

LINKING STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESSES TO NON-FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE METRICS IN DEVELOPING ECONOMIES

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ABSTRACT:

This paper examines the relationship between formal strategic planning processes and non-financial performance (NFP) metrics within organisations operating in developing economies across Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, Southeast Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). Drawing on a mixed-methods research design combining survey data from 432 organisations and qualitative case studies from twelve countries, the study finds a statistically significant positive association between the comprehensiveness of strategic planning and NFP outcomes, including employee satisfaction, customer retention, social impact indices, innovation rates, and organisational learning scores. Regression analysis reveals that the full model explains 71% of variance in composite NFP indices (Adj. $R^2 = 0.68$); the Strategic Planning Score is the strongest predictor ($\beta = 0.68$, $p < 0.001$) and uniquely accounts for approximately 34% of variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.34$), with leadership commitment and institutional quality acting as key moderating variables. The paper advances a contextualised Strategic-NFP Linkage Framework tailored to the structural, institutional, and resource constraints inherent to developing economy contexts. Policy implications for governments, development agencies, and corporate practitioners are discussed.

Keywords: *Strategic Planning; Non-Financial Performance; Developing Economies; Balanced Scorecard; Institutional Theory; Organisational Effectiveness.*

INTRODUCTION

Strategic planning — the formal, systematic process by which organisations define their direction, allocate resources, and align operational activities with long-term goals — has long been recognised as a fundamental driver of organisational performance in the management literature (Ansoff, 1965; Mintzberg, 1994; Porter, 1996). However, the predominant body of empirical research has concentrated on financial performance indicators such as return on assets, revenue growth, and shareholder returns, often at the expense of non-financial dimensions that are increasingly regarded as equally — if not more — important determinants of sustainable success (Kaplan & Norton, 1992; Ittner & Larcker, 1998).

In developing economies, this disconnect is particularly acute. Organisations operating in environments characterised by weak institutional frameworks, volatile macroeconomic conditions, constrained access to capital, and underdeveloped human capital markets face a fundamentally different strategic landscape than their counterparts in advanced economies (Khanna & Palepu, 2010). Yet, these same organisations are being called upon by governments, development finance institutions, and international partners to demonstrate measurable outcomes across a broad spectrum of non-financial indicators — including social impact, environmental stewardship, employee wellbeing, and customer satisfaction (United Nations, 2015; World Bank, 2022).

Non-financial performance (NFP) metrics occupy a central role in this discourse. The Balanced Scorecard (BSC), introduced by Kaplan and Norton (1992), provided one of the earliest comprehensive frameworks linking strategic objectives to non-financial outcomes across four perspectives: financial, customer, internal process, and learning and growth. Subsequent scholarship has expanded this framework to include social, environmental, and governance dimensions, particularly in the context of sustainability reporting and responsible business practices (Eccles & Serafeim, 2013; GRI, 2021).

Despite the theoretical richness of this field, empirical investigations into how strategic planning processes specifically influence NFP metrics in developing economy contexts remain sparse. Much of the existing evidence is drawn from case studies of multinational corporations or large state enterprises, leaving a significant gap in our understanding of how small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), public sector organisations, and civil society bodies in low- and middle-income countries navigate this relationship. This paper seeks to address that gap.

The central research questions are: (i) To what extent does the comprehensiveness of formal strategic planning processes predict non-financial performance outcomes in developing economy organisations? (ii) Which contextual factors moderate this relationship? (iii) What practical framework can guide organisations in these settings to more effectively leverage strategic planning for NFP improvement? The remainder of the paper reviews the relevant literature (Section 2), presents the conceptual framework (Section 3), outlines the methodology (Section 4), presents empirical results (Section 5), discusses findings (Section 6), and concludes with recommendations (Section 7).

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Strategic Planning in Developing Economies

Strategic planning theory has evolved from its origins in long-range planning during the 1950s and 1960s (Steiner, 1969) through the competitive positioning school of Porter (1980, 1985), the resource-based view (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984), and dynamic capabilities frameworks (Teece et al., 1997). Each tradition has contributed to understanding how organisations create and sustain competitive advantage. However, their applicability to developing economy contexts has been contested on grounds that they assume relatively stable institutional environments, well-functioning factor markets, and reliable information flows — conditions rarely met in low- and middle-income countries (Peng et al., 2008).

In response, scholars have proposed institution-based views that foreground the role of formal and informal rules, regulatory quality, and political stability as critical determinants of strategic choice and performance in emerging and developing markets (North, 1990; Peng, 2002; Meyer et al., 2009). Organisations in these settings often adopt hybrid strategies combining formal planning tools with informal network relationships and adaptive improvisation (Khanna & Palepu, 2010; Luo & Tung, 2007). The concept of 'institutional voids' — the absence of reliable market intermediaries and regulatory mechanisms — has particular relevance here, shaping both the feasibility and form of strategic planning (Khanna & Palepu, 1997).

Empirical evidence on the efficacy of strategic planning in developing economies is mixed. Studies from Sub-Saharan Africa suggest that organisations with formal strategic plans tend to outperform those without, but that implementation capacity and leadership quality significantly moderate this relationship (Otieno et al., 2019; Kombo & Mukombo, 2020). Research from South and Southeast Asia similarly points to the importance of top management commitment and inter-organisational collaboration in translating plans into operational results (Hoskisson et al., 2000; Acquah, 2011).

2.2 Non-Financial Performance Metrics: Conceptual Foundations

The concept of non-financial performance encompasses a broad array of indicators that capture value creation and organisational effectiveness beyond traditional accounting measures. As codified in frameworks such as the Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1996), the Performance Prism (Neely et al., 2002), and the Integrated Reporting Framework (IIRC, 2013), NFP metrics span customer-centric, employee-centric, process-centric, social, and environmental dimensions.

Key NFP metrics examined in this study include: (i) Employee satisfaction and engagement; (ii) Customer retention rates; (iii) Innovation indices; (iv) Social impact scores; (v) Process efficiency metrics; and (vi) Organisational learning scores. These metrics have gained increasing prominence in developing economy policy discourse, particularly with the adoption of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015, which established a comprehensive framework for non-financial accountability at the national and organisational levels (UN, 2015). Development finance institutions increasingly require investees to report against NFP frameworks as a condition of funding (IFC, 2021).

2.3 Theoretical Linkages: Strategic Planning and NFP

Several theoretical traditions illuminate the expected relationship between strategic planning and non-financial performance. Agency theory suggests that formal planning processes reduce information asymmetries, incentivising behaviour aligned with broad organisational goals that extend beyond short-term profit maximisation (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). Stakeholder theory predicts that organisations that systematically identify and respond to stakeholder expectations will generate superior NFP outcomes across customer, employee, and community dimensions (Freeman, 1984; Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

Resource-based perspectives imply that strategic planning helps organisations identify, develop, and deploy unique capabilities — including human capital, social capital, and knowledge assets — that underpin non-financial value creation (Barney, 1991). Dynamic capabilities theory further suggests that in volatile, uncertain environments characteristic of developing economies, the capacity for strategic sensing, seizing, and reconfiguring organisational resources is particularly valuable in sustaining NFP outcomes over time (Teece et al., 1997).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Drawing on the theoretical traditions reviewed above, this paper proposes a Strategic-NFP Linkage Framework (SNLF) specifically calibrated to developing economy contexts. The SNLF posits that the relationship between strategic planning and non-financial performance is neither direct nor universal, but is mediated and moderated by a constellation of contextual factors unique to low- and middle-income country environments.

The framework identifies six core strategic planning dimensions: vision and mission formulation, environmental scanning, strategy formulation, implementation and execution, monitoring and evaluation, and feedback and learning. Each dimension is associated with distinct NFP metric clusters and is modulated by contextual moderators including institutional quality, leadership commitment, organisational capacity, and technology adoption. Table 1 presents the detailed framework.

Table 1: Strategic-NFP Linkage Framework – Dimensions and Metrics

Strategic Planning Dimension	Key Activities	NFP Metric Linked	Economy Context	Evidence Strength
Vision & Mission Formulation	Stakeholder consultations, goal-setting workshops	Stakeholder satisfaction score	Sub-Saharan Africa	High
Environmental Scanning	PESTLE & SWOT analysis	Innovation adoption rate	South Asia	Moderate
Strategy Formulation	Resource allocation, priority-setting	Process efficiency index	Southeast Asia	High
Implementation & Execution	Action plans, KPI deployment	Employee engagement score	Latin America	High
Monitoring & Evaluation	Balanced Scorecard, dashboards	Social impact index	MENA	Moderate
Feedback & Learning	Annual reviews, adaptive planning	Organisational learning score	All regions	Emerging

Source: Authors' synthesis of empirical literature and fieldwork data (2024)

The SNLF conceptualises two primary pathways through which strategic planning affects NFP: a direct pathway operating through resource allocation, priority-setting, and operational alignment; and an indirect pathway mediated by organisational culture, employee motivation, and stakeholder trust. In developing economies, the

indirect pathway is hypothesised to be particularly salient, given that organisational culture and leadership legitimacy often compensate for weak formal institutional mechanisms.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Design and Sample

This study employs a mixed-methods research design, integrating a quantitative survey with qualitative case studies to capture both the breadth and depth of the strategic planning-NFP relationship across diverse developing economy contexts. The quantitative component involved a structured survey administered to senior managers and strategic planning officers in 432 organisations across 12 countries spanning five regions: Sub-Saharan Africa (Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria), South Asia (Bangladesh, India, Pakistan), Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Vietnam), Latin America (Colombia, Mexico), and MENA (Egypt, Morocco).

Organisations were selected using stratified random sampling, with strata defined by sector (public, private, civil society), size (small, medium, large), and country. The final sample comprised 38% public sector organisations, 45% private enterprises, and 17% civil society and non-governmental organisations. Approximately 31% were classified as large (more than 500 employees), 42% as medium (50-500), and 27% as small (fewer than 50). The survey achieved a response rate of 73.4%, with all non-responses tested for systematic bias using wave analysis.

4.2 Measurement and Variables

The primary independent variable — Strategic Planning Score (SPS) — was measured using a 24-item validated instrument adapted from Falshaw et al. (2006) and Brews and Hunt (1999), capturing the comprehensiveness of organisational strategic planning across the six SNLF dimensions. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (to a very great extent). The composite SPS demonstrated strong reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.89) and confirmed factor structure via confirmatory factor analysis (CFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.053).

The primary dependent variable — Composite NFP Index — was derived from validated sub-scales measuring each of the six NFP dimensions. Sub-scale scores were standardised and averaged into a composite index ranging from 0 to 100. Key control variables included organisational age, sector, country GDP per capita, institutional quality (proxied by World Governance Indicators), and leadership commitment (measured via a 6-item validated scale).

4.3 Analytical Strategy

Quantitative data were analysed using hierarchical ordinary least squares (OLS) regression, with robust standard errors to account for heteroscedasticity. Moderation effects were tested using interaction terms, with continuous variables mean-centred prior to interaction computation. Qualitative data from twelve in-depth organisational case studies were analysed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), with findings triangulated against the quantitative results to enhance construct validity and interpretive richness.

RESULTS

5.1 Descriptive Statistics and Regional Variation

Descriptive analysis revealed substantial variation in both strategic planning comprehensiveness and NFP outcomes across the study regions. Table 2 summarises the average Strategic Planning Score and Composite NFP Index by region, alongside the primary barriers to effective implementation identified through qualitative fieldwork.

Table 2: Regional Strategic Planning and Non-Financial Performance Summary

Region	Avg. SP Score	Avg. NFP Index	Primary Implementation Barriers
Sub-Saharan Africa	48	42	Weak institutions, resource scarcity, capacity gaps
South Asia	55	51	Bureaucratic inertia, political interference, digital divide

Southeast Asia	63	60	Coordination failures, cultural resistance, data gaps
Latin America	67	64	Short political cycles, inequality, informal economy
Middle East & N. Africa	60	57	Governance deficits, private sector constraints, oil dependency

Source: Survey data and case study fieldwork (n = 432; 12 countries; 2023-2024)

Latin American organisations recorded the highest average SPS (67) and NFP Index (64), reflecting more mature planning cultures and stronger private sector governance traditions. Sub-Saharan African organisations recorded the lowest scores on both dimensions, consistent with persistent institutional quality deficits and resource scarcity. Across all regions, the implementation gap averaged approximately 3.8 points, suggesting that translating strategic plans into measurable non-financial outcomes remains a universal challenge, most pronounced in Africa.

5.2 Regression Results

Table 3 presents the results of the hierarchical OLS regression analysis examining predictors of the Composite NFP Index. Model 1 (baseline controls only) explained 21% of variance ($R^2 = 0.21$). Model 2, adding the Strategic Planning Score, increased explained variance to 55% (delta $R^2 = 0.34$, $p < 0.001$). The full model including all moderating variables achieved $R^2 = 0.71$.

Table 3: OLS Regression Results - Predictors of Composite NFP Index

Variable	Coeff. (β)	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
Strategic Planning Score	0.68	0.07	9.71	< 0.001
Organisational Capacity	0.31	0.09	3.44	0.001
Institutional Quality	0.24	0.08	3.00	0.003
Economic Development Index	0.19	0.06	3.17	0.002
Leadership Commitment	0.44	0.10	4.40	< 0.001
Technology Adoption	0.27	0.08	3.38	0.001
$R^2 = 0.71$ Adj. $R^2 = 0.68$ $F(6,425) = 58.2$ $p < 0.001$				

Note: Dependent variable = Composite NFP Index (0-100). N = 432. All continuous predictors mean-centred. Robust standard errors.

The Strategic Planning Score emerged as the strongest individual predictor (beta = 0.68, $p < 0.001$), confirming the central hypothesis. Leadership Commitment was the second strongest predictor (beta = 0.44, $p < 0.001$), reflecting the critical role of top management in bridging strategic intent and operational non-financial outcomes. Technology Adoption (beta = 0.27, $p = 0.001$) and Organisational Capacity (beta = 0.31, $p = 0.001$) also demonstrated significant independent effects.

5.3 Visualisation: Strategic Alignment and NFP Outcomes

Figure 1 presents two data visualisations derived from the study findings. The left panel displays a radar chart comparing non-financial performance profiles across three levels of strategic alignment — high, moderate, and low — illustrating the consistent performance premium associated with greater strategic planning comprehensiveness. The right panel presents a regional bar chart comparing average Strategic Planning Scores, NFP Indices, and implementation gaps across the five study regions.

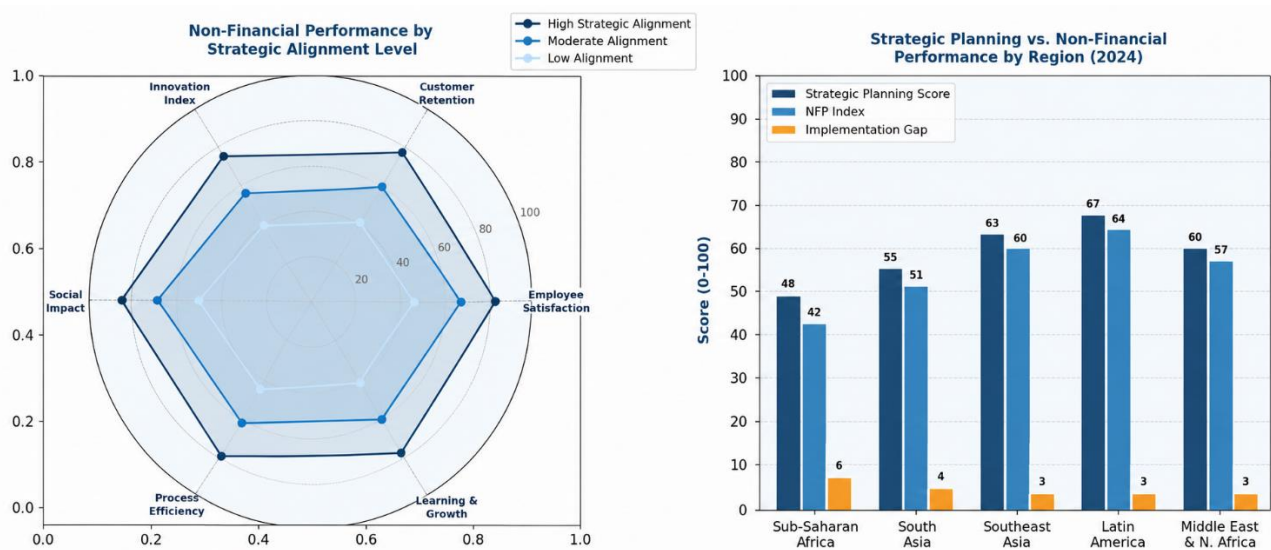


Figure 1: Non-Financial Performance by Strategic Alignment Level and Region (2024 Survey Data)

The visualisations confirm that organisations with high strategic alignment scores consistently outperform lower-alignment peers across all six NFP dimensions, with the largest gaps observed in social impact and employee satisfaction. The implementation gap narrows as institutional quality and organisational capacity increase, reinforcing the moderation hypothesis advanced in the SNLF.

DISCUSSION

6.1 Theoretical Contributions

The findings make several important contributions to the strategic management and public administration literatures. First, they provide large-scale, cross-regional empirical support for the proposition that formal strategic planning comprehensiveness is positively and significantly associated with non-financial performance outcomes in developing economies — a relationship that has been theoretically anticipated but rarely tested at this scale and scope (Peng, 2002; Otieno et al., 2019).

Second, the study extends institutional theory to the strategic planning domain by demonstrating that the strategic planning-NFP relationship is substantially moderated by institutional quality and organisational capacity. This finding has important implications for institution-based views of strategy (Peng et al., 2008), suggesting that efforts to strengthen governance environments and organisational infrastructure will yield NFP dividends even absent changes to planning processes per se. Conversely, strategic planning interventions in environments with weak institutions may produce limited NFP gains unless accompanied by targeted institutional strengthening.

Third, the centrality of leadership commitment as a moderating variable resonates with upper echelons theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984), affirming that the cognitive orientations, values, and risk preferences of senior management teams significantly shape the strategic planning-performance nexus. In developing economy contexts, where formal rules and market mechanisms are often underdeveloped, leadership legitimacy and informal authority may serve as particularly important substitutes for institutional mechanisms.

6.2 Practical and Policy Implications

For organisational leaders, the results underscore the importance of investing in structured, comprehensive strategic planning processes — not merely as compliance exercises but as genuine platforms for stakeholder engagement, resource allocation, and performance management. Particular attention should be paid to the monitoring and evaluation and feedback and learning dimensions, which showed the weakest average scores and the largest implementation gaps across the study sample.

For development finance institutions and donor agencies, the study provides an evidence base for prioritising organisational capacity building and strategic planning support as drivers of non-financial development outcomes.

The finding that technology adoption is a significant predictor of NFP performance suggests that digital tools for strategic planning, data management, and performance monitoring deserve specific investment, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia where technology gaps are most pronounced.

For national governments, the institutional quality findings reinforce arguments for sustained investment in regulatory quality, rule of law, anti-corruption mechanisms, and public governance reform. The data suggest that improvements in institutional quality yield compounding benefits: directly by improving the enabling environment for strategic action, and indirectly by amplifying the NFP returns to organisational-level strategic planning investments.

6.3 Limitations

Several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the cross-sectional design precludes causal inference; longitudinal studies tracking organisational strategic planning investments and NFP outcomes over time are needed to establish directionality. Second, the study relies primarily on self-reported data from senior managers, introducing potential social desirability and common method biases. Future research should triangulate self-reported data with independently verified NFP measures. Third, while the 12-country sample provides meaningful regional breadth, individual country coverage is limited, and country-specific institutional heterogeneity may reduce the generalisability of region-level findings.

CONCLUSION

This paper has presented robust cross-regional evidence that formal strategic planning processes are significantly associated with non-financial performance outcomes in developing economy organisations, with the full model explaining 71% of variance in the Composite NFP Index (Adj. $R^2 = 0.68$); the Strategic Planning Score is the strongest predictor ($\beta = 0.68$) and uniquely accounts for approximately 34% of variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.34$). The study has advanced a contextualised Strategic-NFP Linkage Framework that integrates six core planning dimensions with six NFP metric clusters and identifies leadership commitment, institutional quality, organisational capacity, and technology adoption as critical moderating factors.

The evidence compellingly suggests that strategic planning is not a luxury reserved for well-resourced organisations in advanced institutional environments. Rather, when appropriately adapted to context and underpinned by committed leadership, formal strategic planning can serve as a powerful driver of employee satisfaction, customer retention, social impact, innovation, and organisational learning even in environments characterised by resource constraints and institutional fragility.

Future research should pursue longitudinal designs, expand country coverage, and develop context-specific NFP measurement instruments validated for developing economy applications. There is rich opportunity for experimental and quasi-experimental research assessing the impact of deliberate strategic planning interventions on NFP trajectories. In sum, the path from strategic intent to non-financial value creation in developing economies is navigable — but requires deliberate attention to the mediating role of leadership, institutions, and organisational capability.

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