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Strategic management concepts in the public sector

ABSTRACTStrategic management (SM) has become prominent on the agenda in several public organisations due to new public administration (NPM) reforms. Nevertheless, there are few studies that examine how public organisations use SM in practice and what tools are used. As a result, such studies have been called for. This article can be seen as an attempt to respond to this call by presenting a qualitative case study of how SM has been used in the Swedish Transport Agency (STA), a government agency in Sweden, and what tools it used in strategy-making. By analyzing the microprocesses of strategizing at STA, our results indicate that public organizations need to be aware of at least three specific tensions that may enable or limit strategy making. These tensions are: short v. long term, parts v. whole, and reactivity v. proactivity. Strategic management (SM) is now prominent on the agenda in several public organizations, and is reportedly becoming more and more relevant in practice due to new public management (NPM) changes (Hansen Rosenberg 2011; Weiss 2016). However, too little is known about the practical application of SM and its possible consequences (Johnsen 2016). There is a small but growing area of research (see, for example, Boyone and Walker 2010; Elbanna, Rhys and Pollanen 2016; Ferlie and Ongaro 2015; George and Desmidt 2016; George et al. 2016a, 2016b; Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2014, 2016; Johnsen 2016; Lane 2008; Lane and Wallis 2009; Poister 2010; Walker et al. 2010), which has highlighted the importance of studying strategy and strategic thinking in public organizations for the past decade. Several of these studies examine the use of SM (see e.g. Drumaux and Goethals 2007; Ferlie 2003; Joyce 2000; Johnson and Scholes 2001; Koteen 1997), but few examine how public organizations use SM in practice (Bryson, Berry, and Yang 2010) and what tools are used (Hansen Rosenberg 2011; Williams and Lewis 2008) to realize a strategic intention. That's the focus of this article. Integrating SM into the public sector (Elbanna, Rhys and Pollanen 2016) is not easy; Poister 2010; Weiss 2016), as private sector theories affecting it are based on growth, profit and competitive advantages, aspects that do not always fit well with the public sector (Ferlie and Ongaro 2015; Höglund 2015; Lane and Wallis 2009). This is despite the last decades of NPM reforms in the public sector (Ferlie and Ongaro 2015; Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016), who introduced private and business-like elements (Ferlie et al. 1996). In addition, prior research (see e.g. Diefenbach 2009; Hood and Peters 2004; Lapsley 2008; Smith 1995) noted that the NPM generated several unintended consequences, such as (also) a strong focus on internal efficiency at the expense of external efficiency and short-term, measurable results at the expense of longer-term and results, which inhibits the use of SM. There are various theories in public sector SM (Ferlie and Ongaro 2015; Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016). But so far most researchers have used Miles and Snow (1978) typology (e.g. Andrews et al. 2008, 2009a, 2009b) or Porter (1980, 1985) typology and the related model of five forces (Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016; Johansson 2009), while others have explored the possibilities of resource-based perception (RBV) (e.g. Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016; Johansson 2009). Work has also been carried out on the strategic planning processes (see, for example, George and Desmidt 2016; George et al. 2016a, 2016b), as well as uses of acting network theory (Bryson, Cosby and Bryson 2009). Few so far have taken an activity-based approach focusing on microprocesses of strategizing (Jarzabkowski and Fenton 2006; Jarzabkowski and Silince 2007) and strategy-as-practice (s-as-p) (George and Desmidt 2014; Hansen Rosenberg 2011; van Wessel, van Buuren and van Woerkum 2011). Even fewer studies relate to the use of SM in relation to the tools used in strategy-making (Jarzabkowski and Kaplan 2015) and so far, as far as we know, none of them focus on the public sector except Hansen Rosenberg (2011) and Williams and Lewis (2008). In this article we take on a broad definition of tools by drawing on Jarzabkowski and Kaplan (2015:538), who claim that the term tool is a generic name for frames, concepts, models or methods. We will adapt to the strategic perspective (e.g. Jarzabkowski and Fenton 2006; Lé and Jarzabkowski 2015; Spee and Jarzabkowski 2011) and focus on the use of SM and what tools (Hansen Rosenberg 2011; Jarzabkowski and Silince 2007) are used to realize a strategic intention. In this way, we try to further develop our understanding of strategy strategy in the public sector by addressing the following research questions: How are strategic tools used? How does the use of a tool and/or limit strategy making enable? In summary, we will address the listed research issues by assessing an activity-based approach that focuses on strategy and what tools are used when sm. used in a public sector. This is done from a strategy perspective that highlights the micro-processes of the strategy and strategy work of public sector organisations, which will be elaborated later in this article. Strategizing relies on a process perception of strategy (Johnson, Melin, and Whittington 2003). The seeds of the viewer strategy as a process can be said to have been planted by Mintzberg (e.g. Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel 1998; Mintzberg and Waters 1985), Pettigrew (1985) and Johnson (1987). This new area of research began by focusing on changes in strategic patterns over longer periods of time. Ferlie and Ongaro (2015) indicate that the strategy as a direction of the public sector and the non-profit context, as well as private companies as areas of interest. However, as far as this direction of strategy is, most of the research is still carried out at private companies (Höglund 2015). When used in a public sector context, it is common to consider the strategy process as a series of organisational activities, some of which run in parallel with each other, but most of the time the private process is described as sequential and at different stages. In short, work on the public sector strategy mostly addresses the work of the strategy by addressing processes of strategic planning, formulation, implementation, evaluation and monitoring. For example, Joyce (2004) states that the strategic formulation process is very similar to those in the private sector. Therefore, public sector leaders can gain more benefits by formulating written strategy documents, including visions, goals and strategic plans (Boyone and Walker 2010; Joyce 2004; Koteen 1997; Poister 2010). Thus, strategic planning involves devising strategies that provide a holistic view of the organization by mixing long-term thinking, goal analysis, and subjective evaluation of values, goals and priorities (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, and Lampel 1998). It provides an opportunity to map a future direction and actions to ensure the organisation's viability, efficiency and ability to add public value (Poister 2010). In addition, one of the key aspects of a successful strategy is the implementation process (Joyce 2000, Johnson and Scholes 2001, Koteen 1997, Plant 2009, Poister 2010, Weiss 2016). Some conscious strategies are implemented as they were intended for, while others will be implemented in other ways or not at all (Mintzberg 1994). There are also strategies that arise along the way; new strategies (Mintzberg and Waters 1985). As regards monitoring and evaluation activities, they are highlighted as important for the success of the strategy (Plant 2009; Poister 2010), but so far few studies have been carried out (Höglund 2015). This is despite the fact that an important part of SM in the public sector reports on results through some form of managed performance information (Weiss 2016). A more recent contribution further developing process view is strategy-as-practice (s-as-p), a field of research that has grown out of dissatisfaction with conventional strategic research (Johnson, Melin and Whittington 2003). Researchers in this field tend to take a particular interest in practice and engage in micro-activities related to strategy. Whittington (2007:1575) argues that s-as-p's fascination with the phenomenon of strategy itself takes it beyond traditional process perspectives. In this view, strategy could be understood as something people do rather than something that companies in their markets have (Jarzabkowski and Seidl 2008:1391). With this in mind, Jarzabkowski, Balogun and Seidl (2007:7-8) strategy as [] a situated, socially accomplished activity, while strategy strategy includes these actions, interactions and negotiations between several actors and the practices they draw on in carrying out that activity. Mintzberg (1994) defines strategy as something that organizations do (not people, as in s-as-p), and by focusing on the emergence of strategy, he detaches strategy from strategic intentions and outcomes. Whittington (2007) argues that this reduces strategy work to control it uncontrollable, and that strategy practices from this perspective become too insignificant for organizational outcomes to be worthwhile studying. In fact, such a view only makes it possible to explain a narrow range of practitioners. As Jarzabkowski, Balogun, and Seidl (2007:6) conclude, strategy research seemed to have lost sight of the sight of man. In response, a more activity-based approach to strategy and strategy strategy has emerged. In this stream of research, in-depth case studies are seen as a necessity in micro strategy and strategizing perspective (Johnson, Melin, and Whittington 2003). It is with this research stream that we adapt this article. However, although previous literature has pointed out the need to understand how everyday activities in organizations create strategic choices and consequences (e.g. Balogun, Jarzabkowski, and Seidl 2007; Jarzabkowski 2005; Jarzabkowski and Fenton 2006; Jarzabkowski and Seidl 2008; Johnson, Melin and Whittington 2003; Johnson et al. 2007; Spee and Jarzabkowski 2011; Whittington 2006), few studies have actually attempted it. For example, a review of journal articles shows that almost all SM research is still concerned with macro analysis levels. However, these studies do not provide the details necessary to understand strategic planning practices (Jarzabkowski and Kaplan 2015). This is also the case for SM in the public sector (Höglund 2015). In this article, we take a micro-perspective of strategy and strategy planning in accordance with Jarzabkowski and Fenton (2006:632), and we define strategy planning as [] those planning, resource allocation, monitoring and control practices, and processes through which the strategy is adopted. Studying strategy means thus taking an activity-based view of strategy that focuses on the detailed processes and practices that make up the day-to-day activities of organizational life. It is about gaining a detailed understanding of the myriad micro-activities that constitute strategy and strategy in practice. The activity-based view is based on the suggestion that value is increasingly in the microactivities of managers and others in organisations. It goes into organizations, their strategies and their processes, to examine what is actually done, and by whom, and with what tools (Johnson, Melin, and Whittington 2003:5). Therefore, there are plenty of similarities among our views on and s-as-p. However, we do not draw on the sociological eye and (see, for example, Jarzabkowski and Seidel 2008; Jarzabkowski and Spee 2009; Whittington 2006). Our focus is rather on the strategy process and the use of strategic tools, and how these tools enable and/or limit strategy making. The context of the study is the Swedish Transport Authority (STA), a government agency that has been using ideas about SM since it was founded in 2010 through a merger of the former transport agencies. STA has approximately 6,500 employees and is headed by a Director-General who is accountable to a board of directors. In line with Johnsen (2016), we argue that the local governments of scandinavian countries are an interesting study of the adoption of SM, as these countries have large public sectors and unitary conditions with the potential to reform public organisations. Moreover, the Swedish Central Government is unique according to international standards because it has previously had a decentralised responsibility for operational issues handled by central bodies with a significant degree of autonomy. Ministerial intervention is prohibited by law, which means that direct political control of the agencies is limited. Formal parliamentary and state control is mainly carried out through legislation, annual letters of authorisation and the appointment of Directors-General. However, as in many countries, recent decades have been marked by performance management reforms in line with the NPM to increase the level of governance and transparency, with a focus on ex post control and performance disclosure. Thus, in the late 1980s, management-by-objectives (MBO) were introduced as the prevailing philosophy and tool for performance management in the Swedish central government. As claimed, [] the term tool is a generic name for frames, concepts, models or methods (Jarzabkowski and Kaplan 2015:538). In order to gain deeper understanding of how tools are used in strategy-making, the focus here is on the tools that the senior management of the STA decided should be used to formulate and implement the strategic plan: MBO, delivery qualities; The transport plan instruction the envelope letter the operational plan budget and Balanced Scorecard.A single case study approach was chosen when it was recently suggested that a more detailed study was necessary of the dynamic relationship between how the public sector uses SM in practice (Bryson, Berry, and Yang 2010) and what tools they use (Hansen Rosenberg 2011) to realize a strategic intent. In addition, an activity-based approach is used that focuses on the microstrategic strategy processes (Jarzabkowski and Fenton 2006; Jarzabkowski and Silince 2007) mean more detailed reporting of activities. With the support of Dyer and Wilkins (1991), we argue that there is less room for detailed reporting in journal articles, making it challenging to conduct a multiple case study risk of becoming so general in the microdynamics. As mentioned, our knowledge of the use of SM at micro level in relation to the tools used in strategy making is scarce (Jarzabkowski and Kaplan 2015), especially in a public sector (Hansen Rosenberg 2011). As the STA has been using SM since 2010 and actively working on the development and implementation of a strategic plan, the Agency can provide us with ideas and improved information on how SM works in practice, as well as what tools are used in the strategy work. One drawback is that a single case study does not allow us to generalize. Nevertheless, a single case study, well based in previous literature, can help us to make conceptual and theoretical contributions that go beyond the specific case (Siggekow 2007). We take a longitudinal perspective when we studied SM at STA between 2012 and 2016. The case study is particularly suitable in a context of longitudinal research, as it can help us unravel the underlying dynamics that play out over time, insofar as it has the potential to provide details of how these dynamic processes work (Höglund et al. 2015; Siggekow 2007). In addition, process studies seek narrative (Van de Ven 2007) and qualitative (Schindelhutte and Morris 2009) understanding. In other words, we used a qualitative research method based on an interpretive approach that is well suited to acquiring knowledge of human activities (Johnson et al. 2007). As such, we have taken a case study approach that focuses on the interpretive aspects of the case (Stake 1995) to conceptualize an understanding of the processes of strategizing and solving gaps in existing theory (see Siggekow 2007). In accordance with this, the empirical data are based on meetings, document studies, interviews and workshops. We will elaborate further on this in the forthcoming sections. Respectively, we have studied STA since its creation in 2010, and in real time between 2012 and 2016. We had four contact people at sta, as well as a reference group that we met with twice a year. During these meetings, the authors discussed the results of their analysis of staff and received a progress report on the development of the Agency's strategy work. Three studies were carried out at STA (see Table 1). In 2013, two of the authors of this article conducted a preliminary study to provide a first look at the strategy work and how this work enabled and/or limited the strategy of developing the STA into a modern agency. A documentary study of formal management control was conducted and supplemented with interviews at different hierarchical levels and different divisions to gain an initial understanding of strategy work in relation to the formalized ideas of SM. In the interviews, the authors asked questions about what respondents were doing in their day-to-day work, what tools they used to do their work, what their thoughts on the strategy were and how they Strategic plan. The preliminary investigation showed that there were some difficulties in implementing the strategic plan, indicating the need for a more comprehensive study. The next study, carried out in 2014, was to further understand the challenges that could arise from the interpretations of the Strategic Plan for Operation. The authors, together with the reference group at sta, decided to follow the unfolding of the strategy in the two departments of STA-Planning and Maintenance. To make it manageable, since the focus was on following the microactivities of strategizing, we narrowed it down in the study of two divisions. 30 interviews were conducted (for more information, see Table 1). Our interview questions were related to what respondents did in their daily work, what tools they used to carry out their work, what their vision was on strategy, the strategic plan and its objectives; and how they worked to implement the strategy. In addition to the interviews, we studied management documents and internal PowerPoint presentations. In addition, scorecards were examined as an example of the actual use of a tool in practice, but also because the strategy had to be implemented through scorecards and the preliminary study suggested that this was a problem. The preliminary study also suggested that there were some questions regarding the understanding of strategy and how to evaluate and monitor it. In line with these results, two workshops were held at the STA in 2014. At workshop 1, people working on strategy were invited to discuss strategy work at sta. Twenty-five people attended, six of whom had previously been interviewed. Issues of strategy, its role and functioning and the relationship between strategy and management control in personnel management were the main themes discussed at the workshop. Workshop 2 invited people working on management control and strategy to discuss evaluation and monitoring activities. Questions on results, outputs and results, as well as the relationship between strategy, evaluation and monitoring activities were addressed. Twenty-three people attended, five of whom had previously been interviewed. The last survey was conducted between 2015 and 2016. This included the participation of all the authors of this article. Previous studies had shown that the strategy had not been implemented at the Agency's operational level and the strategic plan tended to disappear among all the tools used at the STA for management control. Moreover, formalised control-command limited rather than enabled the strategy work. In this study, we specifically wanted to target control-command and what possible tensions might be related to strategy. Therefore, we interviewed 16 people who worked in management control at sta (see Table 1). We arranged a workshop in autumn 2015 where we invited people who worked on management control and strategy at hierarchical levels at STA. Twenty people came to discuss possible tensions between different management tools at the agency. Half of them had previously been interviewed. The coding in this article was inspired by Feldman et al. (2004). The encoding process can be described as the forerunner of the analysis. Prior to encoding empirical data, all interviews and workshops were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Together with the documents, these transcriptions were the basis for encoding. While coding is quite different from doing the analysis yourself, since the goal is not to find results, but to find a way to handle a large amount of text, it is quite common to work with different categories. The categories used during the coding process should be closely linked to the research questions. In this specific article, the goal was to search for instances of how the selected tools are used in relation to the strategic plan. This suggested that the analysis units of the data were the tools. As such, we categorised the empirical material in accordance with the selected study tools for this article; MBO, delivery qualities, transport plan, education, letter of appropriation, operational plan, budget and balanced scorecard. We have also structured the discussion of the results at the STA in accordance with these categories of tools. This meant that any instances of text that told you about one of the tools studied - for example, the text that was used to make sure that they were not able to do so. In this way we ended up with several hundred pages of encoded text that was the basis of the article's analysis. With regard to the analysis, the contextual knowledge that emerged from conducting three studies at the STA, analyzing the case against theory, and writing three reports was invaluable for the development of this article. Nevertheless, this also makes it difficult to show complete transparency in the process (e.g. Jarzabkowski 2008). However, the analytical process can be described as we iterated between the empirical data and the literature (Siggekow 2007), using SM literature as a means of understanding the empirical data at different stages in the process of studying it. Initially, we searched for how the coded texts in the different categories of tools handled strategy work in relation to the strategic plan. In this context, we consulted the data on whether the tools were described as catalysts and/or as limitations of the strategy work. In light of this question, after several readings of the encoded texts and after several meetings in which the research team discussed preliminary results, the authors began to see some patterns in the data. The summary results of coding and analysis are presented in Table 2. I step, we tried to understand the results in Table 2 by atomizing and marking the patterns we saw, resulting in three different voltages: short-versus-long-term, parts versus whole, and reactivity versus proactivity. These tensions were also discussed and agreed as reasonable with representatives of the STA (see Weiss 2016). The first tension, between the short and long term, was the most frequent recurring theme. For example, the long-term strategic plan was described by all interviewees as creating tensions with management control tools that have a short-term perspective. For example, the operational plan, the scorecard and the budget all have a time frame of one to three years, making strategy work limited or impossible to do. The second tension includes the Agency's idea of taking a holistic approach when working with strategy and relating the strategic work to the whole, while generally focusing on specific parts that are not connected with the overall strategy and the whole organization. The third tension concerns the strategic plan and the efforts to become a modern agency. But when we analyzed the STA and its strategy work, we could see that the agency was acting reactively, waiting for the government to come up with instructions, or respond to customer needs or the actions of the media. An increased discussion on the three tensions compared to previous literature on SM in the public sector is presented in the discussion on the results. The strategic plan at sta has a time frame of 10 years and includes the vision Everyone arrives seamlessly, green and secure, six strategic challenges, 19 strategic goals and strategies for each goal. The strategic challenges are critical areas identified by personnel and environmental state areas and are defined as gaps between a desired state and expected development. As such, they do not cover all the agency's activities. The six strategic challenges are: 1) an energy-efficient transport system; (2) well-functioning travel and transport in the major cities 3) efficient transport chains for industry 4) a robust and reliable infrastructure 5) better value for money and (6) STA: a modern central agency. In this section, we will address this strategic plan in relation to mbo's tools, delivery qualities, transport plan, education, letter of authorization, operational plan, budget and Balanced Scorecard.STA's internal management and control is managed by MBO. In keeping with Drucker (1954), who is often credited as the inventor of MBO, STA took the perspective of MBO is both a philosophy and a tool. The implementation of the Agency's strategic plan and the Agency's strategic work should therefore be carried out within the MBO. The government sets targets and the state agencies are responsible for finding the best way to achieve and implement them. In this context, SM becomes relevant because planned strategies can as a strategic plan or outline of sufficient means to achieve the desired objectives (Walker et al. 2010). In this respect, the increased interest in SM in the public sector can be seen as a natural development of NPM-inspired governance reforms (Ferlie and Ongaro 2015; Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016). Part of this reform is the MBO, with its associated emphasis on decentralised decision-making and the absence of state micromanagement. In strategic management, a holistic perspective is often described as a key prerequisite for strategic work (Mintzberg 1994; Koteen 1997; Plant 2009; Poister 2010; Williams and Lewis 2008). When considering the basic ideas behind MBO as a philosophy, one can argue that it represents a holistic perspective. However, if used in relation to other tools used in the use of SM is taken into account, our analysis shows that this is questionable as we found that MBO often leads to a focus on limited parts of the operation rather than a holistic perspective. The following quote from an employee at Workshop 1 gives a good example of when MBO gets in the way of the big picture:STA is pursuing development for around 500 million kroner a year. [...] Here we see clearly the effects of MBO, because each individual interprets what is happening [...] and acts based on this interpretation, which means that they do not act from a holistic perspective. [...] When I listen [to the discussion today], I understand a little better why it happens. We need to look more at the bigger picture. The government's general ambitions for the overall economic and social authorities are reflected in two transport policy objectives: (1) a functional objective that focuses on the geographical accessibility of the transport system; and (2) a reverence objective that focuses on safety, the environment and health. In addition, the aim of the transport policy objectives is to ensure an economically efficient and sustainable transport system for all citizens and businesses in Sweden. A PowerPoint presentation from the Central STA Office presents the transport policy objectives as follows: transport policy objectives (together with administrative policy objectives) were important starting points when choosing strategic challenges and strategic objectives. Delivery qualities describing the status and trends of transport infrastructure over time can be seen as a concrete expression of the STA's contribution to transport policy objectives. When we analyse the empirical material, we see that transport policy objectives tend to be contradictory, unclear and complex, leaving significant room for alternative ways of interpreting them in practice (see Lane and Wallis 2009). A dilemma that can be exemplified by one of the leaders: the objectives of the transport policy objectives are not always so clear. There are a lot of discussions about status. There are, for example, the following: very, very many environmental objectives. If you look at all the environmental objectives, not only in infrastructure and transport, but in general we will not be able to meet all the targets. The difficult job is always to prioritize among the goals. There is more or less a general consensus on the STA that there are too many objectives and that it is difficult to know how to prioritize them, which also makes it difficult to know which of the long-term strategic objectives should be part of the short-term operational work. Some of those interviewed also stressed that the strategic plan and its challenges are inadequate and lacking in governance, the external transport policy objectives set by politicians are what governs the Agency, rather than the strategic plan. An example of the management aspect is expressed by a first-line leader: in that the strategic challenges are not applied in sta's management today. The strategic challenges are the way we have been chosen to transform the transport policy objectives [...] you have the transport policy objectives, and then you try to add perspective to the strategic challenge, and then at my level, we again try to follow the transport policy objectives. At the government's initiative, STA has developed new indicators - called delivery qualities - to measure the results of STA's activities. There are six delivery qualities: (1) punctuality; (2) capacity (3) robustness 4) usability 5) safety and (6) environment and health. The purpose of this tool, implemented in 2014, is to find a common focus on customer travel and transport, to clarify government monitoring and control and transparent management control from the strategic to the operational level, a common thread for long-term planning, monitoring and control, and finally to be able to ensure verified information on performance development over time. The national service information officer shall explain the delivery qualities in its annual reports. With the implementation of delivery qualities, there is some confusion as to what should be understood as the Agency's strategies. For example, an understanding is that delivery qualities constitute the Agency's new strategies; they should replace the strategic plan. In other words, an interpretation is that delivery qualities are the agency's new strategy. The official idea, however, is that the agency's strategic challenges are to be a translation of management signals from the government, including delivery qualities. But delivery qualities sometimes override the agency's own internal strategic plan. In summary, the delivery qualities of the organisation confuse the Agency's SM. This can be exemplified by an employee who said: You think there are a few different tracks that need to be merged in our overall management. Firstly, there are the delivery qualities for operation and maintenance [...] , which must be merged with the strategic management, even call it the management framework, which makes it a little confusing. It's a challenge in itself. It is important for the STA to monitor delivery grades because this was imposed on them by the government, but there are also other important reasons. Recurring problems with functionality in the Swedish railway system have led to fierce criticism and constant media scrutiny of both the STA and the politicians responsible. The interviewees often describe the delivery qualities as a control framework for dealing with these functionality problems in the transport system and in response to media scrutiny and criticism of the STA. This makes delivery qualities a strategic tool for the agency to use in communication with the government as well as the general population and the media. The following quote from a middle manager exemplifies this: Delivery qualities can actually describe our core activities even better than the transport policy objectives, so I see it as a way for us to communicate with the outside world; ie what money they are pumping into STA. The ambition of the delivery qualities is to generate information about the external effects of the agency's operation, but from a customer perspective the framework has more of a production-oriented, internally driven perspective. One of the employees working in customer service said: I think they [delivery grades] are very much based on a production perspective. [...] Have we really considered what we should produce? No, we don't. Therefore, delivery qualities with their production perspective are often prioritised at the expense of customer focus. This is problematic in relation to the Agency's ambition for how sms is used, as much of the STA's strategic work implies a desire to be proactive. For example, the sixth strategic challenge - STA: a modern agency - underlines the importance of customer satisfaction and that the agency should embrace more of an externally driven perspective (external efficiency) that emphasizes the importance of a customer focus. This, in turn, imposes new requirements on employees. Those working on services and customer issues explained that the term externally driven refers to proactive management, where customers' current and future needs affect the agency's internal management. This, in turn, is reflected by several of the interviewees as well as in the strategic plan, which includes being responsive and flexible to the outside world. The education and the letter of authorization are set by the Swedish Government. In the agency's instruction, the government stipulates that the STA should have a starting point from an intermodal perspective, where they are responsible for the long-term planning of the infrastructure for road, rail, sea and air transport, as well as for the construction and operation of state-owned roads and railways. One of the main reasons for the formation of the STA was to create an approach to the transport system. The government guidance (SFS 2010 185, 1 §, Assignment) states: The STA's task is to maintain a holistic perspective over all types of traffic and thus to take care of all long-term infrastructure planning for road, rail, shipping and aviation, as well as for the construction and operation of national roads and railways. In the annual letter of appropriation, the government sets the Agency's budget and annual targets. In other words, public authorities have limited control over their financial resources, making it difficult to link the financial management of the agencies with their SM (cf. The Swedish Government's financial management of the Agency thus tends to have a strong influence on the rest of the STA's management. The budget is often regarded as an overarching framework within which the rest of the Agency's management activities take place. In other words, the Agency's planning and execution of the task is carried out within the financial framework (see one of the middle managers, emphasising that the instructions and the letter of authorization often cover specific tasks and that it is important to have some guidelines in the assessment of these tasks; [...] Then we need to understand what it is that guides us [when we complete these tasks] - of course it's the strategic challenges, but there may also be other things that have been decided on the STA as guidelines: where to go, which way. This is also apparent from formal documents , for example, in the form of a document. This is also confirmed by most of the interviewees and the assessment of these tools could be seen in the formulated strategic plan. Supplementing the instructions and the letter of authorization is a transport plan approved by the government and to be implemented locally in the STA through various action planning activities (see Weiss 2016). The transport plan takes a time perspective of 25 years and provides detailed information on how to prevent problems and ensure efficient operation, and how to work for efficiency, safety and the environment. It describes the need for cooperation with other parties to achieve transport policy objectives and professional estimates of the impacts that the transport plan is expected to generate. This means that the teaching, the letter of grant and the transport plan are central to the strategic planning process. However, there are times when the transport plan takes precedence over the strategic plan. A first-line manager explained this in light of the transport plan is an external government decision the strategy is internal:So they [the strategic challenges] are also represented in the transport plan, which is the most important policy document for the STA. [...] Formally, it is the transport plan that is the focus, there is no doubt about it as it is a government decision. The strategic challenges are only internal. In addition, the transport plan is the only document that has a holistic approach to operation and forms the basis of what the Agency is intended to do. Some of the interviewees stated that it is difficult to communicate the entire transport plan to all operational areas, divisions and units because the plan is so large. The document is more than 150 pages long. There are also regional plans developed with the details for each region in relation to the transport plan. In practice, it was stated that dealing with both the whole and the parts is a challenge. In this case, the whole is so extensive that it is not put into service, and instead the focus is on the parts through the regional plans and resource allocation management. The 2016 travel goals are a tool to describe what should characterize the Agency and its thinking, to manage employees in accordance with the mission Every day we deliver high accessibility that provides benefits to society and develops society. Three main areas of the traveling goals were highlighted as requiring improvement: (1) customer orientation, including punctuality of trains, convenience for the customer, and maintaining a dialogue with society as a whole; 2) a clever way of working, focusing on results, a safety culture, internal and external cooperation and (3) dedicated employees, which includes the right competence, empowerment and an attractive workplace. Thus, travellers have goals both internally, introverted, and an extroverted, external perspective. Workshop 2 revealed that the 2013 target picture, which later became the travel objectives for 2016, appeared to cover the gap between the strategic plan and the STA's operation. This was because there had been some challenges in interpreting the long-term objectives of the strategic plan in the more short-term day-to-day operations. In other words, the idea was that the 2016 travel objectives would serve as a link between the strategic plan and the operations. In the ensuing discussion among the participants, it was also clear that the relationship between the travel objectives for 2016 and the strategic challenges was not clear. This was a recurring statement in the interviews and can be exemplified by one of the middle managers who said: We can go back to and interpret these kinds of strategic documents [the strategic plan] at an overall level of traffic, but we also need to link it to the 2016 travel goals, which are the common states, which I think mesh well. In other words, interpret what the strategic challenges mean, what the 2016 goals mean and what politicians say. The 2016 issue targets are not well used in the Agency, according to the interviewees, who were also supported by an analysis of the documents where the travel objectives are not included. The operational plan is based on MBO and has a time perspective of three years. It includes various external and internal tasks and what should be prioritised. The operational plan should also be an interpretation of the content of the strategic plan and its six operational challenges. The overall budget and the allocation of resources are specified in the operational plan, including the measures to be taken in accordance with the budget and where they are to be implemented. The overall framework has already been established, but action is possible in terms of detailed planning and implementation of it. When analyzing the operational plan at the overall STA level for 2012-14, 2013-15 and 2014-16, we saw that SM was clearly applied through the strategic challenges, objectives and strategies. The operational plan provides an exhaustive account of the sta's challenges and strategic orientation. This is then related to the 2016 travel objectives (or the previous target image 2013), where the strategic challenges are presented as an input into the organization's way of working. Critical success factors are presented and described as important for the organization to achieve its strategic goals. However, the leaders considered that it is a challenge to interpret the long-term strategic plan and its objectives in the operational plan, which has a shorter timeframe and an operational perspective; furthermore, this problem of interpretation has contributed to different practices and ways of carrying out the strategy work in the various units of the Agency. One of the middle managers said: The management control unit sent their directives to the operational plan. At the time, they attached the strategic plan. I said this is not going to work, to develop an operational plan for one to three years based on that [the strategic plan]. There's too big a gap between them. We can't break down those strategies, to have every employee or entity sit down and interpret them [the goals of the strategic plan] because then everyone will do it their own way. The overall budget for the operational plan is set in advance, but is intended to allow for decisions on the measures to be taken and how resources should be allocated in a time perspective of one to three years. On several occasions, the interviewees and participants in the workshops returned to

the fact that the financial management and allocation of resources in the budget are problems in relation to the strategic plan with its 10-year timeframe. Some of those interviewed questioned the fact that the agency receives an annual budget, which means that the government imposes a short-term financial perspective that does not fit well with the rest of the agency's planning. Several of the interviewees stated that the government's short-term management of the sta has a strong impact on the Agency's ability to use SM as a whole. Long-term strategic work is often overshadowed when the short-term budget provides the overall framework for agency management and planning. Another example is how the STA handles the objectives of the strategic challenge for better value for money. This challenge often leads the Agency to focus on internal efficiency – achieving things at the lowest possible cost – rather than external efficiency – doing things that create desirable long-term effects in society. Internal efficiency also tends to promote short-term rather than long-term thinking because there is a tendency to focus on internal processes and their effectiveness. At one point in workshop 1, for example, participants discussed the concepts of performance culture and economic culture. They explained that the Agency's financial management has little to do with its long-term performance in society, but that staff management cannot opt out of financial management. The main idea is that the strategic plan should be implemented and operationalised through the operational plan and the balanced scorecard. Inspired by Kaplan and Norton (1992) and the so-called Scandinavian version of the balanced scorecard (Olve, Roy and Wetter 1998), the scorecard is a strategic tool that includes critical success factors and performance metrics, as well as activities to be linked to one of the five perspectives: (1) client; 2) customer 3) financing 4) methods and (5) employees. Performance measurements are then closely monitored and monitored. However, units are free to choose whether or not to use the scorecard at an operational level. Thus, only the top management will need the scorecard at departmental level. As a result, there is no way for the Agency to know how well the strategic plan is being implemented at operational level. The idea is that the agency's strategic plan is interpreted in the details of the organization's daily activities through the agency's scorecard. In this way, each department can be said to meet the strategies at their level of operation; by operationalising them into set objectives and indicators and making them relevant to their context. Such a process involves a significant reduction in the time perspective implemented. In reality, the Agency's strategic plan refers to a 10-year period, while the balanced scorecard, considered a strategic tool for short-term management, refers to a period of three years. Moreover, although the scorecard is supposed to have a perspective of three years, its time frame, as one interviewee stated, tends to be even shorter, insofar as it should be possible to follow on a monthly basis. In workshop 1, the participants explained that the scorecard creates short-term thinking in the organisation and thus the relationship between the strategies and scorecards are not ready. Moreover, the scorecard as a tool for SM tends to draw attention to the here and now of day-to-day operations, at the expense of becoming a tool for strategy implementation. In other words, the scorecard has a significant impact on making the agency short-sighted. The six strategic challenges are reduced to smaller components in the form of quantitative indicators in scorecards. The Sta chose to focus on a small number of indicators in areas considered critical and in need of improvement in operations, and therefore requires special supervision and monitoring. Focusing on elements in critical need of improvement can be seen as an assumption that things that work well in the agency's operation do not need to be managed and monitored. But such an assumption creates certain challenges in the organization. Scorecards' focus on critical aspects greatly reduces the scope of the STA's strategic plan, and large parts of the Agency's activities end up outside the chain of strategic governance. For example, the STA has a database of many different indicators for assessing the condition of the transport system. These data are important for statistical reasons, but are not always considered critical, so they are not included in scorecards. Focusing on critical issues also has other effects on the agency because it focuses a lot of attention on what doesn't work instead of highlighting things that work well. In the context of sta, bad examples are highlighted at the expense of the good, due to the necessary transition from a holistic perspective to clearly delineated operations, which are explained to be part of the MBO. As previous research has argued (see e.g. Elbanna, Rhys and Pollanen 2016; Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016; Johansson 2009; Poister 2010; Weiss 2016). It is not without problems to incorporate private models of SM into the public sector. The results of analysing the STA's strategic plan and its relationship to mbo's tools, delivery qualities, transport plan, instruction, letter of authorization, operational plan, budget and balanced scorecard suggest that there are some specific contextual tensions in relation to the public sector that need to be taken into account when working with SM. The fact that the various strategy tools used in the public sector create tensions is not new, but our findings illustrate the role of these tensions in the Agency's strategic work. The analysis resulted in three key tensions that could be claimed to be inherited as part of the public sector context: 1) in the short and long term; (2) parts and whole and (3) reactivity and proactivity. We shall deepen these tensions below. Traditional strategy literature is based on the premise that the strategic plan creates stability and a long-term focus for what an organisation aims to achieve (Mintzberg 1994; Factory 2009). In accordance with this, the STA set up its by setting overall objectives and specifying how the objectives can be achieved (see Hansen Rosenberg 2011). However, the premise is different for public sector activities. Public organisations are managed through government policy, and politics has a rather short-term focus (see Lane and Wallis 2009). In Sweden, for example, there are four years between elections and the budget is set for one year at a time. As our results show, this limits the public sector when pursuing long-term strategies. In addition, the long-term strategic plan with a 10-year time perspective will be implemented in the Agency's activities primarily through the operational plan and scorecards – tools with a time perspective of one to three years. Our results show that this is a difficult process in which the specific objectives, indicators and activities of the operational plan and scorecards become operational and short-term. It can therefore be concluded that sta's strategy work is limited by tools that support operational and day-to-day activities. In summary, the discussion so far suggests that there is a tension between short and long term, which has previously been recognised by researchers such as Lane and Wallis (2009), but on the basis of the provision of services, where the conclusion was that SM could solve this tension; it has not previously been shown, as in this case, to be a contextual factor that could potentially enable or limit the strategy work of the public sector. Like so many other key bodies, the STA cannot carry out its mission without the help of others (see, this means public organisations must work with several external actors in the public and private sectors to carry out their tasks (see Poister 2010). In practice, this means that agencies such as sta do not own everything and therefore do not have full control over the performance of its services. This aspect of the public sector makes it more difficult to take a holistic perspective, which is so often described as a key condition for strategic work, both in the private sector (e.g. Plant 2009; Williams and Lewis 2008). As Poister (2010) argues, the public sector needs to move from strategic planning more to SM, which includes, among other things, a holistic approach and a more effective linking of strategy and performance measurements. Sta has tried to do this, but the metrics in the scorecards, as well as the operational plan, tend to be relatively operational and focus on specific, critical parts of the organization. When it comes to MBO as a philosophy, it represents a holistic perspective, but when used in practice as a tool, it also tends to lead to focus on limited parts of operations. For delivery qualities, it can be said to counter a holistic perspective, as they focus on six areas of operations that need to be improved and most areas are not linked to the strategy. I quality of delivery focuses primarily on operation and maintenance and problems with the railways. All in all, the results show how the holistic perspective is lost in favor of focusing on the parts and the use of tools, such as scorecards, the operational plan, and the MBO to stimulate it. Therefore, strategy work is limited by tools that do not support a holistic view. In short, the discussion so far suggests that there is a possible tension between the parts and the whole of the public sector. Lane and Wallis (2009) argue that the public sector is increasingly pushing towards being proactive. This is also the case in Sweden, where the government encourages several key bodies to take a proactive stance (Höglund 2015). But this is a problem for many of them, as the government tends to at the same time simulate reactive behavior among agencies by giving them additional tasks that they expect the agencies to act. The Oxford Dictionary definition of reactive is acting in response to a situation rather than creating or controlling it. In other words, a proactive approach means that the Agency takes responsibility, has foresight and prevents problems and challenges as much as possible, rather than treating them reactively after they have arisen. Moreover, when it comes to strategy to do, there is much of the literature on SM in the public sector that draws on Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic typology of the prospector, building on the idea of a proactive approach to improving performance (see, eg Andrews et al. 2008, 2009a, 2009b). Poister (2010), on the other hand, emphasizes a move from performance measurement to performance management by being more proactive. In line with these ideas, there is an ambition in the STA's strategic plan to be proactive, but our findings show that through its use of tools, the Agency ends up in a reactive rather than a proactive approach. The reactivity is based on a primarily production-oriented internally driven perspective, e.g. in the business plan, which stimulates an introspective focus instead of a proactive and outward focus on STA. The same applies to the use of scorecard as a strategic tool. The scorecard makes public organizations apply a largely introspective perspective (Williams and Lewis 2008). To sum up the discussion, there is a possible tension between being proactive and reactive in the context of public sector strategy work. The analytical expression strategizing is useful because it helps us focus on what people do in their daily work, how they do it, and what happens when management ideas like SM are applied in practice, and with what tools (Jarzabkowski and Kaplan 2015; Jarzabkowski and Seidl 2008; Spee and Jarzabkowski 2011). When it comes to strategic work, the public sector has several specific, unique features (Andrews and Van de Walle 2012; Elbanna, Rhys and Pollanen 2016; Ferlie and Ongaro 2015; Hansen Rosenberg and Ferlie 2016; 2016), which tends to create tension when SM is used in practice and what tools can be used. For example, previous research has shown that public organisations act in a pluralistic context in which several internal and external interests must be met at once (Jarzabkowski and Fenton 2006; Jarzabkowski and Silince 2007; Jarzabkowski, Lé and Van de Ven 2013; Johnsen 2016; Williams and Lewis 2008). Pluralistic organizing tensions can thus be said to be inextricably linked to the public sector, which develops various bureaucratic organizing practices and processes to deal with these tensions (Jarzabkowski and Fenton 2006). We have contributed to strategy research by analysing the microprocesses of strategising at the STA and awareness of three specific tensions in public organisations: short and long term, parts and whole, and reactivity and proactivity. These tensions have been shown to potentially enable or limit strategy making in the public sector. Conceptually, we know a lot about strategy, but there are few empirical studies of strategy practice and its implications (Johnsen 2016). By focusing on micro aspects of strategizing in this article, we have contributed rich empirical material to the study of strategic tools, their functions, and what tools were adopted, as there has been a call for (Jarzabkowski and Kaplan 2015). In addition, there is an increasing need to further improve our understanding of how SM is used in public organisations, as its use is growing, but at the same time we know too little about its use and possible consequences (George and Desmidt 2014; Hansen Rosenberg 2011; Williams and Lewis 2008). This article was an attempt to solve some of these problems. However, we need more articles of this kind and we propose that more research is needed on public sector strategy practices and what tools are used, how they are used and why. In other words, more case studies need to be carried out at microanalysis level. In addition, more research is needed that takes into account the specific features of the public sector when it comes to strategy work and SM; this as we conclude that the public sector has several specific, unique features that create tension when using SM in practice. TABLE 1 Studies at STA: An overview PurposeResearch questionsMethodDataResults / Conclusions Preliminary study (2013)To provide a preliminary understanding of how strategy work is performed and how this work enables and/or limits the strategy for developing the STA in a modern agency. What opportunities and obstacles can be identified in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of the strategic plan? A qualitative approach, including a document ary examination of formal management and control.13 interviews with:Failed to implement and monitor the strategic plan through Top Managers: 4 Middle Managers: 3 First Line Managers: 3 Employees Working on Strategic Issues: 3 How How To MBO as a philosophy work in relation to the entrepreneurial qualities of becoming a modern agency? The document study was supplemented with interviews to get an initial idea of how formal management and control worked with the strategy in practice.106 governance documentsThe strategic plan created tensions with STA's management control, as several of the tools used limited strategy work. Sta's website MBO philosophy collides with the agency's strategy work; become a modern agency through entrepreneurship. The Strategic Plan Project 1 (2014)To understand the challenges that arise during the translation of the strategy from an overall level to the operational level. How does SM interact with operational management? A qualitative approach in which the implementation of the strategic plan was examined within two of the STA's main divisions from top management to operational level30 interviews with:The strategic plan disappears among all the formalised control-command tools. As a result, the strategy was not applied everywhere. Top managers: 2 Middle managers: 4S How do managers and employees apply the strategy in practice? The objectives of the strategic plan were unclear, too many and contradictory. First line managers: 8 Employees: 16 How is strategic work monitored? Workshops organised at STA-A workshop on strategy (25)The scorecard was not a successful tool for implementing and monitoring the strategic plan. A workshop on evaluation and monitoring (23) Workshop 1: People working with strategy at different hierarchical levels were invited to discuss strategy work.126 steering documents The scorecard requires measurable goals. The Agency had difficulty in creating these objectives in the context of the strategic plan. The objectives tended to be operational rather than strategic. Workshop 2: People working in management control and strategy at different hierarchical levels were invited to discuss how strategy work is evaluated and monitored.100 balanced scorecards 37 PowerPoint presentations Project 2 (2015-2016)To contribute to understanding the relationship between management control and the work of the public sector strategy. What are the possible tensions between management control in the STA and SM? A qualitative approach with interviews specifically focused on management control aspects, in addition to previous studies of strategy16 interviews with:Three main tensions arose between the technical work of the national administration and the management control: 1) part/whole; (2) long term/in the short term 3) reactivity/proactivity. Middle managers: 4 First line managers: 4 Employees: 8 Workshop 3: People working with management control and strategy at different hierarchical levels were invited to discuss tensions between different management tools. A workshop on possible tensions between management control and SM at STA (20). There is a need for another dimension of it in accordance with this is a conceptual model to characterise management control and and strategy was proposed. TABLE 2 How tools enable and limit strategy MakingToolsPurposeFindingsManagement by Goal (MBO)A framework that the government decided that all agencies should use. The strategic plan put forward a holistic view, while in practice the MBO tends to focus on parts of the operations, creating tensions that limit the strategy work. Transport policy objectivesThere are two main policy objectives set by the government. The strategic plan should meet with them. The political objectives govern the STA and its work rather than the strategic plan. The long-term goals are difficult to interpret for short-term day-to-day operations as they are contradictory, unclear and complex. Delivery QualitiesImposed by the government to deal with transparency issues related to management control. STAFF shall explain them in the annual report. Delivery qualities often override the strategic plan and have also developed into a strategic tool for external communication. It is a tool that focuses on part of the operation; Railroad. This, combined with a focus on internal efficiency, has limited strategy work in several ways; proactive and become a modern agency. Instructions and appropriation LetterSe are provided by the government and should serve as input in the strategic planning process. The teaching enables long-term strategic planning, while imposing annual tasks that tend to conflict with the strategic plan. The short-term perspectives of the letter of appropriation (including the annual budget and targets) limit the strategy work. The transport plan has been approved by the government. Should provide the STA with action plans and input to the strategic planning process. Enables strategy work from a long-term and holistic perspective, while presenting detailed operational efficiency action plans, which, however, tend to take precedence over the strategic plan. The destinations set by the STA in 2016 act as a link between the long-term strategic plan and day-to-day operations. Created to cover the gap between the strategic plan and operations. The relationship between them is not clear. Few use the tool in their strategic work. The operational plan is approved by the Board of Directors to operationalize mbo and the strategic plan. Enables strategy in several ways by addressing the objectives of the strategic plan, but limits it to being difficult to interpret. From long-term goals to day-to-day operations. BudgetA general framework is set by the government. Detailed resource allocation is done by STA. The budget is one of the most restrictive tools for long-term strategy work as it has a one-year time frame. It tends to privilege internal efficiency rather than external efficiency. Balanced scorecardThe strategic plan should be implemented in operations via the scorecard. The scorecard limits the strategy work as it short-term thinking and focus on parts of the operations. The authors would like to thank the Swedish Transport Agency, Jan Wallanders and Tom Hedelius Foundation and AES (Academy of Management and Control in Central Government) at Stockholm Business School. We also thank Rhys Andrews and two anonymous reviewers. An earlier draft of this article was presented on May 9, 2016.

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