciative of the various characteristics peculiar to each training intervention and transfer destination and that are reflected in learning and performance outcomes within an ROE context. This continues to be a complex, confusing, and variable landscape, beset with differential practices that are often unsuited to the task. Defining a transfer evaluation framework informed by valid research and appropriate for practice and which organisations can contextualise and map to their stated outcomes and training goals remains elusive. Since Baldwin and Ford (1988), studies on the transfer of training and the related empirical modelling have continued to mature towards a transfer methodology and evaluation framework (Ford & Weissbein, 1997).

Chapter 3 The Conceptual Model

Leadership development is a critical activity within organisational settings, and having a goal when designing a leadership programme is essential. Hence, regarding the present study, strategic plans must be structured to enable future alignment of a firm's individual business development and HR policies, whilst simultaneously being synchronised with the Omanisation challenges associated with corporation strategy.

Methods should be explored that enable assessments of leadership development. Although interventions and theories of leadership development are rare in the literature (Avolio et al., 2010), deconstructing some frameworks and models that have contributed to the assessment of leadership development per se has been important (Tamkin and Denvir, 2006; MacPhee et al., 2012; Clarke et al., 2008). For instance, how the overlaying of structural empowerment onto the model of Tamkin and Denvir (2006) revealed the HR context as being enriched was noted.

The programme design was defined through the premise of effective leadership. MacPhee et al. (2012) implied that, although substantial funds are being spent by organisations around the world, a systematic analysis of the effective leadership development components would suggest that types of leadership development programmes are often driven by fads and vendor hype, rather than being evidence-based (MacPhee et al., 2012). Reportedly, competency frameworks remain narrowly focused and omit complex and evolving landscapes (Bolden and Gosling, 2006). Some may assert that leadership competencies are universal, but empirical studies on effective 'leadership competencies among leaders who have global responsibilities' (Tompson and Tompson, 2013: p.70) are lacking.

However, the process has faced significant criticism for its underlying instructional approaches. A recent focus on more contextualised development strategies has emerged (Boyce et al., 2010). Connections have been noted from past literature among leadership development, strategic planning, and organisational change (Gold et al., 2010). Moreover, there are calls to extend the narrow focus of leadership development in which HR departments establish

training needs that render recipients as passive (Reichard and Johnson, 2011) to a model in which the role of HR is inextricably focused on self-development beyond the confines of specific training and development programmes (Reichard and Johnson, 2011).

The analysis of the scope of leadership development programmes was undertaken to ascertain whether they mainly focus on candidates and training interventions internal to an organisation or on external ones as well. This was important because the Omanisation policy seeks to increase national citizen participation in the workforce to ensure that effective HRM strategies are enacted. Thus, leadership development programmes were explored within the macro-level context of globalisation and the micro-level context of programme design and evaluation. The literature points to more narrow assumptions of talent management being closely associated with the development of senior and line managers (Guerci and Solari, 2012), rather than HR being focused on the inclusion of all staff in developmental activities. The climate and culture for effective leaders to flourish must be instigated to reduce or remove the risk of failure, and organisations must embrace an inclusive model that encompasses all management tiers (Avolio et al., 2010). However, a blend of inclusive and exclusive approaches can help bypass concerns about how valuable some employees are relative to others (Stahl et al., 2012).

At the heart of this study is the task of ascertaining how leaders are developed for senior positions. The expected outcome of strategic investments in leadership development programmes is of interest and the ramifications for leadership development and practice are notable because the objective is to increase the quality and quantity of leaders in Oman. It is anticipated that the private sector of Oman may be impacted by a more distributed and shared model of leadership which emerges as a consequence of strategic investments in leadership development. The ramifications of the shift from individualised to collective, situated, and distributed forms of leadership must continue to be investigated (Dhillon, 2013), but they remain under-researched. A clear need exists to build on the limited number of empirical studies on the private sector of the Middle East (Khan and Almoharby, 2007; Moideenkutty et

al., 2011) and to focus on leadership practice and the development of senior leaders in such complex cultural environments. Considering the growing interest in leadership practice (Spillane et al., 2004; Posner, 2013), interest in leadership encompasses the traditional view and has moved on to a specific interest in the roles, activities, responsibilities, purpose, daily functions, and correlated exchanges that occur in situ (Ely et al., 2010). Leadership practice entails a product or outcome of dynamic collaboration or multi-party exchanges of leaders and other key stakeholders enmeshed in dynamic and evolving activity systems (Collins et al., 2002; Bedny and Harris, 2005; Engeström, 1987) that utilise and are governed by a range of tools – both abstract and physical – including customs, norms, routines, procedures, and rules (Harris, 2008; Jones et al., 2010). This heralds a seismic shift in thinking from the traditional leader towards the comprehension of a dynamic, complex, overlapping, and multi-faceted network of leaders, potential leaders, and followers and their specific organisational situations, which has resulted in the notion of leadership practice (Gronn, 2009; Ferlie et al., 2012). Shifting from individualised leadership to networks of leaders has the potential to provide peer-based maintenance and support that creates opportunities for growth and development and taking unpredictable routes and innovative approaches to problem solving (Plastrik and Taylor, 2006). However, Allio (2009, p. 9) noted, 'Organizations seem to perversely select and retain leaders who are not up to the task. They lack either competence or character or both. Bhatnagar (2007) noted how the identification of high-aptitude people is a global issue, with ramifications for companies across most regions of the world.

This research project and its governing conceptual (research) model (Figure 2) are embedded/situated in the broader context of the Sultanate's private sector as one of the basic pillars of development in:

• Its implications for private sector organisations;

• The challenges, opportunities, and support that it offers to these private organisations; and

- The strategies, methods, and processes that these organisations might deploy to implement and benefit from economic development.

In particular, the devised conceptual (research) model seeks to provide guidance for the conduct of fieldwork, which is aimed at gaining ethnographic insights into holistic leadership development efforts (e.g. leadership development programmes, training interventions) that private sector organisations may develop, implement, and subsequently evaluate in their quest to produce leadership development programme designs that provide the best fit between Oman's national economic development and their own business and organisational development strategies (referring to corporate leadership development).

For the time being, the model is designed to provide the greatest clarity when deriving suitable interview questions based on evidence from the supporting literature for each concept, and when analysing the data in response to the two guiding questions relevant to the thesis.

The Strategic Question for this study has been defined as follows:

RQ: **'How can the Omani private sector develop effective leaders for senior positions?'**

The objective of the research question is to provide an understanding of how to develop effective leaders for Oman's private sector.

Achieving this objective includes examining the process of defining the skillsets and knowledge base needed by future leaders to be aligned with the business strategy, and occurs in parallel with the approach of leadership {Question RQ}. It follows naturally that a skills gap analysis process is a building block of any sensible leadership solution.

Thus, early identification of the skills gap becomes crucial. On the lower tier, skills gap analysis identifies organisational-wide skills gaps that need to be addressed. On the upper tier, the additional (hard and soft) skills that future leaders must possess are identified, assessed, and satisfied through either internal or external (to the organisation) skills development interventions. Given the wealth of practitioner studies on leadership development

programmes, their main concepts and applicability to the Omani setting are reviewed and assessed. Scope and inclusion are two fundamental elements in this respect. For example, what is the scope of a leadership development programme? Do the programmes focus only on candidates and training interventions internal to the organisation or also on external ones? Would only certain high-potential candidates benefit from leadership development programmes, or all staff? Is the priority to develop a learning, knowledge-based organisation, or is the aim to separate individuals and disproportionally support their skills development? Here, the focus is on the evaluation of individuals' skills acquisition trajectory through structured or unstructured job assignments and reflections. What is the process of 'graduating' from a leadership development programme? Will everyone be promoted or could candidates be demoted?

In this context, the roles of HR/personnel departments and the aforementioned external 'training providers' are examined.

Hence, this study seeks to explore the design, practices, and preconditions for effective leadership programmes. Effectiveness reflects the extent to which an organisation might realise its goals (Zheng et al., 2010) by investing in leadership development solutions. The perspective from which an evaluation of leadership solutions is conducted matters and needs to be stated. Is the leadership development programme evaluated from the perspective of the individual benefactor, the future leader candidate, the firm's bottom line, or its contribution to realising Oman's Vision 2020? Recent studies on the evaluation of leadership development focused on the importance of transcending conventional attention to standard underpinnings of training and development evaluation practices, and on recognising the notion of open systems that have emergent and unknown properties (Chessbrough, 2006). This first requires an open and flexible culture and suitable conditions for innovation to flow.

Conceptual Model 1 has been developed as follows:
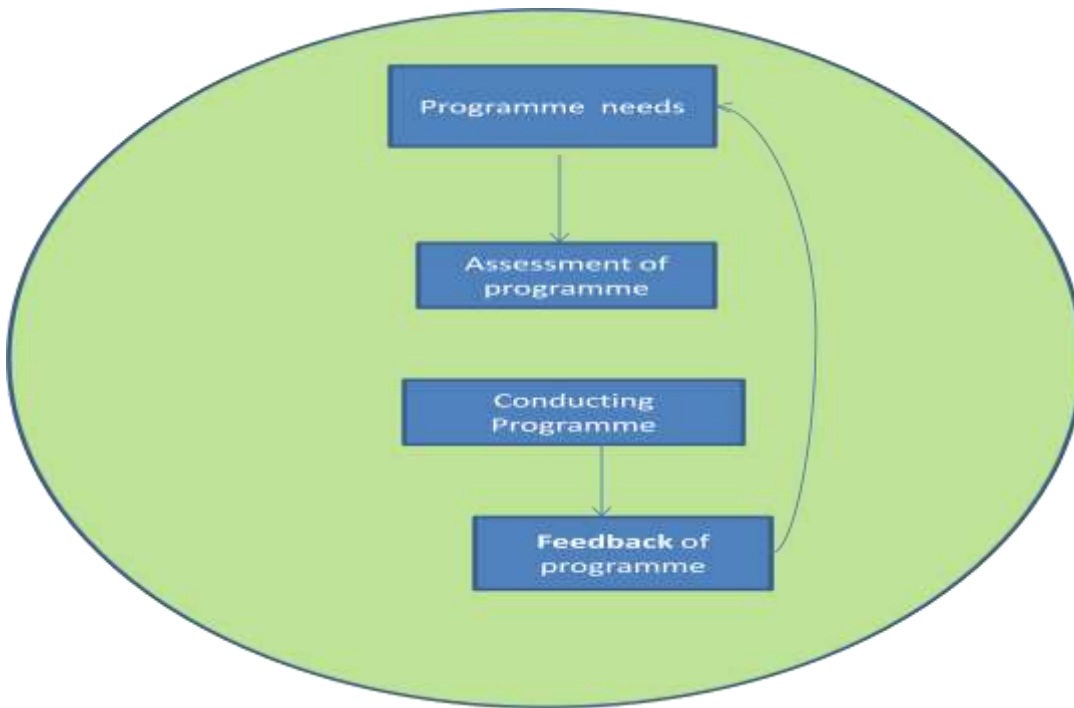
Figure 2 Initial Conceptual Model (Alsawai, 2016)

Conceptual Model 2 has been developed as follows:

Corporation Leadership Development

Developing Leadership talent
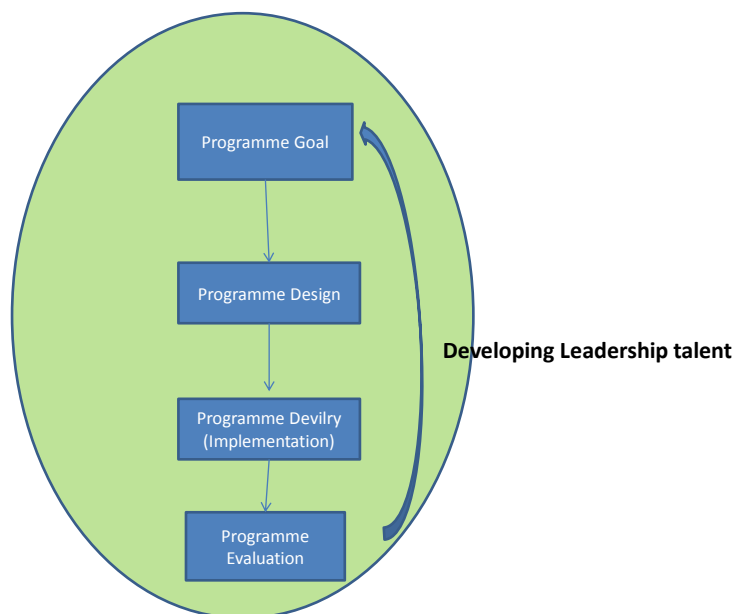
Figure 3 Final Conceptual Model (Alsawai, 2016)

Private sector organisations seek to develop suitable (corporate) leadership development

programme strategies to turn young Omani graduates into future business leaders. The key to

the success of these leadership development strategies is to view their content as strategic investments that aim to establish a culture of accountability, responsibility, and empowerment, as much as trust and career progression prospects.

On the corporate side, the assessment of leadership raises questions concerning an organisation's stance on whether leadership is an imminent trait or an acquirable skill. What defines effective leadership? Is its role related to hard skills or soft skills? Is the organisation looking only at formal leadership or also at informal leadership and on a domestic or an international level? What roles do peer feedback and self-development play?

When an organisation has established suitable answers to and directions for these themes, leadership development is then concerned with the artefacts that organisations have devised (leadership development design) to implement their company-specific and staff-centric set of leadership development interventions (e.g. Skills Gap Analysis, Scope of Intervention Inclusion).

Chapter 4 Research Methodology

The conceptual model in Chapter 3 acted as a navigating tool when conducting the fieldwork, which is aimed at ascertaining insights into the leadership development programme efforts that policymakers may devise, implement, and subsequently evaluate. The lack of empirical evidence from Oman advocates the use of grounded theory-based knowledge creation procedures that have proven to be most effective in applied leadership development research projects elsewhere (Kempster and Parry, 2011). The grounded theory approach is becoming increasingly popular among management scholars (Corley, 2015; Suddaby, 2006; Walsh et al., 2015). Recently, Wilhelmy, Kleinmann, König, Melchers and Truxillo (2016) used a grounded theory approach to examine how interviewers use impression management in the context of the job interview. Grounded theory is becoming more accepted even at journals that are viewed as almost exclusively quantitatively focused, such as the Journal of Applied Psychology (e.g. Wilhelmy et al., 2016) and Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes (e.g. Treviño, den Nieuwenboer, Kreiner and Bishop, 2014). For example, Hammond, Lester and Clapp-Smith (2017) applied grounded theory to develop leadership programmes for all ages. In addition, Hallinger, Hallinger and Walker (2017) used grounded theory to understand leadership principles in Vietnam. Thus, grounded theory was chosen to address the central research question because additional questions pertain to the implementation of a national policy for leadership development in the private sector and an evaluation process in Oman

This heavily involved research practice is based on live interviews in the field, thus giving a realistic voice to the situation under research. As a result, the findings will be detailed and any leadership development solution will perhaps have a better fit with organisational needs.

4.1 Ontology and Epistemology

Management research encompasses a multi-layered structure – in a temperate sense – including ontology, epistemology, methodology, methods, and techniques (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). This research is contested on respective levels, with the hub (ontology) seen by observers as exerting the most influence on the direction of the debate and the researcher's

position on each respective viewpoint. Ontology reflects and underpins one's belief system and worldview, whereas the additional layers signify the realisation of one's belief into characteristics and specific actions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The key discussions and debates in management research reflect a spectrum of positions between the acute spheres of objectivity and subjectivity (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Tranfield and Starkey, 1998; Hassard, 1991) which govern how research topics are chosen and how research is designed (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012) and include notable contributions by observers such as Cunliffe (2011), who pointed to a subjectivist problematic stance as a method for greater sense-making and to gauge the multiple realities of interview respondents. They adhere to the premise that reality inter-subjectively emerges from mutual experiences and subsequent meaning made by humans across different contexts (Cole and Avison, 2007). Social constructivists believe that learning and human development are enacted through practical interaction or engagement with an objective world rather than acting as a predecessor to it (Vygotsky, 1978). Of core interest are the contextual and historical forms of user activity. Thornberg (2012) noted how modern perspectives of grounded theory originated through constructivist grounded theory and the pragmatist notion of abduction. A social constructivist ontological approach to grounded theory is adopted for this study (Charmaz, 2005) to understand the manner in which individual stakeholders within the confines of Oman's government construct an understanding of their life-world. Guba and Lincoln (2005) stated that constructivist epistemology views knowledge construction as a product emerging from researcher-participant interaction (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). The objective is to relay the interpretations from the data analysis back to national policymakers and stakeholders, and the level of transparency and extent to which it might ensure that this understanding is correct may contribute to a qualitative validity of the data. The social constructivist approach is quite similar to social constructionist[i] approaches because they acknowledge a plethora of worldviews and the compound, multi-faceted, and subjective nature of many realities, viewpoints, and interpretations within the process. For instance, this will be important when seeking to determine the type of influence that stakeholders exert on policymakers during the development of national strategies for

leadership development. Whereas social constructivism is similar to social constructionism in that groups of humans collaborate and co-produce artefacts, it is dissimilar given its focus on individualised learning and internal cognitive processes that occur as a consequence of human interactions (Ng, 2007). The ontological underpinning of my research is also somewhat related to internal realism (Putnam, 1977) because, in one respect, the truth about national strategy formulation and implementation in Oman's policy and decision-making centres invariably exists, and yet that truth is not particularly apparent. Embedded facts about notions of truth are not made explicit, which may explain the decision to make full use of the access to both key policy/decision makers and stakeholders for the purpose of understanding national strategy-making and implementation in the present pilot study. Understanding the actions of policymakers, stakeholders, and other key influencers and, later in the study, the experience of senior leaders in Oman's private sector, requires a more subjective undertaking that would not have been possible if the undertaken quantitative approach had been underpinned by a positivist epistemology, which remains the dominant focus within management research (Currall and Towler, 2003). Hence, the ontological worldview is largely subjectivist and to some extent inter-subjectivist, which implies that shared meanings are co-constructed by human interactions and used as a regular tool for making sense of socio-cultural phenomena (Cunliffe, 2011) rather than being objectivist, and that my epistemological stance is interpretive rather than positivist. The objective is to ascertain meaning and determine how it is co-produced through human relations within natural settings in Oman with the goal of illuminating such insights. This approach accounts for the unpredictability of national decision makers, who helped get close to the decision-making centre and, later, gauge the reality of organisational attempts to develop and implement LDPs, and develop senior leaders under national conditions. Therefore, the central research question requires a qualitative study of a cluster of senior Diwan personnel to determine the process for developing a leadership development policy, understand the decision-making process garnered to gain policy approval, illuminate the role and influence of stakeholders in the policymaking process, and gauge how Oman's private sector organisations implement leadership development. The fact that there are deep

policymaking unknowns requires a pragmatic constructivist and interpretive approach rather than a positivistic approach using hypotheses and a rigid research design, which would not have been feasible for this study.

4.2 Research Theory

Kuhn (1962; 1970) contributed immensely to the development of scientific knowledge by arguing that science-based fields experience episodic paradigm shifts rather than linear and incessant advancement. Within the context of these paradigm shifts, new insights emerge that perhaps would not have been previously considered legitimate. Burrell and Morgan (1979) proposed a 2 x 2 matrix to categorise and gauge current and existing sociological theories based on four major paradigms: the Functionalist Paradigm, Interpretive Paradigm, Radical Humanist Paradigm, and Radical Structuralist Paradigm. For instance, Burrell and Morgan (1979) highlighted the strained tensions among observers on contrasting planes between subjectivism and objectivism within the sociological perspective on radical change.

Researchers often encounter an academic community of extensively contrasting viewpoints, customs, and practices. However, in the organisational world, issues pertaining to pluralism, escalating intricacies, and problems of legitimacy present analogous challenges (Habermas, 1975). Ontological and epistemological judgements, together with an awareness of human values (axiology), how arguments are constructed (rhetoric), and the type of methods one should adopt and deploy, are also witnessed in the evolving spaces of scholarly and organisational communities, which increasingly require synergised rather than rigid approaches (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Creswell, 2013). Management researchers and practitioners increasingly seek to acquire experiential knowledge (Shah & Corley, 2006) beyond the traditional focus on positivism. Empiricism and positivism have traditionally been at the heart of research theory (Crotty, 1998). Those adhering to positivism and empiricism are of the opinion that one can collate information about the lived social world and categorise it for sense-making purposes. In a similar vein to the natural sciences, it was believed that a scientific body of knowledge could be gleaned to understand society and how it inherently

functions (Durkheim, 1897). Empiricism is a fundamental part of the scientific method and emanates from the belief that all knowledge must be evidence-based (Hjørland, 2005). Kołakowski (1972) noted how the theory of positivism, which is often – but not always – exclusively aligned with the quantitative research approach – as noted by Kennedy and Lingard (2006) – emerged from the works of Comte and is aligned with a four-point doctrine: 1) that all abstractions must be discounted; 2) that language fails to offer anything new or constructive to the current body of knowledge; 3) that facts must be distinct from values; and 4) that the natural scientific method should prevail (Kołakowski, 1972, cited in Goles and Hirschheim, 2000: p.251). Positivism has emerged as a force within the social sciences and is widely viewed as the foremost element of the policy research domain by the often single-minded observers who subscribe to its benefits (Proctor, 2005). Positivism has been criticised for being uncritical from a methodological standpoint by shying away from the application of mental/cognitive tools associated with thought and reasoning. Conversely, the interpretive paradigm has also been criticised as flawed, partly because of its often flaccid acceptance of viewpoints, whilst disregarding the underlying power structures and social forces that exist within such perspectives. Proctor (2005) noted how Kuhn (1962) pointed to the complexity of connecting these alternative research paradigms or comparing and contrasting the respective results that emerge. However, because researchers are able to place themselves within a particular paradigm, this is viewed as a requirement for undertaking research and should precede the choice and selection of research methods (Guba and Lincoln, 2005).

4.3 Methods of Enquiry

Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) suggested that clarity of the overarching research objective is essential before a particular method is considered. Subsequently, modality is informed by the research theory, and three modalities subsist. The first modality pertains to a natural-language data modality and encompasses methods, including interviews and focus groups; the second is an observation-based modality, including ethnographic methods; and the third is an interaction-derived modality which includes the use of visual aids, visual metaphors, and action research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). A case study method of enquiry might have (but

has not) been used (Yin, 2009) for this study because of the expediency of case studies for emerging and underdeveloped research areas in which a deep analysis of the social, cultural, and historical context and underlying social processes is required (Creswell, 2013; Taylor et al., 2011). Studies illustrated how qualitative research can also be undertaken following the non-traditional route of a pragmatist approach (Goldkuhl, 2012). A possible approach to this study of national strategies for developing senior leaders might, arguably, have been typified as existing within a critical pragmatic paradigm, which 'acknowledges the objective existence of constraining structures... [yet]... a person may adjust these realities partly by altering the source preferences' (Savolainen, 2009, p.39). Pragmatism is one of four meaningful knowledge claims in existence, along with positivist/post-positivism, constructivism, and advocacy/participatory approaches (Creswell, 2003). Pragmatism has been used in the past to underpin the use of grounded theory, and 'What [grounded theory] and pragmatism have in common is a concern with people's engagement with the world, reliant on detailed observation and insight, followed by never-ending and iterative efforts to comprehend, persuade and enhance' (Bryant, 2009, 68). Those adhering to and making pragmatist knowledge claims would also stipulate that knowledge is derived from forms of direct action (Creswell, 2003). Haig noted how 'grounded theory inquiry is portrayed as a problem-solving endeavour concerned with understanding action from the perspective of the human agent' (Haig, 1995: 45). From this perspective, observers would also be deeply interested in attempts to find supple and acceptable solutions *in situ* that are suitable for various stakeholders and enable one to find more pragmatic working solutions to problems (West and Davis, 2011). By adopting pragmatism, one can assume a more pluralistic approach to acquiring knowledge about the research problems (Creswell, 2003) of devising policies for leadership development and the development of senior leaders in rich cultural contexts. However, observation will play a limited role in the proceedings because of concerns that respondents may question the underlying motive for the act of observation. This subsequently amended my original intention of undertaking a deep observation of senior leaders' practices in Oman's private sector because of the risks inherent in a breakdown of trust. However, a limited form of observation

will be requested under stringent guidance, which is regrettable for a qualitative study – yet still feasible considering the sensitivities associated with undertaking research in the Middle East. However, the choice of a qualitative approach is still inextricably linked to research distance in terms of getting close to the research study in rich cultural contexts such as Oman. Hence, a constructivist grounded theoretical approach underpinned by a subtle form of pragmatism will be adopted: 'For pragmatists, developing ideas about the world is an activity which can never be completed; the focus is on knowing rather than knowledge. Thus researchers need to be aware of their own role and position in the activity of researching, and this brings in aspects such as positionality, orientation, diversity and reflexivity' (Bryant, 2009, 72).

Recent interest in mixed-methods research has emerged in an attempt to bridge the qualitative and quantitative divide (Johnson et al., 2007; Shah and Corley, 2006). Such support for mixed-methods research emanates from the complexity of research situations, which present multiple and overlapping questions that qualitative and quantitative research cannot address in isolation. The mixed-methods paper of Shah and Corley (2006) argued more persuasively for the strengths of a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach but saw value in both. From a grounded theory perspective, they inferred that the act of theory generation solidifies the qualitative over the quantitative approach (Shah and Corley, 2006). In conjunction with issues pertaining to competency gaps and paradigm clashes, they precluded the adoption of a quantitative or mixed-methods approach because the research is situated in single and naturalistic research settings. Hence, a quantitative element would not illuminate insights into questions that the researcher does not fully understand about strategic policymaking for leadership development in Omani private sector organisations or its subsequent implementation within private sector firms.

4.3.1 Research Design

This research seeks to construct an expressive and explanatory theory or understanding for the development of senior leaders/CEO in the Omani private sector by gauging the needs of future leaders. Grounded theory provides a research toolkit capable of supporting and

facilitating the analysis process (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Of interest in the choice of grounded theory are the reciprocal development of theory and the collation of additional rich data for in-depth analysis (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Orton, 1997; Locke, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Kempster & Parry, 2011). A limited empirical evidence base exists for strategic policymaking at the corporate level and its impact on senior leaders' development; hence, grounded theory is arguably a suitable fit for such a project because of its inductive underpinnings and because this study does not overtly rely on previous work in this area (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Much qualitative research is inductive and emergent, but constructivist grounded theory goes further than other approaches in two ways. First, as previously noted and subsequently explained, constructivist grounded theory systematically brings doubt into the analytical process. Second, using constructivist grounded theory means designing and fitting methodological strategies to explore what the researcher discovers along the way (Charmaz, 2014; Charmaz, Thornberg, & Keane, in press).

Perhaps a theoretical account will emerge from the data to fill the gap in the literature. Creswell (2013)' illuminated a variety of components associated with grounded theory, one particular component being associated with the interaction process amongst human subjects.

4.3.2 Data Collection

The empirical research was collected from private sector firms through semi-structured interviews (Goss & Leinbach,1996 ; Stein Wellner, 2003) with a mix of senior and operational management and frontline staff. This approach enabled the researcher to collect data and explore their contextual meanings associated with corporate strategy that makes for leadership development, understand how such development is implemented, and subsequently ascertain the development of senior leadership roles, understand tools, techniques, drivers, and barriers to leadership development, and comprehend the competencies, meta-competencies, and modus operandi within private organisational settings. This approach also helps the researcher relate the findings back to academic theory, Omani policy literature associated with the Vision 2020 agenda, and strategic objectives associated with national growth and development. Hinrichs and Newman (2013) explored the role of

senior leaders and provided deep insights into their life-worlds through rich narratives and observed tensions, culminating in a 'deeper knowledge … for the importance of supporting leader/managers to develop cultural adaptability competence' (p. 66). Hence, semi-structured interview tools with national respondents in the present study were complementary, enabling a series of themes and questions to be explored and facilitating probing to unearth richer insights (Saunders et al., 2009).

Charmaz (2006) proposed an eight-stage process of dealing with and analysing empirical data, which was used as a guide. The stages involve initial coding, focused coding, early memo writing using focused codes, advanced memo writing, theoretical sampling, saturation, and ordering memos to discover emerging arguments. Table 5 depicts the deployed process.
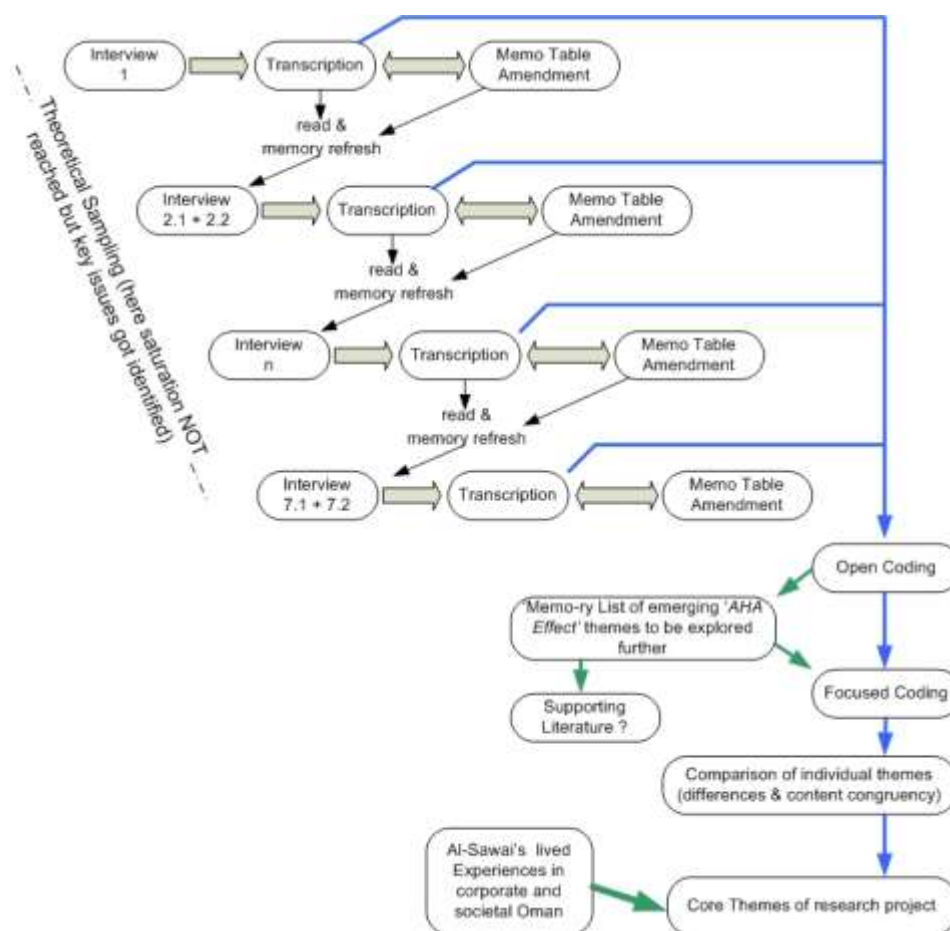
Figure 4 Charmaz (2006) adopted process of handling data

Figure 4 communicates the importance of memos. The memo table serves a dual purpose, providing: (1) an intra-transcript summary and (2) an appropriate location for noting down the researcher's personal views and experiences that were triggered by the various summaries.

The process starts with initial coding before moving to focused coding, involving extended reflections separated by space and time and how this triggered the memo writing process.

4.4 Data Analysis Procedures

4.4.1 Coding

Users of grounded theory methods specifically attune themselves to certain core characteristics, such as 'theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, treatment of the literature, constant comparative methods, coding, the meaning of verification, identifying the core category [and] memoing...' (Mills et al., 2008, p.3). From a coding standpoint, grounded theory commonly consists of three significant stages: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (discussed in endnote). Strauss and Corbin (1998) argued that 'the tools for increasing theoretical sensitivity and coding processes need to be used with a degree of flexibility and creativity—an approach that is reflective of their constructivist intent' (Mills et al., 2008, p.6).

However, it is important to note that the chronology aspect is perhaps more critical in the case study approach (which I am not undertaking). To a degree, I had to refer to more than one data source to corroborate the correct sequence of events. Grounded theory was used to analyse the interviews. Underpinning the choice of grounded theory is its ability to focus on the process rather than just the categories and themes and yet connect concepts and themes, undertake a form of refinement of concepts and themes, and identify further evidence on the phenomenon under investigation in a reciprocal manner. Hence, the use of coding is one step in the process of ensuring that essence emerges from which novel developments might ensue (Charmaz, 2005) because the idea is to 'focus on the data and the possibilities for meaning that can be constructed from them' (Mills et al., 2008 ,p. 6). The analysis process was articulated as follows: 'On the part of the researcher, creative and solid data analysis requires astute questioning, a relentless search for answers, active observation, and accurate recall. It

is a process of fitting data together, of making the invisible obvious, and of linking and attributing consequences to antecedents. It is a process of conjecture and verification, of correction and modification, or suggestion and defence' (Morse & Field, 1995, pp. 125-126, in Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p.195). For analysis purposes, the researcher looked at the parts and attempted to develop a deeper understanding of the whole (Charmaz, 2005), as opposed to undertaking a narrative analysis, which would first looked at the whole and then explore the parts (Pentland, 1999). Both may feasibly arrive at similar findings, but start from different vantage points. For the present study, qualitative tools and techniques enabled the researcher to gather collective testimonies and narratives of the phenomenon under study, i.e. corporate strategic decision making for leadership development (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Thornberg '2012, p. 243'oted how, 'In contrast to the classic GT tradition, but in accordance with the constructivist GT tradition, an informed grounded theorist sees the advantage of using pre-existing theories and research findings in the substantive field in a sensitive, creative and flexible way instead of seeing them as obstacles and threats. Informed GT has its roots in constructivist GT and the pragmatist idea of abduction, and hence fits in very well with constructivist GT'. Based on the perspective of 'Charmaz (2005)'the researcher is essentially a co-producer of knowledge, and how the researcher treats data and the richness of the analytical outcomes are the underpinnings of constructivist grounded theory.

4.4.2 Grounded Theory: Three Significant Stages

Grounded theory consists of three significant stages, beginning with an initial stage of open coding which entails data being effectively concentrated (broken down), explored, and compared before being categorised (Bryman, 2008). At this stage, both concepts and categories have yet to be created. The emerging concepts form the codes for which the act of axial coding is undertaken. The collated and assessed data are amalgamated in novel ways through links made between different and sometimes overlapping categories. The final stage of the process is when a selective form of coding is made. Here, the (core) category is identified, 'around which all other categories are integrated' (Bryman, 2008, p.543). Perhaps a central category is selected as the core category around which all other categories can be

incorporated and integrated. In effect, any outstanding category can be related back to this key issue. Thus, grounded theory can be used as both a product and a method of enquiry, and has more recently been used in ways beyond the traditional objectivist confines and narrow assumptions associated with its early formation (Charmaz, 2005). Creswell (2007) pointed to two key types of tools and techniques associated with grounded theory: systematic design (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) and the noted budding, constructivist approach (Charmaz, 2005). The systematic design form requires the research driver to develop, in a rigorous manner, a theory that articulates the process of a topic or perhaps an action or form of interaction (Creswell, 2007). Field data are used to effectively saturate the categories that emerge or to seek further information that contributes to the current data set until nothing new can be found. This has been referred to in terms of a give-and-take process of data collection and analysis, and a constant comparative method was adopted when unsullied data are evaluated against emerging categories (Creswell, 2007). Creswell refers to the utilisation by Charmaz (2005) of a more constructivist methodological approach which is situated within an interpretive paradigm and which contrasts with, for instance, the work of Strauss and Corbin (1998) that '[argued for] the study of a single process or core category' (Creswell, 2007, p. 65). The previous conventional, somewhat positivistic and objective presumptions of grounded theory, which argue that literature and theory should not influence the development of the concepts and themes that emerge from the data (Rubin and Rubin, 2005), are at odds with the present study because the researcher believes that the current literature base has a part to play in the process. This contemporary stance should pave the way for an element of structure whilst also adhering to the flexible attributes of grounded theory which seek to let the data converse, from which core categories emerge as they become more snugly defined.

4.4.3 Theoretical Sampling

The use of emergent categories provides the foundation for theoretical sampling, which in itself differs from other forms of qualitative research studies. Grounded theory proponents take a holistic approach by considering all plausible theoretical understandings of the collated data and creating subtle interpretations before re-entering the field to collate more data and

readjust their categories (Charmaz, 2013). Hence, the abductive rather than inductive or deductive nature of grounded theory is adopted, which seeks 'to imagine all possible hypothetical accounts to explain surprising findings and then subjecting these hypothetical accounts to test. Abductive logic involves both imaginative interpretation and reasoning about experience, both of which grounded theorists invoke when they check and refine their categories' (Charmaz, 2013, p.167).

4.4.4 Memo Writing

At the suggestion of Charmaz (2013), memo writing has been created 'to capture ideas in process and in progress' (p. 166) because the process of writing and storing memos provides a scaffold to aid the search for the analysis and development of ideas. I will be learning and digesting rather than merely summarising materials, and 'through this writing, the grounded theorist's ideas emerge as discoveries unfold' (p. 166). Hence, a form of creative writing ensued as I attempted to make sense of the world in conjunction with the participants. Please refer to appendix B.

4.4.5 Representation

Establishing the unique authority of the researcher is achieved by clearly presenting his or her involvement in the data collection process. Miles and Huberman (1984 in Krefting, 1991, p. 220) proposed four criteria to establish the trustworthiness of the researcher as a measurement tool:

1.   Familiarity of the research topic and phenomenon being studied;

2.   Capability of conceptualising large data supported by strong theoretical knowledge;

3.   Capability of applying multi-faceted investigation of the research subjects; and

4.   Strong research presentation skills through the literature review and academic training and education.

The researcher believes that strength in all four facets has helped ensure strong trustworthiness.

4.4.6 Access

For this study, access was granted to 12 CEOs from the private sector of Oman who had attended a CEO programme. Three were female and nine were male. Please refer to appendix H for people/originations selected for interview.

4.4.7 Ethical Consideration

The research has been obtained ethical approval from University (please refer to appendix E and every participate has been provided information sheet (please refer to appendix F) and constant form (please refer to appendix D).

4.4.8 Limitations: Issues of Generalisability

For cultural reasons, it may be difficult to generalise from the findings of the research given the unique context of Oman's private sector organisations' strategic decision makers and policymakers, and private sector respondents, because of the subjective essence of political decision making, the complexity of leadership development, and, later, the subsequent strategies employed by private sector firms to develop senior leaders. This harks back to observers who cautioned that researchers should consider whether they are persuaded that the research findings are of sufficient robustness to develop policy or legislation on the basis of their outcomes (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). A reversion to conservative perspectives of the social sciences is notable through policymakers' preference for quantifiable and statistically generalisable research, within which 'High ranking decision-makers—in powerful governmental, funding, and institutional review board positions— are often unprepared and unable to appropriately evaluate qualitative analyses that feature ethnography, case study, and naturalistic data' (Lather, 2004, in Tracy, 2010, p. 838). Conversely, the research sees value in the adoption of qualitative methods through constructivist grounded theory underpinned by pragmatism because a conservative approach would stifle the researcher's ability to unearth rich findings in such a complex sociocultural region.

4.4.8 Research Design in the Context of Conceptual Framework and Methodological Position

From a research design standpoint, the researcher sought to ensure that consistency and coherency with the conceptual framework and methodological position are evident and cogently stipulated. The objective was to ensure that the research design might realistically address the central research questions in the allocated study timeframe, that it was relevant to the problems related to the lack of empirical knowledge on corporate strategic decision-making processes for leadership development and how leadership development is enacted within Oman's private sector organisations, and that a clearly justified research design was provided to enable optimum outcomes to emerge. The conceptual framework exists as the central theme, focus, and main driver of the study, and such frameworks have guided qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods research (Greene et al., 1989). The framework serves as a guide to conducting the investigation by framing the research instruments. The choice of methods underpinned by constructivist grounded theory was intended to address the research questions because there were matters of which the researcher had little knowledge and which the researcher hopes to reveal through this study of subjects in private firms in Oman. Underpinning this research, a study of the corporate policymaking process and its impact on senior leaders' development, and the inherent interactions in the unique cultural landscape of Oman, renders constructivist grounded theory suitable for such an endeavour. The research practice embedded within the grounded theory approach is initiated by an exploration of a contextual and detailed object, which was to assist the researcher in ascertaining the type and form of approach that would be of interest for deeper exploration. This may culminate in the construction of fundamental accounts or emergent findings regarding the development of senior leaders in Oman's private sector.

4.5 **Data Method**

Three methods are found to be most appropriate for the type of research in this thesis: interviews/repeated interviews, observations, and document analysis. Attendees of The National CEO Program from the private sector (programme participants) were selected from

private organisations in Oman. Data were collected from 12 interviews and five repeated interviews for verification and to assure credibility of the responses and the observations (Guba 1981, Hammersley /Atkinson 1983; Kirk/Miller 1986: Johnson 1975). The investigation uses the semi-structured interview as the main data gathering mechanism.

Therefore, understanding the lived experience of senior leaders in Oman's private sector requires a more subjective undertaking that would not be possible had a quantitative approach underpinned by a positivist epistemology been adopted, which remains the dominant focus in management research (Currall and Towler, 2003).

The adoption of a constructivist grounded-theory approach acknowledges the plethora of realities that exist and, more importantly, how meaning is co-produced through a myriad of social liaisons in rich contexts. Hence, the researcher's role entailed acting as a bridge to the theory grounded in the emergent data. This theory itself exists in flux and, hence, evolves as new insights and interpretations come to the fore after periods of reflection (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). A complex blend of these phenomena allows the co-production of meaning to enable a viable and pertinent theory to surface from the ashes (on the basis of our joint experiences and where knowledge was co-developed). This relates to research which focuses on both the 'knowing how' in conjunction with the 'knowing what' (Tranfield and Starkey, 1998) and, regarding unearthing the former, one must have a foot in both theory and practice. A robust theoretical explanation hopefully appears – one based on our lived experiences of the private sector in Oman in general (Charmaz, 2013).

This mutual voyage enables insights related to national strategies for private sector development to emerge and solidify. However, the initial evaluation implies (albeit at a face-level) that there is no national strategy for LD in the private sector, although fertile ground exists for opportunities to develop.

4.6 Data Collection

We drew on several research methods, most notably semi-structured interviews, observations, and a range of informal discussions with programme participants, those who managed and

designed the NCP programme, and other key stakeholders. This approach enabled data collection and an exploration of their contextual meanings associated with leadership development. The approach also reflects an attempt to understand how transfer of learning occurs and then later to ascertain the development of senior leadership roles to understand the tools, techniques, and drivers of learning and modes of operandi within private organisational settings. Barriers to these elements and relating the findings back to academic theory, to Oman policy literature associated with the Vision 2020 agenda, and to strategic objectives associated with national growth and development are also studied. One decision was to have management of the NCP programme inform participants about the research objectives, although these were not clearly translated to some respondents and the researcher had to explain the researcher role in research. Being a local Omani helped reduce tensions because the researcher was able to converse in the language of the participants.

Hinrichs and Newman (2013) explored the role of senior leaders and provided deep insights into their worlds through rich narratives and observed tensions which culminated in a 'deeper knowledge… for the importance of supporting leader/managers to develop cultural adaptability competence' (p. 66). Hence, in the present study, the research methods adopted for use with national respondents complement the next stage's focus group interviews with private sector respondents to ascertain transfer of learning. This transfer of learning was enabled through a series of themes and questions to be explored and by facilitating probes to unearth richer insights (Saunders et al., 2009). The respondents for the present interview sets were chosen from a list of CEOs participating in the programme. The current nationally based interviews were conducted inter-personally and were underpinned by specific themes pertaining to strategic processes for stimulating leadership development at a national level. All interviews were recorded via audio technology after confidentiality was explained and participants were supportive of continuing. All interviews were transcribed verbatim and rich bodies of notes were recorded to indicate participant responses to each question. The central role of the researcher in the midst of the action is as both partaker and accomplice, and as someone who experiences the emerging reality in all of its complexity. This occurred through deep and

meaningful informal conversations in which codes and themes were discussed with

respondents in light of the literature base, thus leading to new meanings being developed.

Participant Code	Title	Date of Interview
Interview A	CEO 1	23/03/2016
Interview B	CEO 2	28/03/2016
Interview C	CEO 3	02/04/2016
Interview D	CEO 4	10/04/2016
Interview E	CEO 5	15/04/2016
Interview F	CEO 6	25/04/2016
Repeated Interview A	CEO 2	04/05/2016
Interview H	CEO 7	10/05/2016
Interview I	CEO 8	16/05/2016
Repeated Interview C	CEO 4	23/05/2016
Repeated Interview D	CEO 7	28/05/2016
Interview L	CEO 9	05/06/2016
Repeated Interview F	CEO 6	10/06/2016
Repeated Interview F	CEO 8	15/06/2016
Interview P	CEO 10	01/07/2016

| Interview Q | CEO 11 | 05/07/2016 |
| Interview R | CEO 12 | 01/08/2016 |

Table 1 List of participants

After interviews were conducted with key stakeholders, as previously indicated, Table 1 was compiled to show the list of NCP programme participants and management who were interviewed, which facilitated data management. In a similar vein to ethnography (which I am not undertaking), describing, analysing, and interpreting the data are all part of the requisite steps. However, it is important to note that the chronology aspect is perhaps more critical in the case study approach (which I am not undertaking) to the degree that I had to refer to more than one data source to corroborate the correct sequence of events. Additionally, using emergent categories provides the foundation for theoretical sampling, which in itself differs from other forms of qualitative research approaches.

4.7 Grounded Data Analysis Procedures

An audio device was used to capture my thoughts at different times, and I then translated these from Arabic to English because some of the interviewees preferred to be interviewed in Arabic.

Users of grounded theory methods specifically attune themselves to certain core characteristics, such as 'theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, treatment of the literature, constant comparative methods, coding, the meaning of verification, identifying the core category [and] memoing...' (Mills et al., 2008: p.3). From a coding standpoint, grounded theory commonly consists of three significant stages associated with open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Strauss and Corbin (1998) argued that that 'the tools for increasing theoretical sensitivity and coding processes need to be used with a degree of flexibility and creativity – an approach that is reflective of their constructivist intent' (Mills et al., 2008: p.6).

The coding and analysis process cumulated in the construction of an expressive and explanatory theory or understanding of the development of a CEO in the Omani private sector.

This occurred chiefly by gauging how national strategic decisions were formulated for the leadership development needed within the private sector. Codes and categories that emerged from researcher–interviewee interactions underpinned the proceeding study within the private sector context of Oman. Grounded theory provides a research toolkit which can support and facilitate the analysis process (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Of interest in the choice of grounded theory are the reciprocal development of theory and the collation of additional rich data for in-depth analysis (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2013). However, Charmaz (2013) noted how proponents of grounded theory naturally employ an inductive approach (also mirrored in a plethora of qualitative studies in general), yet the emergent practice of data analysis increasingly encompasses induction and looks at the world through a broader lens when exploring people's realities: 'The grounded theory method not only calls for using comparisons to generate categories but also builds in checks that keep the researcher's ideas grounded in data. Grounded theorists go back to the setting to observe specific events or to ask key informants further, more specific questions' (Charmaz, 2013: 162). Charmaz (2013: p.155) also cautioned that students who seek to follow traditional and rigidly constructed procedures may be logical in thought, but the application of such approaches to grounded theory removes its emergent essence and is a barrier to researchers' innovative tendencies: 'Learning to tolerate ambiguity permits the researcher to become receptive to creating emergent categories and strategies. Subsequently, the flexibility of constructivist grounded theory guidelines can frame inquiry and further imaginative engagement with data.'

Underpinning my choice of grounded theory is the ability to focus on the process rather than merely on the categories and themes per se, yet to also connect concepts and themes, undertake a form of refinement of concepts and themes, and identify further evidence for the phenomenon under investigation in a reciprocal process of discovery. Hence, coding is one step in the process for ensuring that essence emerges, from which novel developments can ensue (Charmaz, 2005) because the idea is to 'focus on the data and the possibilities for meaning that can be constructed from them' (Mills et al., 2008: 6).

The analysis process was articulated as follows: 'On the part of the researcher, creative and solid data analysis requires astute questioning, a relentless search for answers, active observation, and accurate recall. It is a process of fitting data together, of making the invisible obvious, and of linking and attributing consequences to antecedents. It is a process of conjecture and verification, of correction and modification, or suggestion and defence' (Morse & Field, 1995: pp. 125-126 in Corbin and Strauss, 2008: p.195).

For analysis purposes, the researcher studied the parts and attempted to develop a deeper understanding of the whole (Charmaz, 2005), as opposed to engaging in a narrative analysis which would first analyse the whole and then explore the parts (Pentland, 1999). Both approaches may feasibly arrive at similar findings, yet they invariably start from different vantage points. Hence, qualitative tools and techniques enabled the researcher to gather collective testimonies and narratives of the phenomenon of the national leadership development strategy under study (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005), whilst also co-creating meaning by contributing ideas, theories, and models to high-level discussions. Thornberg (2012: n.p.) noted how, 'In contrast to the classic GT tradition, but in accordance with the constructivist GT tradition, an informed grounded theorist sees the advantage of using pre-existing theories and research findings in the substantive field in a sensitive, creative and flexible way instead of seeing them as obstacles and threats. Informed GT has its roots in constructivist GT and the pragmatist idea of abduction, and hence fits in very well with constructivist GT'. On the basis of the perspective of Charmaz (2005) I am essentially a co-producer of knowledge. My treatment of the data and the richness of the analytical outcomes is the underpinning of constructivist grounded theory.

Charmaz (2006) proposed the following stages in the process of managing and analysing empirical data, which is used as a guide. The stages involve initial coding, focused coding, early memo-writing using focused codes, advanced memo-writing, theoretical sampling, saturation, and ordering memos to discover emerging arguments.

4.8 Data Analysis

Grounded theory data analysis is often referred to as the constant comparative method and is duly described as consisting of stages. Because stages presuppose some type of progressive and independent linearity, or a step change which cannot be assumed, the preferred terms of a 'data analysis spiral' (Creswell 1998: p. 142) or 'cyclical' process' (Birks and Mills 2011: p.109) capture the essence of the researcher's understanding of the contents of the analysis of fluid and emerging data. Coding begins the analytic process through which meaning is assigned by separating and sorting data into named categories. The coding phases adopted for this study were initial coding and focused coding (Charmaz 2006). In rejecting axial coding (Strauss and Corbin 1990), the researcher recognised the preference for simple and flexible guidelines rather than a formal framework through which to reassemble data in new ways. It is important to recognise that, for a grounded theorist, coding does not start indiscriminately but is founded on the disciplinary assumptions and theoretical perspectives of the researcher, referred to as 'sensitizing concepts' by Blumer (1969) and van den Hoonaard (1997) in Gubrium and Holstein (2002), which may guide my early theoretical sensitivity previously referred to. Charmaz (in Gubrium and Holstein 2002; p. 683) noted that 'symbolic interactions provide a rich array of sensitising concepts, such as "identity", "self-concept", "negotiation", and "definition of the situation"'. My previous literature review and experience working within the private sector of Oman and my knowledge of understanding (the knowing how) and performance indicate that constructivist grounded theory accepts the existence of concepts and encourages the researcher to be reflexive about further constructions, acknowledging that they may alert the researcher to look in a particular direction. This is not without danger because it may serve to misdirect or disguise more important concepts which may be missed in the initial-coding phase, leading to the selection of less significant data in the focused-coding phase.

4.9 Initial Coding

The first analytic step was to undertake initial coding which facilitates an open and exploratory review of the data recorded through observed behaviour, language, and intuition. Charmaz

(2006, p.48) noted that codes should use words that reflect action and that avoiding wordy descriptions misses the point and is more likely to draw the researcher into referring back to preconceived ideas which should be acknowledged but remain dormant during the initial coding phase. The notion of open mind versus empty head is useful for novice 'coders' such as myself, who are seeking to avoid bias (Dey in Charmaz, 2006).

A constant comparison is a critical element of initial coding because it quickly draws out more significant themes through checks and balances as incidents begin to take shape. Working through the data line by line had its difficulties because notes are made, leading to minimal words per line and – as the process unfolded 'segment by segment' together with 'incident by incident' coding in which careful attention was paid to language – the researcher was able to hone in more quickly on the sense-making of participants and to search for significance in words, behaviours, or body language (Charmaz, 2006, p. 51).

Taking the advice of Charmaz (2006, p. 48) that 'speed and spontaneity help in initial coding', the researcher decided to move quickly through the data from Interview A, followed by Interview B, and then Interviews C, D, E, and so on. The researcher also felt that such continuity of thought would be important for a constant comparison. For additional details, refer to Table 2, which shows the initial coding for interviews. At this early stage, the researcher recorded over codes and, as a result, a total of 79 (= codes) were identified/generated/consolidated from the transcripts' original 256 codes of the interviews. Interviewee CEO 2 mentioned certain issues, such as the nation's skills base, the weak private sector, CEO 5 mentioned the private sector not supporting Omanisation, and CEO 7 mentioned 'Omanis don't want to work for the private sector', and incentives and opportunities for them to work as CEOs through networking or *wasta* (*wasta* is an Arabic word that means 'who you know'). *Wasta* is a very complex phenomenon that cannot be understood in isolation from the sociocultural context. The following list shows the initial coding. For the full list, refer to Appendix A.

Leading Self
Leading Organisation
Leading Sector
Leadership Capabilities
Clear Vision
Type of Leader
Leadership Skills
Develop the Next Generation
Challenges
Skillset (Omanis must have this and demonstrate it)
Omani Leaders

Table 2 Initial coding

For Charmaz (2006), memo-writing marks the transition from the end of data collection and focused coding to the commencement of theory co-construction. Focused coding raises the most frequent and/or significant codes to the level of categories/concepts. Within each transcript, focused codes were identified and further (intra-transcript) supporting codes were sought. Memo-writing was triggered by either my professional and personal experiences in response to an interviewee's responses when articulating the contents of the model, such as his or her tone of voice, body language, or a confidential note on a scratch paper. Supporting evidence of the memos, all of which cumulate in themes that strongly support a horizontal amalgamation into categories across all interview transcripts, are subsequently provided. Therefore, step three required a parallel re-evaluation of the transcripts and the memo table that was created while coding, as well as the actual memos that arose from the memo table at

a later point in time. Qualitative descriptions are the red thread from 'memo trigger (codes/events/observations)' to actual memos.

4.10 Focus Coding

Moving from 'the state of open coding to focused coding', the full version can be found in Appendix B. The researcher stood back and reflected on the words used to form the codes, their placement within the previously mentioned themes, and their use in context in the original data to confirm those that had an affinity. For example, Economic Sustainability and Economic Growth become, in one code, Economic Development. The other example available is that of Opportunity and PPP, which became a core category. This constant comparison enabled the researcher to collapse the original codes into eight more focused codes with which to begin the second major phase of coding.

- Programme Initiative by PPP

- Performance of Oman's Economy

- Measurable Impact in Private Sector

- Develop Next Generation

- Building World-class CEOs

- Economic Development

- Learning from Others

- Educated and Experienced

- Available Opportunities

For more details, refer to Appendix C.

As indicated in Table 3 and as previously described, the initial memos with personal reflections and subsequent musings recorded as memos during the interviews were also coded and written up under headings which were believed to have some significance for the study. The codes created are Economic Sustainability through Diversification, Economic Growth, PPP, and so on.

Memo	Codes
Under the patronage of the Diwan of the Royal Court, The National CEO Program is an initiative launched by the Public Private Partnership taskforce (Sharaka). It is the first of its kind in the Sultanate and its goal is to develop the next generation of private sector Omani leaders and executives. An initial realisation is that the private sector must first be put on sustainable footing before thinking that top-management leadership can become an issue. However, leadership is even more important at lower operational levels. Omani staff lack the skills to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in what they are doing. This situation links back to technical leadership traits that can be trained, thus indicating the need for even more leadership development programmes. However, rather than being 'exclusive for future executives', they must have an 'inclusive organisational foundation' to reach a critical mass of knowledge and skills within our nation.	Economic Sustainability through Diversification Economic Growth
The Sultanate has outstanding economic opportunities – the country boasts a wealth of natural and human resources for development. The nation's public and private sectors are working together and will continue to work together to identify these sectoral opportunities and therein secure a future less reliant on a carbon-based economy. However, the private sector needs the right leadership talent to realise these available opportunities.	The Opportunity

To achieve this, the private sector's critical challenges are to identify the future leaders of the country's organisations; understand their capabilities and areas for personal development; develop their leadership skills, capabilities, and experience, enabling them to compete on the international stage; and build a network of current and future private sector leaders focused on unlocking the economic potential of the country.	
The programme is designed to benefit Omani business people from organisations of various sizes across diverse sectors and regions of the country.	World-class IMD

Table 3 Categories for theoretical sampling

The personal reflections and subsequent musings recorded as memos during the interviews were also coded and written up under headings believed to have some significance for the study and which may emerge through further data analysis or be discounted through saturation. Table 4 indicates that two new codes were created: Public Private Partnerships (PPP) and Entrepreneurship.

My memos recorded during the interviews:

1. Interviewee mentions the win-win collaboration between private and public sectors. She was in favor of training Omanis, citing employment opportunities. The win-win collaboration is a popular concept in the construction industry. Public Private Partnerships (PPP) are built on both parties contributing their competitive skills. In construction, this often means that the government provides land and firms do the work and the marketing. In education, Oman could use external universities to design and run courses. The Omani government builds the quid buildings. During a five- or ten-year period, a knowledge-transfer process will make Oman self-sufficient for the long term (which would be a true win-win situation).

2. The majority of women called *wasta* 'vitamin W', with the 'w' referring to the first letter of the Arabic word *wasta*. This word is derived from the Arabic verbal root 'wast', which means 'something in the middle', but it often refers to using one's connections – family or friends – to get things done.

3. This group of research participants reflects the diverse nature of society in the Arab Gulf States, where family is regarded as important from both cultural and religious perspectives (Barakat, 1993).

4. The interviewee mentioned that she was selected to represent other participants and the other participants asked her, 'What is special about you?' This is typical Omani *hasd*, which means envy in English . Hofstede (1980) defined culture as 'the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another'.

Coding process and issues The dates and times were decided by participants; however, it was then realized that the order did not always have

As well as the influence of Islam, the influence of the tribe has also continued to play a significant role in the lives of people within the Middle East region (Ali 1998). In the Middle East, the majority of people bear a tribal name rather than a family name adopted in Western cultures (Aycan et al. 2007). From a social standpoint, the ladder of progression enabled and contained by the tribe still plays a major role in modern Arab countries. This ladder of hierarchical status means that a given individual is determined by his or her tribal or group affiliation, and rarely through individual merits (Kazan 1993; Metcalfe 2007). Because of this influence, the tribe and the family are considered second only to Islam in terms of authority in formulating the culture of the region (Al-Hamadi et al. 2007).

These inherited Arab cultural nuances, traditions, customs and morals have also influenced the daily life of Middle Eastern citizens. For example, according to Hofstede (1980), the Middle East region is one which is very sensitive to social context and more collectivist than other parts in the world. This means that, in a collectivist culture, when compared to an individualist culture, a long-term commitment to the member group is established, that being a family, an extended family, or extended relationships (Al-Hamadi et al. 2007). Because of this collectivist social framework, individual loyalty to a specific body within a collectivist culture is considered highly important when contrasting these countries with their Western counterparts. For example, Rice (1999) argues that employer-employee relationships are based on extended family networks, which is unlike the management environment in other US and Western corporations. Furthermore, Ali (1995) highlights the fact that the highly context-based and collectivist culture observed in Saudi Arabia is stronger within internal groups, such as the tribe or the extended family, but weaker within external groups, such as different religious groups and expatriate workers (Mellahi 2006). Within this collectivist culture, a strong emphasis is given to the coordination and teamwork that facilitates a supportive working environment (Hatem 2006).

The Middle East is also characterised as paternalistic culture and the leader is observably perceived as an elderly member, an authority figure that has the responsibility for undertaking the appropriate decisions for employees (Budhwar and Mellahi 2006). As a result, this creates

a dynamic where the relationship between employee and employer is perceived as a familial relationship, such as that between father and son. Within this cultural approach, therefore, employees prefer to be reactive rather than proactive in their jobs and to wait for orders from their managers without the initiative and autonomy that is more readily encouraged in organisations within Western and other cultures (Aycan et al. 2000). Moreover, this leads to employees believing that their managers know everything about the task at hand and that the manager's decisions must be respected. Because of this social tendency, Middle Eastern people operate for the majority of the time under a hierarchical framework that promotes a centralised power and authority with tightly controlled hierarchical, social and subsequently organisational structures (Ali 1995). For instance, in the workplace, managers are observed to make independent decisions and work does not bypass the chain of command wherein managers are expected to conduct their behaviour in a manner that reinforces their more powerful standing over their employees.

Furthermore, respect is accorded to differences in age, which stems from the Islamic value that the younger should respect the older. This presents another factor that shapes interactions in the workplace. Age-accorded respect often results in conflicts and communication problems when the manager is older than his employee (Kim 1994). Moreover, in Middle Eastern culture, older persons are considered naturally in command of younger people and not the other way around. Within the context of an organisation, directives of younger managers are rejected and this conflicts with the system of merit observed among Western organisations (Aycan et al. 2007). Thus, the instrument of cultural power is one of the main drivers of ineffective management practices within Middle Eastern countries (Budhwar and Mellahi 2006). The following are some Omani cultural acts: Men wearing white and women wearing black;Sitting on the floor and eating from one plate; Woman refusing to shake hands with her male colleagues; Arriving half-an-hour late for a meeting but people beginning without waiting; Meetings beginning by talking about family and social events/occasions and drinking coffee with dates; Eating with their hands and sitting on the ground; Omani women

wearing black Abaya; and Men kissing each other and touching each other nose-to-nose. The need for more cross-cultural management research is increasing as businesses become global. Very little research has been carried out on this topic in South America, Africa, and the Middle East (Burke, 2010). Globalization accelerates the transfer not only of products and services among nations, But also of management know-how and practice. The transfer of HRM practice occurs mostly from developed nations to developing ones; however, multinational corporations and local organizations in developing countries face a serious challenge in implementing the Western (mainly US-based) HRM practices (e.g. Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990). Therefore, studying attitudes towards HRM practices and the cultural factors that influence these attitudes is important from both a scientific and a practical point of view. However, most of the research has been conducted in Western developed countries. Research in developing nations is needed both to test the generalisability of theories and practices that originated in the Western cultural context and to identify appropriate alternative strategies for different contexts (Ali, 1992; Napier and Vu, 1998, Robertson et al., 2002). According to Robertson et al. (2001), despite being a politically and economically significant region, with a combined population of some 400 million and extensive natural resources (Ali, 1999), the Middle East is left behind in terms of international and cross-cultural management research. While there are practical difficulties contributing to this state of affairs, the region's relatively underdeveloped private sector and extensive reliance on an expatriate workforce may also have contributed to this gap. This research attempts to fill this void by providing data from participates of CEO program in one of the most important countries in the Middle East – Oman. Globalization accelerates the transfer not only of products and services among nations, But also of management know-how and practice. The transfer of HRM practice occurs mostly from developed nations to developing ones; however, multinational corporations and local organizations in

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developing countries face a serious challenge in implementing the Western (mainly US-based) HRM practices (e.g. Jaeger and Kanungo, 1990). Therefore, studying attitudes towards HRM practices and the cultural factors that influence these attitudes is important from both a scientific and a practical point of view. However, most of the research has been conducted in Western developed countries. Research in developing nations is needed both to test the generalisability of theories and practices that originated in the Western cultural context and to identify appropriate alternative strategies for different contexts (Ali, 1992; Napier and Vu, 1998, Robertson et al., 2002). According to Robertson et al. (2001), despite being a politically and economically significant region, with a combined population of some 400 million and extensive natural resources (Ali, 1999), the Middle East is left behind in terms of international and cross-cultural management research. While there are practical difficulties contributing to this state of affairs, the region's relatively underdeveloped private sector and extensive reliance on an expatriate workforce may also have contributed to this gap. This research attempts to fill this void by providing data from participates of CEO program in one of the most important countries in the Middle East – Oman. The need for more cross-cultural management research is increasing as businesses become global. Very little research has been carried out on this topic in South America, Africa, and the Middle East (Burke, 2010). The researcher understands that of the more than 79 codes, some were repetitive and – in some cases – descriptive, which is not unusual in grounded theory research in which the researcher remains as open as possible during the initial coding phase to not preclude or predetermine what may be relevant to the emerging theory (Holten in Bryant and Charmaz 2010). As the coding process progressed, the researcher began to condense statements and seek 'compelling codes' that more readily captured the more refined conceptual codes (Charmaz 2006,

p. 48). Appendix C indicates the two-stage process that the researcher adopted to create compelling codes.

Although focused or intermediate coding has a natural progression, it should not be treated as linear and should not preclude retracing steps because new ideas and directions can suggest themselves by comparing the data with the focused codes (Birks and Mills, 2011; Charmaz, 2006). The primary goal is to confirm the adequacy of the codes and to use the data to determine the most analytically sensible ways to form categories.

Classical approaches to categorisation are based on comparisons. One of the most frequently cited is the concept-indicator model (Glaser, 1978 in Bryant and Charmaz, 2010) in which all assigned events are deemed to share key features identified within the observed phenomena leading to category membership – an 'all or nothing' approach. According to Dey (in Bryant and Charmaz, 2010, p. 172), the 'reduction of concepts to indicators, the focus on features (which are given) rather than attributes (which are identified), the assumption of clear rules for assignation, unambiguous membership and crisp category boundaries, the centrality of comparison, and the critical role of centrality are all contested'. Keeping an open mind and letting the full picture emerge through consideration of comparative endeavours alongside the use of theory, knowledge, and experience, together with an analysis of causal links, context dimensions, and relationships – although complex – enable a richer and more fluid categorisation to evolve. However, it will be no less accurate if it is grounded in the data (McGarty, 1999 in Bryant and Charmaz, 2007).

To deepen the researcher's analytic competence and to challenge the data and meanings that were so far been made through coding in different ways, the researcher decided to record focused coding through memoing. The researcher was particularly interested in exploring the codes in relation to process, context, and data relationships and believed that memo-writing and using the questions posited by Charmaz (2006, p. 81) as a framework would enable movement more readily in this analytical direction:

What process is at issue here?

Under which conditions does this process develop?

How do the research participants think, feel, and act when involved in this process?

When, why, and how does the process change?

What are the consequences of the process?

In addition, the researcher added the following:

How do relationships between research participants change?

'Recording your ideas in memo form does not lock you into them; rather, it frees you up to challenge your developing analysis' (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 40). In addition, theoretical sensitivity is raised through the ability to explore freely, challenge ideas, and use instinct and intuition to follow one's thinking, which in turn exposes theoretical categories.

4.11 Advance Memo Writing

The initial coding recorded the interviews in full, including the words and actions of the interviewee. For this phase, the researcher concentrated only on the words and actions of the participants because their meaning is what is to be explored. However, meaning is not made in isolation and the memos recorded the context and conditions within and under which the engagement took place to provide a richer picture. The researcher also highlighted recurrent themes through which significant patterns were sensed to emerge to better inform the refining of the codes and the categorisation. Table 5 provides an excerpt from the analytical memo-recording of the data against the focused codes. The focused codes are mapped against the initial coded phrase and my thoughts are recorded in the memo table, which guides my focused-coding analysis and helps develop categories and early theoretical concepts. Appendix D contains the full table and memos.

Code	Excerpt	Memo
Economic	'Avoidance of property	Realisation that I was detached from

Development	speculation boom. TOURISM for income AND jobs'	reality. I had leadership in terms of top management in mind, assuming that its lack was holding Oman back. Realisation of a successful team through the use of sports examples – does this help with meaning making? Government to steer infrastructure completion by setting standards for housing, roads, schools, etc. Government to assign land for new communities to be built by Omani contractors. Profit margins must be socially acceptable.
	'Government is going very well in building infrastructure'	PPPs are popular vehicles for financing infrastructure projects in GCC.
	'Private and public sector should work as partners'	The National CEO Program for the Sultanate is a highly specialised initiative by the Public Private Partnership taskforce (Sharaka).
Learning from others	'The National CEO Program will enable Oman's future senior leaders to gain the integrated knowledge and global insight	The learning journey involves input from leading Omani and international CEOs. Done by expats. First train to

	required to lead their organisations successfully in the face of global economic uncertainty and fierce competition'	support. It appears that many decision makers I interviewed have overseas study experience.
Available opportunities	'Getting to know each other from different sectors'	Door-opening and take opportunities in different businesses and other sectors. Networking among NCP participants.

Table 4 Advance Memo Writing

4.12 Theoretical Sampling

The researcher moved to focused coding with grouped codes and compared them against my emerging concepts. Table 6 shows this step. Through a constant comparative analysis, focused codes were generated and grouped into categories. According to Birk and Mills (2011, p. 99), 'refining categories by defining properties and their dimensions while considering the conditions they operate under will quickly identify the gaps and holes in your data'. The researcher then turned to comparing the categories with codes to further saturate them. Table 6 indicates the process that the researcher undertook.

Category	Sub-Category
Mechanism and structures, private sector; Sense-making, as in Oman's operating environment.	Programme initiative by PPP; Develop next generation; Building world-class CEOs.
Policy design and implementation; Sense-making this for programme design.	Performance of Omani economy; Measurable impact in private sector;

	Economic development.
Learning from others.	Educated and experienced; Conduct a study; Qualifications; Experiences; Investment in education; Quality of education; Lessons learned.
Learning from others.	Sense-making: is this a core category? Participant perspective.
Available opportunities.	Sense-making: is this a core category?
Educated and experienced.	Sense-making: is this a core category? This will be under the Programme Design category.

Table 5 Seven properties of sense-making adopted from Weick, correlated with the emerging theory

Whilst producing Table 6, the researcher had what Charmaz (2006, p. 58) referred to as an 'Aha! Now the researcher understood' experience in that all of the categories seemed to have a direct relationship to one other category: 'Educated and experienced'. It appeared from the analysis that the other categories provided the ingredients that, metaphorically speaking, blended together along the interviews' timeline to provide the impetus for participant understanding and the beginnings of sense-making. Translation began to emerge through the interplay of participants' habitus with their experiences during the programme. The concept of a 'core category' was central to the early seminal works of Glaser and Strauss and Strauss and Corbin, and integral to a traditional grounded theory approach. Strauss and Corbin

defined a core category as 'the central phenomenon around which all other categories are integrated' (in Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 100). Although Charmaz (2006) discounted the relevance of a core category for grounded theory to emerge and believed that it is too reflective of participants and not the professional researcher's concern, the researcher believed that a core category is fundamental to the focus of this study because it 'encapsulates the process apparent in the categories and sub-categories constructed' (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 100). Thus, this study deviates slightly from Charmaz's constructivist approach, reflecting the belief that the use of a core category provided the researcher with a reflective lens through which to interrogate further data, seek relationships between and within related categories and sub-categories, develop conceptual leads, and seek theoretical saturation (Holten in Bryant and Charmaz, 2007; Birks and Mills, 2011; Charmaz, 2006). Thus, the next coding phase undertaken as part of the thesis tested the core category, sub-categories, and related codes and their relationships to expose the validity of the reasoning and the progress towards theoretical saturation and emergent theory.

4.13 Emerging Theory

The study now turns to theorising, which the researcher recognised, was early in the process according to the original works of Glaser and Strauss. However, constructing theory is not a linear process and there is no right or wrong way to proceed within a constructivist grounded approach (Charmaz, 2006). By starting to theorise early, as the data begin to obtain significance through coding and memoing, focus can be maintained and the best ideas can be captured. 'Theorizing means stopping, pondering and rethinking anew. We stop the studied experience and take it apart. The acts involved in theorizing foster seeing possibilities, establishing connections, and asking questions' (Charmaz, p. 135).

As discussed in 5.6, during the focused coding and subsequent analysis of possible connections and relationships, the researcher identified the possibility that 'Educated and experienced' could be a core category (seeing possibilities). The researcher tested this possibility against the 'realisation' moments identified in Table 5 and against the 'The National

CEO Program for the Sultanate is a highly specialised initiative by the Public Private Partnership Taskforce (Sharaka)' identified in Tables 6 and 7, which recorded interviews and can be found in Appendix D. This flagged the significance of context for the beginnings of meaning-making for participants (establishing connections). The next unravelling of the story was to ask the following questions to test whether the argument that Educated and experienced' was a core category was valid (asking questions):

1.   Can any category in isolation create meaning for participants?
2.   How do categories relate to one another?
3.   Are any categories more or less important than any other?

The analytical processes led the researcher to organise thoughts, which are as follows:

Category	Sub-Category
Oman's operating environment	Programme initiative by PPP; Develop next generation; Building world-class CEOs.
Programme design	Performance of Omani economy; Measurable impact in private sector; Economic development.
Learning from others	Educated and experienced; Conduct a study; Qualifications; Experiences; Investment in education;

	Quality of education; Lessons learned.
Participant perspective	Learning from others; Participant perspective.

Table 6 Theoretical sampling for saturation

This process of saturation can be observed in Table 7, which shows an extract of the analysis of the data from the theoretical sampling and a constant comparison with previous coded data towards saturation and conceptualisation. The narrative which follows from the discoveries presents a more detailed analysis of the outcomes from the theoretical sampling and the implications for theory generation. A sub-category befits its increasing appearance within the coded data, diagramming, and memos.

Figure 7 indicates a cluster diagram showing saturation**:**
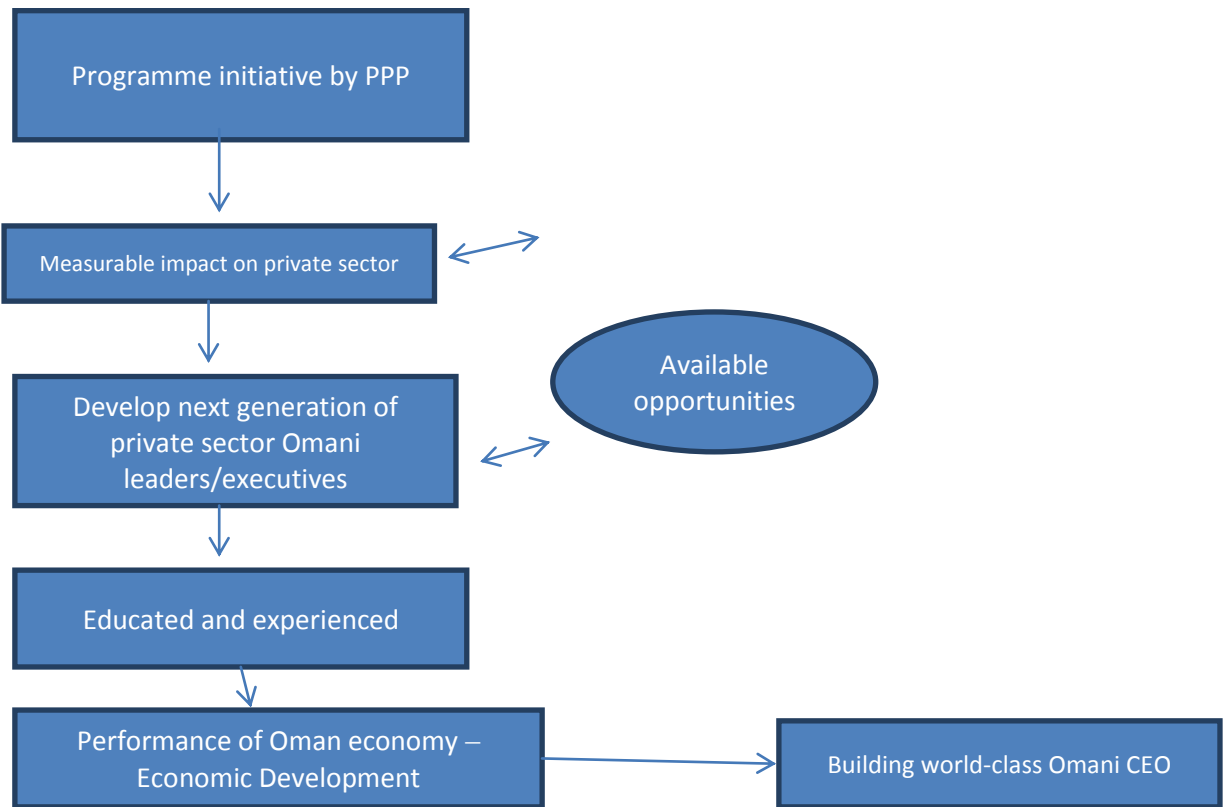
Figure 5 Diagram of saturation

In greater detail, the key components of each code are outlined as follows:

- **Programme initiative by PPP:** The Public Private Partnership taskforce (Sharaka) is an extension of the patronage of His Majesty the Sultan for the private sector to enable the sector to play its role as an active partner in the social and economic development of the Sultanate. The initiative was launched in April 2013 through the adoption of a taskforce that includes six ministers and six members from the private sector. The members are selected in rotation from among 30 representatives of the sector, including business owners who have been chosen by a wider private sector group. The initiative is an inclusive effort structured in a manner that allows for private sector members to rotate, thereby including a broad number of participants and views from the private sector.

- **Performance of Omani economy:** The Sultanate's economic performance will result in the development of the country's economy. The researcher has experience in the United

Kingdom and is becoming even more confident that Oman will be a very successful nation. This belief is formed as the researcher starts to understand that resources are important (which we have been blessed with) but also that using challenges to create opportunity is what makes the difference.

- **Economic development:** Firms that operate within the confines of emergent economies are not coerced into becoming reliant on entrepreneurs' behaviour to maintain and sustain economic growth. The deepening of the diversification process should build on new sources of growth using Oman's comparative advantage as a logistical hub and help develop the country's resources (minerals, fishing) to enhance in-country value-added.

- **Learning from others**: The National CEO Program is a 12-month learning journey that includes an orientation with three modules in Muscat and three overseas. The support of participants' CEO/chairperson and their engagement in the programme is a crucial element. During this period, participants learn from each other through the maxim of learning and then apply the learning. There is visible participation by PPP members, sharing lessons of leadership with other senior managers during the programme, and sharing lessons with different Omani private sector organisations.

- **Experiential learning:** Learning is most effective when it is practised and applied. An essential element of the learning journey is experimenting and applying the theory in the workplace, testing different approaches towards leading the business, managing people, and delivering results.

- **Measurable impact in the private sector**: Understanding the impact of the NCP programme requires key performance indicators (KPIs) for the private sector which can be measured and evaluated.

- **Building world-class CEOs:** This is the vision of the NCP programme: to deliver world-class CEOs by learning from existing examples.

- **Develop next generation:** The NCP programme is aimed at providing the next generation of leaders who will run businesses in the Omani private sector and at reflecting on their leadership style, practising new ways of leading to enhance their personal impact

specifically to address the business and leadership challenges facing CEOs in Oman today and in the future.

- **Available opportunities:** Responds to private sector requirements and understands the challenges and opportunities specific to Oman's operating environment.

4.14 Theory reconstruction

4.14.1 Introduction
This section follows the interpretive tradition of theorising and presents what Charmaz (2006, p. 128) described as 'a practice'. This description revealed the points of significance and relational turns along the transfer journey when actions or non-actions have consequences for the success or failure of a transfer, assisting to draw out implications for both theory and practice, as presented in Figure 4. The use of grounded-theory methods led to conceptualisation of the data and identification of the concepts through which transfer theory emerged.

4.14.2 Conceptualising
The advantage of this form of presentation is that it is a creative representation of non-linear relationships, providing flexible adaptations and simple clustering. In answering the questions, my theorising led me to conclude the following: no category works in isolation to create meaning.

Each category identified – programme initiative by PPP, develop next generation, and build world-class CEOs – could also be a single category of Oman's operating environment by revisiting the focused codes and memos (Table 5). However, develop next generation and build world-class CEOs may be the outcomes of the programme's mission that PPP or *Shark* (which means 'partnership' in Arabic) hopes to achieve. Additional analysis is required to further reveal the relationship. Revisiting previous codes and memos led to two important discoveries: the relationships between Oman's operating environment and its participants and programme design. However, the relationship between Oman's operating environment and its participants and the relationship between

Oman's operating environment and programme design were two discoveries that I kept. The emerging initial theory was leading me towards the construction of a transfer of learning model of sense-making to better explain the constituent parts of the sense-making process for NCP programme participants and management in the interviews.

From the analysis, my interpretations of the data collected led to the construction of a model (Figure 2) which incorporates the identified categories within the core category and which I believe were significant and essential to the meaning-making process. These identified categories were also gained fundamentally through the translation activity within and across the categories.
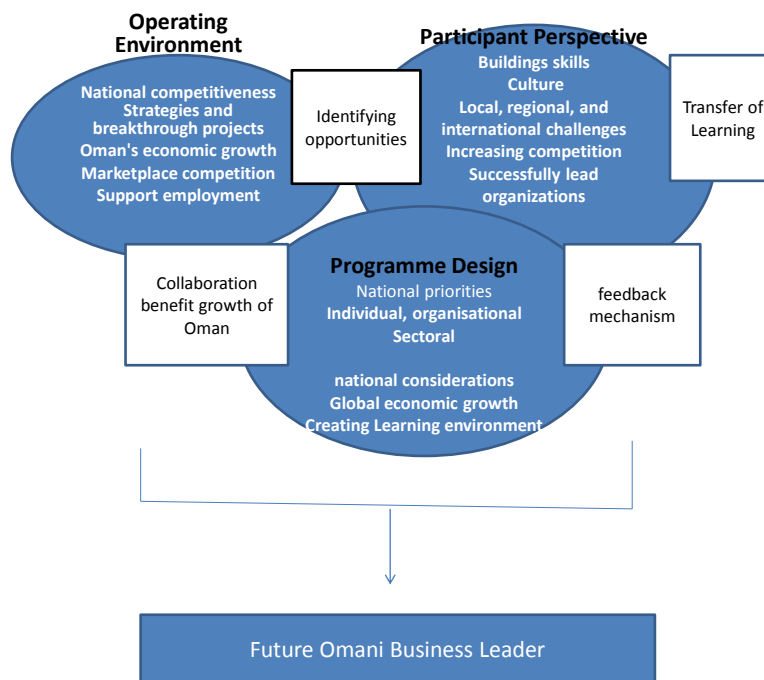
Figure 6 Model 1 - leadership development and transfer of learning

I move from Figure 2 to Table 1 to apply the framework from Weick (1995, p.17) and identify seven characteristics that explain the sense-making process, as set out in Table 6. This process is correlated with the initial data analysis and subsequent theory making. Weick's principles helped me make the move from Figure 3 to Figure 4 by designing seven corresponding questions to further explore additional forms of presentation in support of sense-making. The questions are as follows.

1. Social context: does the form encourage conversations? Respect the elderly in Oman (culture change)?

2. Identity: Is the lifestyle in Muscat (Oman) similar to that in Bradford (UK)?

3. Retrospect: Does the form preserve elapsed data and the legitimate use of those data?

4. Salient cues: Does the form enhance the visibility of cues?

5. Ongoing projects: Does the programme consider the participant's perspective?

6. Plausibility: Does the programme's design fit your needs?

7. Enactment: Does the form identify opportunities?

Weick's Seven Properties	Correlation to Emerging Theory
Identity and identification	Life in Oman v. Life in Bradford
Retrospection	Sense-making occurred at several stages (i.e. post Ramadam, when I had time to reflect in peace and quiet), leading to new insights (i.e. potential) and PPP opportunity
Enact	Identifying opportunities
Sense-making is social	Cultural change
Sense-making is ongoing	Participant perspective
Extracting cues from context	Oman's operating environment
Plausibility over accuracy	Programme design

Table 7 Sense-making adopted from Weick (2001) and correlated with the emerging theory

Weick's seven-property framework posits and provides a starting point for the emerging theory within the extant literature. The works of Weick (1995, 2001 and 2012) on sense-

making have resonance with the study's ambitions and may provide a more meaningful understanding of the relational aspects within The National CEO Program and its impact on leadership development and transfer of learning in the context of the business. Furthermore, Weick et al. (2005) suggested that analysing sense-making is useful for organisational studies because doing so may provide insights into a number of under-scrutinised areas, such as the relationship between plausibility versus accuracy and learning.

A number of external literature sources indicated a link to this study and to Weick's framework, which – although as yet untested for its significance – should be recorded as being worthy of note as I moved to the next stage of my research journey.

This stage is a return to the literature reviewed in prior documents as part of this emergent research process to reflect the reconstructions emanating from grounded theorising. This literature is on leadership development and transfer of learning, together with Weick's (1995, 2009 and 2012) organisational sense-making theory. The following are the studies:

Economic development (Abu-Qarn, A. S. & Abu-Bader, S. 2007)

Oman's operating environment (Ashrafi, R. and Bashir, H.A., 2011)

Participant perspective (Hotho, S. and Dowling, M., 2010)

Programme design (Jackson, M.A., 1975)

Management education (Bodolica, V., Spraggon, M. & Zaid 2014)

Risk taking (Craig, 2014)

PPP opportunity (Jawad, A.Q. and Scott-Jackson, W., 2016)

National priorities (Aaron, H. and Reischauer, R.D. eds., 2011)

National competitiveness and economic growth (Hämäläinen, T.J., 2003)

National competitiveness and economic growth books

Competition of marketplace (Hamilton, J.L., 1979)

Supporting employment (Katou, A.A., Budhwar, P.S., Woldu, H. and Basit Al-Hamadi, A., 2010)

Challenges in local, regional (Jianchu, X., Shrestha, A., Vaidya, R., Eriksson, M. and Hewitt, K., 2007)

The melting Himalayas: Regional challenges and local impacts of climate change on mountain ecosystems and livelihoods (Erikkson, M., Hewitt, K., Shrestha, A.B., and Vaidya, R., 2007)

Lead organisations successfully (Conway, T. and Whitelock, J., 2003)

Citizen-centric administration in GCC (Journal of Management and Strategy Vol 4, No 1, 2013)

Increasing levels of competition (MacWhinney, B., 2001)

Evaluation (Using World Bank best-practice methodologies to assess policy outcomes)

The analytical process led me to develop the Al-Sawai 2016 model, as follows.
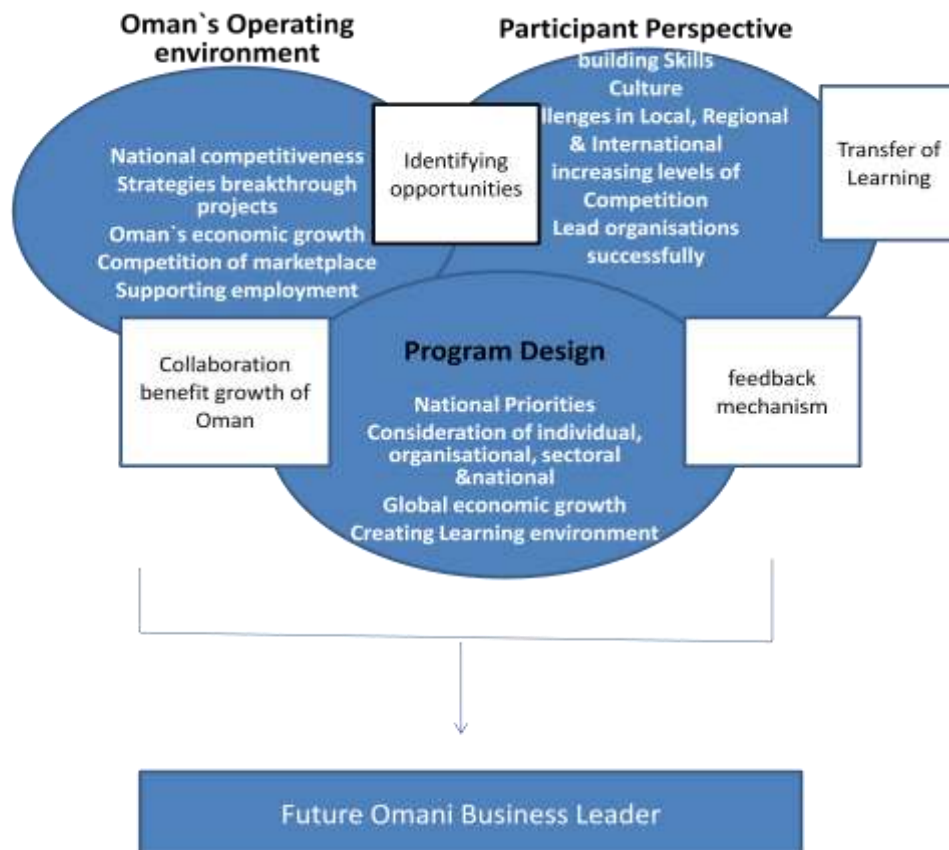
Figure 7 Leadership development and transfer of learning sense-making within the Omani context

According to Glaser (1998, p. 133), 'By far the most exciting use of grounded theory over the last ten years is its legitimating of concept generation'. As a final act, I revisited the

historical data generated from the interviews on daily engagement with NCP management and participants to clarify a couple of areas. This revisit enabled me to complete my data analysis, raise my categories to concepts, and confirm that my view and sense-making were core concepts (Whitrod Brown, 2012a). This process validated the idea of participants and NCP management, leading me to integrate the categories 'learning from others' and 'sense-making' to create the core concept 'participant perspective'. This central phenomenon is linked to all other concepts. As previously noted, it is appropriate to return to historical data within grounded theory and, in doing so, I acknowledge that this has given me 'an abstract understanding of relationships' between and within categories and their properties and of the overlapping nature of these relationships (Charmaz, 2006, p. 140). The revisit has enabled me to recognise that the 'Omani culture' moments were significant for the participant perspective category and guided me to analyse the relationships and links among the core categories. This theoretical concept is worthy of providing an interpretive frame for the following reconstruction from the data generated by participants in The National CEO Program. This is a critical stage for constructivist grounded theorists, who follow significant 'analytic refinement and involves showing their relationship to other concepts' (Charmaz, 2006, p. 139).

To further explain the model, there are three elements – Oman's operating environment, programme design, and participant perspective – which interrelate within a transfer of the learning context within Oman. If we review the literature on sense-making, according to Starbuck and Milliken (1988) as cited in Weick (1995, p. 4), this 'involves placing stimuli into some kind of framework… this enables them "to comprehend, understand, explain, attribute, extrapolate, and predict"' which is the process in which I am engaged when creating the model but that, in turn, guides me towards the design of a conceptual model, leadership development, and transfer of learning for the NCP Programme to foster sense-making in participants.

Oman's operating environment

To develop future Omani business leaders, an operating environment needs to be created which fosters national competitiveness and economic growth using strategies such as a breakthrough project and supporting employment while collaborating with participants to benefit growth in Oman.

Participant perspective

Participants seek to develop skills, increase competition, and successfully lead organisations. This has to be done when taking into account the Omani culture and the consequent challenges – local, regional, and international – and when seeking to transfer learning among other participants who worked in different sectors and had different experiences. Moreover, the feedback mechanism has been established in the programme design to improve the programme to the level of the next cohort.

Programme design

For the programme's design, while identifying opportunities within the Omani operating environment, its sponsor (Diwan) sought consideration of individual, organisational, and national priorities to create a learning environment and to keep an eye on economic growth.

4.14.3 Professional Life in Oman

The Sultanate of Oman's Vision 2020 agenda has the overarching objective of developing Oman's economy through an economic diversification agenda for reducing oil's domination of the economy and through the 'Omanisation' policy, which seeks to replace migrant workers with Omani nationals (Common, 2011). The anticipated outcomes of this strategy are more robust educational structures and more efficient and effective training and employment policies and practices throughout the country (Goodliffe, 2005). One aspect of the Vision 2020 for the creative development of Oman's private sector involves developing technical and skilful human resources that possess the competence, capacity,

and capability needed to expand the broader economy. The Sultanate of Oman faces the significant challenge of developing a competent and effective Omani workforce, thereby relying less on the expertise and skills of expatriates (Goodliffe, 2005). The Sultanate now recognises the need to develop its private sector to achieve rapid economic growth in light of its Vision 2020; therefore, it is essential for the Sultanate to develop its leaders for senior positions to direct the workforce and utilise organisational resources efficiently to achieve strategic goals. Effective leadership skills are viewed as a critical factor in enabling businesses to remain successful in a competitive market and within the context of rapid changes in the global economy (Gibb et al., 2013). Hence, the focus on leadership development programmes such as those developed for North American and Western audiences is increasing (Cummings et al., 2012, Englehardt and Simmons, 2002), particularly programmes that seek to enhance the development of effective leaders (Cacioppe, 1998, Sonnino, 2013). Rather than a comparison between Oman and the Western world, the Al-Sawai 2016 model determines how the Omani private sector develops effective leaders for senior positions.

Al-Sawai (2016) outlined that the Omanisation vision was not to be repeated. However, it is important to understand Omanisation regarding nationalisation in general. The GCC region faces a range of unique challenges, within which its nation-states' public and private sectors increasingly seek to stimulate economic growth through the development of its leaders (Karam and Jamali, 2013). The political economy in the Sultanate of Oman is undergoing significant change and reflects the broader context of change across the Arab Gulf region (Sakkthivel and Sriram, 2012). This has been viewed as a shift from the traditional state model towards a more progressive and industrious economy that relies less on oil rental fees (Bontenbal and Aziz, 2013). Within this immediate context, the engagement of national labour in economic production (Randeree, 2012) and the use of innovative strategies for creating economic value, such as through education initiatives (Van De Bunt-Kokhuis et al., 2013), underpin this political economic shift that centres around the development of human capital, human resources, ICTs, and private sector

growth (Khan and Almoharby, 2007). Traditionally, citizens of the Gulf States have been enmeshed by the public sector, leading to observations that public sector job creation is a critical mechanism in the distribution of resources garnered from oil proceeds (Peterson, 2009). Traditionally, Gulf citizens benefit from public sector job perks, including social security and satisfying work packages. However, the workforce across the Gulf countries is currently experiencing significant unemployment (Weber, 2013), which has led these countries to introduce and implement policies to nationalise their labour forces. Gulfisation policies have emerged that seek to ensure socioeconomic safeguards for their national populations through advantaged forms of public sector employment, ensuring that nationals are prioritised in Gulf private sector jobs and offering inducements to encourage companies to hire Omani nationals (Randeree, 2012). The Omanisation policy seeks to increase national citizens' participation in the workforce to ensure that effective HRM strategies are enacted. Research has shown a significant reduction in Omani private sector engagement, a disconcerting trend against the underlying objectives of Omanisation policies (Pradhan, 2013). This situation is particularly pressing considering that several Gulf countries, including Oman, have attempted to revamp their national brand and promote a fertile business climate with opportunities for investments underpinned by political stability and neo-liberal economics (Cooper and Momani, 2009). The prevailing global economic climate and thinning of resources have rendered it important for organisations to take a strategic approach to their investments in leadership development programmes and for leadership development programme designers and evaluation experts to be scrupulous in their choice of approach (McGonagill and Reinelt, 2011). When used in the context of the present study, leadership development is a strategic tool in the control of senior decision makers because 'organizations need different, more cost effective, and adaptive strategies for developing leaders' (Reichard and Johnson, 2011a: p.33). : Clark (1997) referred to strategic tools to denote frameworks, concepts, methodologies, and a range of research techniques that can enable a strategic decision maker to make high-level decisions, deconstructing, abridging,

sense-making, and translating multi-faceted and compound situations and – within the broader context – illuminating the strategy development process. The objective for strategic decision makers is to create an inspiring vision for innovation, translating that vision into strategy, and motivating and empowering people within a given system to take responsibility to achieve significant goals and effective leadership (Pearce and Sims Jr, 2002). A leadership development strategy is generally viewed as a (staged) process (Boyce et al., 2010, Reichard and Johnson, 2011a); however, criticism has been growing of the traditional, conventional, and formalised instruction of the leadership development process (Thorpe et al., 2008) – often because of colossal cost issues, location issues, and inadequate of knowledge transfer. Hence, the leadership development space is starting to embrace 'contextualized development strategies such as the use of developmental assignments, on-the-job learning, coaching and mentoring relationships, and action learning assignments' (Boyce et al., 2010: p.159). The correlation among leadership development, strategic planning, and organisational change is of growing interest and has developed from the report by Constable and McCormick (1987), which argued for management development to be embedded within strategic planning and change (in Gold et al., 2010).

Traditionally, leadership studies interpret leadership development as the matching of HR processes with organisational strategy by deploying available resources. In this context, the HR department assumes an active role in establishing training needs in a process in which the recipient remains passive (Reichard and Johnson, 2011a). The strategic alignment with HRM is viewed as a critical underpinning of a successful talent management programme (McDonnell, 2011). Yet, Reichard and Johnson (2011) found that HR's role was to better serve organisations if their training interventions were geared towards self-development rather than task-specific training. Creating a suitably supportive environment would have a scaling effect on such self-development interventions. Stahl et al. (2012) found that competitive advantage emanates from the appropriate internal alignment of different aspects of a firm's talent-management system in conjunction with

the immersion within the fabric of the firm's value systems, including connections to business strategy (Stahl et al., 2012). This was somewhat at odds with the assumption that competitive advantage emerges from the careful design and implementation of best practices (Stahl et al., 2012). Talent management is a key component that fuels the focus on HRM because it is viewed as a means to gain a strategic competitive advantage to revitalise both the Omani and the regional workforce (Singh et al., 2012). This approach has been a significant underpinning of HR policy in recent times, yet there is a lack of understanding regarding the level at which companies are managing their talent (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). Others call for a more multi-disciplinary approach to talent management (Iles, 2013) because of its critical topicality among practitioners and academics who strive to comprehend how a strategic competitive advantage can be realised. Therefore, a richer body of knowledge is required concerning how organisations can connect their internal HR practices to their specific business strategies whilst acknowledging external reality from an institutional context (Afiouni et al., 2014). This also includes the realisation that most such HR approaches are restricted because they presume that talent is contained within the confines of a firm; however, on a broader contextual level, the input and importance of external consultants ought also to be explored (Calo, 2008 in Wiblen et al., 2012).

The Al-Sawai 2016 model determines how the Omani business environment operates at the private sector firm level, particularly because several Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) economies are premised on the creation of more home-grown leaders (Abdelal et al., 2008). Leadership development is directly correlated with national economic success and is articulated as a 'functional performance rationale' for leadership and management development (Garavan et al., 1999: p.193 in Gold et al., 2010). National leadership programmes have been developed in a range of areas, including education (Brundrett, 2006, Southworth, 2004) and healthcare (Edmonstone and Western, 2002, Umble et al., 2011). However, the core characteristics of effective leadership programmes remain difficult to ascertain because of the lack of an empirical evidence base. Through bodies

such as the Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership (CEML, 2002), the UK government funded studies that explored what good and effective management entailed (Thorpe et al., 2008). These studies sought to ascertain the state and form of leadership development in the United Kingdom and were geared towards 'producing a strategy to ensure that the UK is producing managers and leaders of the future' (Thorpe et al., 2008: p.160). A later review by Lord Leitch published in 2006 expanded the CEML focus by also focusing on skill shortages, part of which sought to raise the consciousness of the value of skillsets and to illustrate the link between productivity and performance. However, a limitation that underpins both reports was the lack of insight into how workers, managers, and leaders should experience development in the context of sustainability. Assumptions pertaining to demand-led models for addressing needs bypass 'where the need for real and transformational learning' comes into effect. Managers must consciously be aware of their needs before they can demand action to have those needs fulfilled.

The scope of leadership development programmes includes attempts to ascertain whether such programmes focus mainly on candidates and training interventions internal to the organisation or whether these are also external. It will be interesting to determine whether only certain high-potential candidates can benefit from leadership development programmes or whether all employees benefit. The researcher seeks to understand whether the development of a learning, knowledge-based organisation is a key priority or whether the aim is perhaps to separate individuals and disproportionately support their skills development.

Avolio et al. (2010: p. 634) found that 'leadership development is the least explored topic within the field of leadership research and theory'. They ascertained that leadership development interventions are rare in the literature, as are theories of leadership development because of the fact that a 'review of the leadership-intervention literature from the last hundred years only produced 201 articles on studies examining the impact of leadership interventions, with less than half having focused on leadership development'.

International consulting companies often use tools such as a 360-degree appraisal, through which one is evaluated as a manager through the eyes of executives, supervisors, and subordinates, in an attempt to assist organisations in determining insights about its managerial staff (Atkins and Wood, 2002). Research has illustrated how 360-degree assessments of alternate leadership behaviours differ depending on the context (Manning, 2013). Manning argued for the contingent nature of leadership and found significant relationships between leadership behaviour and 360-degree outcomes. How these relations differed according to particular contexts, including one's seniority, power/control over resources, line management responsibility, organisational size, pace of organisational change, and other factors were reported. Frameworks of skills and competence also include upward appraisals (Pichler, 2012). In many cases, key performance indicators set for one department may not work for all (Marr et al., 2004); moreover, perhaps the same questions and guidelines may be given to all departments for appraisals, yet the level of management in each may not be the same. Perhaps they only succeed in keeping employees working towards appraisal periods but do not necessarily measure leader effectiveness.

Leadership is developed through a range of means, not merely as a consequence of traditional chalk-and-talk training and development programmes but also through various structured and well-coordinated activities that seek to develop staff by enabling them to learn from both their own work perspective and that of their superiors (Dalakoura, 2010). Dalakoura reasserted the point that leadership development should be embedded in conventional practices and become part of the culture and climate of the organisation and emphasised that 'it is also very crucial that the CEOs and line managers actively engage in the development of leaders at all levels (Dalakoura, 2010: p.438).

MacPhee et al. (2012) pointed out that, although substantial funds are being spent by organisations around the globe, a systematic analysis of effective leadership development

components suggests that the types of leadership development trainings are driven more by fads and vendor hype than they are evidence-based (MacPhee et al., 2012).

The extent of alternate discourses on leadership development and the reality of multiple meanings of the concept have led to numerous attempts at its categorisation (Mabey, 2013). The intensive literature review of Mabey (2013) uncovered a somewhat covert, functionalist underpinning to leadership development, which often places robust design and improved corporate performance as its main premises. However, leadership development exists within a social, political, cultural, and historical institutional context which renders particularly important a broader examination through alternative assumptions and approaches. Mabey (2013) deconstructed and analysed four discourses pertaining to Functionalist, Interpretive, Critical Realist, and Dialogic views (Alvesson and Karreman, 2000) and suggested that each had much to offer in attempts to illuminate leadership development in organisations: 'These lead to a challenging but fruitful series of questions: How will this activity build leadership capabilities, and when will we know it has worked? How is the "project" of leadership development construed by different players and in what ways does it arise from an inter-subjective framing of experience at work?' (Mabey, 2013: p.18).

Collaborative arrangements through formal and informal partnerships have eventuated the role of leaders in diverse fields, including educational organisations (Dhillon, 2013) and clinical healthcare settings (Malby et al., 2013). Dhillon premised his qualitative research study on the underpinnings of partnerships that enhance their ability to be effective, sustainable, and successful, and found credence in the extent to which the core characteristics of trust, networks, norms, conventions, beliefs, and values can support and maintain effective, sustainable, and successful partnerships (Dhillon, 2013) and are, hence, components of effective leadership solutions. At a micro-contextual level, leadership comprises a mesh of skills, including translation, motivation skills, empowerment, and creativity (Pearce and Sims Jr, 2002). Livingston identified a

connection between a manager's expectation and an employee's performance, as noted via the Pygmalion effect (Livingston, 2003). A key component of an effective leader is being able to learn from and through others, to have the willingness and capability to embrace new responsibilities, to be open to opportunities, and to adapt to changing circumstances (Livingston, 2003). Manning argues that – contrary to conventional thinking – an underpinning of effective leadership exists in the context of global traits and behaviours regarding success. He also stated that holistic assessments of contrasting leadership behaviours exist which alternate according to specific contexts (Manning, 2013). Research has explored the premise and determinants of effective leadership in a production team and found that leaders must be at least as productive as followers if leadership is to be effective (Cunyat and Melguizo, 2013). Within healthcare, significant research emphasis has been on the leadership behaviours of nurses regarding organisational outcomes, such as workplace/job satisfaction. Yet, recent studies redressed this limitation by exploring the leadership skills and competence of senior nurses who are deemed as effective for assuring patient and staff safety within wards (Agnew and Flin, 2013). Vathanophas and Thai-ngam (2007) sought to determine the required competence and to create a competency model for effective job performance using the Behavioural Event Interview (BEI) technique proposed by 'Spencer and Spencer (1993)'Others (Gover and Duxbury, 2013) sought to illuminate healthcare staff perceptions regarding effective and ineffective leadership behaviour within a hospital setting. They found a consistent connection between effective leadership and relation-oriented behaviours. Whilst the staff noted both formal and informal leadership forms within their organisations, they also identified similarities and differences in the types of behaviours that were linked to both informal and formal leaders. Respondents also cited various leadership behaviours which were suggestively omitted from the leadership behaviour literature, and the authors found that ineffective leadership behaviours do not neatly reflect the opposite of what effective leadership entails (Gover and Duxbury, 2013). Collinson and Collinson (2009) described that Cameron et al. (2006) viewed effective

leaders as: '… simultaneously paradoxical, integrating factors usually seen as competing, contradictory and even incompatible' (Collinson and Collinson, 2009: 'p. 377'). Others inferred that, 'At best a competency framework will only ever be a simple representation of a highly complex and changing landscape…' (Bolden and Gosling, 2006, p. 160'. Hence, a dearth of research exists that explored the competence needed by global leaders in comparison to domestic leaders within the context of local firms: 'Instead, most research is based on the assumption that leadership competencies are universal. But in fact, extant research has not studied effective leadership competencies among leaders who have global responsibilities' (Tompson and Tompson, '2013, p. 70').

Culture is also a critical component of leadership development solutions. Organisational culture can have a noteworthy impact and influence on the enhancement and sustainable probability of improved organisational performance (Bellot, 2011, Hartnell et al., 2011; Hartog and Verburg, 2004) and on a leader's

effectiveness (Posner, 2013). A dearth of cross-cultural knowledge and understanding exists among members of the expatriate community and managers of local Arabian companies (Neal, 2010). Although the literature shows cross-cultural understanding as a success factor for future global growth and development, firms continue to perceive it as an ineffective capability (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2012). Nonetheless, research is emerging whereby cross-cultural differences are neutralised and good working relations are achieved (Neal, 2010), and recent studies illustrated an enhanced understanding of the cross-cultural aspects of leadership (Yeo, 2012). For instance, the leadership style of a project manager is viewed a critical success factor in projects (Turner and Müller, 2005). Another critical success factor for effective leadership in cross-cultural settings is effective communication, particularly in contexts in which 'saving face' has traditionally caused miscommunication and tensions (Pearson, 2011). Research strategies for developing effective leader–follower relations include the use of humour in interactions with subordinates; however, this approach must be used with caution (Hoption et al., 2013).

4.14.4 Individual Perspective

The emergence of new leadership development programmes is viewed in a different context from traditional individual models of self-development towards the shared and distributed forms within broader contexts, such as 'organizations, communities, or fields – for a variety of reasons' (McGonagill and Reinelt, 2011: p.59). 'Day (2000)' stated that leader development is largely concerned with the individual-level process pertaining to the construction of human capital, whereas leadership development is more focused on the many, the power of shared capacity, and the construction of social capital:

'Leader development focuses on individual-level development, such as the knowledge, skills, and abilities required by formal leadership roles... [and]... usually takes the form of formal training, job rotation, or off-site workshops where the instructor or coordinator of the programme determines what and how the leader will learn. In contrast, Leadership Development involves building social capital, including networked relationships among employees. ... [It]... emphasizes building and using interpersonal competence'.

Learning and leading as dual concepts are increasing in importance and reflect the immediate organisational challenges of enhancing the development and capabilities of leaders within limited timeframes and limited resources (Leonard and Lang, 2010). This occurs in the context of significant workplace changes associated with the increase in networked computing and telecommunications infrastructures (Hackney et al., 2008), globalised forces (Tarique and Schuler, 2010), evolving organisational forms (Ferlie et al., 2005), and shifting career trajectories (Brewster and Suutari, 2005). At the heart of these changes is the need for dynamic and flexible leaders who must perform to a much higher requirement whilst subsequently constructing leadership development strategies that enable the self to flourish. Organisations increasingly reassign responsibility for the development of leadership competence to the individual who must first identify with their limitations and create self-development plans for their own learning and development activities (Boyce et al., 2010).

Modern organisations require authentic leaders who are emotionally self-aware, value social fairness, eschew believing in their abilities and capabilities, and direct peers and subordinates with sincere actions (Shamir and Eilam, 2005). In essence, this requires authentic leaders who are unswerving between word and deed (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). A distinct lack of an empirical evidence base or systematic research is hindering insights into the 'characteristics associated with individuals who initiate self-development activities to grow leadership skills' (Boyce et al., 2010: p.159). Denis and colleagues stipulate that, 'Individuals in a position of leadership need to accept the need to leave space for others in an existing constellation – something that seems hard to do in many cases' (Denis et al., 2010: p.85). Harms and Roebuck (2010) point to the need for management to provide relevant and suitable feedback to employees for continual improvement and performance purposes. Feedback is viewed as an essential leadership tool because one's actions and behaviour increasingly determine corporate culture and organisational success (Harms and Roebuck, 2010). Feedback is a critical tool for improvement and helps illuminate an individual's behaviour; however, Cleveland, Lim and Murphy (2007) noted how '… the only task more difficult than receiving performance feedback is giving performance feedback' (in Harms and Roebuck, 2010: p.414). The manner in which feedback is provided and the channels used – both horizontal and vertical – are of critical importance. The consequence of feedback on the receiver inextricably depends on how it is packaged. Underpinning individual feedback is the need to ensure that a positive impact ensues regardless of the underlying message. Harms and Roebuck (2010) identified two options for providing constructive, impactful feedback and inferred that feedback delivered to subordinates differs in approach from feedback provided to peers. For individual leaders to flourish, critical feedback skills and techniques must be embedded within organisational learning strategies. The authenticity of the messenger who practises and enacts self-reflection is also of critical importance in the current organisational climate (George et al., 2007). Leaders of modern organisations must also understand the importance of ethics, act ethically, and be viewed as acting

ethically. For instance, observers (Brown and Mitchell, 2010) view an ethical leader as an individual who actively seeks to uphold the doctrine of honesty and trustworthiness throughout his period in office. Underpinning the ethical leader is a premise on equality and principality, which also illustrates a concern for others. Modern leaders must also be shown to recognise the contributions of peers and subordinates, and studies have determined a positive relationship between authentic leadership and supervisor-rated performance (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

4.14.5 Organisational Perspective

In recent years, the field of human resources has elevated the emerging business of talent management as a prime area of focus (Lewis and Heckman, 2006), and recent research seeks to develop the concept (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013, Thunnissen et al., 2013) to facilitate the exploration of work across a multitude of contexts. From the perspective of a multi-national corporation, observers point to the growing importance of an organisation's corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities as a means to attain and retain employees deemed to be both talented and of value (Macey and Schneider, 2008). For instance, the challenges facing the Omani private sector have led to the need to focus on retaining, maintaining, and developing talented employees (Moideenkutty et al., 2011). Lewis and Heckman (2006) identified three converse genres of thought from their literature review on talent management. The first is a collective of HR departmental practices, norms, functions, and actions across often specialist and professional areas covering recruitment, selection, staff development, succession management, and career management. The second is the notion that talent management focuses specifically on the conceptualisation of individual talent pools. The third viewpoint views talent in a generic fashion '... without regard for organizational boundaries or specific positions' (Lewis and Heckman, 2006: p.141). Hartmann, Feisel and Schober (2010: p.170) noted how, in more recent times, Collings and Mellahi (2009) '… discovered a fourth emerging research stream which highlights the identification of key positions that have a significant impact on a company's competitive advantage'. Thunnissen, Boselie and Fruytier (2013) investigated the

conceptualisation of talent management and the intended practical outcomes of talent management, and analysed specific talent-management practices. Studies on organisational theory and strategic HRM underpin their paper, which provides novel insights and perspectives. Both economic and non-economic forms of value developed by talent-management approaches were noted across the studied organisational tiers (Thunnissen et al., 2013).

4.14.6 Government Perspective
HRM studies have started to investigate job-creation barriers in the context of labour policies across GCC countries, female entrepreneurship, and female participation in the workplace. However, future studies must explore career development, leadership development, and transfer of learning. This is even more pressing considering the growing number of females in the workforce and the need to understand career development and leadership development from a gender perspective (Afiouni et al., 2014). At a micro-contextual level, observers (Marmenout and Lirio, 2014) sought to ascertain within a Gulf context how female talent can be retained in organisations and why the significant educational attainment in the region are not being transferred to the workplace. Observers forecast how both the supply of talent encapsulated through evolving migration patterns and globalised labour markets and the demand for talent increase exponentially (Chambers et al., 1998). Yet, regardless of the global economic climate, the increase in demand for talent is at odds with its limited supply characteristics (Farndale et al., 2010). To convert more Omanis into business leaders, research suggests that a fundamental grassroots culture change is required in society (Mujtaba et al., 2010) to de-stigmatise work at the line-function level. Research also points to the need to establish a leadership culture from school age (Alhaj and Van Horne, 2013) and to appreciate vocational careers. This may create the appetite to set oneself apart from others through determination and effort to acquire skills, either academic or vocational. However, another significant barrier entails a state-supported educational focus on technical and engineering skills rather than softer and more implicit entrepreneurial skills which are

associated with leadership development training within a Western university curriculum (Arslanian, 2013).

The research questions are used to produce and explain a conceptual model for the development of questions for further reading. From the review of related literature and studies, a theoretical scheme for the research problem has thus been formulated. This is a tentative explanation of the phenomenon under study and provides the basis for the investigation. The Al-Sawai 2016 model consists of my own position on the problem after exposure to life in private sector Oman and to the various theories that are relevant to the problem and/or phenomenon. This model has its roots in previous models in this study, which is illustrated in the upcoming literature review. However, it is worth keeping in mind that '… In spite of the innumerable prescriptive theories on leadership… there is little existing research on how MNCs actually develop their leaders. Most research has been small sample case studies that examine the practices of a few companies' (Tompson and Tompson, 2013: p.69). Leadership development has the potential to serve as a strategic artefact in the implementation of organisational strategy to improve business performance. Coupled with that, an empirical evidence base is required to construct leadership development strategy in line with more robust empirical approaches to informing professional practice (Gold et al., 2010). It has been reported that leadership development and transfer of learning are critical activities within organisational settings and should underpin organisational and HR strategy. Hence, regarding the present study, strategic plans must be structured to enable the future alignment of firms' own business development and HR policies whilst simultaneously being synchronised with Omanisation challenges. In this respect, the notion of perspective in Mintzberg (1978) becomes particularly important through the retrospective evaluation of leadership development programmes. The literature seeks to determine whether there is a link between national strategy and organisational leadership development. Reviews by CEML (2002) and Lord Leitch (2006), who expanded the CEML focus by also focusing on skill shortages, highlighting the importance of skillsets, and illustrating the link between productivity and

performance, are still viewed by observers of leadership development as narrowly focused because they failed to stipulate how leaders should experience long-term and sustainable development (Thorpe et al., 2008). Hence, some demand-led models for addressing needs are inherently flawed because they fail to tackle the underlying issue of real transformational learning. The literature points to a need to shift emphasis away from 'skills-gap analysis' and subsequent skills training as preconditions for leadership development towards more authentic forms of leadership development (George et al., 2007) which are underpinned by self-development, one's ambition to self-develop and perform as a leader, and the need for well-intended leadership development programmes to support that process (Boyce et al., 2010b). A lack of alignment between skills output from the higher-education system and private sector skills needs is also noted.

In the context of the present study, research forecasts that an annual 3:1 ratio of college graduates produced to job availability will soon be realised and will have a detrimental effect on Oman's ability to retain national talent and create a highly educated workforce (Al-Barwani et al., 2009). Migration will be influenced by the decreasing quality of college education, perhaps imbuing a lack of preparation for competing in the global labour market. Such graduate-level unease may have a disconcerting effect on privately run higher-level institutions, such as colleges and universities which were constructed as for-profit enterprises with the objective of enhancing educational attainment. However, the neoliberal structure of higher-level education in Middle Eastern countries will naturally lead to pressures, balancing a return on private sector investment with reinvestment in programmes to enhance educational attainment through improved instructional quality (Al-Barwani et al., 2009). A recently published doctoral thesis (Al Balushi, 2012) found that a significant barrier facing Omani authorities relates to the value and effectiveness of leadership in higher education in Oman. It is suggested that robust academic leadership is the key to the effective management of colleges and universities (Al Balushi, 2012).

The literature review also seeks to articulate how leadership development strategy can be implemented. That the HRM milieu is a significant factor in the drive for more leadership development practices in organisational settings has been reported (Gold et al., 2010). Analysis of the scope of leadership development programmes has been undertaken to ascertain whether such programmes focus mainly on candidates and training interventions internal to the organisation or whether they are also external. This focus is important because the Omanisation policy seeks to increase national-citizen participation in the workforce to ensure that effective HRM strategies are enacted. Thus, leadership development strategy has been explored within the macro-level context of globalisation and the micro-level context of programme design and evaluation. It has also been noted how the strategy is traditionally viewed as a staged process (Boyce et al., 2010a, Reichard and Johnson, 2011a), yet its process has faced significant criticism for underlying instructional approaches. A recent focus on more contextualised development strategies is being observed (Boyce et al., 2010a). From prior studies, connections among leadership development, strategic planning, and organisational change have been noted (Gold et al., 2010). Moreover, there are calls to extend leadership development's narrow focus, whereby HR departments establish training needs which render recipients as passive (Reichard and Johnson, 2011a), to a model in which HR's role is inextricably focused on self-development beyond the confines of specific training and development programmes (Reichard and Johnson, 2011a). The literature points to more narrow assumptions regarding talent management being closely associated with the development of senior and line managers (Guerci and Solari, 2012) rather than HR being focused on including all staff in developmental activities. It is notable how many MNCs still adopt an unsystematic approach to the development of future leaders and how many (less than 50%) had concrete forms of global succession planning or formal management development programmes for high-potential staff (McDonnell et al., 2010). The climate and culture that enable effective leaders to flourish must be instigated to reduce or remove risk of failure, and organisations must embrace an inclusive model that

encompasses all management tiers (Avolio et al., 2010b). However, a blend of both inclusive and exclusive approaches can help bypass concerns over how valuable some employees are over others (Stahl et al., 2012).

Perhaps competitive advantage can be gleaned through the internal alignment of overlapping components of an organisation's talent management system, along with its blending within the fabric of the organisation's value systems, which also include their connections to business strategy (Stahl et al., 2012). This line of thinking contradicts the assumption that a competitive advantage emerges from the careful design and implementation of best practices (Stahl et al., 2012). Talent management is a key component of human resource management because of its emphasis on gaining a strategic competitive advantage to revitalise workforces (Singh et al., 2012). This approach has been a significant underpinning of recent HR policies, yet the literature notes the lack of an empirical evidence base regarding the level at which companies are managing their talent (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013) and calls have developed for more multi-disciplinary approaches to talent management (Iles, 2013) for achieving a strategic competitive advantage. The literature does not clarify whether only certain high-potential candidates can benefit from leadership development programmes or whether all employees will benefit.

This literature review has also explored ways in which to assess leadership for development purposes, and whilst leadership development interventions are rare in the literature – as are theories of leadership development (Avolio et al., 2010) – it has been important to deconstruct some frameworks and models that have contributed to the assessment of leadership development per se (Tamkin and Denvir, 2006, MacPhee et al., 2012, Clarke et al., 2008). It has been noted how an overlay of structural empowerment on the model in Tamkin and Denvir (2006) would enrich their HR context. The (HR) context itself would deploy information, support, and resources that are vital for job satisfaction, trust, and commitment. Based on my interpretation of the literature,

leadership solutions are defined through the premise of effective leadership. MacPhee et al. (2012) inferred that, although substantial funds are being spent by organisations around the globe, a systematic analysis of what effective leadership development components are suggests that types of leadership development training are driven more by fads and vendor hype than by concrete evidence (MacPhee et al., 2012). What is deemed effective emanates from the strategic design and management of fluid horizontal partnerships and other collaborative arrangements, such as grassroots, patient-led networks (Ranmuthugala et al., 2011), through to individuals' meta-competence; however, competency frameworks remain narrowly focused and omit complex and evolving landscapes (Bolden and Gosling, 2006). Some assertions claim that leadership competence is universal, but a lack of empirical studies exist on effective 'leadership competencies among leaders who have global responsibilities' (Tompson and Tompson, 2013: p.70).

At the heart of this study is the task of ascertaining how leaders are developed for senior positions. The expected outcome of strategic investments in leadership development is of interest and the ramifications for leadership development and practice are notable because the objective is to increase the quality and quantity of leaders in Oman. It is anticipated that Oman's private sector may be impacted by a more distributed and shared model of leadership. This is expected to emerge as a consequence of strategic investments in leadership development which the Sultanate of Oman seeks to increase across both public and private sectors, have been widely explored in the context of organisational change (Harris, 2008), and span fields and disciplines including education, through a focus on teacher leadership (Harris, 2003), higher education (Jones et al., 2010, Gosling et al., 2009), online education (Harris et al., 2013, Jameson, 2013), healthcare (Currie et al., 2011), social care (Lawler, 2007), and within the context of teamwork and decision making in emergencies (Bienefeld and Grote, 2011). The ramifications for the shift from individualised to collective, situated, and distributed forms of leadership must continue to be investigated (Dhillon, 2013) but remain under-researched. A shift has

occurred in the context of studying leadership within the social sciences towards social studies theoretically underpinned by practice (Harris et al., 2013, Jameson, 2013). Here-within, a focus on practice elevates human action and praxis as a strategy for understanding how humans create and recreate organisations and the social world (Posner, 2013, Spillane et al., 2004, Denis et al., 2010) and how, perhaps, in the context of my present study, this may lead to a better understanding of how future leaders' developed leadership practices are characterised by joint production and dispersed responsibility. Such developments and subsequent practices 'present challenges and opportunities for leaders and managers... both in terms of the leadership skills needed to work as "partners" and the responsibilities of developing and managing governance structures and communication systems that ensure efficiency and effectiveness across partner organizations' (Dhillon, 2013: pp. 746-747).

A clear need exists to build on the limited number of empirical studies in the private sector of the Middle East (Khan and Almoharby, 2007, Moideenkutty et al., 2011) and to focus on leadership practice and the development of senior leaders in such complex cultural environments. Considering the growing interest in leadership practice (Spillane et al., 2004, Posner, 2013), interest in leadership encompasses the traditional and moves on to a specific interest in the roles, activities, responsibilities, purpose, daily functions, and correlated exchanges that occur in situ (Ely et al., 2010). Leadership practice entails a product or outcome of dynamic collaboration or multi-party exchanges of leaders and other key stakeholders enmeshed in dynamic and evolving activity systems (Collins et al., 2002, Bedny and Harris, 2005, Engeström, 1987) that utilise and are governed by a range of both abstract and physical tools (including customs, norms, routines, procedures, and rules) (Harris, 2008, Jones et al., 2010). This heralds a seismic shift in thinking away from the traditional leader and towards a comprehension dynamic, complex, overlapping, and multi-faceted network of leaders, potential leaders, followers, and their specific organisational situations which results in the notion of leadership practice (Gronn, 2009, Ferlie et al., 2012). Shifting beyond individuals and moving towards networks of leaders

has the potential to provide peer-based maintenance and support that creates opportunities for growth and development and for taking unpredictable routes and innovative approaches to problem solving (Plastrik and Taylor, 2006). However, Allio noted how 'organizations seem to perversely select and retain leaders who are not up to the task. They lack either competence or character or both' (Allio, 2009: p.9). Bhatnagar (2007) noted how the identification of high-altitude people is a global issue, with ramifications for companies across most regions of the world.

Chapter 5 Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions that have emerged from the constructivist grounded methodology and the interpretive theorising of the empirical data to reveal possible informed Implications for future research and limitations. These are outlined together to make a contribution to leadership development.

5.2 Meeting the Grounded Theory Criteria

The study adopted the grounded theory approach of Charmaz (2006, pp. 178–180) that uses a constructivist stance which accepts that, '…we can view grounded theories as products of emergent processes that occur through interaction. Researchers construct their respective both witnessed and live. We stand within the research process rather than above, before, or outside it'. To evaluate grounded theory studies, Charmaz (2006), whilst acknowledging the usefulness of the suggestions of Glaser (1978) of fit, work, relevance, and modifiability, provides her own criteria of credibility, originality, resonance, and usefulness. The coding process and grounded theorising developed into theoretical explanations of their journey, allowing for a connection to the extant literature, which was broadened to capture alternative multi-disciplinary perspectives of transfer (Wan Hamid et al., 2012; Segers and Gegenfurtner, 2013; Volet, 2013; Weisweiller et al., 2013). In addition, the works of Weick (1995, 2001, 2009, 2012), Weick et al. (2005), and Colville et al. (2012) have guided my use of a sense-making framework with which to explore the transfer of learning from training. The models presented represent the study evolution, the emerging concepts, and the credibility of the research process which adopted constant comparative methods.

The leadership development and transfer of learning model (Figure 4) presented in the previous chapter signifies the iterative exploration of the complex construct of leadership development and transfer from participants' sense-making perspective within a constructivist grounded-theory methodology informed by empirical qualitative data. The focus has shifted from considering the relationships between generic transfer characteristics and the variables framed within the HR literature originating with Baldwin and Ford (1988) to a unique empirical study of the underlying individual and collective relationships, identifying issues, and context-giving within which sense-making is a compelling factor for the success of transfers.

5.3 Contribution to the Field and Significance of the Study

This study can be said to contribute to the extant transfer knowledge 'by offering a fresh or deeper understanding of the studied phenomenon' (Charmaz, 2006, p. 153) in the following ways.

1. This study presents a unique substantive grounded theory based on the core grounded theory concept of leadership development and transfer as a sense-making journey through grounded theory concepts. This study has added to the small amount of empirical qualitative data to provide a deeper understanding of leadership development and transfer of learning from the NCP.

2. There is a lack of identification of Omani culture in the literature, whereas this study considers Omani culture.

3. Investigations of current approaches in leadership development and transfer of learning in the Omani private sector related to developing future CEOs are insufficient.

4. Examinations of the effectiveness of leadership development programmes in Oman to improve leadership development investigations are insufficient.

5. Investigations of approaches to building future Omani CEOs in the private sector are insufficient. This study has specifically addressed these gaps in the literature.

6. The development of the model of leadership development and transfer of learning is a significant theoretical contribution of the study because it is the first type of model in Omani culture and it links leadership development with transfer of learning.

7. The model demonstrates that leadership development and transfer of learning is an important variable for building future CEOs by considering the cultural aspect. The successful application of the model to the Omani context implies that it would be valuable in future leadership development with transfer of learning studies in an environment other than Oman, such as another Gulf country.

8. This study has supported the findings of other scholars that the extant transfer literature provides limited explanations of transfer experiences from the individual's perspective and is a general process-driven and quantitative methodology (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Burke and Hutchins, 2011; Grossman and Salas, 2011). In addition, most extant models are predicated on research studies on the impact of individual characteristics and variables on the success of transfers within the three distinct dimensions of training inputs, training outputs, and conditions of transfer at a single point in time.

9. This study has made a substantive contribution to the call for transfer of training to be reviewed as a 'multidimensional phenomenon with multilevel influences' (Burke and Hutchins, 2007, p. 287). In doing so, it has contributed an extant theory to the growing body of knowledge interested in capturing the implicit relational nature of transfer using a participant-centred approach and qualitative methodology which explores the holistic transfer journey (Wan Hamid et al., 2012; Segers and Gegenfurtner, 2013; Weisweiller et al., 2013).

10. This study adds weight to the argument that leadership development and transfer of learning is significant for transfers because they facilitate sense-making and make progress towards substantiating the works of Du Toit (2007).

11. The study makes a methodological contribution through its use of a grounded theory approach to investigate leadership development and transfer of learning in a developing nation such as Oman. Previous research examined leadership development in many different nations but in different contexts, such as Western nations with large immigrant populations that are attempting to assimilate the norms of the dominant culture.

5.4 Implications for Future Research

This study is directly applicable to the Omani private sector and may have merit for other Arab Gulf states because they tend to share similar strategic and operational qualities (Hart et al., 2007; Grugilis et al., 2010; Pollitt, 2010). However, a broader application should be treated with caution and may be viewed as a limitation. This study provides a methodology and model for future research that can be adapted to form the basis for further qualitative research and the transfer and evaluation of leadership development design. Therefore, it is very important to develop current and future leaders to maintain the success of the Omani private sector because the sector's rapid development in Oman requires qualified leaders with vision to develop the CEO class to meet the needs of the labour market. The research explores the CEO programme in the Omani private sector by interviewing participants in the programme, as described and analysed in the previous chapter. This study has the following implications.

1. Taking a 'transfer of learning from training' (Volet, 2013, p. 95) approach to future research will move away from the view of the transfer as being problematic and a failure of 'initial learning' (Perkins & Salmon, 2012, p. 250) to opening up the study of transfer from a multidisciplinary perspective.

2. This study has found that sense-making provides a suitable research framework and one possible explanatory view of the transfer experience. Further research into this concept would assist the understanding of the inherently human and implicit nature of transfers. Qualitative approaches would provide a counterbalance to the predominant quantitative studies and facilitate cross-fertilisation of concepts, methodologies, results, and ideas to inform the design of an effective framework for transfer research.

3. Future research would benefit from locating the study within an extended timeframe to capture the development of senior leaders.

4. The synergy suggested from this study among transfer, leadership development, and sense-making would benefit from further qualitative enquiry.

5. Taking an approach that involves other Arab countries would be significant.

6. A comparative research project across another Gulf country is recommended to identify whether alternative cross-national leadership and development with transfer models would have similar success.

7. The model appears to have a firm empirical foundation and is amenable to future tests regarding its generalisability.

8. It is important for policymakers to recognise that the country needs a training revolution to develop future CEOs to meet the private sector's demand for senior management labour.

9. The government should ensure that the necessary legislative and supervisory bodies are in place to develop future leaders in Oman.

10. Future research should refine and strengthen the follow-up measurement process, providing greater validity to evaluations of programmes in the future.

5.5 Recommendations for Planning and Practice: ALSAWAI 2016 Model

This study is the first to analyse cross-domain transfers across the participant journey and to isolate the most significant variables using a constructivist grounded theory methodology to inform the model. The central nation of Oman emanated from the carefully considered process of developing a conceptual model by Al-Sawai (2016) in Chapter 6, which mirrors important concepts specified in prior studies and scoping reviews that may add value to the CEO programme.

Referring back to the leadership development and transfer of learning model from Al-Sawai (2016) (refer to Figure 7, p. 118), which is based on literature-informed assumptions that the private sector leadership development had been part of the overarching Omani Vision 2020 strategies, the findings presented here call for a re-evaluation and adjustment of the model.

However, the data clearly suggested that leadership development and transfer of learning in the private sector were not key issues and, in any event, would follow a complex mesh of cultural decision-making priorities that are beyond the scope of this DBA study.

As noted in the literature review, Al-Sawai (2016) viewed leadership development as a three-perspective iterative process. The participant perspective stipulates that private- or public-sector organisations evaluate their business requirements and then determine the capacities that a professional leader requires to manage the resources at his or her disposal to their fullest potential. Leadership development interventions, in terms of inclusive or exclusive training and programmes, aim to address any deficiencies or emerging requirements and needs. Equally important is a post-intervention evaluation model to safeguard the applicability and quality of future interventions.

It is recommended that these points inform part of the strategic planning considerations set out as follows.

1. Engagement in planning and delivery must start with the CEO and senior leadership team and must recognise that this interrelated journey will require a long-term commitment.

2. Outcomes and measures (both qualitative and quantitative) should be clearly articulated at the strategic level and translated to practical outcomes at the micro level.

3. The communication strategy should aim to build momentum and positive anticipation across and within the business population and offer a consistent and inclusive message.

4. The quality assurance of the programme should be a feature across the transfer journey, across the staff responsible for delivery and support, and within the business context.

5. The evaluation should begin in the business pre-training to review current operational practices and enable qualitative measures of performance improvements to judge both explicit and implicit behaviour changes alongside quantifiable ROI and KPIs.

6. For a more informed and accurate evaluation of the behavioural change elements, future models should adopt a multi-dimensional approach which records the behavioural elements, relationships, and dynamic interactions implicit in soft-skills development.

7. Celebration of success should permeate the organisation and be motivational rather than divisive.

8. Once a model has been suggested as a proposal for future research, its architecture should be improved.

9. Future studies may include open-ended questions regarding the aspects of national culture and the institutions that significantly influence leadership development in Oman.

10. The key challenges faced by local and international CEOs regarding management of their human resources in the global business environment need to be examined. For example, on the one hand, there is an increased emphasis on Omanisation and adherence to Islamic

principles; yet, on the other hand, globalisation imposes pressures to adopt global standards and policies.

5.6 The Research Journey and Limitations

The challenges to becoming a constructivist grounded researcher within an already confusing and complex research topic for which few similar studies exist to act as reference points were immense, especially considered alongside a full-time and demanding senior-management role. It has been a challenge to order the sequence of this thesis because theorising from data means keeping an open mind to any new theory or emerging historical patterns. There was also the academic requirement of undertaking a review of the literature relatively early in the research process. To remain in some way focused and unbiased whilst being a constructor and interpreter of others' experiences, I have sought to pull out signposts along the way to provide symbols of sense and progress and to stay within the guidelines espoused by Charmaz (2006, p. 2) as being necessary to 'construct theory "grounded" in the data themselves'. Leadership development has become a major concern of the Omani government, particularly in the private sector. The model (leadership development and transfer of learning) which I developed will assist in closing the gap in the Omani private sector. Its three main areas are: Oman's operating environment; participant perspective; and programme design. As previously noted, it is necessary to have the right environment and right programme design because the literature supports such an approach. Oman is a Muslim country with a strong historical heritage, and Omani culture and tradition will help to develop future CEOs.

As is the case with any study, this study also has its limitations. For cultural reasons, it may be difficult to generalise from the findings of my research because of the unique context of Oman's working operational environment and the programme design from private sector respondents, and because of the subjective essence in terms of the complexity of leadership development and later in regard to the subsequent strategies employed by private sector firms in their development of senior leaders. This reasoning harks back to observers who caution that researchers should consider whether they are persuaded that the research findings are of sufficient robustness to develop policy or legislation on the basis of them (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Some of the fieldwork was carried out in Arabic with the majority of the questions translated from English to Arabic and translated back from Arabic to English, which might have resulted in loss of meaning or misunderstandings. In addition, the study addresses only the Omani working environment and is limited to the private sector. Additionally, the limited literature available regarding the impact of Omani culture on leadership development and human resource management in general is another challenge.

5.7 Summary

Chapter 5 draws our journey to a close, presenting the study conclusions, the strategic implications, and the recommendations for practice and suggestions for further research that have evolved through my constructivist grounded theory approach.

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Appendix A: initial coding from interviews

Leading Self

Leading Organisation

Leading Sector

Leadership Capabilities

Clear Vision

Type of Leader

Leadership Skills

Develop the Next Generation

Challenges

Skillset (Omanis must have and demonstrate)

Omani Leaders

Expats have no Experience

No LD Strategy in Private Sector

Some Unqualified Post Holders in Big Positions

Personal Contact Counts

Oman's Economy

Governance Issues in Working Environments

Non Incentivising Systems in Private sector

Government Employment Preferred

Private Sector not Giving the Opportunity to Shine

Companies Type

Working Together with Private Sector is Challenge for Government

Proposed to Conduct a Study

Weak Private Sector

Type of Company / Family Monopolies

Private Sector Key to Economic Growth

Private Sector Firms Dependent on Experts

Private Sector Remuneration Package – No Incentive

Private Sector Perceived to Have No Career Opportunity

Need Incentives for Movement of People

Ought to Care about Employment Collaborations

Collaborations Benefit Growth of the Country

Collaborations to Foster Skills and Experiences

Intermediary Bodies

Enable Talented People (to demonstrate and apply their skills)

Big Government Position should Avoid Private Business

Abuse Power of Office for Own Economic Benefit

Quality of Education

Lessons Learned from Other Nations

Oman has Enviable Public Infrastructure

Learning Methodologies

Investment in Education Avenue

TM not an Issue for Government Rulings

TM Systems do not Exist

Vision for Stronger Economy

Entrepreneurship

Education of Decision Maker

Culture Change

Leadership – Traits / Skills

Human Capacity / Talents

Support Framework for Entrepreneur

Entrepreneurship

Incubators / Start-up, Offering Support to Them

Support Framework

SME Support

Learning, Coaching, and Practical Application across Diverse Sectors and Regions

Human Resources for Development

Leadership Talent

Available Opportunities

Capabilities and Experience

Personal Development

Build a Network

Integrated Program

A Challenging Selection Process

Dynamic Omani Leadership Network

Strategic Objectives

Benefit Omani Business

Sharing Lessons of Leadership

Learning Experiences

Applying What has been Learned

Building Skill

Experiences

Techniques

Tools

Become an Alumnus

Nation's Competitiveness

National Priorities

Impact at Both Organisational and National Levels

Appendix B: for initial coding and memos from interviews

memo	codes
Under the patronage of the Diwan of the Royal Court, The National CEO Program is an initiative launched by the Public Private Partnership taskforce (Sharaka). It is the first of its kind in the Sultanate and its goal is to develop the next generation of private sector Omani leaders and executives. The realisation that the private sector must first be put on sustainable footing before thinking about top management leadership may become an issue. However, leadership is even more important at lower operational levels. Omani staff lack the skills to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in what they are doing, which links back to technical leadership traits that can be trained, thus calling even more for leadership development programmes. However, rather than being 'exclusive for future executives', they must have an 'inclusive organizational foundation' to reach a critical mass of knowledge and skills within our nation. The Sultanate has outstanding economic opportunities and boasts a wealth of natural and human resources for development. The nation's public and private sector are working – and will continue to work – together to identify these sectoral opportunities and therein secure a future less reliant on a carbon-based economy. However, the private sector needs the right leadership talent to fully realise these available opportunities. To achieve this, the private sector's critical challenges are to identify the future leaders of the country's organisations; to understand their capabilities and areas for personal development; to develop their leadership skills, capabilities, and experience, enabling them to compete on the international stage; and to build a network of current and future private sector leaders focused on unlocking the economic potential of the country.	Economic Sustainability Through Diversification Economic Growth The Opportunity
The programme is designed to benefit Omani business people from organisations of various sizes across diverse sectors and regions of the country.	World-class IMD
Building world-class Omani CEOs.	Vision of the Programme
Aimed at delivering sustainable value in line with Oman's national agenda. Breakthrough projects will be related to concrete business opportunities in a range of important fields from Oman's private sector such as industry, infrastructure,	Objective of the Programme

logistics, tourism, and agriculture, among others.	
It is a visible demonstration of the importance and value that the Sultanate assigns to the private sector's role the future performance of Oman's economy and one which will deliver clear results.	People – not GDP
I had always held the United Kingdom in highest esteem; hence, I came to Bradford. However, seeing Bradford's serious socioeconomic challenges on a daily basis, its extreme inequality when you compare one neighbourhood with another, or some of the university's infrastructure, I feel that my dream about the United Kingdom was destroyed. While I am very grateful for all of the nice things that I experience in the United Kingdom, I am becoming even more confident that Oman will become a very successful nation. This is as I start to understand that resources are important (which we have been blessed with) but also that human capital is what makes the difference. Therefore, this puts me somewhat in a position of responsibility given that my research outcome can contribute to addressing some of the human capital issues.	Support Role / Multiplier
The National CEO Program is designed to address the private sector's emerging needs for talented business leaders and executives who are empowered to meet the challenges of the marketplace and embrace the opportunities that the Sultanate's economy will offer. This exclusive programme is founded on global best practices and the latest leadership thinking and learning methodologies.	PPP Support Role
Today's leaders are faced with a wide range of challenges and increasing levels of competition locally, regionally, and internationally. They are expected to develop and implement business strategies and integrate the work of multiple functions to achieve the best possible results. The National CEO Program will enable Oman's future senior leaders to gain the integrated knowledge and global insights required to lead their organisations successfully in the face of global economic uncertainty and fierce competition.	Learning Journey
The NCP management has worked closely with IMD to develop a comprehensive learning process. It draws on intellectual and experiential methodologies to deliver impactful learning and to offer the opportunity to network with a broad range of leaders and thinkers. Participants will be exposed to a variety of models, ideas, and practical experiences that blend theory with practice.	Continues Improvement
Coaching is a key element of the programme to shape and drive change at a personal level. Coaching helped participants develop their self-awareness and interpersonal and team leadership capabilities.	Coaching

Participants obtained extensive 360-degree feedback from colleagues on their leadership competences. This feedback is reviewed and discussed during this programme.	Feedback Mechanism

Appendix C: Categories (focus coding) – Core Categories

Category	Codes
Programme initiative by PPP	Working together with the private sector is a challenge for the government
	Working environment
	Weak private sector
	Movement of people
	Type of company/company types/family monopolies
	Personal contact counts (networking)
	Feedback mechanism
	Support role
Performance of Omani economy	Collaborations benefit growth of the country
	Non-incentivising systems in the private sector
	Framework for evaluation of outcomes
	In the private sector, corporate business development
	Vision for stronger economy
	Policy implementation
	Incentives for implementing Omanisation policy
	In the public sector (Omanisation and

	Leadership Development, Grassroot Culture Change)
Measurable impact in private sector	Impact at both organisational and national levels
	Leading sector
	Intermediary bodies
	Government support
	Applying what has been learned
	No LD strategy in the private sector
	Government employment preferred
	Type of company/Family monopolies
	Strategic objectives
	Benefit Omani business
	TM systems do not exist
	TM not an issue for government rulings
	Continues improvement
	People – not GDP
Develop next generation	Leadership capabilities
	Building skill
	Ought to care about employment collaborations
	Dynamic Omani leadership network
	Culture change
	Entrepreneurship
	Human resources for developing the nation's competitiveness
Building world-class CEO	Strategic objectives across diverse sectors and regions

	Nationalization support
	National priorities
	Leading organisation
	Challenges
	Lessons learned from other nations
	Private sector remuneration package – no incentive
	Integrated programme
	A challenging selection process
	Human capacity/talent
	Vision of the program
	Support role/multiplier
	Objective of the programme
	World-class IMD
Economic development	Vision for a stronger economy
	Offering support to start-ups
	Oman has an enviable public infrastructure
	Economic growth
	Economic sustainability
	Oman's economy dependent on sectors
	Economy to be better
	Confidence in young Omanis
	Dependent on experts
	Job chance

	Intermediary bodies
	SME support
	Support framework
	Support framework for entrepreneur
	Incubators/Start-ups, offering support to them
	Growth of the country
	Private sector perceived to have no career opportunities
	Need incentives for movement of people
	Oman has enviable public infrastructure
	Abuse of power of office for own economic benefit
Learning from Other	Learning lessons of leadership
	Sharing lessons of leadership
	Learning, coaching, and practical application
	Personal development
	Learning experiences
	Learning methodologies
	Clear vision
	Leadership talent
	Type of leader
	Leadership − Traits/Skills
	Leadership skills
	Leading self
	Learning journey

	Expats have no experience
	Collaborations benefit growth of the country
	Coaching
Educated and experienced	Collaborations to foster skills and experiences
	Capabilities and experience
	Experiences
	Some unqualified post holders in big positions
	Private sector firms dependent on experts
	Quality of education
	Lessons learned from other nations
	Investments in education avenue
	Education of decision maker
Available opportunities	Build a network
	Omani leaders
	Private sector not given the opportunity to shine
	Techniques
	Tools
	Become an alumnus
	Governance issues in working environments
	Skillset (Omanis must have and demonstrate)
	Proposed to conduct a study
	Private sector perceived to have no career opportunity

		Need incentives for movement of people
		Enable talented people (to demonstrate and apply their skills to big government positions to avoid private business)

Appendix: D: Table 7: Advance LR link with themes and memo writing

Memo	Theme / codes	Literature Review Memos
1	Leadership	Leadership: AVOLIO, B. J., AVEY, J. B. & QUISENBERRY, D. 2010. Estimating return on leadership development investment. *The Leadership Quarterly,* 21**,** 633-644., The Bass Handbook of Leadership (2009)
	Power	Power (Foucault's work) → It occurred to me that 'power' (and its artefacts) in the context of organisational behaviour requires further appreciation. For example, the first interviewee had the power to control the interview settings in his office. He applied his power (over me) to remove the emergent feeling of 'oddness' by continuing the interview in Arabic instead of English. He also had power over his colleagues to change at short notice the agenda of a meeting for which they were preparing.
	Human Capital Job Creation	Economic Development/Job Creation/SME Job Creation: ABU-QARN, A. S. & ABU-BADER, S. 2007. Sources of Growth Revisited: Evidence from Selected MENA Countries. *World Development,* 35**,** 752-771, CHERIF, R. & HASANOV, F. 2013. Oil Exporters' Dilemma: How Much to Save and How Much to Invest. Ibid.52**,** 120-131, GRUBER, L. & KOSACK, S. 2014. The

		Tertiary Tilt: Education and Inequality in the Developing World. Ibid.**54**, 253-272, IANCHOVICHINA, E., ESTACHE, A., FOUCART, R., GARSOUS, G. & YEPES, T. 2013. Job Creation through Infrastructure Investment in the Middle East and North Africa. Ibid.**45**, 209-222, MALIK, A. & AWADALLAH, B. Ibid.The Economics of the Arab Spring. 296-313, MURAT, M. 2014. Out of Sight, Not Out of Mind. Education Networks and International Trade. Ibid.**58**, 53-66, SHUSHAN, D. & MARCOUX, C. 2011. The Rise (and Decline?) of Arab Aid: Generosity and Allocation in the Oil Era. Ibid.**39**, 1969-1980, SURI, T., BOOZER, M. A., RANIS, G. & STEWART, F. Ibid.Paths to Success: The Relationship Between Human Development and Economic Growth. 506-522, WILLIAMS, A. Ibid.Shining a Light on the Resource Curse: An Empirical Analysis of the Relationship Between Natural Resources, Transparency, and Economic Growth. 490-505. → My life in the United Kingdom and Bradford has sensitised me to human capital as the natural precondition for 'economic growth' and 'economic diversification'.
		Education and Economic Development: BENOS, N. & ZOTOU, S. 2014. Education and Economic Growth: A Meta-Regression Analysis. Ibid.**64**, 669-689, GLEWWE, P., MAÏGA, E. & ZHENG, H. Ibid.The Contribution of Education to Economic Growth: A Review of the Evidence, with Special Attention and an Application to Sub-Saharan Africa. 59**,** 379-393, GLEWWE, P. & PATRINOS, H. A. 1999. The Role of the Private Sector in Education in

		Vietnam: Evidence From the Vietnam Living Standards Survey. Ibid.27**,** 887-902, KAHYARARA, G. & TEAL, F. 2008. The Returns to Vocational Training and Academic Education: Evidence from Tanzania. Ibid.36**,** 2223-2242, KARSHENAS, M., MOGHADAM, V. M. & ALAMI, R. 2014. Social Policy after the Arab Spring: States and Social Rights in the MENA Region. Ibid.64**,** 726-739, OLDS, K. 2007. Global Assemblage: Singapore, Foreign Universities, and the Construction of a "Global Education Hub". Ibid.35**,** 959-975, SÁNCHEZ, M. V. & CICOWIEZ, M. 2014. Trade-offs and Payoffs of Investing in Human Development. Ibid.62**,** 14-29, WARUNSIRI, S. & MCNOWN, R. 2010. The Returns to Education in Thailand: A Pseudo-Panel Approach. Ibid.38**,** 1616-1625.
	Entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurship: AYOB, A. H. & FREIXANET, J. 2014. Insights into public export promotion programs in an emerging economy: The case of Malaysian SMEs. *Evaluation and Program Planning,* 46**,** 38-46, DE VITA, L., MARI, M. & POGGESI, S. 2014. Women entrepreneurs in and from developing countries: Evidences from the literature. *European Management Journal,* 32**,** 451-460, ZARIDIS, A. D. & MOUSIOLIS, D. T. 2014. Entrepreneurship and SME's Organizational Structure. Elements of a Successful Business. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 148**,** 463-467.
	Entrepreneur Education	Entrepreneurship Education: HAMPEL-MILAGROSA, A., LOEWE, M. & REEG, C. 2015. The Entrepreneur Makes a Difference: Evidence on MSE Upgrading Factors from

		Egypt, India, and the Philippines. *World Development, 66*, 118-130, MIHAIL, D. M. & KLOUTSINIOTIS, P. V. 2014. The impact of an MBA on managerial skills and career advancement: The Greek case. *The International Journal of Management Education,* 12, 212-222, VERHULST, E. & LAMBRECHTS, W. Fostering the incorporation of sustainable development in higher education. Lessons learned from a change management perspective. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, WARHUUS, J. P. & BASAIAWMOIT, R. V. Entrepreneurship education at Nordic technical higher education institutions: Comparing and contrasting programme designs and content. *The International Journal of Management Education*. → While an entrepreneur may have a good idea or spot an opportunity, he still must be able to master business management practices. For example, in Bradford, the son of a local shopkeeper spotted an opportunity to revolutionise grocery shopping by breaking with traditions. He could only do so because he relied on the sound business management skills (e.g. accounting and marketing) that he had been taught and had experienced since a young age.
	SME Management Education Stewardship vs. Family based Management	Management Education: BODOLICA, V., SPRAGGON, M. & ZAIDI, S. Boundary management strategies for governing family firms: A UAE-based case study. *Journal of Business Research*, PATON, R. A. & WAGNER, R. 2014. Management Education makes a Difference: Enhancing German Engineering Performance. *Long Range*

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		Planning, 47**,** 277-298. CHOWDHURY, S., SCHULZ, E., MILNER, M. & VAN DE VOORT, D. 2014. Core employee based human capital and revenue productivity in small firms: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Business Research,* 67**,** 2473-2479, DHAR, R. L. 2015. Service quality and the training of employees: The mediating role of organizational commitment. *Tourism Management,* 46**,** 419-430, HU, B. 2014. Linking business models with technological innovation performance through organizational learning. *European Management Journal,* 32**,** 587-595. → It emerged that there is a quantitative lack in terms of the number of SMEs in Oman, as well as a qualitative lack in terms of the proficiency of their management attributable to a lack of stewardship (using professional and competently employed management).
		Interview Memo
	Food Crisis (partially blamed on profiteering) Economic Freedom	Omanisation is about scarce resources that are preserved for Oman. → Although Oman has enjoyed a constant increase in living standards and was praised by the Heritage Foundation for its Economic Freedom Index (2014) of 68 – just marginally below the UK's 74 and considerably higher than the world average of 60 – the turmoil of the Arab Spring could have swapped over by orchestrated media campaigns. As a net importer of food stocks, the Arab Spring highlighted that the food and housing markets face market distortions because they are too small to operate according to undesirable free market forces. **Complexity**: Oman's grocery market would benefit from freer market forces

		on the one side, and the Omani people are grateful that the government imposes selected restrictions on the real estate market to protect its citizens' needs.
	Economic Sustainability through Diversification Economic Growth	Avoidance of property speculation boom. TOURISM for Income AND jobs. → My realisation was that I was detached from reality. I had leadership in terms of top management in mind, assuming that its lack was holding Oman back. The realisation started as follows: that the private sector must first be put on a sustainable footing before thinking about top management leadership may become an issue. However, leadership is even more important at lower operational levels. Omani staff lack the skills to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in what they are doing. This links back to Technical Leadership Traits, which can be taught, thus strengthening to call for leadership development programs. However, rather than being 'exclusive for future executives', they must have an 'inclusive organisational foundation' to reach a critical mass of knowledge and skills within our nation.
	PPP – Education (blue collar training colleges + international universities)	Government must do more to increase the nation's skills base. EDUCATION FOR ALL is one of the Sultan's personal preferences, especially in the area of vocational training. For jobs often done by expats, first train to support.
	Weak Private Sector Leadership Traits	I was unaware that OCCI views the technical skills of many private sector firms as unfit for future survival. Firms manage by seniority and heritage rather than by meritocracy. The danger is what the government wants to

		address as part of future initiatives. → Why not run courses such as the UK's 'Business Link' does to help SMEs? → Why not let the government and universities set standards and have certified Omani training consultancies deliver courses in finance, ICT, marketing, and quality management? → In return, doing so could create new jobs, especially for MBA and doctorate graduates.
	leadership theories of the Arabian Gulf	Abdalla, I., & Al-Homoud, M. (2001). Exploring the implicit leadership theories of the Arabian Gulf states. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50(4), 506–531.
	People – not GDP, Support Role / Multiplier	Self-Reflection: Having followed the invitation to visit the Knowledge Oasis Muscat (KOM) – mixed feelings of pride, disappointment, enormous encouragement: seeing the world-class infrastructure and talking to one young entrepreneur at KOM, I felt very proud that our small nation could offer its people such help and infrastructure. At the same time, I felt slightly disappointed about my experience in the United Kingdom so far. I had always held the United Kingdom in highest esteem; hence, I came to Bradford. However, seeing Bradford's visible socioeconomic challenges on a daily basis, well noticeable inequality when comparing one neighbourhood with another, or at times some of the university's infrastructure, I feel my dream about the United Kingdom was destroyed. However, while I am very grateful for all of the nice things that I experience in the United Kingdom, I am becoming even more confident that Oman will become a very successful nation. This is as I start to understand that resources are important (which we have been blessed with) but that human capital makes

		the difference. Therefore, this puts me somewhat in a position of responsibility in that my research outcome will contribute to addressing some of Oman's current human capital issues.
	Public Private Partnerships (PPP) Support Role	The government is to steer infrastructure completion by setting standards for housing, roads, schools, and others. The government is to assign land for new communities to be built by Omani contractors. Profit margins must be socially acceptable. → PPP are popular vehicles for financing infrastructure projects in GCC. PPP is a well debated topic, but was regarded as beyond the scope of this research project. The government is to steer infrastructure completion by setting standards for housing, roads, schools, and others. The government is to assign land for new communities to be built by Omani contractors. Profit margins must be socially acceptable.
		Methodology Memo
	Feeling nervous	Feeling very nervous conducting my first interview. Interviewee was very warm and welcoming, made me feel proud to be doing my doctorate education in the United Kingdom for the benefit of Oman.
	Feeling odd	Mutual feeling of oddness – Why do native Omanis speak English in Oman? I dropped my plan to conduct interviews in English, which meant that I could not deploy an academic transcription service to accelerate the process. Doing transcripts by myself was very time intensive but had the benefit of repeated deep listening.
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
2	**Leadership Development**	Western concepts, theories, and frameworks

		were at odds with that relayed via Oman's key decision makers. Leadership by seniority 'Sheikhs'
	Qualification Mismatch	Education-Occupation Mismatch: BRYNIN, M. & LONGHI, S. 2009. Overqualification: Major or minor mismatch? *Economics of Education Review,* 28**,** 114-121, GLYTSOS, N. P. 1989. Reviewing global labor market mismatches of university educated workers. *International Journal of Educational Development,* 9**,** 299-306, VIEIRA, J. A. C. 2005. Skill mismatches and job satisfaction. *Economics Letters,* 89**,** 39-47.
	Risk Taking & Innovation in SMEs	{Craig, 2014 #946; Dai, 2014 #944; Lefebvre, 1992 #947; Pesämaa, 2013 #945} show the positive and negative effects that SME owners' risk appetite / culture have on growth.
		Interview Memo
		The literature inferred that Omanisation was linked to leadership development; however, it emerged that it has nothing to do with leadership. Rather, Omanisation is simply a policy initiative. The conversation with RB (2014), a decision maker at Muscat Securities Market, sought to determine any strategy tools used to evaluate the success of the national strategy for leadership development and the key drivers for the push for Omanisation in the private sector. However, I decided to skip those questions because respondents mentioned that there is no strategy for leadership development. Respondent D also agreed that 'There is no public sector strategy for LD in the private sector' (RD, 2014).

		There was also a difference between public and private sector leadership development. There is some focus on developing leaders for the public sector rather than the private sector. I had already met with the National Defence College, which is focusing only in the public sector because they see a difference between public and private sectors. Do we need to consider the implications of not having a national strategy for leadership development?
	Need Chance to Apply and Demonstrate Skills Risk Taking to Grow Education – Occupation Mismatch	According to interviewees, a skills issue exists that can be addressed. A larger issue is the absence of opportunities for Omanis to show their skills and make mistakes that everyone has to make to succeed. Strong reluctance exists in the private sector and even the public sector to let this happen. Expat experts are experts because they have already experienced making mistakes elsewhere. → This is unrealistic. In contrast, in the 1980s, SONY explicitly encouraged the R&D staff to make mistakes, and by doing so they became innovative and very successful. According to international media outlets, it was the frustration of graduates not finding adequate jobs that led to the spark of the Arab Spring, which brought a lot of pain and continuous instability to these nations.
	Private Sector Job Avoidance Societal Job Status Important	Interviewee and evidence suggest that Omanis prefer public sector jobs over private sector jobs. → From experience, I can say that the job that you do is not just about money. It more about your social status, which is very important if you want to start a family.

Memo	Theme	
	Support Role	OCCI and the Ministry of Manpower were envisaged by interviewees to provide guidance on job creation/economic growth initiatives. → Same idea as Interviewee A had.
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
3	Candidate Selection Governance	Candidate selection governance: SELBER, J. C., TONG, W., KOSHY, J., IBRAHIM, A., LIU, J. & BUTLER, C. 2014. Correlation Between Trainee Candidate Selection Criteria and Subsequent Performance. *Journal of the American College of Surgeons,* 219**,** 951-957. This study showed that objective criteria are better job performance indicators than the impression made in an interview.
	Recruiters Prefer Expats	HORVERAK, J. G., SANDAL, G. M., BYE, H. H. & PALLESEN, S. 2013. Managers' selection preferences: The role of prejudice and multicultural personality traits in the assessment of native and immigrant job candidates. *Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée/European Review of Applied Psychology,* 63**,** 267-275. This study shows recruiters 'political conservatism to prefer less qualified natives over immigrants. Oman has the opposite problem, at least partially.
		Interview Memo
	Education of Decision Makers	It appears that many decision makers that I interviewed have overseas study experience, hence welcome overseas educators.
	Leadership	Leadership is predominantly about inspiring and encouraging others. Leaders have

		responsibility for the health and education of employees.
	Human Capacity / Talents	First and foremost, Oman needs talent. It must educate and train its people, and invest in its national human capital base.
	Incubators / Start-ups / Offering Support	National Business Centre (NBC) started in 2013. Mixed incubator for ICT, Creative and Consultancy – 'Knowledge MINE' is an incubator for ICT start-ups. *'Co-working with business owners through providing advice, mentoring, opening doors'.*
	Entrepreneurship Trait	'Our typical successful NBC entrepreneurs have fun when they develop their ideas and businesses. Failure is not an option, so they usually persevere and commit their hearts and minds to what they do'. → THOUGHT: Oman needs a cultural change. Risk taking and perseverance.
	Female Entrepreneur	Female entrepreneurs are more mature and creative in their approaches. Yet, they are underserved by existing institutions. → Literature on Female Leadership
	Omanisation is Politics – not leadership skills development	'Omanisation which is a government policy has nothing to do with skills development. It is about replacement with expats and creating jobs for Omanis regardless of whether or not they have the correct skills and regardless of what level of the ladder or position they are going to have. It is really not about leadership or developing leaders'.
	Leadership is a Journey	'It is not about a position, it is a journey from leaving education to reaching maturity to be able to act as a leader'.
	Omani Impatience – Have Leadership Gene	Want to graduate straight into a leadership role.
	Connections vs. Skills in	Connections count more than the skills and

	Career Advancement	knowledge needed to advance professionally.
	Governance Issues – Selection Criteria. Merit. Accountability	No vision of where Omanis are heading in terms of LD. Accountability needs to be part of a LD strategy. For private and public organisations. → Candidate Selection Governance
	Mediator Private vs Public?	OCCI offering courses to help the private sector develop
	Women's Education	According to a UN report (2011), the proportion of women receiving a higher education is higher in the Gulf region than in other Arab states.
	Wasta	*wasta* may be viewed as an unjust practice operating within organisations in the Middle East (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011b). Tlaiss, H. and Kauser, S. (2011a), "Women in management in Lebanon", in Davidson, M.J. and Burke, R. (Eds), Women in Management Worldwide: Progress and Prospects, Gower, London, pp. 299–315.
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
4		N/A
		Interview Memo
	Leadership	'Leadership skills' are 'general skills'. It is about 'competence' to 'take them' (skills) and 'apply them to Oman'.
	'Omani Leadership'	Eighty percent is identical to the common concept of leadership. However, Oman's idiosyncrasies require 20% special skills to accommodate Oman's complex cultural web that seeks to balance modernity with tradition and heritage. Leaders need the 'ability to lead in different situations', whether the United Kingdom or Oman.
	No Leadership Development Strategy	No leadership development strategy for private sector exists. There may be issues of comparable content to be found and Omani-overseas partnerships, such as the TAKATUF

		Corporation.
	Oman built by Omani	Omanisation vs Foreignition. Better to list percentage of expats than natives in organisations.
	30% Quota Mentioned by Sultan	Welcoming non-Omani to build infrastructure.
	Job Creation Champion	'Job Creation Champion' needed that has the power to make private firms act and offer opportunities.
	Job Creation Enabler Needed	Private sector believes that graduates are mismatched with the required skills – a skills supply problem. Call to legislator to step up.
	'Sarak Team' P2P Team (taskforces) as Support Team	First-ever joint initiative to develop leadership in the private sector. Went to the United Kingdom for fact finding – a UK university offering leadership development courses. Interviewee calls for an institute to implement findings of the task force.
		Methodology Memo
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
5	Job Evaluation	See job evaluation literature / equal pay literature → to gain ideas on how to solve problem of management backlog.
	Saving Face	{Feghali, 1997 #950}
	Female Leadership	{Metcalfe, 2008 #948} elaborates on the changing occupational status of female employees and reaching leadership positions.
		Interview Memo
	Leadership being Seniority not Meritocracy. 'Sheik'	Better to have leadership from the bottom up. Oman's hindering culture of seniority over meritocracy.
	LDs in Organisations with Private Sector Experience Management	Interviewee J felt that there is a correlation between organisations having LDs and their management having private sector background. Leadership is a process that only starts from upper middle management and

		higher. At this level, LDs should be positioned, not below. You also need all of the following skills: technical, soft, human management, strategic management, communication. → Emerging Leader
	Management Backlog	Current leadership cadre at times unqualified. Yet, what to do with them? Where to put them? How to remove them? → Problem of letting them save face, hence they remain in power (holding back their organisation).
	Compulsory Work Assessment	2015 will see the beginning of evaluating every job role and candidate capacity. → massive resistance expected. THOUGHT: UK public sector had similar job evaluations and EQUAL PAY ASSESSMENTS that caused a lot of unrest in organisations traditionally governed by seniority.
	Female Leadership	Increasingly, females become leaders in office-based roles. Biology and Omani climate may cause natural exclusion. Females tend to give 150%. 'We have not seen a drop in performance as a result of females doing the job. In fact, we have actually seen performance improvement'.
	Specialist Training Institutes	→ Egypt did similar to the German University in Cairo. Effectively, a vocational training hub. Focus on vocational rather than academic training. It is said to face governance issues.
	Oil ICV	Oil industry to lead the way in increasing in-country value generation. Expats only in exceptions. → Will Omanis want to work in oil fields? At what wage? How does their wage claim affect the profit margin in relation to the price for Brent?
	Oil-Academia Partnerships	Already four institutes were assessed to

		deliver a curriculum fit for the oil industry. More will follow. A strong determination to build human capacity entirely in Oman through Omani institutes.
	Oman unique	'Not everything that occurs abroad is easily transferrable or to this region'.
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
6	Citizen Centric Administration in GCC	"e-Government in Arab Countries: A 6-Staged Roadmap to Develop the Public Sector" Journal of Management and Strategy Vol 4, No 1 (2013).
		Interview Memo
	Culture Change	Organisations must become outcome oriented.
	Evaluation Frameworks to Become Compulsory	All organisations must adopt best practice benchmarking and evaluation.
	Leadership Development	Develop a framework for public sector leadership development and evaluation.
	Improved Government Services	Implement decentralised administration. Become citizen centric.
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
7	Entrepreneurial Motivation	Entrepreneurial Motivation is under-researched. Entrepreneurial activity out of necessity or opportunity and implications {Carsrud, 2011 #951}
		Interview Memo
	No Leadership Strategy	Appreciation of need but reassurance that this is currently not a priority. Speculation that possibly leading organisations could self-manage such training institutes but without government interference. → What is the link

		between the management of these firms and public office? Conflict of interests?
	SME Leadership by Heritage	Two groups – 1. private business with families running the business; i.e. sons also leaders. 2. Gov companies.
	'SME Authority' Support Network	SME Authority 'founded to provide support, consultation and promote the SME market in Oman'.
	Push Harder for Replacing Expats	Omanis need jobs. Perhaps highest strategy body in land – Supreme Council of Planning – should get involved to give momentum to Omanisation implementation.
	SME Awareness Program	To train SME owners in fundamental business needs (finance, accounting, marketing, technology, arts and crafts).
	Insufficient Support for Entrepreneurs	'We cannot meet their requirements based on our current ability and this is a big challenge for us' (we are just beginning to put the necessary processes and institutions in place).
	Opportunists – not Entrepreneurs	Interviewee felt than many 'entrepreneurs' are more 'opportunists' than genuine entrepreneurs. They lack the most basic skills, plans, or strategies, and have no determination. Oman is too small to giving entrepreneurs a real feeling of unforgiving competition in the global arena.
		Methodology Memo
		My role during initial interviews Week 1 Struggled to undertake participant observation without raising concerns from study participants who were initially cautious about my research objectives. My knowledge of Western leadership theories and concepts often led to me being seen as an assumed

Memo	Theme	
		expert, with a foot in both camps. During coffee chats, other key decision makers were alerted about my presence and joined in some really fruitful conversations. Shared experience in sense-making conversations about the future of Oman and the role of LD within all of that was invaluable. There was general agreement from my input that we need to learn lessons from the public sector or from public-private partnerships to foster the emergence of the private sector.
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
8	Better Universities required	AL BARWANI, T. & OSMAN, M. E. 2010. 10 - Academic development and quality in Oman: mapping the terrain. *In:* NAIR, C. S., WEBSTER, L. & MERTOVA, P. (eds.) *Leadership and Management of Quality in Higher Education.* Chandos Publishing. Following from Interviews 5.1 and 5.2, it is becoming evident that the quality and quantity of educational outlets need to increase to make Omanisation a reality.
		Interview Memo
		Neo-liberal forces at play which transcend the authorities' ability or willingness or coerce the private sector.
		Methodology Memos
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
9		
		Interview Memo
	Layered Strategy Setting and Review	Staged strategy setting for economic development and evaluation.
	Evaluation	World Bank provides technical assistance for evaluations.
	Detachment: Strategy Development and	The Supreme Council sets and evaluates strategies but does not implement them.

	Implementation	
	Job Creation is the No. 1 Challenge for Oman	Job creation is the main challenge for Oman.
	Policy Predictability and Reliability	Private sector needs predictability and reliability regarding the government's policy setting. Consensus needs to be achieved because strategies will always entail resources or support in the hands of the private sector.
	Leadership Development NOT National Strategy!	Three guiding strategies and priorities: 1. Economic diversification 2. Equilibrium constant 3. Human resource development (= health and education, NOT leadership)
	Capped Powers of Supreme Council	'It depends on how the private sector is structured. The current private sector depends on foreign labour, they are the ones that control and manage the private sector, and the percentage of foreign labour is increasing – they have a very strong lobby. Therefore, before developing rules for the private sector, you must go back and ask what type of private sector do we have'. → To me, this supports the idea of the reluctance of the private sector. If the private sector controls the necessary resources to allow Omanisation to become a reality, then that appears not to be a resource issue but more of an allocation issue. The private sector is reluctant to allocate resources to support the implementation of the strategy. Therefore, I see a possible solution as establishing a system of incentives. Similar to those that support, by giving Omanis opportunities, they shall become preferred contract bidders. This would be in line with the call for greater ICV.

		Saudi Arabia was very strict on this in 2013/2014 – the idea of 'give (support and opportunities) and take (rewards)'. Early indications of establishment of a 'National Training Fund'.
	Learning from Others	'National Training Fund' → Singapore and Turkey experience are very positive
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
10		
		Interview Memo
	Strategy: Economic & Political Stability	The guiding strategic principle is economic and political stability (not necessarily growth?). Long-term and short-term strategies and tactics must be flexible enough to cater to changed environments.
	2020 Strategy Priorities	Livelihood of citizens/employment opportunities/training programmes/improved productivity/enhancing scientific and cultural standards.
	Citizen Participation & Consultations	Roll out of youth and citizen consultation programmes. Including the business community to make decisions and strategies more grounded in society.
	Social Policy + Employment Significantly more Important than Leadership Development	Social Policy and Employment are the strategy policy drivers. Leadership development is not really an issue – at this point in time. → See the UN's Human Resource Development Report 2010. 1. Employment 2. Investing in people (health, housing, transport, leisure) 3. Social protection (pensions and safety nets) 4. Evaluation mechanisms

	External Help in Policy Setting	External help and involvement are required and important for the Supreme Council of Development, World Bank, NGOs, and universities.
		Productive and renumerative employment is the goal, not job creation!
	Private Sector to Become No. 1 Employment Source	Provide incentives to make the private sector the prime employment area, paying market rate wages.
	SME + Entrepreneurship	SME + Entrepreneurship are vehicles of policy implementation.
	Private Sector not Self-sustainable	'I can tell you that, until now, we have not seen the private sector play a role in economic development, even Oman's Vision 2020 placed the private sector as a pioneer for the economy; therefore, what is happening is that the government is doing everything it can. In fact, the country's income is oil and the price of oil is declining; therefore, the government has taken the lead in economic development. The private sector is relying on government projects.' → October 2016: 30% drop in oil prices
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
11		
		Interview Memo
	Evaluation	Using World Bank best practice methodologies to assess policy outcomes.
	Unique Oman	Three types of employment: public, private, and hybrids of the oil industry.
	No Pressure to Hire Omani Employees	Private sector has been too strong (in terms of lobbying) – not economically though to avoid penalties.
	Blame Forwarding	Thought: Highest policy in the country sees

		responsibility by lower-ranked Ministry of Manpower. Hoping for support of OCCI.
		Methodology Memo
		N/A
Memo	**Theme**	**Literature Review Memos**
12		
		Interview Memo
	Arab Culture	Strong group commitment and loyalty to group members
		Strong group commitment and loyalty to group members
	No Pressure to Hire Omani Employees	Private sector has been too strong (in terms of lobby) – not economically though to avoid penalties.
	Blame Forwarding	Thought: Highest policy in the country sees responsibility by lower-ranked Ministry of Manpower. Hoping for support of OCCI.
		Methodology Memo
		N/A

Appendix D: Consent form

<u>Consent Form</u>

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in an interview for my research. The purpose of this form is to make sure that you are pleased to participate in the research and that you know what is involved.

Have you had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss the study?	YES/NO
Have you ever been involved in a similar study?	Yes/No If **No**, please go to the following questions
If you have asked questions, have you received satisfactory answers to your questions?	YES/NO/NA
Do you understand that you are free to end the interview at any time?	YES/NO
Do you understand that you are free to choose not to answer a question without having to give a reason why?	YES/NO
Do you agree to participate in this study?	YES/NO
Do you agree to the interview being audio-recorded?	YES/NO
Do you grant permission for extracts from the interview to be used in reports of the research with the understanding that your anonymity will be maintained?	YES/NO
Do you grant permission for an extended, but anonymised, extract from the interview to be included as an appendix in the final report?	YES/NO

SIGNED: ....

NAME IN BLOCK LETTERS: ....…………………

DATE: ....

Appendix F: Ethical Approval

LEEDS BECKETT UNIVERSITY

Hilal Alsawai <h.alsawai4282@student.leedsbeckett.ac.uk>

Research Ethics
1 message

researchethics@leedsmet.ac.uk <researchethics@leedsmet.ac.uk>   22 April 2014 16:02
To: H.Alsawai4282@student.leedsmet.ac.uk

Application Ref: 2325
Applicant Name: HILAL ALSAWAI
Project Title: Leadership Development in Omani private sector

Dear HILAL ALSAWAI, Helen Rodgers can confirm that the above research project has been given ethical approval and can commence. Please see your online application for any comments or recommendations.

Please note that if you wish to make substantial changes to the project, new ethical approval would be required.

Click Here to View

This email has been sent to your supervisor.

To view the terms under which this email is distributed, please go to http://www.leedsmet.ac.uk/email-disclaimer.htm

Appendix F: Information Sheet

Information Sheet

Study Title: Leadership Development in Omani private sector.

Name of the Researcher: Hilal Hamood Hilal AL-Sawai, DBA student at the Leeds Beckett University- School of Management and Law .
Leeds LS1 3HE, United Kingdom

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The Principle Supervisors of this research:

1. **Professor Jeff Gold,** Professor of Organisation Learning, Leeds Business School, Leeds Beckett University- School of Management and Law.

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The aim of this research is to provide in-depth knowledge on leadership in the Omani private organisations in order to run effective leadership development and it is an empirical study of The National CEO Program in Oman. The target group for this study is divided into three groups; the first group will be with Management(founders of programme) , second group is implementer of CEO program and third group (Interview) targets Participate of CEO program.

Audio-recorded interviews/focus group will be used as part of the research; the interviews will be conducted during working hours from 8.00 AM to 4.30 PM at the participants' workplaces or other venues considered convenient for both participants and the researcher. The interview is expected to take between 20 to 30 minutes. The interview data are treated as confidential and are held securely; the data are anonymous and no names will appear in any report, dissertation or subsequent publication. No one in the company will be able to see individual responses. Consent will be sought to audio-record the interview/focus group; the recording will be transcribed into text and at least two copies will be saved in a laptop, with another saved to an external hard disk. Subsequently, the audio-recording will be deleted. Furthermore, transcripts will be fact-checked with the interviewees/groups to ensure that the researcher has offered accurate reflections of participants' answers.

You should also be aware that your involvement in this study is completely voluntary, which means you have the freedom to participate or refuse to be part of the study. Additionally, you are free to withdraw from the study even if your participation in the process is incomplete.

Appendix G: Interview Questions:

Interview questions guide for two groups:

1. Management & Program Design group

	Question	Remarks
1	Have Programme met organisation objectives? If yes how, if now why?	Impact
2	What were challenges that might impact programme effectiveness?	challenges
3	What criteria are used to determine the success of CEO Programme?	Factors for successful implementation
4	How is CEO Programme translated to private sector organisations?	Factors for successful development/transfer of learning

2. Participate of CEO program

	Question	Remarks
1	Could you please briefly introduce yourself in terms of background (education) and role?	Characteristics & Background of Participate
2	What mechanisms and structures are required to foster the emergence of the Private Sector?	Mechanisms and Structures
3	To what extent do you believe CEO Programme learning can/cannot contribute to your origination?	Strategic measures
4	What is your experience in been with programme?	Feedback of programme
5	Have the programme meet your expectation?	Feedback of programme
6	What are challenges you face in programme?	challenges
7	From your experience of the programme, how the programme can be improved??	Feedback of programme

Useful tips for your interview
1. The structure of your answer should be: Situation, Action, Result.
3. Share information you feel is appropriate and relevant.
4. Listen to the question carefully. Keep to the point. Be as specific as possible.
5. Learn as much as you can about the CEO program.

Appendix H: People/organisation selected for interview