CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Uncertain economic climate forces many Organisations to make changes in order to survive. Organisations need to react quickly to the revolution in technologies and competition, not only at the global level, but also at the local and national levels, if they want to stay ahead of competition (Edmonds, 2010). According to Robbins and Judge (2009), the dynamic and changing environments, which Organisations face today, required adaptation, sometimes calling for deep and rapid responses. "Change or die" is the rallying cry among today's managers worldwide. In the same vain, Buono and Kerber (2010) posited that companies in every industry are increasingly challenged to both respond to, and anticipate continuously changing competitive, market, technological, economic and social conditions to the point where change is described as "the new norm." Organisations of all kinds today have to deal with environments that are changing more rapidly than the Organisations themselves.

While the inevitability and benefits of effective change management are non-negotiable, the reality is that about 80% of changes implemented within Organisations fail to achieve the objectives for which they were set (Burnes, 2005). In a recent study, Choi and Ruona (2011), confirmed this assertion. According to the authors, "despite the increase in the perceived necessity of change and attempts at implementing Organisational change initiative, it has been estimated that, at least, two thirds of Organisational change efforts do not result in their intended aims nor do they foster sustained change."

Nigeria, as a member of the international community, has suffered her share of the consequences of the economic meltdown in the forms of declining real output growth (slow economic growth), weakened financial systems (takeovers and bankruptcy), loss of

jobs, loss of confidence in the financial markets, leading to inability to carry out their intermediation role in the economy, rising inflation and weak consumer demand (Soludo, 2009). These negative effects have manifested in rising inflation, continued depreciation of the Naira value in the foreign exchange market, sagging consumer demand, changes in government policies as well as increased local and global competition. The above factors have made business operation in Nigeria most challenging. To meet these challenges, Nigerian managers have embarked on several transformation programmes to guarantee the survival and prosperity of their businesses. However, the success of these transformation programmes will depend on the effective management of the entire process.

Statement of the Problem

The fact that Organisations must change is no longer news. The real problem is that, in spite of the consciousness of the inevitability of change, and a virtual explosion of research and managerial practice, successful Organisational change often remains elusive (Kind and Wright, 2007). This is because most Organisations "change and die" instead of "changing to live." Keller and Aiken (2010) acknowledge that with much research done and information available on managing change, it stands to reason that change programmes today should be more successful than those of more than a decade ago, but the facts suggest otherwise. A review of the relevant literature showed that between 70% and 80% of changes implemented within Organisations fail to achieve the objectives for which they were set (Isern and Pung, 2006; Bokeno, 2008). According to Huy (2002), the poor outcomes of change efforts have posed to management scholars and practitioners alike, the challenge of solving the puzzle of how Organisations can achieve successful changes.

For Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), few Organisational change efforts tended to be entirely successful. Most encounter problems; they often take longer than expected and

desired; they sometimes kill morale and they often cost a great deal in terms of managerial time or emotional upheaval. The consequences of a transformation failure include: reduced Organisational effectiveness, wasted resources, employee cynicism, dampened employee morale, loss of integrity for those leading the effort and reduced ability to confront and compete in the environment for needed resources and support (Iyayi, 2000). Organisations, failing to introduce change successfully can pay a high price; failure can lead to loss of market position, and the credibility with stakeholders as well as decreased morale among management and staff, resulting in a de-motivated workforce or, worse still, the loss of key employees (Edmonds, 2010). Allen, Jimmieson, Bodia & Irmer (2007) posited that the cost of change failures extend beyond the purely financial impact on the Organisation, as there are also implications for the success of change efforts and the culture of an Organisation. From the economic perspective, the inability to effectively manage Organisational change in Nigeria will result in corporate failures, leading to loss of jobs, massive unemployment, a high crime rate and loss of revenue by government and the resultant reduction in the general standards of living of the citizenry. This will, no doubt, exacerbate the economic woes of the nation.

According to Burnes (2004) the poor success rates of change was suggestive of a fundamental lack of a valid framework of how to implement and manage Organisational change as what is currently available to academic, and practitioners is a wide range of contradictory and confusing theories and approaches. These observations are supported by Doyle (2002) who argue that evidence suggest, that, with only few exceptions, existing practice and theory are mostly supported by unchallenged assumptions about the nature of contemporary Organisational change management. The above citations revealed that despite the huge investment of time, efforts and financial resources in the management of Organisational change; the end product was nothing to write home about. The problems of identifying the critical variables that determined the success of Organisational transformations, the interrelationship between and among these variables and how these could be managed to guarantee success had become a puzzle for managers

to solve. The challenge, therefore, is how to find better ways of managing change to improve its success rate.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate change management and Organisational performance in Nigerian companies. In the light of the foregoing purpose, the researcher sought to achieve the following specific objectives**:**

(i) Find out if successful Organisational change will result in significant increase in sales revenue. .

(ii) Examine if Organisational change will lead to higher profit levels.

(iii) Determine if Organisational change will impact positively on shareholders' wealth.

(iv) Examine if evidence exists to suggest that change will increase Organisational flexibility.

(v) Find out if Organisational change will enhance Organisational collaboration.

(vi) Develop a framework for a more effective management of Organisational change.

Research Questions

Based on the stated problems and purpose, to facilitate the conduct of the study the following questions were posed:

(i) Does Organisational change result in significant increase in sales?

(ii) Does Organisational change lead to higher profits?

(iii) Can Organisational change impact positively on shareholders' wealth?

(iv) Is there significant evidence that change will result in Organisational flexibility?

(v) Does change enhance Organisational collaboration?

(vi) Will the synergies from the leadership, communication and participatory aspects of change management improve its effectiveness?

Research hypotheses

To further solve the identified problems and achieve the research objectives, the following hypotheses were derived or formulated, from the research questions:

1 Organisational change does not result in significant increase in sales.

2 Organisational change will not lead to relatively higher profits.

3 Organisational change will not impact positively on shareholders' wealth

4 There is no significant evidence that change will improve Organisational flexibility

5 Change will not enhance Organisational collaboration

6 The synergies from the leadership, communication and participation will not improve change management effectiveness.

Significance of the Study

The findings and recommendations of this study would, hopefully, enrich the theoretical underpinnings of change management literature which could, in turn, result in curricula enrichment and aid change management knowledge impartation.

It is also the researcher's hope that the findings from this research would provide information that would increase managerial understanding of Organisational change and guide the actions of managers and consultants in change management.

This study should contribute significantly towards the achievement of sustained development in Nigeria and the rest of Africa. This is because the effective management of Organisational change will not only enhance the performance of firms in general (in terms of profit and market share among other factors) but will, in addition, improve the well-being of employees (in terms, for example of job satisfaction and higher pay), and the economic prosperity of the Nigerian (in terms of payment of taxes to government for the financing of developmental projects, performance of socially responsive activities by the firms, interest payments to creditors, dividend payments to shareholders, payments to material and parts and components suppliers).

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study is interested in the following five variables: Change Management, Leadership, Communication, Participation and Organisational Prosperity. Five Organisations were selected for the study in Lagos State.

The study was limited by the following constraints: the dearth of local empirical studies on the topic of enquiry. Poor attitude of respondents resulting in outright refusal of some Organisations to allow the researcher administer copies of the questionnaires as a matter of company policy, the unwillingness of respondents to grant interviews and the frustrating delays in respondents' filling of copies of the questionnaire and the consequent delay in completing the field work. Other limitations include the following: the representation or abstraction constraints and the structured nature of the questionnaire. However, these limitations were mitigated through the establishment of contact with top and learned members of the Organisations. These officials helped in the proper education of the subjects.

Operational definition of terms

In order to facilitate the readers' understanding of this work, some key definitions of the terms employed in it are provided as follows:

Organisational Change: A systematic and planned attempt to move an Organisation and its members toward a new direction that might result in the alteration of fundamental factors, such as existing strategies, structures and systems.

Communication: The process of sending and understanding ideas, and information from one person to another.

Leadership: The process of influencing others to work with excitement toward the attainment of Organisational goals.

Effective Change Communication: Communication that creates readiness for change and provide adequate information that are relevant and timely before, during and after the change programme.

Successful Change: The change effort that achieves its objectives which may include: increase in profit, operating efficiency, flexibility, collaboration, product quality, service delivery and productivity.

Environment: Factors, forces and circumstances that affect business operations favourably or unfavourably. They include: economic, political, cultural and technological factors.

Strategy: The Organisational methods, means, and schemes used in achieving the desired objectives.

Participation: The actual involvement of individual employees in taking and implementing decisions and actions before, during and after the change.

Envisioning: The ability of change leaders to set the right vision for the change .

Energizing: The ability of the leaders to align employees with the change vision by generating the energy or motivation to act among members of the Organisation.

Leadership Trust: The willingness of employees to act in accordance with management decisions in the belief that management will honour its own obligations.

Credibility: Management's track records of faithfulness to previous promises and its extension by matching words with actions during and after the change. In other words: "Practical leadership of leading by example."

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The exponential growth in both frequency and magnitude over the past twenty to thirty years, and the vast resources, now committed to change management programmes in companies around the globe, have created a need for today's students of business as well as managers and aspiring managers to familiarise themselves with the phenomenon of Organisational change (Carnall, 2007). Change has become an integral part of Organisational life for both Organisational members and Organisations. This chapter focused on the conceptual framework, theoretical framework, the review of empirical literature and the conceptual model.

Conceptual Framework

Organisational change refers to a perplexing myriad of phenomena, activities, initiatives and campaigns in Organisations that have one thing in common: movement of some sort from one set of thoughts or behaviours to another set of thoughts or behaviours (Bokeno, 2008). According to Jones (2010), Organisational change is the process by which Organisations move from their present state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness. Mills Dye and Mills (2009) viewed Organisational change as an alteration of a core aspect of an Organisation's operation. Core aspects include the structure, technology, culture, leadership, goal and personnel of an Organisation. DuBrin (2006) defined Organisational structure as the arrangement of people and tasks to accomplish Organisational goals. The structure specifies who reports to whom and who does what. Technology is the systematic application of scientific knowledge to a new product, process, and service. On the other hand, Organisational culture is the set of important

assumptions about the Organisation and its goals and practices that members of the company share (Bateman and Snell 2004).

Forces for change

Enos (2007) observed that the external forces, requiring Organisation to change, are numerous and fluctuate rapidly. The obvious forces, requiring change, are new or expanded competition, customer demands, government regulations, and changes in the economy, changes in suppliers and changes in sources of supply. Spector (2010) argued that Organisational change is induced by violent swings in national and international economies, new competitive environments, shifting customer expectations, increasing pressures from financial markets, emerging governmental regulation and deregulation as well as dramatic and unexpected geographical dynamics.

Furthermore, Bokeno (2008) averred that change was a result of a perceived or felt discrepancy between where the Organisation is and where it wants to be, and four primary areas where this discrepancy is usually felt include:

1. Strategy, as in the suspicion that the current strategy is not working or that a different one may be more productive for the future.
2. Technology, as in the suspicion that an Organisation's current IT system is not providing information as fast or as comprehensively as it should.
3. Organisational structure, as in the suspicion that informed participation by lower line supervisors may enhance decision making at the managerial level and
4. People, as in the suspicion that lower line supervisors possess either the confidence or competence to participate in managerial decision making.

For Fields (2008), the need for Organisational change was often rooted in threats or uncertainties. These threats may be due to poor firm performance or trends that suggest the Organisation is vulnerable to loss of market share, competitive advantages or critical

resources. An Organisation embarks on a major change programme where the leaders of an Organisation believe and can demonstrate that current modes of operations are a threat to its survival (as a result of market pressures, government regulations, etc.), and when the leaders are willing to commit adequate resources to the programme and in anticipation of a major opportunity (Abugu 2000).

Types of Organisational change

Fields (2008) posited that there were three types of Organisational change: first level, second level and third level changes. First level changes are incremental in nature and seek to better aligning and maintaining the current congruence among system components. First level changes do not alter that Organisational relationship but incrementally improve it within the existing structure and task design. Second level changes are strategic in nature that questions the Organisation's purpose and identity. These are characterised by interventions that involve reorganisation and or major alternation of one or more selected subsystems. Third level changes are Organisation wide efforts that involve altering the beliefs, values and interrelationships of all subsystems of the Organisation. For Conger (2000) the hypercompetitive landscape requires continual reinvention in company strategies and Organisational architectures and cultures that support them. As a result, few industries today have the luxury of leisurely implementing an incremental change. The pressure is instead for significant and frequent shifts in a company's strategy and corresponding Organisation wide change.

Miller (1982) categorised change into evolutionary and revolutionary categories. Evolutionary change is gradual, incremental and narrowly focused. It involves a constant attempt to improve adapt and adjust strategy and structure incrementally to accommodate changes taking place in the environment. On the other hand, evolutional change is rapid, dramatic and broadly focused. It is a bold attempt at finding new ways of competing resulting in shifts in ways of doing things, new goals and a new structure. Palmer,

Dunford and Akin (2002) postulated that managerial literature classifies change into first order, incremental, continuous change and second-order, transformational/evolutionary, discontinuous change.

First order, or incremental change, is primarily aimed at maintaining and developing the organisation. It usually involves adjustments in systems, processes or structures to strengthen existing strategy, core values and corporate identity. They are changes, designed, almost paradoxically, to support organisational continuity and order (Newman 2000; Beta, 1994). This is usually small-scale, incremental and adaptive in nature. The aim of incremental change is to correct or enhance some existing aspect of an organisation. For example, the significant upgrading of processes to meet required quality or safety standards, the introduction of specific new skills or a more general skills up grading and continual improvement programmes (Jones and Murray, 2008).

Second-order, or discontinuous change, is usually large scale and disruptive in nature. It involves radical transformation that fundamentally alters the organisational core. For Nadler and Tushman (1998), a further classification of incremental and discontinuous change, based on whether the change is imposed in an anticipation of external environmental changes, is necessary for better understanding. Incremental changes that are made in anticipation of external environmental changes are called fine tuning. The main objective is to achieve a fit between the organisation and its external environment by adjusting or modifying appropriate variables. Adaptation are incremental changes in response to change made by other organisations. Thus, it is reactive in nature and aimed at catching up with others.

Re-orientation combines the qualities of first order and second order changes. The change is anticipated and discontinuous in nature involving a major modification of an organisation by building on its past strengths and history. On the other hand, recreation is a second order change that is reactive and involves major upheaval where the organisation breaks with past practices and directions. Hayes (2005) pointed to the fact

that incremental change is associated with those periods when the industry is in equilibrium and the focus of change is "doing things better" (efficiency improvements) through a process of continuous tinkering, adaptation and modification with a flavour for continuous improvement. Discontinuous change or transformational change involves a break with the past by doing things differentially or completely doing new things. It is based on a new relationship and questions the very purpose of the enterprise. Transformational change is a more fundamental form of change; one that cannot be handled within the day-to-day procedures of an organisation. In this type of change, the Organisation makes fundamental changes in the way it carries out its business under the influences of external or internal pressures. By its nature, it can be more disruptive and worrying for the people involved in or affected by it, but it can be an exciting and interesting opportunity for creativity and innovation to flourish (Jones and Murray 2008).

Flamholtz and Randle (1998) distinguished among three types of transformational change: type 1, type 2 and type 3 transformations. Type 1 transformation is a change typology in which the organisation transforms itself from an entrepreneurial into a professional structure. A type 2 transformation involves the revitalization of already established companies. The focus of change is on rebuilding the organisation to effectively compete in its current market. A type 3 transformation effects a complete change in the business carried on by the organisation. Sometimes, the transformation could be multiple, involving all or any two of the transformation types simultaneously. Hussey (2000) claimed that there are basically two types of change: incremental change and fundamental change. Incremental change is evolution in nature and includes changes of work methods and processes, factory layouts, new product launches and other situations where most people would see continuity from the old state to the new. It is often marginal in its long-term impact on people. It is management imposed and there is the luxury of time for its implementation. On the other hand, fundamental changes are revolutionary in nature with dramatic impacts on the future of the organisational operations and frequently involve major upheavals. Examples include: process re-

engineering, total quality management and mergers and acquisitions. Most often, this type of change is forced on the organisations by threatening environmental factors and there is the time constraint in its implementation.

Beer and Nohria (2000) identified two types of organisational change theories: E and O of change. Theory E is a top management lead change that is planned and programmatic. It has, as its primary objective, the creation of economic value (shareholders' value) through alterations in strategies, formal structures and systems. On the other hand, theory O focuses on enhancing the human capability to implement strategic change by building a high-commitment culture that will embrace and facilitate change. It is a highly participative method involving employees and consultants. Based on the ability to rationalize the need for change and planning its implementation, Stacey (1999) distinguished among three types of change episodes, depending on levels of certainty. Close change occur where there is certainty about what happened, why it happened and what needed to be done. Contained change is epitomised by a reasonable confidence about what happened, why it happened and what needed to be done. A change episode, in which there is disagreement about what happened, why it happened and what needed to be done, is an open-ended change.

It is convenient, for academic purposes, to classify organisation change, using various criteria. However, in practice, these classifications may be misleading, as there might be no clear delineations of change categories. This is because a particular change initiative could lead to another initiative being implemented simultaneously, or it could snowball into another. It is in this respect that Pardo del Val and Fuentes (2003) warned that it is dangerous to consider changes in terms of absolutes, believing that they fall either in one category or another. It is more appropriate to consider types of change as falling along a continuum between two extremes. Since managerial perception plays an important role in categorising change, Abraham and Knight (2001) stressed that it is possible for the same change to fall into different categories when implemented in different organisations, hence reflecting organisational context and culture.

Modern approaches to managing organisational change

Organisational development

Cummings (2004) defined organisational development (OD), as a system-wide process applying behavioural-science knowledge to planned change and development of the strategies, design components, and processes that enable organisations to be effective. It seeks to improve how organisations relate to their external environments and function internally to attain high performance and high quality life. The organisational development model includes: planned change, feedback-based collaboration, an emphasis on performance, a humanistic imperative, systems perspective and reliance on the scientific method for organisational analysis (Harvey and Brown, 1996). The traditional tools of organisational development are action research and action learning.

French and Bell (1996), described action research, as a data-driven, problem solving, method, based on the principles of scientific inquiry. It is used to learn about the organisation in order to implement change, designed to improve the organisation. It is the analytical "engine" in organisational development used to determine the nature of existing problems or opportunities for improvement. The traditional action research relies heavily on survey data and feedback processes because these are good sources for effective domain (Cummings and Worley 2005). Jeffery (2005) emphasised that, although action research relies heavily on survey information, this does not preclude the use of other sources of data, and the literature, indeed, supports a variety of techniques for collecting and analyzing data from many sources as part of the action research process. The modern action research according to Cummings (2004) involves: preliminary data gathering and diagnosis, action planning, implementation and assessment.

Action learning is the organisational development response to the enormous pressures for change facing organisations today. Labels, such as 'participatory action research,' 'action inquiry' and 'self-designing organisations,' have been used to describe action learning. It

moves beyond the problem-solving focus, inherent in traditional applications of organisational development and treats change as a continuous learning and transformation process. Thus, its primary objective is to help organisational members acquire the skills and expertise to design their own innovations to manage their own change processes and, perhaps, more importantly, to learn how to do these things more efficiently and effectively (Cummings, 2004). Action learning identifies key stakeholders and gets them actively involved in analysing the organisation and its environment, designing appropriate changes and implementing them. It builds the capacity to exchange and to improve continually into the organisation so it becomes part of normal function. Action learning involves a set of interrelated actions that comprise an iterative learning process. These include: valuing, diagnosing, designing, and implementation and assessing.

Business process re-engineering

Competition and globalisation have led enterprises to restructure to focus on managing change through business process re-engineering (BPR). Business process re-engineering is an approach to business transformation that emphasises customer-driven, process-oriented management practice, often enabled by information technology. BPR is a 'radical re-design of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements on critical measures of performance' (Hammer, and Champy, 1993). It emphasises horizontal integration that cuts across organisational boundaries - the analysis, arid design of work-flows and processes within and between organisations (Davenport, 1993).

Al-Mashari, and Zairi (2000) posited that the goal of business process re-engineering is to re-design and change the existing business practices or process to achieve dramatic improvement in organisational performance. Organisational development is a continuous process but the pace of change has increased in manifolds. In a Volatile global world, organisations enhance competitive advantage through re-engineering implies transformed

processes that radically redesigning selected processes. For Sharma (2006), business process re-engineering implied transformed processes that together form a component of a larger system aimed at enabling organisation to empower themselves with contemporary technologies, business solution and innovations. Hammer and Champy (1993) argued that the fundamental re-consideration and radical design of organisational process, in order to achieve drastic improvement of current performance in cost, service and speed, enjoys a fair measure of consensus. One can then assume that Business Process Re-engineering connotes the analysis and design of work-flows and processes within (and without) the organisation.

Elements of re-engineering in an organisation

Ezigbo (2003) summarised the essential elements or principles of re-engineering as including the following:

i. Rethinking the theory of the business.
ii. Challenging old assumptions and discharging old rules that arc no longer applicable.
iii. Breaking away from conventional wisdom and the constraints of organisational boundaries.
iv. Using information technology not to automatic outdated process but to re-design new ones.
v. Externally focus on customers and the generation of greater value for customers.
vi. Internally focus on harnessing more of the potentials of people and applying it to those activities that identify and deliver values to customers.
vii. Encourages training and development by building creative work environment.
viii. Think and execute as much activity as possible horizontally, concentrating on flows and processes through the organisation.

Steps involved in business process re-engineering

Davenport and Short (1990) prescribed a five-step approach to Business Process Re-engineering. These are:

i. Develop the business vision and process objectives. Business process re-engineering is driven by a business vision which implies specific business objectives such as cost reduction, time reduction, output quality improvement, quality of work life.

ii. Identify the processes to be redesigned: Most firms use the high-impact approach which focuses on most important processes or those that conflict most with the business vision. Few firms use the exhaustive approach that attempts to identify all the processes within an organisation and prioritise them in order of a redesigned urgency.

iii. Understand and measure the existing process: For avoiding the repetition of old mistakes and/or providing a baseline for future improvements.

iv. Identity information technology (IT) levels: Awareness of IT capabilities can and should influence process. This is because IT is a *sine qua non* to the business process re-engineering:

v. Design and build a prototype of the new process: The actual design should not be viewed as the end of the BPR process. Rather, it should be viewed as a prototype that aligns the BPR approach with a quick delivery of results and the involvement and satisfaction of customers.

Total quality management

Total quality management (TQM), is an organisation-wide method of managing people and processes to ensure the continuous delivery of quality products and services. Individuals, such as Deming, Juran, Crosby, Feigenbaun and Shikawa, played

prominent roles in the emergence of total quality management movement (Mills *et al*, 2009). Powell (1995) identified the following twelve essential TQM factors:

i) Committed leadership: a near-evangelical, unwavering, long term commitment by top management to the philosophy, usually under a name like: Total Quality Management (TQM), Continuous Improvement (CI) or Quality Improvement (QS).

ii) Adoption and communication of TQM: using tools like mission statement, and themes or slogans.

iii) Closer customer relationships: determining customers' (both inside and outside the firm) requirements, then meeting those requirements, no matter what it takes.

iv) Closer Supplier relationships: working closely and co-operatively with suppliers (often sole-sourcing key components), ensuring they provide inputs that conform to customers' end-user requirements.

v) Benchmarking: researching and observing best competitive practices.

vi) Increased training; usually includes TQM principles, team skills and problem solving.

vii) Open organisation: lean staff, empowered work teams, open horizontal communication and a relaxation of traditional hierarchy.

viii) Employee empowerment: increased employee involvement in design and planning and greater autonomy in decision-making.

ix) Zero-defects mentality: a system in place to spot defects as they occur rather than through inspection and rework.

x) Flexible manufacturing: applicable only to manufacturers it can include just-in-time inventory, cellular manufacturing, design for manufacturability (DFM), statistical process control (SPC) and design of experiments (DOC).

xi) Process improvement: reduced waste and cycle times in all areas through cross-departmental process analysis.

xii) Measurement: goal-oriented and zeal for data, with constant performance measurement, often using statistical methods.

Balanced score card

The balanced score card is a method for developing strategic objectives through the measurement of key financial, structural and process factors, linked to Organisational performance, critical to its success. Although, the concept of the balanced score card was developed by Schneiderman of analogue device, it was made popular by Norton and Kaplan (Mills et al 2009) The balanced score card helps to create a management structure that clarifies the direction that an Organisation needs to follow, communicate that direction, align everyone's work to support those goals and ultimately perform more efficiently and be more competitive in the market place.

The balanced score card is made up of four perspectives which constitute the core of what is to be measured. These perspectives are: financial, customer, internal and learning/ growth perspectives. The financial perspective provides a view of both the Organisation's current financial performance (e.g, through measures of cash flow, liquidity, daily sales, account receivables, e.t.c.) and its future trend (e.g, measured through investment in research and development as a ratio to sales or profit market segment, sales from new products). The customer perspective is concerned with finding a way of adequately predicting customer behaviour through such things as measures of customers opinions, and perceptions of existing and potential products, services; gain and losses of customers across different markets segments, market shares; surveys of customer satisfaction and price and quality information on key competitors. The internal perspective is about finding effective ways of controlling the organisation and/or operations processes to produce reliable and consistent products and services. The primary objective is on finding adequate measures of those processes such as cycle times, production and/or service delivery times, and productivity and key purchases of supplies. It may also involve

identifying and measuring key processes in each department and unit of the organisation; correlating performance measures with customer metrics(e.g. satisfaction), establishing benchmarks, based on customer requirements, developing a safety index to reduce accidents and production hold-ups and promoting a preventive approach to achieving quality products and services (Mills *et al*, 2009).

The learning and growth perspective focuses on building and refining an organisational infrastructure for skills and knowledge development and an effective work culture. Typical measures include: improvement of knowledge levels through training and education, over-all company-relevant certification levels (i.e., degrees, certificates, professional accreditations) work place satisfaction levels and workplace climate and the generation of new ideas leading to improved productivity. The Balanced Score Card Institute developed a nine-step approach to the successful implementation of the balanced score card as follows:

1. Assess the organisation's mission and vision, prepare a change management plan. Conduct a series of workshops to identify key messages and their transmission throughout the organisation and to relevant external agencies.

2. Identify and develop strategic results, themes and perspectives through workshop discussions of customer needs and the central value of the organisation.

3. Build strategic objectives categorised by perspectives that are linked to cause and effect relationships (strategic maps) for each strategic theme.

4. Merge each of the strategic maps to form a single company-wide or master, strategic map 'that shows how the organisation created value for its customers and shareholders.

5. Develop performance measures for each company-wide strategic objectives by identifying leading and lagging measures, establishing baseline and benchmarking data and expected targets and thresholds.

6. Develop strategic initiatives to support the strategic objectives, assign ownership of performance measures and strategic initiatives and in ways that build accountability.

7. Begin the implementation stage by applying performance measures software and ensuring that information is carefully directed to designated people at the right time.

8. Translate the organisational level scorecard into business unit or support unit scorecards and the team and individual scorecards, develop performance measures for all objectives at all levels of the company and emphasise results and strategies throughout.

9. Evaluate the completed scorecard.

Six-Sigma

Six-sigma is a set of practices that combine statistical techniques and management training to improve organisational processes of cost minimization, schedule adherence, high-product quality and customer satisfaction – specifically through the elimination of waste. The purpose of six-sigma is to reduce cost by reducing variability in processes which lead to decreased defects. By using statistical methods, organisations are able to understand fluctuations in a process, which will allow them to pin-point the cause of the problem. Improving the process by eliminating root causes and controlling the process to make sure defects do not reappear is expected to provide long-term benefits to the firm (Pojasek, 2003). The origin of the concept can be traced to Motorola where the inefficiencies of the traditional quality measurement approaches lead to the development of the concept. Based on the ideas of statistical process control, Motorola defined six-sigma as 3.4 defects per million opportunities (Naslund, 2008).

The six-sigma methodology is based on the DMAIC cycle (define, measure, analyze, improve, and control).

Define is the first step in improving existing processes. It involves the definition of the process improvement goals to match customer needs and the organisation's strategy, breaking the process into manageable sub processes – complete with their own sub goals, establishing the infrastructure for attaining the goals and assessing the cultural and structural changes necessary for success. Measurement involves the collection of relevant data of those aspects of the process for future comparison through such things as base lining and benchmarking. Analysis is concerned with the analysis of collected data to understand trends, patterns, casual relationships and root causes. Improvement is the stage the team sets out to improve on the existing processes through various methods, including experimental design, modelling, tolerance and robust design (a variety of methodologies for developing objective measures of existing processes). Control is the final stage where the team sets out to control the process by ensuring that any variances are corrected before they result in defects. The proponents of six-sigma argue that it is more than just a quality system; it is a vision, a philosophy, a symbol, a metric, a goal and/or a methodology (Spector, 2006). The distinctive characteristics of six-sigma are:

- Bottom-line results expected and delivered
- Senior management leadership
- A disciplined approach (DMAIC)
- Rapid (3-6 months) project completion
- Clearly defined measures of success
- Infrastructure roles for six-sigma practitioners and leadership
- Focus on customers and processes
- A sound statistical approach to improvement.

Importance of Change Management

The management of change is an imperative for organisational survival and prosperity. It is therefore necessary to managers to acquaint themselves with those factors that necessitate change as how they make sense of them is a major determinant of how their Organisation experiences change (Helms and Weatherbee, 2006).

The effective management of change have both positive and negative implications for the various Organisational stakeholders: for senior managers, it can mean solutions for survival, growth and profitability; for customers, it can mean improved and efficient service and improved quality; for consultants, it can mean billions of naira in the development of programmes, implementation and training fees and, for employees, it can mean opportunities for growth and development. On the negative side, the poor management and failure of change programmes can result in top management dismissal; fall in shareholders' equities, employee lay-offs, demotions, and customers' dissatisfactions (Hammer and Champy, 1993 and Oliver, 1986).

Change and Organisational Performance

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2004) organisation performance or effectiveness has been measured using four criteria. These are: Goal accomplishment (the extent to which the organisation achieves its stated goals), Resource acquisitions (the extent to which the organisation acquires the needed resources), Internal processes (the ability of the organisation to function smoothly with a minimum of internal strain) and Strategic constituencies satisfaction (the ability of the organisation to minimally satisfy the demands and expectations of key interest groups). However, Grant (2000) asserted that the pursuit of profit is the single dominant objective of business enterprises.

The findings on the impact of change on organisational performance have been mixed. Most studies have found that effective change management enhances organisational

performance (Isern and Pung, 2006; Trinh and O' Connor, 2002). In contrast, some studies have found that change reduces organisational performance (Singh, House and Tucker, 1986), while others have found either no relationships (Guimaraes and Bond, 1996; Zajac and Shortell, 1989) or mixed relationships (Aregbeyen,2011;Smith and Grimm, 1987).

Leadership Style, Credibility, Trust and Change

Meyer, David & Schoorman (1995) defined trust as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. However, for trust to exist, two primary conditions of risk and interdependence must exist (Gillespie, 2003). Risk originates in interpersonal relationships when either party is uncertain of how one party will act, while interdependence occurs when the needs or interest of the party cannot be achieved without the assistance of the other party (Thomas *et al,* 2009). Thus, trust is built and shaped by information provision about the other party. Where information is lacking, then trust building will suffer some set back. Important attributes of quality and quantity of information have been found to have impact on trust. The quality of information refers to the extent to which information to other party is accurate, timely and/or useful. Empirical evidences suggest that there is a direct relationship between the quality of information and trust. Quality information leads to higher levels of trust (Konovsky & Cropan Zanct, 1991).

Simons (2002) asserts that a critical factor for the success of a change process is top management credibility. So, as they design the change, a company's top management must ask itself "What can we credibly implement?" What change can we really commit to and what type of change will fit our style so that we will be able to support it authentically and wholeheartedly later?" (Bruch, Gerber and Maier, 2005). Kotter (1996)

concluded that change processes that lacked a credible patron were as unsuccessful as those which lacked visible, convincing support from top management. Furthermore, insufficient agreement between "word" and "deed" have negative effects on the energy in change initiative, ranging from loss of momentum to mobilization of destructive forces within the company (Huy, 2002).

Oreg (2006) found that a lack of trust in management was significantly associated with resistance to organisational change. Equally, lack of faith or trust in management was strongly related to reports of anger, frustration and anxiety, increased action against the change initiative, negative evaluations of the change and increased questioning of whether or not management was able to make informed decisions. Steelcase (1991) found, in his study of employees' perception about change leadership, that 85% of respondents confirmed that it was very important for their leaders to be honest, upright and ethical. Kouzes and Posner (1993) and Pagano and Pagano (2004) supported the view that effective leaders should be willing to hold themselves to the same set of standards, as they 'walk the talk' by doing what they say they will do.

In a study to investigate the impact of leadership styles on organisational change management in China, Long (2008) find that both transformational leadership and transactional leadership have positive impact on organisational change. Laissez-faire leadership predicts organisational change in the result of hierarchical regression, which is not consistent with the results of past research. Equally, transformational leadership has significant and positive relationships with both Organisational change and performance. Szabala (2007) reports how employees' perception of leadership strategies influences individual's reactions to organisational change. The survey study involved 241 union employees of a Midwest country government, implementing an electronic performance management system. Three categories of perceived leadership strategies were used and the following results were obtained:

1) 44.7% of employees perceived leadership as rational empirical leaders were experts focusing on facts.

2) 6.6% of employees perceived leadership as normative reeductive leaders were collaborative and involved individuals in decision-making; and
3) 39.4% perceived leadership as power coercive change was justified only by leadership who used their position power to lead the change.

In a similar survey, individuals were questioned about their thoughts on the change, how they felt about the change, and how they intended to behave in response to the change. Szabala (2007) reported that members of the rational-empirical group believed the change would improve their job satisfaction and operations, felt optimistic and enthusiastic about the change and intended to support the change. Members of the normative – re-educative groups, however, held the most positive beliefs, experienced the most positive emotions and had the highest intentions to support the change. Members of the power-coercive group had both positive and negative beliefs, indicating they believed the change would improve operations but would not satisfy their job related needs. Members of this group reported feelings of anger and frustration, but indicated they would support the change despite their beliefs and feelings

In the same vein, Van dam, Oreg and Schyns (2008) examined the role of manager-employee relationships (leader-member exchange), perceived development climate (i.e. supervisor support and opportunities for personal development), and various change process characteristics (i.e. providing information about the change, participation in the change process and trust in management) and their relation to resistance to change In addition the study analysed the relationship between two individual-level characteristics- openness to job changes and organisational tenure and resistance to change. 235 respondents, employees of a large Netherlands housing corporation, were surveyed in the study. The researchers (Van dam *et al*, 2008) found that the three change process characteristics fully mediated the quality of supervisor/employee relationships (leader-member exchange) and perceived development climate with resistance to change. In other words, employees who believed they had high-quality supervisor

relationships and that they had been provided more information about the change and had more opportunities for participation in the change process, experienced more trust in management and reported less resistance to change. Individual-level characteristics were also found to influence resistance to change; those employees, more open to change, perceived the change in favourable terms, while those with a longer tenure were more resistant to change.

Management credibility and trust are highly desirable qualities for good change leadership because they favourably motivate employees' enthusiasm and support for change. However, employees' memories are full of records of broken promises by management. These are usually in the forms of failure to honour promises of pay rises, failure to objectively evaluate employees and failure to use the outputs of evaluation exercise for promotion, training and development decisions, among others. This lack of credibility has resulted in lack of trust in management. This is even apparent when, too soon in the change process, management begins to break promises made at the beginning of the process, such as retrenchments and redundancies, among others.

Communication and Change

. In a study of individuals experiencing change in the public housing industry in the United States of America, Wanberg and Banas (2000) found a positive correlation between employees who reported they received information about change and their openness to change. Similarly, Lewis (2006), in his study to examine the influence of communication of change initiative on perceived resistance, found that the higher the perceived quality of implementation information received about change initiative, the less the perceived resistance to change. Larson and Tompkins (2005), in a study of the impact of managerial change communication and actions on resistance involving 48 employees and managers in an aerospace company, report that, contradiction between

messages delivered and managerial actions, reflected management's ambivalence about change initiative, resulting in opportunities and justifications by employees to resist. Knowledge about the motive for the change will help reduce uncertainty and create readiness for change. Job insecurity is the overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future. When organisational change results in downsizing and the loss of job insecurity will have a large effect on readiness for change. Uncertainty will reveal itself, when the organisation did not communicate clearly what changes involved employees have to adapt (Elving, 2005).

In a study of the roles of communication in the process of organisational restructuring and downsizing in a Dutch branch of a large International organisation, Nilissen and Van Selm (2008), concluded that organisational change were to a certain extent influenced by management communication about the objectives and consequences of organisational change, but developed, partially autonomously over time comparable to everyday transitions employees faced in their work place. In a similar study on the role of communication on employees adaptation to change over time, Jimmieson, *et al,* (2004), found that employees who perceived higher levels of change-related information, reported higher levels of psychological well-being, client engagement, and job satisfaction .

Similarly, in a study carried out to examine the relationship between communication, uncertainty and well-being among staff members at a psychiatric hospital, undergoing large-scale restructuring, Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish and Difonzo (2004) found that communication helped overcome uncertainty, and increased a sense of control over personal circumstances related to change and job satisfaction.

Communication has been promoted in change literature as a viable means of creating readiness for change and reducing or eliminating resistance. However, most of the cited studies have focused on the pre-change stage, while the change implementation and post-change implementation communications were left out. But the fact remains that

communication is highly desirable in all stages of the change process. Surprisingly, change communications in the most organisations are largely a one-way type. This is characterised by a one-day management broadcast of the change vision, objectives, strategies and performance measurements. As expected, change-communication vision, and objectives are displayed in pamphlets, displays, among others. However, the effectiveness of these tools is diminished by their broadcast nature. Thus the required employees' commitment and support will not be adequately elicited. Feedback on implementation successes and challenges are seldom communicated and when this is done it is often belated.

Change and participation

Lines (2004) defined participation as involvement in the initial assessment and development of change plan as well as the right to veto in addition to participating in the process. According to Heller, Pusic, Stranss and Wilpert (1998), participation is the processes of defining problems and designing solutions that will help build commitment to the new directions that result from the change process. A significant body of empirical knowledge suggested that facilitating participation among stakeholders was beneficial in minimizing resistance while enhancing motivation to implement planned change efforts, increases accuracy in stakeholders' perceptions about the rationale behind the change initiatives and related goals and enhances overall satisfaction with the change initiatives (Edmondson and Pisano, 2001; Brown, 1991; Coyle-Shapiro, 1996; Sagie and Koslowsky, 1994) Moreover, participation reduces uncertainty, while increasing a sense of control, and enhancing employees' perceptions of implementation success (Sagie, Elizur and Koslowsky, 2001; Argote, Goodman and Schkade, 1983; and Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish and Difonzo, 2004). By diagnosing problems, understanding their importance and being part of the process of formulating solutions, people develop a psychological sense of ownership over the outcome. That ownership now creates in

employees the heightened motivation to implement change in order to achieve desired goals (Lines, 2004).

However, Conger (2000) posited that in many change situations, leaders do not have the time it takes to build consensus through participation, speed was of the essence and it was faster for one person, the leader, to make the decisions and while others implement them. In calling for a participatory management of change, Raelin (2012) emphasised the need for a dialogue. Dialogue is the process of shared communication by all those who are involved in the change activity, wherever they may sit within the bureaucracy. According to McArdle and Reason (2008), dialogue is the medium through which people seek shared meaning and understanding. People join dialogue, provided they are interested in listening to one another, in reflecting upon perspectives different from their own and in entertaining the prospects of being changed by what they learn. Covin and Kilmann (1990) amassed a list of 900 major issues that participants in organisational change believed influence the success or failure of large-scale transformational efforts. They found that failure to share information or inform people adequately of what changes are necessary, and why they are necessary, were viewed as having a highly negative impact. Research has also found that the dissemination of information of formal, quality information from organisational leadership is an important variable during planned change efforts (Russ, 2008).

Participation has long been viewed as a potent tool in increasing employees' motivation and support for change. Employees will naturally support a change programme which they see as their own, having been fully involved in the diagnosis, implementation, review and evaluation processes. However, the efficacy of this motivational tool is diminished as respondents' responses in the sampled organisations indicated that employees were, at best, consulted under the guise of participation. Three main reasons account for this. Firstly, the nature of the environmental pressures and time constraints for change may not permit consultation in most cases. Secondly, most Nigerian organisations are still highly power-structured and this high-power distance leads top

management to erroneously believe that they are in the best position to diagnose and provide solutions to organisational problems. The lower level managers and non-managerial employees are mere “order or decision takers”. Thirdly, most employees in these categories lack the requisite skills and knowledge to effectively participate in the process. Presumably, this is to perpetuate the high power distance.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

There is a multiplicity of theories on the subject of this study. However, the study reviewed the underlisted four main theories:

Theories of communication

Theories of leadership

Theories of change communication

Theories of change leadership

Theories of Communication

For Bateman and Snell (2004), communication is the transmission of information and meaning from one party to another through the use of shared symbols. On the other hand, Bowditch and Buono (1997) defined communication as the exchange of information between a sender and a receiver and the inference (perception) of meaning between the individuals involved. Communication is the transmission of information (data in a coherent, usable form), from one person to another with the aim of establishing a common understanding among the parties of each communication (Plunkett and Attner1998). According to Tosi, Rizzo and Carroll (1996) effective communication is the

degree to which a message is received and understood, and the receiver's reaction to the message corresponds to the sender's purpose of sending it.

Models of Communication

Traditionally, the conduit model has been used to describe the process of communication. However, this has been replaced by the perceptual model of communication. While the conduit model assumes that there is a pipeline through which information and meaning are transferred from one person to another, the perceptual model depicts communication as a process by which receivers create meaning in their own minds (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004).

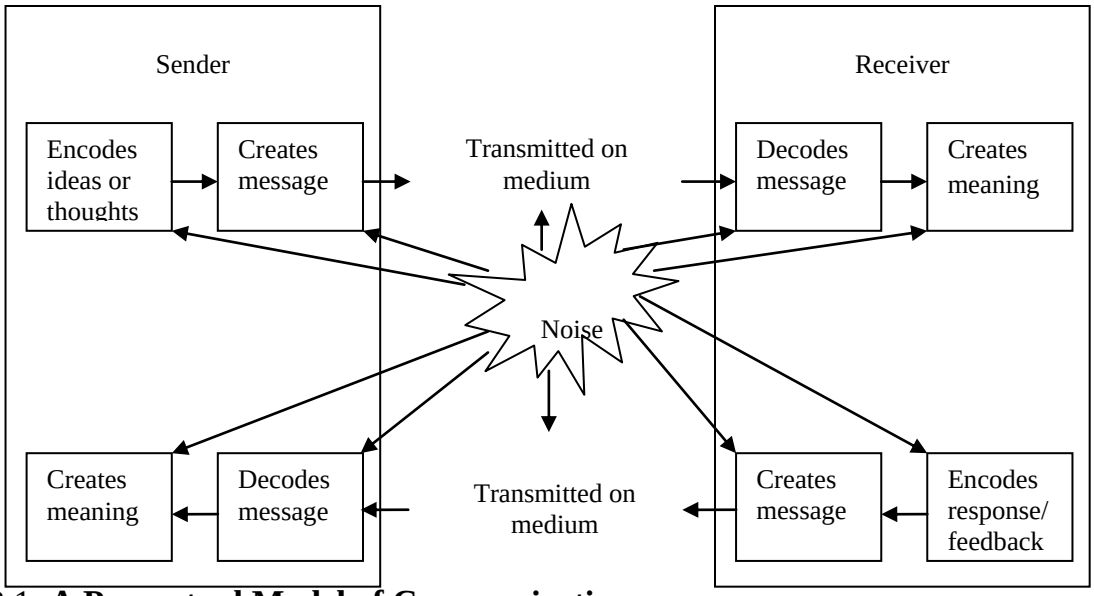


Fig 2.1: **A Perceptual Model of Communication**

Source: Adapted from Kretiner, R and Kinicki, A (2004) Organisational Behaviour (6th ed.),521 .

The elements of the communication model as presented by Kretiner and Kinicki are discussed below:

- **Sender**: The sender is an individual, group or organisation that initiates a message, or idea to share with the receiver. The sender determines the type of message to be sent and the best medium to send it.

- **Encoding**: This is the process of translating mental thoughts into a form, code or languages that is understandable by others. In verbal communication, encoding is the act of choosing and vocalizing words or sounds. While in non-verbal communication, encoding involves the choice of clothing, gestures, act, smiling, nodding, etc.

- **Message**: This is the product of the encoding process. it is the content of communication with others. Messages may be communicated verbally in forms of speech (oral) or written forms or none verbally in gestures, postures, facial expressions and even clothing.

- **Medium**: This is the canal through which messages are communicated. Managers make use of a variety of media in communication. These include face-to-face, conversations, telephone calls, electronic mail, voice mail, video conference, written memos or letters, photographic or drawings, meetings, bulletin boards, computer outputs, charts and graphs. The choice of media has implications for communication effectiveness.

- **Decoding**: This is the process of translating verbal, oral or visual aspects of a message into a form that can be interpreted by the receiver. Decoding is influenced by many factors, including cultural backgrounds, listening abilities and attitudes toward the source.

- **Creating shared meaning:** Shared meaning is the mutual understanding that results when the sender interprets the message as expected or intended by the sender. In reality, a receiver's interpretation often differs from the intentions of the

sender. Thus, there is the need for managers to monitor and ensure that the message is received as intended.

- **Feedback:** This is an encoded response, transmitted back to the sender by the receiver. The primary purpose is let the sender confirm whether his message has been understood correctly. Feedback can take the forms of a verbal or non verbal response, a written memo, a phone call or an organized forum such as a staff meetings or quality circles.

- **Noise:** Noise is anything that interferes with the transmission and understanding of a message. It affects all linkages of the communication process. It includes, psychological distractions such as nervousness or tensions, emotional distractions such as extreme happiness or sadness, physiological distractions such as fatigue, or illness, speech impairment, poor telephone connections, illegible writing, inaccurate statistics in a memo or report, poor hearing and eyesight and physical distance between sender and receiver.

Communicating in Organisational Settings

The role of communication in organisations has been recognized in management literature. Communication has been described as the "blood," "oxygen," the "brain" and the "central nervous system" of an organisation. Mintzberg (1973) posited that managers have three basic jobs; to collect and convey information, to make decisions, and to promote interpersonal unity. Every one of these jobs is carried out through communication. Managers collect relevant information from conversations, the grapevine, phone calls, memos, reports, database and the internet. They convey information and decisions to other people inside or outside the organisation through meetings, speeches, press releases, videos, memos, letters, e-mails messages and reports.

Managers motivate organisational members in speeches, memos, conversations at lunch and over coffee, bulletin boards and through "management by walking around."

Functions of communication

According to Downs (1988), communication served five key functions in Organisations as follows:

Task/work function: The steady flow of co-ordinate communications enable the timely completion of tasks to required standards. The efficient and effective performance of jobs depend on staff knowledge of the goals and objectives of the organisation ,the provision of meaningful and comprehensible instructions, inter departmental coordination of assignments and the open identification and sharing of problems.

Motivation function: Communication provides a medium for motivating employees to perform at optimum level. Superiors increase their subordinates' motivation by taking interest in them and listening to their ideas and concerns. Axelood (1999) postulated that "those who derive pleasure from their work are considered most fortunate and those who change their lives to obtain more satisfaction from work are most admired." The most effective Organisations are those that maximize the potential for intrinsic motivation in the work of employees, particularly through supervisors who encourage autonomy.

Integration function: Employees who experience a sense of belonging show greater commitment at work. Branding and bonding are very important processes in achieving integration. Bonding to the brand is achieved through measures such as involving staff in the development or review of its mission statement and log, having a system of effective team meetings, ensuring maximum upwards communication, engaging in outreach and community activities and other social functions.

Innovation function: To increase motivation and job satisfaction, employees should be given opportunities to develop and implement skills in the workplace and to innovate. Since an Organisation is the potential seed bed of sprouting ideas, these ideas need to be

nurtured through such methods as suggestions schemes, quality circles, focus groups, idea of the month awards and problems – solving forum. Daft (2003) concluded that the essence of communication is sharing, providing data, information and insights in an exchange that benefits both parties in the exchange process. Meisinger (2006) reported that the importance of effective communication included:

1. Stronger decision making and faster problem solving.
2. Earlier warning of potential problems.
3. Increased productivity and steadier workflow.
4. Stronger business relationships.
5. Clearer and more persuasion messages.
6. Enhanced professional images for both employees and companies.
7. Lower employee turnover and higher employee satisfaction.
8. Better financial results and higher return for investors.

Hargie, Dickson, and Tourish (2004) opined that the benefits of effective communication included: increased productivity, better quality of services and products, more staff suggestions, higher levels of creativity and greater employee job satisfaction. Others included, decreased absenteeism, reduced staff turnover, less industrial unrests and fewer strikes as well as lower costs. On the other hand, the negative effects of poor communication were job dissatisfaction and stress, damaging strikes, operating losses, bankruptcies, production line injuries, shipwrecks, plane crashes and at the extreme case mass slaughter in the of battle field (Hargie Dickson and Tourish, 2004). Morley, Shockley–Zalabak and Cesaria (2002) found that organisations that communicate effectively were more effective in achieving their task-related goals and had more positive working environments, as perceived by employees.

Communication may be verbal or non-verbal in nature. Hargie *et al,* (2004) posited that the main functions of non verbal communication include replacing verbal communication, complementing the spoken word, contradicting the spoken word, expressing emotions and interpersonal attitudes and conveying personal/social/cultural identity. Additional functions include negotiating, relationship regulating, and conversations and contextualize interaction. In a survey of 550 managers and staff in 50 Organisations, Berger (1994) found that 92% of respondents rated non-verbal aspects of communication as either important or very important in group settings, such as committees or departmental meetings. However, more than 50% of those surveyed noted that supervisors verbal communication and non-verbal communication were either occasionally or frequently in conflict. It is therefore necessary for managers to ensure that their verbal message is congruent with their body message. Non-verbal communication include: territory and personal space, interpersonal distance, sitting arrangements, gestures, postures, vocalic and physical appearance and dresses (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Carlone and Taylor, 1998; Champit, Delcoch and Cashman, 2000; Davey and Liefhooghe 2003).

Communication flow

Bovee and Thill (2011) reported that messages flow into, through and out of business organisations in a variety of ways. Internal communication takes place between people inside the company while external communication takes place between the company and outside parties. In addition, messages flow through both formal and informal channels. Kolin (2001) opined that information flows through the internal formal network in three directions; downwards, upward and horizontal. Downwards communication flows from executives to employees, conveying executive decisions and providing information that helps employees do their jobs. Upward communication flows from employees to executives providing insight into problems, trends, opportunities, grievances and performance. Thus allowing executives to solve problems and make intelligent decisions.

On the other hand, horizontal communication flows between departments to help employees share information, co-ordinate tasks and solve complex problems.

External communication flows into and out of the organisation by both formal (carefully prepared letters, announcements, etc) and informal (meeting, potential sales contacts at industry gatherings or networking at social events) means. Bovee and Thill (2011) stressed that Organisations expect employees to display the underlisted skills in communication:

i. Organising ideas and information logically and completely.

ii. Expressing ideas and information coherently and persuasively.

iii. Listening to others effectively.

iv. Communicating effectively with people from diverse backgrounds and experiences.

v. Using communication technologies effectively and efficiently.

vi. Following accepted standards of frames, spelling, and other aspects of high quality writing and speaking.

vii. Communicating in a civilised manner that reflects contemporary expectations of business etiquette. Communicating ethically, even when choices are not crystal clear.

Informal communication channels

A communication network is a pattern or flow of messages that traces communication from start to finish. Informal communication channel is an unofficial network that supplements the formal channels in an Organisation. Most of the time, this channel is a child of necessity, as people may depart from the official communication channels to

consult with a person with specialized knowledge. The two main forms of informal communication channels are chance encounters and the grapevine.

Grapevine – This is the informal means by which information is transmitted in Organisations. Its major components are rumours and gossips (Dubrin, 2006). In a survey, Zaremba (1989) find that about 17% of employees think that workers get their information from the grapevine, whereas 50% of employees credit the grapevine with being the first source of news about major company changes. Information usually travels along the grapevine with considerable speed, the more the importance of the information, the greater the speed.

Chance encounters

This is an unscheduled informal contact between managers and employees. Managers collect valuable information during chance encounters. Spontaneous communication events may occur in the cafeteria, near the water fountain, in the halls and on the elevator. A chance encounter differs from management by walking around in that the latter is planned event; the former occurs unintentionally (Dubrin, 2006).

Communication Strategies of Executives

Clampitt, Dekoch and Cashman (2000) find that, in practice, executives use five main communication strategies.

Spray and Pray: This strategy is based on the assumption that management should provide all manner of information to the employees. The executives believe that the employees will be able to sort out "the significant from the insignificant." This strategy always leads to employees' confusion about the direction of the organisation. Since they lack the requisite skills to distinguish between the salient messages and the less ones, at best some employees attended to only information that supported their own personal agenda. The others will be overwhelmed by the amount of information.

Tell and sell: Under this strategy, managers communicate a more limited set of messages which in their opinions address core organisational issues. They tell employees about the key issues and sell them on the wisdom of their approach. The tell-sell executives spend the majority of their time planning sophisticated presentations, but devote little energy to fostering meaningful dialogue with employees about concerns related to their proposals. The lack of feedback mechanism often results in employees' cynicism.

Underscore and explore: Executives, using this strategy, focus on several fundamental issues most clearly linked to organisational success. While allowing employees the creative freedom to explore the implications of those ideas in a disciplined way (Champitt *et al,* 2000). Under this strategy, managers believe that communication is a two-way process. Thus, they are concerned not only with developing a few core messages but also with listening attentively for potential misunderstandings and unrecognised obstacles.

Identify and reply: This strategy focuses on employees concern and stresses the importance of making sense out of the often-confusing organisational environment. By taking a defensive posture, managers allow the employees to identify the key issues concerns and then reply to those issues. To this end, employees set the agenda, while the executives respond to rumours, innuendos and the leaks. The strategy stresses the need for executives to listen to employees. However, the assumption that employees are in the best position to know the critical issues may not be true because most of them may not even know the right questions to ask (Meisinger, 2006).

Withhold and uphold: Under this strategy, executives withhold information until when confronted with rumours. Secrecy and control are the thrust of this strategy as executives adopting it assume that information is power which they would not want to share with anyone. This strategy usually results in bitterness and the rumour mill inevitably works overtime, while productivity grinds down.

Theories of Leadership

The focus on organisational leadership is based on the assumptions that leaders can and do actually influence organisational performance and that this influence is intentional rather than accidental (Phills 2005). Yukl (1998) broadly define leadership as the process wherein an individual member of a group or organisation influences the interpretation of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the Organisation of work activities, the maintenance of cooperative relationships, the development of skills and confidence by members and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organisation. Howell and Clostley (2002) described leadership as a process used by an individual to influence group members towards the achievement of group goals, where the group members view the influence as legitimate. This definition reveals five core characteristics of leadership. Leadership is a process or a reasonably systematic and continuous series of actions directed towards group goals. It is a pattern of behaviours that is demonstrated fairly consistently over time with specific objectives. Leadership actions are designed to influence people to modify their behaviours.

A leader is one who influences others to attain goals. Leaders orchestrate change, set direction and motivate people to overcome obstacles and move the organisation towards the ideal future (Bateman and Snell 2004). The importance of followers in the leadership process lies in the fact that there can be no leader without followers and that all leaders are followers at times (Yukl 1998). Several studies in organisations have shown that creative leadership accounts for about 45% of an organisation's performance (Bass 1990). Leadership role is usually fulfilled by a single individual who inevitably delegates authority to others to carry out some series of actions. The individual may be appointed to the role by someone outside the group or elected by the group members to serve as leader for a fixed period of time or emerge informally from interactions of the members. Many theories have developed to explain leadership effectiveness. Some of these theories are discussed below.

Traits theories of leadership

These are the oldest traditional theories of leadership based on the belief that leaders are born and not made. Attributes common to more modern trait theories of leadership include charisma, courage, decisiveness, ambition, cognitive intelligence and integrity. These theories have been criticized as they were founded on wrong assumptions. The assumption that all great leaders have most traits in common does not hold water since all great business leaders do not fit a general model (Mills, Dye and Mills, 2009). Besides, associating great leaders with certain traits and identifying people with such traits as great leader irrespective of whether they make a difference in their organisations is equally faulty.

On the brighter side, the trait theories have been useful in determining potential for leadership success. Organisations seek to recruit those high on these traits as the possession of these skills, although not guaranteeing success, may enhance the recruit's chances of becoming a great leader (Mills, *et al*, 2009). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), identifies five traits that influence leadership effectiveness.

(i) Drive, achievement, ambition, energy, tenacity and initiative

(ii) Leadership motivation (personalised versus socialised)

(iii) Honesty and integrity

(iv) Self-confidence, including emotional stability

(v) Cognitive ability: intelligence and the perception of intelligence and knowledge of business.

Behavioural theory of leadership

The behavioural theory of leadership is founded on the assumption that certain behavioural patterns of leadership would produce the desired result irrespective of the situation and followers. These behaviours could be discovered by either observing leaders in action or by asking subordinates about the behaviours of their immediate superiors. According to Yukl, Gordon, and Taber (2007), two leadership behaviours of task-oriented and people oriented are applicable to effective leadership in a variety of situations and time periods. On the other hand, Derue, Nahrgang, Hellman and Humphrey (2011) identified task-oriented behaviours, relational-oriented behaviours and passive leadership as the main behavioural traits from the behavioural theories.

Contingency theory of leadership

The thrust of this perspective of leadership is that effective leadership behaviours are dependent on situational and followers' characteristics. To this end, leadership behaviour patterns that are effective in one situation will not necessarily be effective in another situation. The effectiveness of the leader depends on his ability to vary his behaviours with the situations. A major difference between the leadership trait theories and the contingency theories is that the latter believes that effective leadership behaviours can be learned and therefore leadership training can be a key factor in effective leadership (Howell and Costley, 2002)

Transformational leadership

Yukl (1998) defined transformational leadership as the process of influence major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of the organisation's members and building commitment for the organisation's mission or objectives. Under transformational leadership, followers are motivated to do more than originally expected because of the

feelings of trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for the leader. This motivation occurs when the leader makes subordinates more aware of the importance and values of tasks outcomes help them think beyond their own self-interest to the work team and organisation and activates higher order needs such as creative expression and self actualization (Bass, 1990). Bass (1985) and Bass, Jung and Avolio (2003) identified four components of transformational leadership. These are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual simulation and individualised consideration. The leaders influence is viewed as legitimate by his followers that the influence is reasonable and justifiable under the circumstances. Since the function of leadership is to engage followers, not merely activate them to connect needs and aspirations and goals in a common enterprise and in the process to make better citizens of both leaders and followers. Burns (1978) concluded that transformational leaders are more effective at communicating Organisational goals to followers. The leader's influence is directed toward group goals. In most cases the leader is often involved in setting the goals for or with the group or the leader may inherit established group goals.

Table: 2.1 Summary of Leadership Theories and Competency Framework

Trait Theories	The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life.
Behaviourist Theories	These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behavior are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practicing managers.
Situational Leadership	This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, whilst some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same Organisation.
Contingency Theory	This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances.
Transactional Theory	This approach emphasises the importance of relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.
Transformational Theory	The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of Organisational performance.

Source: Adapted from Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison (2003) A review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks.

According to Fields (2008), the challenges of change and globalisation require leadership that can:

i. adopt new technologies and alter business processes and employee/manager roles to make effective use of techniques;
ii. develop new perspectives about the nature of the business objectives and goals of the organisation;
iii. develop perspectives about the nature of the calling of the organisation and its role in society social responsibility is not just an "add-on successful organisations must have a vision for the role and contribution to making the world a better place;
iv. make products and services attractive to customers in different cultures and
v. Work effectively with members of different cultures as fellow employees, providers of outsourced services as well as venture partners.

In the final analysis, behaviours and traits or skills interact to determine a leader's effectiveness. For example, a leader who has considerable expertise at the employee's tasks is self-confident, enjoys influencing others and is articulate (all traits and skills), will likely enjoy assigning followers to specific tasks and explaining appropriate work methods (leadership behaviours). The leader will have the verbal and task skills to make this guidance meaningful and easily understandable. Leaders who lack several of these characteristics may be reserved, uncertain of their task or verbal skills and unwilling to take the initiative necessary to provide this type of guidance (Howell and Costley, 2002).

Change Communication Theories

Change communication is the process with a variety of elements, through which shared realities are constructed for the management of change (Coetzee, Fourie and Roodt,

2002). The role of communication in change include: the definition of a new vision, the establishment of staff involvement, the provision of training to handle power issues and attending to marketing matters. Young and Post (1993) argued that effective communication is vital to any organisation undergoing significant change because affected employees, teams and stakeholders need information so that they can continually assist the organisation to achieve its objectives. According to Young and Post (1993), an effective change communication strategy consists of the following:

a. Communicating what is happening why and how it has happened: the frequency and impact of change on the Organisation and its employees makes it imperative for members to know what is happening and the rationale underlying management decisions.

b. Timeliness in communicating: to avoid speculations and the temptations of individual forming their opinion before official information, there is the need for management to timely communicate what is happening to its employees. This is to prevent disaffection anger and loss of trust in continuous communication. There is the need for change leaders to continuously communicate and share news during the transition period. This is because a steady hum of information at least gives employees the idea that something is happening.

c. Linking the big picture with the little picture: change communication is only effective when employees understand how the big picture affects them and their jobs. This will enable them to support the change efforts.

d. Allowing people to dictate how they feel about the new change. Leaders should desist from telling people how they should feel about the change, as this will insult their intelligence. It is more effective to communicate "who" "what", "when", "where", "why" and "how" and then let employees draw their own conclusions.

Quirke (2006) asserted that the following essential principles should be adhered to in communicating change:

1. Communicate the context and the full picture.
2. Communicate the ‘why’ as well as the ‘what’.
3. Communicate probabilities and scenarios.
4. Make face-to-face the main communication channel.
5. Use involvement to fit.

In a study of 10 US firms that underwent various types of change Young and Post (1993) find that change communication effectiveness depends on eight factors of: the chief executive as communication champion, the match between words and actions; commitment to two-way communication, emphasis on face-to-face communication and shared/responsibility for employee communications. Others are the bad news/good news ratio; knowing customers; client and audiences; and the employee communication strategy.

The authors conclude that the chief executive officers must be philosophically committed to the notion that communicating with employees is essential to the achievement of corporate goals and be a skilled and visible communications role model. In addition, they must be willing to deliver key messages themselves .The success of change efforts is enhanced when managers ‘walk the talk’ by ensuring that the implicit messages they send conform with the official messages as conveyed in formal communications.

Jimmieson, Terry and Callan (2004) emphasises that communication about impending change is essential to ensure success. The details of the change as well as the rationale must be made known to employees. The provision of accurate and timely information about the change can help prevent unfounded fears and potentially damaging rumours from developing while delay in announcing change as well as secretive handing of change information may result in rumour mongering that may hinder the effectiveness of change effort (Nelson and Quick 2006). Difonzo and Bordin (1998) find that open communication in a culture of trust is a key ingredient for successful change.

To effectively lead change there is need to dialogue with stakeholders. Swenk (2002) suggested that, in order to engage individual in a dialogue about change, it helps to be mindful (having present orientation) in characterising change as part of an ongoing process, rather than disastrous deviations from the past. This allows individuals the time and focus to process issues around the need for change in such a way as to allow accommodation or assimilation of a new and different perspective into their current organisational self identities. A better way of engaging stakeholders in a dialogue is to open their understanding to see change as an evolutionary process necessary for organisational success, rather than externally imposed and are out- of- their control event. (Burke, 2002;Weick, 2000). According to Brill & Worth (1997) and Kotter (1996), the success of the dialogue will depend on the manager's ability to address several factors that strengthen the resolve to maintain the status quo. Such factors include:

1. The strong emotional reactions stakeholders have to proposition of change.
2. How to anchor the change within the organisational culture.
3. Aspirations regarding what vision or goals are hoped for.
4. Insight regarding stakeholders' understanding of reasons for and against the change.
5. Identification of self-reinforcing incentives for and against changing that are personally applicable to stakeholders who are impacted by the impending change.

Thomas, Zolin and Hartman (2009), developed a theoretical model of perceived communication, trust, experienced openness and the effect on employee involvement in organisational goals.

Meyer, David & Schoorman (1995) defined trust as the willingness of a part to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. However for trust to exist, two primary conditions of risk and interdependence must exist (Gillespie, 2003). Risk originates in interpersonal

relationships when either party is uncertain of how one party will act, while interdependence occurs when the needs or interest of the party cannot be achieved without the assistance of the other party. (Thomas *et al,* 2009). Thus, trust is built and shaped by information provision about the other party. Where information is lacking, trust building with suffer some setbacks. Thus important attributes of quality and quantity of information have been found to have impact on trust. The quality of information refers to the extent to which information to other party is accurate, timely and/or useful. Empirical evidences suggest that there is a direct relationship between the quality of information and trust. To this end quality information leads to higher levels of trusts (Konovsky and Cropan 1991).

On the other hand, the quantity of information refers to the extent to which an information is judged to be enough and adequate by the other party. A positive relationship exists between trust and amount of information. Getting enough information from a co-worker, supervision or top management would tend to reduce the trustor's perception of vulnerability and make one more willing to rely on the trustee (Becerra and Gupta, 2003, Ellis and Shockley–Zalabak, 2001). Schweiger and Denisi (1991) defined quality change communication as being information that is delivered in a timely manner so as to provide employees with accurate information at allowing them to deal with change. In the absence of this, employees are forced to develop feelings of uncertainty and seek acting means of resolving this undesirable state by engaging in information–seeking behaviour (Terry Callan and Satori, 1996).

Open communication denotes a willingness on the part of organisational members to exchange thoughts and ideas, even if the ideas go against the grain of popular opinion (Thomas *et al,* 2009). Research showed that a positive relationship exist between open communication and organisational commitment (Mathieu and Zadjac, 1990; and Postmas Tanis, and De Wit, 2001). Thomas *et al* (2009) found that quality of information was more important in communications with co-workers and supervisors but that quantity of information was more important with top management. In all cases, trust was very

closely tied to perceptions of organisational openness which in turn mediated employee involvement. Milliken (1987) viewed uncertainty as an individual's perceived inability to predict something. Uncertainty can result from ambiguous or contradictory information or a simple lack of information (Putman and Sorenson, 1982, Berger and Calabrase 1975).

Jimmieson, Bordia and Irmer (2007) found that employees experience three types of uncertainty during organisational change: strategic uncertainty, implementation uncertainty and job-related uncertainty. Strategic uncertainty revolves round employees' worries about the rationale for change and the future direction of their organisation. Implementation uncertainty is concerned with the messy details of implementing the proposed change and how the change would affect the inner structure of the organisation. While job-related issues are worries about work load, job role and job security. Coetsee (1999) posited that there were seven possible reactions of employees to change. Commitment involves a strong emotional attachment in the goals of the Organisation and the aims of the change effort. Involvement is a willingness to participate in the behaviour being called for by the change effort. Support involves speaking on behalf of the change effort without taking any other explicit actions to promote the effort. Apathy represents a neutral zone in which individuals know about the change effort and engage in no behaviour either to support or oppose it. Passive resistance is a mild form of opposition that involves willingness to voice reservation or even threatening to resign of the change goes through. Active resistance: Involves behaviours that block or impede change, usually by behaving in ways that contradict the goals of the change effort. Aggressive resistance involves purposeful sabotage and subversion of the change effort.

Paton and McCalman (2008) stressed the need for particular attention to be paid to ensuring that timely communication of change related message and ensuring that uncertainty is minimized and the negative impact of the 'rumour mill 'nullified. Elving's (2005) model of communication depicted that the first objective of change communication should be to inform the employees about the policy and other issues of

the organisation. Secondly, communication is used a means of creating a community within the organisation. This will result in a high level of readiness for change. This will eventually, result in a successful change implementation.

Hayes (2005) claimed that directionality; role, content and channel characteristics of communication networks affect change communication. Since management of change is a top-bottom process, where communication information flows up and down the organisation hierarchy, senders transmitting messages up the organisation hierarchy send information that they perceive to be relevant and which reflects favourably on their (or their units) performance. There is therefore the likelihood that unfavourable information is screened out. In this respect, people further up the organisation may not receive all the information that may be relevant to the issues they have to manage. Similarly, senders transmitting messages downwards have a tendency to screen out any information that they perceive to be not directly relevant to the subordinates' task. This may lead to problems when change managers fail to pass on information needed by others to understand the need for change or help them feel more involved in the change process.

Role-wise, communication is affected by inter-role relationship. As a result of this, a person might communicate certain things to a colleague that he/she would not communicate to an external consultant, an auditor, a member of another department, their boss, a subordinate or a customer. Besides, critical information is often imported into the organisation through informal and individual contacts mostly through boundary spanners. However, much of this information is not needed by the boundary spanners so there is the need for their transference to those who need them for the effective management of change.

Change communication models

Several theories of change communication have been developed over the years. These theories and models have all tried to provide managerial guides for effectively

communicating the change message. Three of such models will be discussed by the researcher.

Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) and Armenakis, Harris and Field (1999) developed a model of change communication. The model specifies five domains that a change message must address and the three strategies agents can use to convey those change messages. Together, the change message and the strategies, for delivering them provide a framework for creating employees' readiness and motivation to adapt and institutionalise organisational change.

The key five message components are: discrepancy, efficacy, appropriateness, principal support and personal valence (Armenakis *et al*, 1999). Discrepancy addresses the sentiments regarding whether change is needed. Discrepancy is typically demonstrated by clarifying how an Organisation's current performance differs from the desired state. Discrepancy can be stated in terms of a question, namely 'is the change really necessary?' Since denial is natural reaction of employees to any given change, there is the need for a compelling message to be sent to members of the change target. To send the message that change is required, it is helpful to explain what has happened in the external environment(e.g., changing economic conditions, industry deregulation) and/or the internal environment (e.g., unacceptable levels of product quality, lack of collaboration among departments) to bring about the need for change (Armenakis and Harris, 2002). Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990) posited that change will not occur until organisational members recognize that there is a clear danger, a tangible and immediate problem that must be confronted, if the organisation is to remain economically viable.

Efficacy is the sentiment regarding confidence in one's ability to succeed. The question that captures the efficacy component is 'can/we successfully implement the change?' If individuals do not have the confidence to embrace a new way of operating then an Organisational change will be difficult. Galpin (1996) maintains that management has the responsibility to provide Organisational members with the training and education

required to successfully implement a change initiative. This is important because employees may lack the confidence that the change can be successfully implemented. Past failures by management to provide such education or training to prepare the organisation for change can lead to employees lacking confidence in them to be successful in implementing change. This can also lead to employees having a lack of confidence in management's ability to lead them in implementing the change.

Appropriateness is concerned with the perception of the change agent targets as to whether the specific change being introduced is an appropriate reaction to the need or discrepancy. The appropriateness of change is important because individuals may feel that some form of change is needed but may disagree with the specific change being proposed. Self and Schraeder (2009) posited that when a change initiative is introduced into an organisation, it must be recognised that it not done in a vacuum. In recognising the need to change, employees will ask 'change to What?' Not only must management demonstrate there is a need to change, they must also provide information that the proposed change initiative is the correct one. Morris, Cascio and Young (1999) averred that the question of appropriateness seemed to be particularly relevant when many organisations are implementing changes such as the numerous organisations' downsizing over the past few years appears to be based on fad or fashion rather than careful diagnosis and planning. Armenakis and Harris (2002) stressed the need for the change message to communicate the fact that the specific change was determined through careful diagnosis and planning. There is also the need for agreement that the proposed change initiative is appropriate, congruent with the culture, structure, formal system, etc, of the organisation (Buller, Saxberg, and Smith 1985).

Principal support is concerned with the willingness and ability of management to provide resources and commitment to the specific change initiative. In today's environment of quick fix, faddish, programme-of-the-month changes, employees may be rightfully skeptical of the level of commitment that leaders/ principals in organisation will have for any new change. If the organisation has initiated change efforts in the past that have been

abandon and/or been considered failures then cynicism may exist throughout the organisation. The principal support message is meant to convey that the leaders of the organisation are committed to investing the time, energy and resources necessary to push the change through the process of institutionalisation. According to Self and Schraeder (2009) when a change initiative is introduced , organisational members will look to see if management is serious about the proposed change, especially if there was no follow through for past change initiatives or if the past change failed. Larki and Larkin (1994) asserted that frontline supervisor was the most important individual in enlisting support from organisational members for a change initiative. This is because when leadership announces a change, an employee often turns to his/her immediate supervisor for an explanation of the meaning of the change. If the immediate supervisor is ignorant of the reason for change, then readiness is threatened.

Personal valence is concerned with organisational members' assessment of the distribution of positive and negative outcomes, the fairness of the change and the manner in which individuals are treated (Cobb, Woten and Folger, 1995). The question associated with personal valence is 'what is in it for me?' If an individual's self- interest is threatened, a proposed change will likely be resisted (Clarke, Bateman and Rugutt 1996). Armenakis *et al* (1993, 1999) observed that if the individual impacted by a deviation from the present policies or procedures, perceives there was no benefit to changing, or if the pain of changing outweighs the gain from changing, the individual will resist change. However, if the individual perceives the change outcomes to be more beneficial to him, then he or she will gladly accept the change. The issue therefore is not just whether or not there is a benefit from changing, but how attractive the benefit is to the member. It is not enough for management to demonstrate that there is the need for a particular change initiative and that the organisation will be better off from the change, the employee's focus is primarily on the plus and minus of the change for him or her.

Messages Conveyance Strategies

Armenakis *et al* (1993) Armenakis and Harris (2002), suggest three main strategies for conveying the change messages. These strategies are: participation, persuasive communication, and managing internal and external information.

Participation: Active participation is the act of involving individual employees in activities which will expose them to salient information concerning why the change is necessary and the strategy for a successful implementation. The active participation strategy is likely to be the most effective means of transmitting the message components because it capitalizes on self discovery. The main forms of active participation include; enactive mastery (gradually building skills, knowledge, and efficacy, through successive involvement and practice), vicarious learning (observing and learning from others) and participation in decision-making.

Self discovery when combined with the symbolic meaning of employees through participation can produce a genuine feeling of partnership (Armenakis and Harris, 2002; Hammond, Gresch and Vitale, 2011). Successful change requires the participation by members at multiple levels of the Organisation during all stages of implementation (Fernadez and Rainey, 2006). This helps in empowering employees, building trust and increasing co-operation with the change.

Persuasive communication: In persuasive communication, the change agent delivers the change message directly to the recipients through a verbal medium such as speeches, memos among others. According to Hammond *et al*, (2011), in the context of change management, persuasive communication has parallel goals to that of participation. Both seek to inform employees; why the organisation must change (addressing the change message sentiments of discrepancy) and how it will successfully do so (addressing the change component of efficacy). The effectiveness of persuasive communication is enhanced when the message provides enough information to enable employees form realistic views of their situation.

The management of information: This refers to the use of internal and external sources in providing information regarding the change. Sometimes, this information regarding the change can provide a vicarious learning opportunity as in active participation. In general, the message generated by more than one source, especially if the source is external to the organisation, is considered to be more believable. The source of information may include: sharing of articles from the popular press about industry trends or competitor successes/failures or sharing the organisation's financial records to demonstrate a cost management problem. Bringing in speakers to inform about how world events will affect the operations of the organisation or consultants to provide their expert opinions may also be useful.

The effectiveness of this model is enhanced when organisations use change agents that are credible, trustworthy, and sincere and have appropriate expertise for maximizing their influence on the change process. Equally, the use of appropriate techniques to gauge and monitor the state of readiness, where needed, has the capacity of improving the effectiveness of the model.

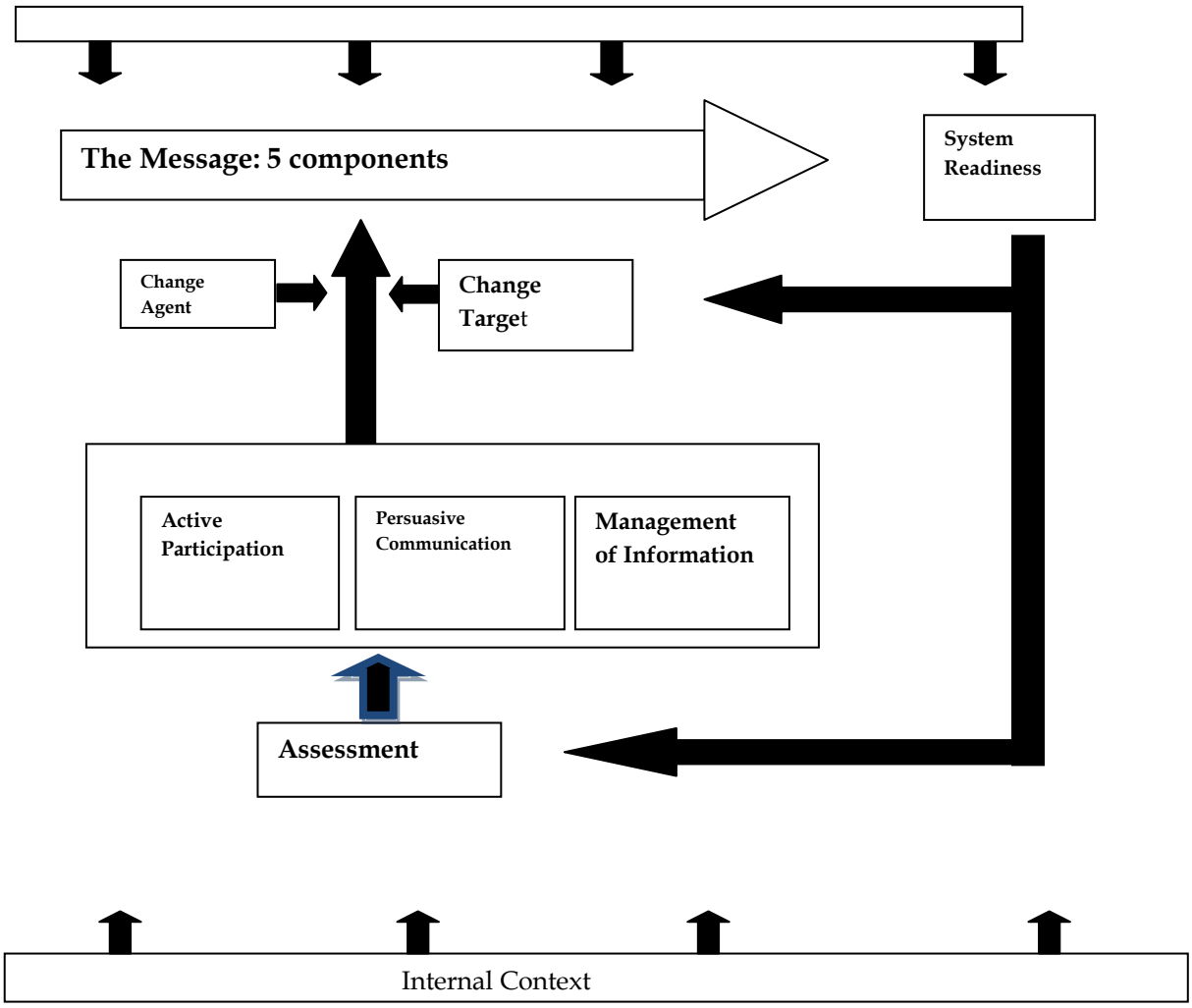


Fig 2.2: Change Readiness Model

Source: Adapted from Armenakis, A.A. and Harris, S.G. (2002). Crafting a Change Message to Create Transformational Readiness, 181

This model, indeed, made a significant contribution to the management of change literature. The provision of a model that will serve as a useful guide in formulating change communication and strategies for its implementation is commendable. However, the model cannot solely be used to predict the outcome of change. This is because it is strictly a model for predicting change readiness. As noted by Weiner (2009), organisational readiness for change does not guarantee that the implementation of

organisational change will succeed in terms of improving, quality, safety, efficiency or some other outcomes. Readiness is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for achieving positive outcomes. The main weakness of the model can be seen in the caveat where the authors themselves (Armenakis *et al*, 1993; 2002) assert that "the effectiveness of the model will be enhanced when organisations use agents that are credible, trustworthy, and sincere and have appropriate expertise for maximising their influence on the change process" This assertion presupposes that in addition to communication, certain leadership behaviours are central to effective management of change.

Elving (2005) proposed a model to depict the role of communication during organisational change. The first goal of organisational communication is to inform the employees about their tasks and about the policy and other issues of that organisation. The second goal is communication with a means to create a community within the organisation (De Ridder 2003). In the same vein, Elving (2005) posited that change communication should provide information about the change and help build a sense of community within organisation, before, during and after the change. According to him, information about the change, feelings of a community within the organisation which is undergoing the change and uncertainty has an influence on readiness for change.

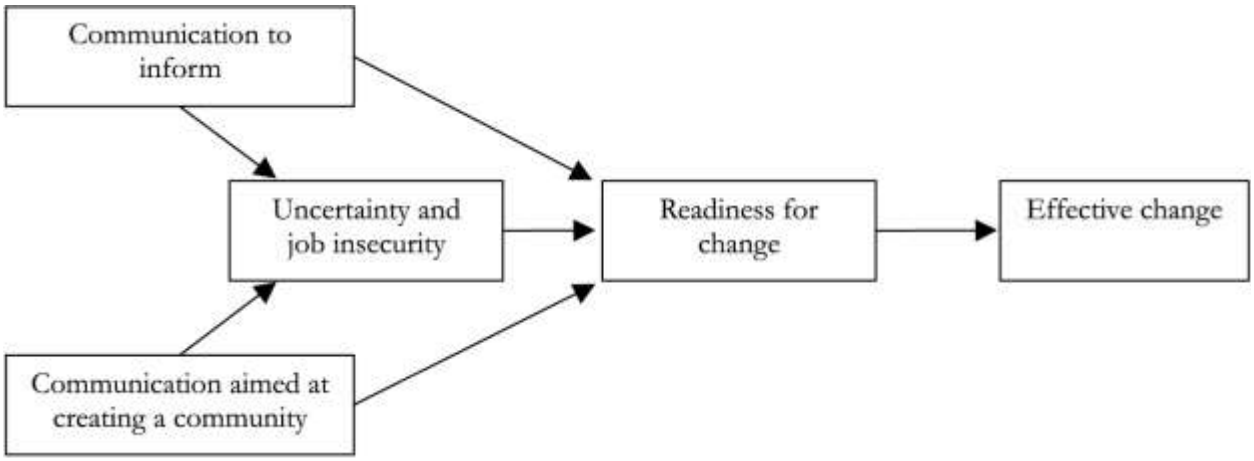


Fig.2.3: The role of communication in change model

Source: Adapted from Elving, W.J.C (2005) The Role of Communication in Organisation Change, 132

From the model, an effective change communication should inform, create a community, and reduce uncertainty and job insecurity in order to create readiness for change.

Communication to inform: This involves the provision of information on the reasons for the change and employees' worries about how their work will be altered because of the change. The traditional model of communication of sender- message, channel, receiver and noise could be applied to this communication.

Communication to create a community: Communication, aimed at creating a community, results in communities with the organisation, trust in the organisation and its management and organisational identification will have an effect on readiness for change. **Uncertainty and job security:** The argument is that when communication provide information about the change and help build a community within the organisation before, during and after change, then uncertainty and job insecurity will be greatly reduced or non existence. Uncertainty has to do with worries about the aim, process and expected outcomes of the change and implications for individual employees (Buono and Bowditch, 1993). Knowledge about the motive for the change will help reduce uncertainty and create readiness for change. Job insecurity is the overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future. When organisational change results in downsizing and the loss of job, insecurity will have a large effect on readiness for change. Uncertainty will reveal itself, when the organisation did not communicate clearly what changes involved employees have to adapt (Elving, 2005).

The ability of the change communication to provide information about the change and build a community within the organisation will reduce uncertainty and job insecurity. This will result in readiness for change and eventually effective change.

Employee communication must play a strategic role in an organisation to work effectively. Consequently, communication must be integrated into the company's strategy

and recognized for its strategic implications and effects (Barrett, 2000). Organisations wishing to succeed must communicate meaningfully by informing and educating employees at all levels in the organisation's strategy and motivating and positioning employees to support the strategy and the performance goals.



Fig 2.4: Strategic Employee communication Model

Source: Adapted from A Barrett, D.J (2000) Change Communication: Using Strategic Employee Communication to facilitate major change, 220

The strategic employee communication model and the change communication approach built on it, was developed by Barrett (2000) to help in bringing employees communication to the strategic level of recognition and facilitate major change programmes. The model provides the analytical tool to assess and improve employee communication, thus forming the foundation for using employee communication to facilitate change. Barrett (2000) postulates that the use of the model in communicating change will help illustrate effective employee communication in the context of the high-performing organisation, provide an analytical tool for diagnosing a company's

communication strengths and weaknesses and frame the change programme and the resulting recommendations to improve communication so that communication will be positioned to help drive change.

According to Barrett (2000), the efficacy of a change communication is measured by its ability to achieve the following goals; ensure clear and consistent messages to educate employees in the company's vision, strategic goals and what the change means to them, motivate the employees support for the company's new direction, encourage higher performance and discretionary efforts , limit misunderstandings and rumours that may damage productivity and align employees behind the company's strategic and overall performance improvement goals. The model was a product of research into the communication practices of high-performing organisations across industries to discover what really works when it comes to employees' communication. At end of the study, a list of best practice composition definition of what successful companies were doing was developed by the author. The model captures all of the major components of employee communication linking each other and to the company's strategy and operations. To this end, the model works analytically to break employee communication down into manageable, recognizable parts; at the same time it shows how interrelated and interdependent each part is when employee communication is positioned strategically, as it must be, to facilitate change.

The components of the strategic employee communication model are: strategic objectives, supportive management, targeted messages and effective media/forums. Others are: well-positioned staff, on-going assessment and integrated processes.

Strategic objectives: In high-performing companies, the primary objective of employee communication is the achievement of the organisation's strategic objectives. Therefore, there should be a correlation between the organisation's objectives and communication objectives. In the same vein, the communication must be structured to translate the

central strategic messages (from vision to achievement of financial goals) to all employees.

Supportive Management: Top-level and mid-level management must be individually and collectively involved and assume responsibility for communications up, down and across the organisation. In addition, Managers must model the behaviour they expect of their employees by "walking the talk.'' They must set the tone for an open flow of information.

Targeted messages: Targeted messages are information tailored to the audience (i.e. messages in different words for different people when necessary), so that the information is relevant and meaningful, and at the same time consistent. Thus each business unit or division must tailor the important messages to their employees and if necessary, convert the overall message of corporate headquarters into the digestible and actionable messages the employees can understand and act upon (Barrett, 2000).

Effective Media/forums: Effective employee communication uses all media to reach its audience. However, the use of direct, face-to- face communication should be emphasised over indirect, print or electronic media. Equally, all managers should be trained in order to acquire and improve their interpersonal communication, meeting and communication skills.

Well-Positioned staff: It is pertinent for the communication staff to have knowledge of the most important business issues, be involved in the strategic and business planning processes. They must understand the organisation's strategy and participate in decision making. They should also be seen as facilitators of change not just as producers of publications.

On–Going Assessment: The effectiveness of the organisation's communication needs should be measured organisation-wide formally and frequently against clearly defined goals on an on-going basis and throughout the key stages of the major change. In

addition, communication effectiveness must be evaluated as part of each employee's individual performance appraisal with appropriate recognition for excellence.

Integrated Processes: communication should be built into the business processes with communication targets included in the business plan as part of the business planning process. This will result in the placement of communication on the agenda of meetings and built into the management discussion of strategic objectives.

Using the strategic communication model to facilitate change:

The design of change communication programme should essentially begin with an evaluation of the scope of the change and the current communication practices. In situations where change is major and essential for the survival and prosperity of the organisation, management must devote the necessary time and resources required to assess and improve employees' communication before the change program is lunched; otherwise the change program will never get off the ground. The specifics of any change programme are particular to the organisation; therefore, they must come from inside the organisation and not from outside. Thus, the strategic employee communication model and change communication programme must fit those needs (Barrett, 2000).

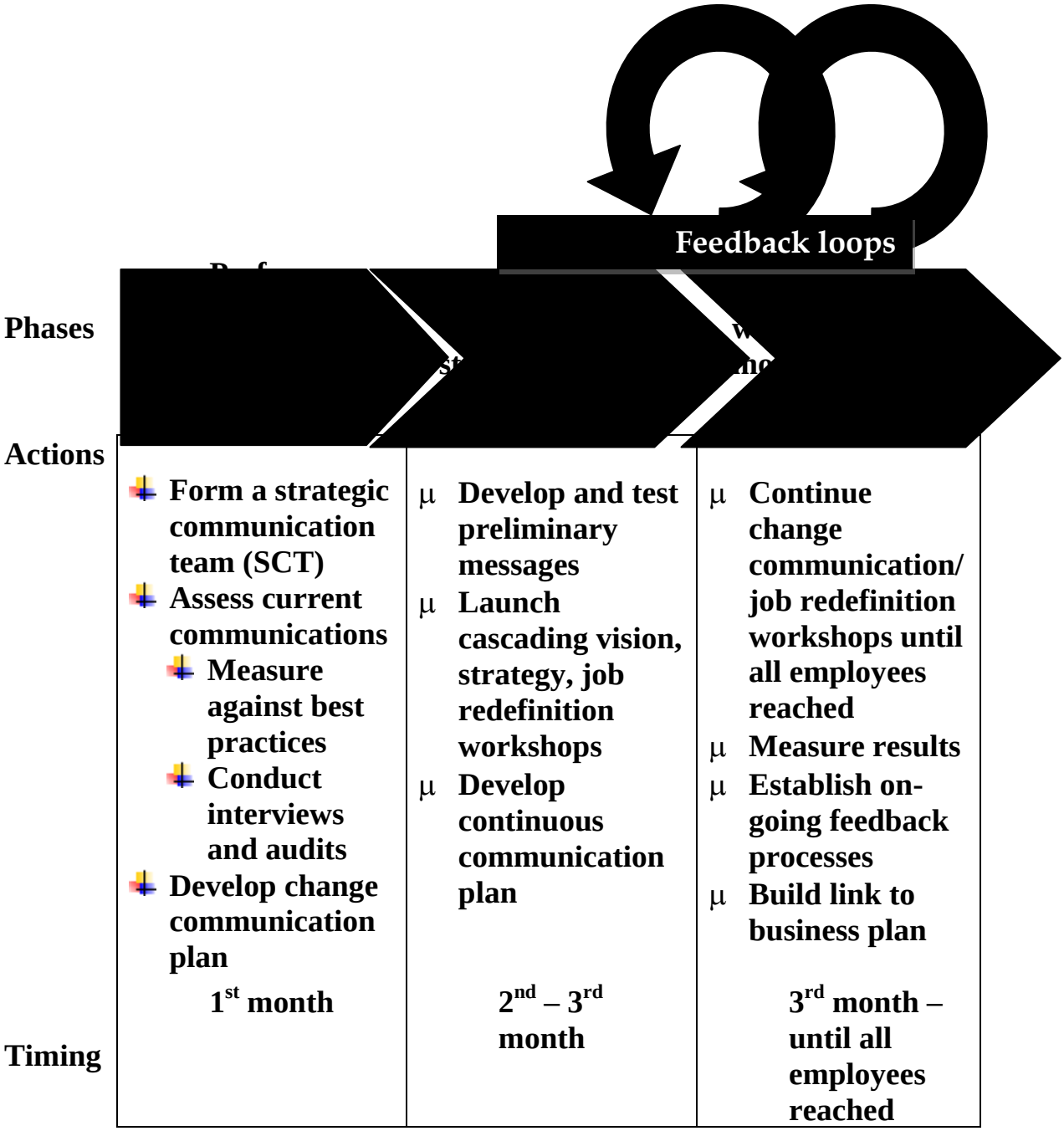


Fig 2.5: Three-phased communication strategy.

Source: Adapted from Barrett, D.J. (2000) Change Communication: Using Strategic Employees Communication to facilitate major Change. P 223.

From the above analysis, management will develop an action plan to map out an organisation's change program, one that has been successful and that can be adapted to organisational particular needs. Each of the three phases of the action plan contains

specific actions that are to be taken to implement the change communication programme. They may vary slightly from organisation to organisation, and they will evolve as the change programme evolves; thus the feedback loop indicate information coming in that influences the action plan once the change programme is underway. Any action plan is a living plan although phases and most of the actions will need to occur in most change programmes (Barrett, 2000). Management should devote time and energy in the first phase of analysis and strategy development. This is because it is critical to the success of any change programme. However, this phase is often neglected by management for various reasons.

The action plan contains four essential actions for an effective change communication programme as follows:

- **Forming a strategic communication team:** The first step in starting any change communication programme is the formation of a multi-level, cross-functional employee team. The team should be composed of respected and trusted members from the functional units, open and honest communicators, skilled at facilitation and commitment from their supervisors to allow them the time to be a dedicated part of the team. The primary objectives of the team will include: to assess the organisation's current communication practices, to address any employee communication improvement gaps, to design and implement the change communication programme and to serve as change ambassadors. The effectiveness of the team will be enhance when a greater percentage of members are non-communication staff. This is because, they will become additional legs and brains for the communication staff and often becomes part of the change programme's mechanism that ensures changes remain after the "official team no longer exists". After the formation of core teams and preliminary analysis, the team can be broken down into sub teams to allow for in-depth focus on the issues in the plan. The strategic communication team will be the linchpin of development and implementation of the change communication programme. Thus, they will provide

information from and to the organisation and bring credibility to the change communication effort (Barrett, 2000).

- **Assessing current communication practice:** This phase can be facilitated with the use of a scorecard or the best practice definitions and their opposites. Both tools will enable the organisation to quickly assess the organisation's current communication practices and determine the improvement targets. Additionally, a couple of key managers and a cross section of employees should be interviewed to reveal their perspectives and begin the process of building support for the change communication programme.

- **Conducting Cascading Vision, Strategy and Job Redefinition Workshops:** The success of any change communication programme is dependent on an organisation having a clearly stated, believed in, understood and meaningful vision statement which management should be involved in developing and communicating. Collins and Porras (1996) argued that a vision should be clear, actionable, realistic and measurable statement of what the organisation wants to be. In the light of the proposed change, an existing mission should be evaluated to determine its appropriateness and the level of employees understanding and the needed reinforcement. There is also the need for management to define the strategic objective that supports that vision. The development of vision and supporting strategic objectives should be followed by a two-round of workshops. The first workshop should be for the first few levels of the organisation on the case for change, the major change messages, the vision and the strategic objectives. The importance of the workshops lies in its ability to gain employee confidence that about what change means. The second round of workshops should be a roll-out across the entire organisation of the vision, strategy and idea generation with the additional job re-definition session, which are break-out discussions on how specific job will need to change under the new company.

These workshops should be held until everyone in the company has participated. This will help spread the word of change and achieve greater acceptance.

- **Monitoring the results:** There is the need for management to frequently monitor the results of the change programme, especially in the first few months. This is to enable management know how well the organisation is hearing, understanding and accepting the change messages. In addition, the media needs to be monitored to determine which are effective. Surveys of a stratified sample of groups in the organisation as well as phone surveys could be utilized for this purpose.

Barrett (2000) claimed that the above-listed four actions can influence the level of success of a change communication programme, but at the end of the day, complete success depends upon the following from management:

1) Senior management commitment to the importance of the change communication and a willingness to devote necessary time and resources to ensure its success.
2) Emphasis on hands-on interaction between management and employees (small groups, two-way exchanges, idea generation sessions, job re-definition workshops).
3) Immediate follow-up on employees' ideas and rewards for good ideas and good communication.
4) On-going monitoring of communication effectiveness.

The second round of workshops should consist of roll-out across the entire organisation about the vision and change strategy. In addition, job re-definition session should be help to educate employees on how specific jobs will need to change under the new company. These workshops should hold until everyone in the organisation has participated. This will help spread the word of change and establish greater buy-in.

Denning (2008) posited that leaders inspired enthusiasm for change through communication that is fundamentally different from the traditional abstract approach.

They communicate by first getting attention, simulating desire and only then reinforcing with reasons.

Getting the audience attention: The starting point for a change conversation is getting attention. It is no use communicating when people are not listening. Davenport and Black (2000) reported that, overall, the factors most highly associated with getting attention in rank order were: the message was personalized, it evoked an emotional response, it came from a trustworthy source or respected sender and it was concise. Among the more effective ways to get the audience's attention are: stories about the likely trajectory of the audience's problems and an unexpected question or warning.

Eliciting Desire for a different future: The best approach for eliciting desire is to appeal to the audience's heart and mind. Since the audience want to change, leaders should establish an emotional connection and stimulate desire for a different future. The task of the leader here is to enable the audience see the possibilities that they have hitherto missed. It means creating the capacity in the audience to see for themselves the world and their reactions with others in a new and more truthful light. It occurs generally through the use of stories (Gladwell, 2005). A story that elicits the desired behaviour is a positive story about the past where the change, or an analogous change, has already happened and the story is told in a simple minimalist manner. The use of simple narratives is also a powerful means of sparking a new story in the minds of the listeners. This is because the new story listeners generate for themselves connect at the emotional level and leads to action. In the new story, listeners begin to imagine a new future.

Reinforcing with reasons: There is the need to provide competing reasons for the change as a means of positive reinforcement. However, it is pertinent for leaders to rightly place the reasons for enhanced effectiveness. If reasons are given before the emotional connection is established, they are not likely to be heard due to so much noise worse – if the audience is skeptical, cynical or even hostile – the reasons tend to flop. By contrast, if the reasons come after an emotional connection has been established with the

change idea, then the reasons can reinforce it. This is because now listeners are actively searching for seasons to support a decision they have in principle already taken (Denning, 2008). Stimulating desire is most crucial stage in the model. Thus, without the desire for change, there is no energy or enthusiasm. Indeed without the desire for change, there is nothing for reason to enforce. It is the desire for change that drives the process. So if the transformational leaders do only one thing, they should make sure that the desire for change is stimulated. To make a success of the above model, the author stresses the need for the creation and development of leaders throughout the organisation. This will involve the establishment of training programmes for all leaders in the organisation, the appointment of mentors to support the development of appropriate capability and the incorporation of the ability to spark change in career planning for leaders.

Faulty assumptions about change communication

Anderson and Anderson (2010) stated that communication is an essential component of most change management plans. But to produce good change communication, leaders must upgrade their old assumptions and practices. They indentify the six most common faulty assumptions that leaders and corporate communications specialists make about change communication are as follows:

1) Leaders often think that when people are told of the new direction, they will get on board. Thus they deliver one-way, tell-oriented communication, which they assume is adequate. With this mind set, they use talking-head presentation or videos, newspapers articles, information-heavy power points shows or email blast announcements and expect these to suffice to get people's buy-in. However, these vehicles alone are not effective. When change impacts people deeply, they need an opportunity to ask questions, go home and think about the message of communication, talk to their peers to discuss the impacts of it on them and perhaps ask more questions. Communications is not successful because the message was

delivered, it is successful only when it is heard, understood and used. And this requires the two-way dialogue.

2) Leaders assume that the corporate communications group can handle change communications, failing to understand that the traditional communication is different from change communication. Most corporate communicators almost exclusively rely on one-way communication vehicles and are frequently trained to communicate key messages in safe language. When change messages are communicated traditionally, the urgency and magnitude of change is watered down, giving the impression that nothing is really changing. Since change communication requires and demands methods that get people's attention and engage them in change dialogue, change leaders must integrate communications with an employee engagement strategy for the change (Anderson and Anderson, 2010).
3) Leaders assume that communication is an event that starts and ends with message delivery or broadcast. However communication must be treated as a process to be effective. A communication is complete only when the receiver has integrated, understood and applied the message. This often requires repeated message delivery using different media, including face-to-face meetings where people have opportunities to ask questions and openly wrestle with impacts on the message. Also, each communication should be followed up with feedback and discussions, supporting peoples' level of understanding as well as their emotional reactions.
4) Leaders assume that communication can be planned according to a predetermined timeline. But the dynamic nature of change makes it impossible for one to determine the exact time to communicate valuable information. Consequently, much of the communication during change tends to be more spontaneous than planned.
5) Leaders assume that they should only communicate when they have a decision to announce. In a transformational change, more is unknown than is known, and people expect leaders to communicate continually by sharing the questions they

are working to answer, the process they are undertaking, the criteria they are using, rather than the hope for a timeline when actual answers will be known.

6) Leaders assume that their 'talk' will speak louder than their 'walk' (but it never does). Many leaders communicate one expectation for change to the organisation and continue to behave in the old-state ways, as if the organisation must change but not them. Thus, most change initiatives are destroyed when leaders show lack of credibility by not demonstrating the new ways in their words and actions. One of the most powerful communications occurs when leaders 'walk' the 'talk' of the new directions themselves, first and consistently.

Change Management Theories

The focus of change management in the 1970s was on ways to manage change, ways of overcoming resistance to change and strategies for managing programmed change. In contemporary discourse, the focus has shifted from a piece-meal approach to a holistic approach to managing change. The forces of globalisation and privatisation brought with them new issues and problems which helped to re-define the definition of change as a planned or unplanned response to pressures and forces and created a sense of urgency (Jick and Peiperl, 2003). The revision of business schools' curricula in response to the business environment lead to the production of new-generation managers, with skills and concerns for managing change.

The development of change management theory has been enriched by the blending of academics and business community as well as the emergence of gurus and consultants, playing the roles of bridging management theory with management practice (Huczynsk, 1993). Several theories have been developed in the field of change management. However, the six most popular ones, as classified by Van del Ven and Poole (1995) and Schein(1985), are: evolutionary, teleological, dialectical, social cognition, cultural and multiple theories.

Evolutionary theories

There are two types of evolutionary theories: the social and the biological. The main assumption of the evolutionary theories is that change is dependent on circumstances, situational variables, and the environment faced by each organisation. Change is seen as an essential feature in the evolution of social systems. Since evolution is basically deterministic, and people have only a minor impact on the nature and direction of the change process, these theories focus on the inability of organisations to plan and respond to change and their tendency to instead ‘‘manage’’ change as it occurs. Change happens because the environment demands change for survival. Thus the evolutionary change is described as a bundle of incremental adjustments or improvements occurring in one part of the system (Brown and Eisenthard, 1998).

Teleological theories

The basic assumptions of those theories are that organisations are purposeful and adaptive. Consequently, change occurs because leaders, change agents and others see the necessity of change. Though the process for change is rational and linear, the individual managers are much more instrumental to the process (Carnall, 1995). Change is a product of internal organisational features or decision rather than the external environment imposition. The teleological approach incorporates many theories of planned change and organisational development (TQM, Reengineering, chaos theory, Action Research etc.). The key elements of the change process include; planning, assessment, incentives and rewards, stakeholder analysis and engagement, leadership, scanning, strategy, etc.

Life-Cycle Theories

These theories use analogy of the human life-cycle to organisational change. Just like human beings, Organisations are born, they grow, mature, go through stages of revival and eventually decline. Thus, change does not occur because people see the necessity of change or even want to change, it occurs because it is a natural progression that cannot be stopped, or altered, e.g., the life-cycle theory of the firm.

Dialectical theories

The main assumption of these theories is that organisations pass through long periods of evolutionary change (as the dialectical interaction between the polar opposites occurs) and short-periods of second-order or revolutionary change. When there is an impasse between the two perspectives, an organisation's polar opposite belief systems eventually clash, resulting in a radical change. Conflict is seen as an inherent attribute of human interaction. The outcome of change is a modified organisational identity. The major change processes are bargaining, consciousness-raising, persuasion, influence and power and social movements (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Social Cognition

This model of change is built on the foundation of life-cycle models by examining in greater details how learning occurs and tying the notion of change more directly to learning. The reasons for change in organisations are tied to appropriateness and a reaction to cognitive dissonance. There is not necessarily an environmental necessity, a developmental challenge, a leader's vision or dialectical or ideological tension. Rather, people simply reach a point of cognitive dissonance at which values and actions clash or something seems outmoded, and they decide to change (e.g., Argyris's single and double loop learning theories).

Cultural Theories

These theories describe organisations as rational places with norms and rules. Change occurs naturally as a response to alterations in the human environment as cultures are always changing. Culture is a collective and shared phenomenon, it is reflected at different levels through the organisational mission, through individual beliefs and sub consciousness, (e.g., the perusal theory, interpretative strategy, etc). The key activities to

create change include: modifying the mission and vision, creating new myths and rituals, leaders performing symbolic actions, using metaphors among others.

Multiple theories

Most of the theories may combine two or more of these theories.

Bouckenoghe (2010) identified two main research strategies into organisational change; the variance strategy and the process strategy. The variance strategy concentrates on variables that represent the important aspects or attributes of the subject under study. Variance research supports predictive models capable of explaining the variation in such outcomes. Using the variance method, the researcher identifies the independent variable with the implicit purpose of establishing the conditions necessary to bring about change. A major assumption underlying the variance approach is that outcomes will occur invariably when necessary and sufficient conditions are present. According to Van del Ven and Poole (1995), variance approaches tend to focus on the antecedents and consequences of organisational change, relying mainly on survey-based and experimental research designs that are grounded in the statistical general linear model.

The process strategy is suitable for researches that conceive of change as a narrative description of a sequence of events that unfold over time. Instead of explaining variation in outcome variables by identifying significant predictor variables, process research seeks to explain outcome states as the result of a preceding sequence of actions.

Pillai and Hofacker (2007) report that the strategy and change management literature suggest four schools of thought for processes of change. They are:

> Planned processes: deciding upon "where we are," "where we want to be" and how to get there, followed by implementation and monitoring" (Greenwood and Hinings, 1993). Emergent processes: Organisations use flexibility to follow incremental changes, in adapting to unpredictable challenges (Mintzberg and Walters, 1985).

Reactive processes: generally top-down analytical responses to abrupt stimuli (Gersick, 1994). Spontaneous processes: characterised by a proactive "whole system" change, this is unpredictable, uncontrolled, and continuous (Alvesson, 2004).

Theories of Change Leadership

Armstrong (2009) defined change management and leadership as the process of achieving the smooth implementation of change by planning and introducing it systematically, taking into account the likelihood of it being resisted. For Kanter (2002), change has become a major theme of leadership literature for good reasons. Leaders set the direction, define the context, and help produce coherence for their Organisations. Leaders manage the culture, or at least the vehicle through which culture is expressed. They set the boundaries for collaboration, autonomy and the sharing of knowledge and ideas, and give meaning to events that, otherwise, appear random and chaotic. Hooper and Porter (2000) described change leadership as the process of developing a vision of the future, crafting strategies to bring that vision into reality and ensuring that everybody in the organisation is mobilising their energies towards the same goal. The challenge of managers is to learn how to effectively lead and manage change.

Edvision (2002) emphasised that leadership in a situation of change 'is a great deal different from leading a neatly hierarchical organisation in which everyone knows their places and does what they are told'. Kouzes and Posner (1993) posited that the key challenge of leadership is to develop a credible and compelling vision, mobilize key constituents around it and then align all the components of the organisation to achieve desired results. To accomplish these goals, leaders must possess a set of behaviours and skills that enable them to effectively manage organisational change.

Change Agency

Organisational change refers to a perplexing myriad of phenomena, activities, initiatives and campaigns in organisations that have one thing in common: movement of some sort from one set of thoughts or behaviours to another set of thoughts or behaviours (Boken 2008). Change agency refers to how change is actually accomplished in organisational life. While a change agent or agent of change is one whose intentional action, facilitate or otherwise cause the desired change to be accomplished. Caldwell (2005) classified, the intellectual thinking about change agency into four essential discourses;

Rationalist discourses: These are built on the premises of the rationality and logic of science and on the hope that it will provide a stable, orderly predictable world. This perspective on change agency is the premises of a central expert change agent that knows or who assumes to know – what needs to be done and how to do it and who presumes that imposing these changes upon others are fine as they are for their own good or for the ultimate good of the organisation.

Conceptualist discourses: The underlying assumption of this perspective is that organisational change is a naturally occurring product of management situations; that is change is always understood in contexts. Moreover, the context itself is dynamic and changing. Thus, change is perceived as emergent, while agency is perceived as 'doing what can with what we have/known' or as 'in context'.

Dispersalist discourses: Under these discourses, the focus of change or agency is on 'team' or on 'community learning'. The expertise of change and the power to conduct it are dispersed" to management teams rather than appropriated by executive leaders. Such 'dispersal' is in line with empowerment and participation initiatives and particularly popular in 1990s downsizing movement (Bokeno, 2008).

Constructionist discourses: These discourses almost remove agency from the process of change. Based on a postmodern set of philosophical assumptions, constructionist discourses tend to suggest that nothing really exists apart from our 'constructions' of

them through communication. Invariably change is viewed as a permanent concept placed on always impermanent dynamic and continuously changing through communication. Agency is largely a myth for the constructionist, as it would assume the stability of phenomena to change as well as the intentionality of the change agent. The part of agency that is not a myth for constructionist is the necessity of each individual to find ways to constructively adopt to or accept the dynamic conditions of post modern work of life (Cadwell, 2005).

Bokeno (2008) suggested seven potential role possibilities for change agency as follows:

Organisational Leaders as Change Agents: This is premised on the belief that organisational leaders (top management) are better placed to sense that effectiveness of current strategic plans, the viability of current strategic objectives and environmental conditions pertaining to acquiring organisational intelligence and competition. Consequently, they are the agents that know what is to be done and how to do it and thus tell others what to do. This role perspective dominated the change literature in 1980s as Organisational leaders were portrayed as individuals who successfully transformed their Organisations into more competitive ones. However, this role perspective has given way to the conception of change leadership as a role feasibly open to anyone.

Organisational Manager as Change Agent: The classical definition of the managerial functions of planning, organising, leading and control have placed on their shoulders the 'agency role' in organisational change process. The rampant changes in organisational cultures, downsizing and flatter organisational structures have forced managers to be on the receiving end of most responsibilities for the wet work of change programmes. By design, they have found themselves managing change in fulfilment of their official responsibilities. Besides, cultural and functional changes have redefined managerial roles from that of planning, organising, leading and control to that of encouraging participation, empowerment, getting others to be receptive to and be involved in change efforts. Thus, the managerial role in change agency is "performing".

Teams as Change Agents: The need for participation and empowerment has given rise to the role of team as change agents. The capacity of teams for change agency comes in two forms. First, is the use of cross-functional teams composed of individuals from various functional units across the organisation, with given complete responsibility for a particular project as well as the charge of overall "continuous improvement" of production, and co-ordination of business process? In order to exhibit greater flexibility and more creativity in the exercise of their functions, team members are trained in acquiring better communication skills, conflict resolution, effective listening, problem solving and alternative modes of thinking. A second type of change capacity is that of team learning. As a method for improving organisational learning and fostering a learning organisation, teams are thought to think more holistically or systematically to be able to see not the short-term picture or quick-fix solution, but the long-term implications for organisational sustainability. Thus team learns and acquire change agency, not only when they solve problems for better products or services, but also when they learn how to learn together (Bokeno, 2008). Although, the capacity for team change agency is attractive, optimistic and hopeful, it is limited by significant concerns about organisational politics and power, in both interpersonal and group contexts.

Consultants as Change Agents: This is the visible kind of change agency as rare is the organisational leader or manager who would initiative agency until the 1990 without the expertise of a consultant. The role of a consultant varies according to his/her specialty, expertise and particular methodology. The role of strategy consultants are primarily advising, assessing and making recommendations. On the other hand, productivity or performance consultants typically assess, advice as to what needs to be done, design and/or develop training and then turn the training process over to in-house training personnel.

Intellectuals as Change Agents: This agency role is based on the belief that the theoretical research and other academic work of intellectuals contributes to a broad

understanding of organisation theory, management and change from a conventional managerial perspective and within a conventional managerial paradigm.

Teachers as Change Agents: The teacher especially a university lecturer is the most viable position for change agency outside the actual organisation. The teacher's role involves interpreting, using theory to cultivate practice or using theory to critique other theories. A teacher's change agency lies in the way information is framed. An effective teacher with pedagogically sound methods literally frames the way learner receives and interprets information. Thus the most influential person in a one's life is his/her teacher. However, there are teacher change agents whose influence may not be felt immediately.

Mentors as Change Agents: Mentoring involves a dyadic relationship, usually between a senior experienced member of an organisation and a junior inexperienced member. The primary objective is for the mentor to pass on his or her accumulated wisdom regarding task competence, managerial skill and political awareness to the mentee. The mentee learns incrementally when the mentor transmits all relevant cultural, political and task knowledge to him in the form of extant organisational wisdom (Argyris, 1994). However greater learning occurs where the relationship allows both parties to explore, invent, examine unexamined organisational assumptions, ask unasked questions, and otherwise discuss the in discussable.

Organisational Members as Change Agents: This agency role may be initiated by (hampered radicals), those workers who may be disenfranchised, or alienated from the jobs or organisations, perhaps very committed and loyal members, who desperately want to see change but seem powerless to effect it (Meyerson, 2003). These organisational members can silently or psychologically resist undesired conditions or seen the opportunity involved in obstacles and threats or engage like-minded others in conversations or find the courage to negotiate for what they want in the face of power.

In recent years, efforts have been made at identifying the best leadership style for managing organisational change. Most change literature focused on the impact of

transformational leadership on change management. Theories of transformational leadership and change emphasise that change is accomplished through the leader's implementation of a unique vision of the organisation through powerful persuasive personal characteristics and actions designed to change internal organisational cultural forms and substance. The challenge then is to select a set of actions that are feasible within the capacity of the organisation to absorb change and manage resources (Kananagh and Ashanasy, 2006). The effects of this leadership style is that it inspires or motivates followers, changes norms of the organisation, makes subordinates feel they are being treated as individuals, helps individuals see problems in new ways; communicates and transmits a vision of the organisation. Many writers believe that the transformational leader reflects these traits and behaviours that are necessary for initiating change (Burns, 1975 & Bass, 1990). In organisations transformational leaders induce organisation members to constantly anticipate and adapt to environmental change (Waldman, Javidan & Varella, 2004).

Two main reasons support the assertion that transformational leadership would enhance the employee's ability to accept change. Firstly, transformational leaders go beyond exchanging contractual agreements for desired performance by actively engaging followers' personal value system. Secondly, transformational leaders serve as role models to stimulate followers to think about existing methods in new ways and encourage them to challenge their own values, traditions and beliefs (Hater & Bass, 1988). However, the theory of transformational leadership has been criticised on the grounds that there is the tendency to view transformational leaders as individuals who have special qualities that transform others. These images accentuate a trait characterisation of transformational leadership and, therefore, training people in this approach becomes more problematic because it is difficult to teach people how to change (Northhouse, 2007). Additionally, The exclusion of task-oriented behaviours, such as setting specific task goals and leader interaction with others, involving networking and negotiation, have diminished the efficacy of this model (Yulk 1998).

In response to the above short comings of transformational leadership, several change leadership theories have been developed. In this respect, Raelin (2012) advocated leadership as practice style. Leadership, as practice, is characterised by a condition where a community (a setting where people congregate to accomplish work together), is full of leadership; everyone is participating in leadership, not only collectively but concurrently, that is, all together and at the same time. Thus, the leadership of change will involve all the parties to an activity fully in cognition and behaviour, attending to the social interactions, preceding, during and after the change (Raelin 2011 and Carrol, Levy and, Richmond, 2008) Change, therefore, derives an authentic social exchange among those who are engaged in the activity at hand. According to Raelin (2003), the basic tenets of leadership as practice are: collectiveness, concurrency, collaboration and compassion (the '4's). Collectiveness refers to the extent to which everyone in the entity can serve as a leader. Concurrency, considers the extent to which members of the unit or Organisation are serving as leaders at the same time. Collaboration is the extent to which members are co-creating the enterprise. It also considers the nature of the dialogue in which members determine together what needs to be done and how to do it. While in compassion, there is interest in the extent to which members commit to preserving the dignity of every single member of the entity, regardless of background, status or point of view.

Anderson and Anderson (2010) described two leadership approaches to change management. According to the authors, the approach and success at leading change depends on the state of awareness that leaders bring to transformation. Transformational approach is the state of awareness or level of consciousness that leaders personally bring to transformation. This, in turn, influences the change strategies which they develop, the change plans that they design to execute, those strategies, decisions that they make, leadership style, interpersonal and organisational communication patterns, relationships with stakeholders, what they model to others, emotional reactions and personal ability to change and ultimately their outcomes. Basically, leaders approach the transformation with expanded awareness (conscious approach) or limited awareness (auto-pilot). The

conscious approach provides more perspective and insight about what transformation demands and better strategic options to address its unique people and process dynamics.

On the other hand, the auto-pilot approach involves the automatic and unconscious response to the dynamics of transformation based on our conditioned habits, existing knowledge and dominant leadership style. Anderson and Anderson (2010) posited that the autopilot has been the most prevalent approach historically and has sufficed for leading organisations and developmental and transitional change for long. However, it is inadequate for delivering break-through results. As change has become more complex, evolving from developmental to transformational, operating with expanded awareness to see the subtle human and process dynamics at play has become a requirement of success. Successful change leadership requires leaders to develop four critical ways of perception:

- **Seeing Systems:** Perceiving the interdependencies among organisational functions, events, or circumstances. Seeing connections across boundaries, seeing relational impacts across the supply chain and seeing across space.

- **Seeing Process:** Being aware of how events and circumstances influence each other over time; perceiving how the present is a natural outgrowth of the past, and how to influence it to create a desired future; seeing the relationships between inputs and outputs; seeing future impacts of today's activities; seeing the process nature of reality, and how development is occurring or can occur in any situation; seeing across time (Anderson and Anderson, 2010).
- **Seeing Internal/External:** Perceiving the inner dynamics of external circumstances, and *vice versa*; seeing how mindset and culture influences actions and results; seeing the outer impacts of thoughts and emotions, how resistance and commitment impacts outcomes; seeing how internal and external reality reflect each other.

- **Seeing Consciously:** Witnessing objectively what is occurring; being mindful and present to the moment; perceiving without the bias of autopilot or mental conditioning; seeing mindfully.

Models of Change Management

Although there are several models of change process, Lunenburg (2010), discussed the underlisted four most popular ones:

Lewin's Three-Step Change Model

Change involves a sequence of organisational processes that occurs over time. Lewin (1951) suggests this process typically requires three steps: unfreezing, moving, and refreezing.

Unfreezing: This step usually means reducing the forces acting to keep the organisation in its current condition. Lewin's force field analysis frame work conceptualises the status quo as the equilibrium state resulting from driving and restraining force. While driving forces direct behaviour away from the status quo, restraining forces direct behaviour to make the status quo. Unfreezing might be accomplished by introducing new information that points out inadequacies in the current state or by decreasing the strength of current values, attitudes, and behaviors. Crises often stimulate unfreezing. Examples of crises are demographic shifts in population, a sudden increase in employee turnover, a costly lawsuit, and an unexpected strike. Unfreezing may occur without crises as well. Climate surveys, financial data, and enrolment projections can be used to determine problem areas in an organisation and initiate change to alleviate problems before crises erupt.

Moving: Once the organisation is unfrozen, it can be changed by moving**.** This step usually involves the development of new values, attitudes, and behaviours through internalisation, identification, or change in structure. Some changes may be minor and

involve a few members (changes in recruitment and selection procedures) and others may be major, involving many participants. Examples of the latter include a new evaluation system, restructuring of jobs and duties performed by staff, or restructuring a department or an entire organisation, which necessitates relocating staff to different sites within the organisation.

Refreezing: The final step in the change process involves stabilizing the change at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium, which is called refreezing. Changes in organisational culture, changes in staff norms, changes in organisation policy, or modifications in organisational structure often accomplish this. Lewin's Three-Step Change model

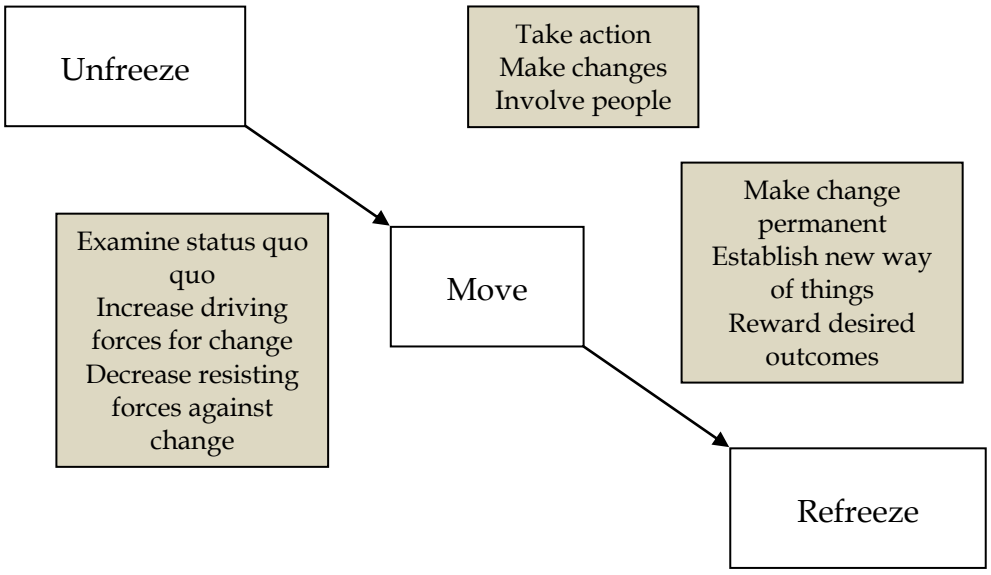


Fig 2.6: Lewin's Three-Step Change model

Source: Adapted from Lewin, K (1947) Frontiers in Group Dynamics. P78

Kotter's Eight-Step Plan

Building on Lewin's three-step change model, Kotter (1996) developed a more detailed approach for managing change. Kotter proposed an eight-step process for managing change.

Table 2.2 Kotter's Eight-Step Process for Implementing Change

Step Description	
1. Establish a sense of urgency	Unfreeze the oganisation by creating a compelling reason for change
2. Create the guiding coalition	Create a cross-functional, cross-level group of people with enough power to lead the change.
3. Develop a vision and strategy	Create a vision and strategic plan to guide the change process.
4. Communicate the change vision	Create and implement a communication strategy that consistently communicates the new vision and strategic plan.
5. Empower broad-based action	Eliminate barriers to change, and use target elements of change to transform the organisation. Encourage risk taking and creative problem solving.
6. Generate short-term wins.	Plan for and create short-term "wins" or improvements. Recognise and reward people who contribute to the wins.
7. Consolidate gains and produce more change	The guiding coalition uses credibility from short-term wins to create more change. Additional people are brought into the change process as change cascades throughout the organisation. Attempts are made to reinvigorate the change process.

8. Anchor new approaches in the culture	Reinforce the changes by highlighting connections between new behaviours and processes and Organisational success. Develop methods to ensure leadership development and succession.

Source: Adapted Lunenburg,F.C (2011) Approaches To Managing Organisational Change.

Harris's Five-Phase Model

Harris (1975) proposed a five-stage model for managing change. He notes that these phases come in a sequential order, but they often overlap one another. Each phase is discussed briefly below.

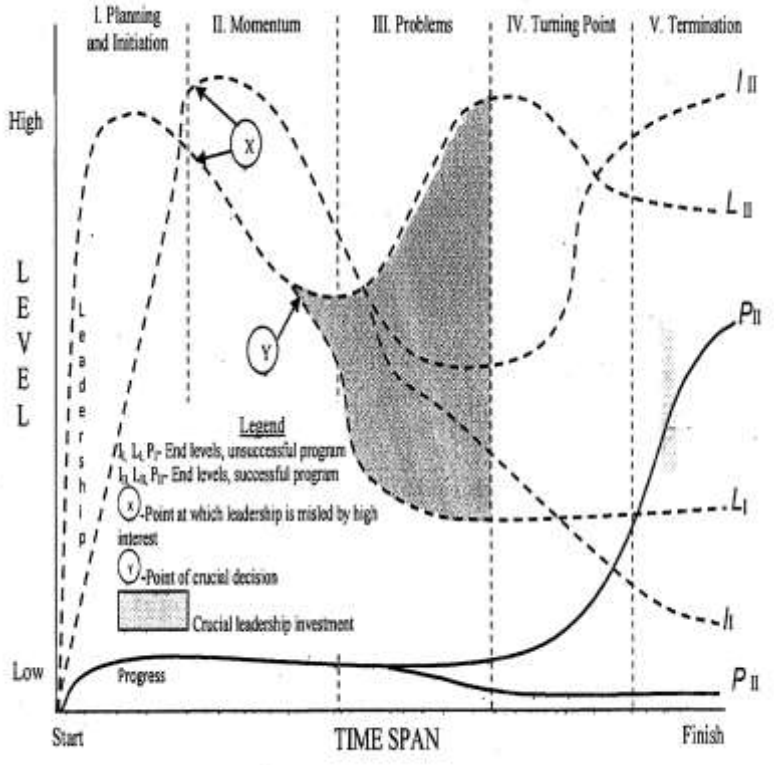


Fig.2.7 Harris Model of Change

Source: Adapted from Harris, B.M (1975) Supervisory Behaviour in Education (2nd ed.).

Phase1. Planning and Initiation:

The purpose of the programme is considered, goals are clarified, activities are selected, and resources needed are considered. Interest mounts as individuals involved sense the relationships between the programme and its goals and their needs.

Phase II. Momentum:

Goal-directed activities get underway. Resources begin to be used. Interest continues to be high and mounts. Feelings of involvement and personal worth grow. The activities are recognized as potentially satisfying. Leading and organising processes are most heavily employed in this phase.

Phase III. Problems:

Activities lead to unexpected problems. The plans become increasingly complex. Initial activities lead to a proliferation of still more activities. Certain resources are not readily available. Differences in goal perception among group members become apparent. The demands of other responsibilities produce conflicts. The goal seems more remote and more difficult to attain than before. Some participants fail to live up to expectations. Interest levels out and begins a steep decline. A leadership investment is crucial during this phase.

Phase IV. Turning Point:

The problem trends described in the previous phase either continues to grow or are overcome and minimised. The momentum the programme has gained, the effectiveness of initial planning, and the individuals in the operation are all quite important during this phase. Above all, the amount and quality of leadership continues to be crucial.

Phase V. Termination:

Unexpected problems can arise, such as: the task is too complex; there is a lack of resources; there is pressure of other responsibilities; interest is waning, and lack of goal consensus persists. This will result in termination of efforts because goal-directed activities will rapidly deteriorate and come to a halt. If, on the other hand, problems are dealt with promptly; the task is analyzed and simplified; new resources are made available; and goals are clarified, then interest gradually mounts again and goal-directed

activities proceed at an increasing pace. Interest is now based on a sense of anticipated accomplishment and personal worth.

This sequence of events points out the importance of leadership at various phases of programme implementation. Undoubtedly, this sequence of events will have variations and exceptions, depending on the change, activities, and the participants involved.

Fullan's Change Themes Set

Fullan (2011) provides still another model of the successful change process in which seven basic themes derived from current knowledge of successful change form a set and must be contemplated together when attempting a change. They are:

Change is learning: All change involves learning and all learning involves coming to understand and be good at something new. Thus, conditions that support learning must be part of any change effort. Such conditions are also necessary for the valid rejection of changes, because many people reject innovations before they fully understand them.

Change is a Journey, Not a Blueprint: There can be no blueprints for change, because rational planning models for complex social change do not work. The message is not the traditional "Plan, then do," but "Do, then plan, and do and plan again." This perspective rests on the assumption that the environment both inside and outside the organisation is often chaotic.

Problems Are Our Friends: We cannot develop effective responses to complex situations unless we actively seek and confront real problems that are difficult to solve. Only through immersing ourselves in problems can we come up with creative solutions. Problems are the route to deeper change and deeper satisfaction.

Change is Resource-Hungry: Change demands additional resources for training, for new materials, for new space, and, above all, for time. Change represents developing

solutions to complex problems, learning new skills, arriving at new insights, which are carried out in a social setting already overloaded with demands.

Change Requires the Power to Manage it: Change initiatives do not run themselves. They require substantial effort devoted to such tasks as monitoring implementation, keeping everyone informed of what is happening, linking multiple change projects, locating unsolved problems, and taking clear coping action.

Change is Systematic: What does it mean to work systematically? There are two aspects: (1) reform must focus on the development and interrelationships of all the main components of the system simultaneously – organisation design, professional development, community, members' support systems, and the like; and (2) reform must focus, not just on structure, policy, and regulations, also but on deeper issues of the culture of the system.

All Large-Scale Change Is Implemented Locally: The ideas that change is learning, change is a journey, problems are our friends, change is resource-hungry, change requires the power to manage, and change is systematic all embody the fact that local implementation by Organisation stakeholders is the only way that change happens.

Greiner's Change Process Model

Greiner's (1967) model of the change process emphasised the role of the change agent. A change agent is the individual, from inside or outside the organisation, who takes a leadership role in initiating the change process. As you study this change process, notice that it must involve two basic ideas for the change to be effective. First, successful change requires a re-distribution of power within the existing structure. Successful change is characterised by a greater degree of shared power within the organisational

hierarchy. Second, this re-distribution of power occurs as a result of a developmental change process. In other words, it is a sequential process rather than a sudden shift.

Greiner outlined six phases through which change may occur in organisations. In this model, top administration plays a key role as change agent. The potential for change also exists at all levels of leadership and operating responsibilities in the organisation. Change is seen as taking a top-down pattern; it may also occur from bottom-up or middle-outward patterns. In each case, however, leaders play key change agent roles. The following list summarises the activities in each phase of the total developmental process.

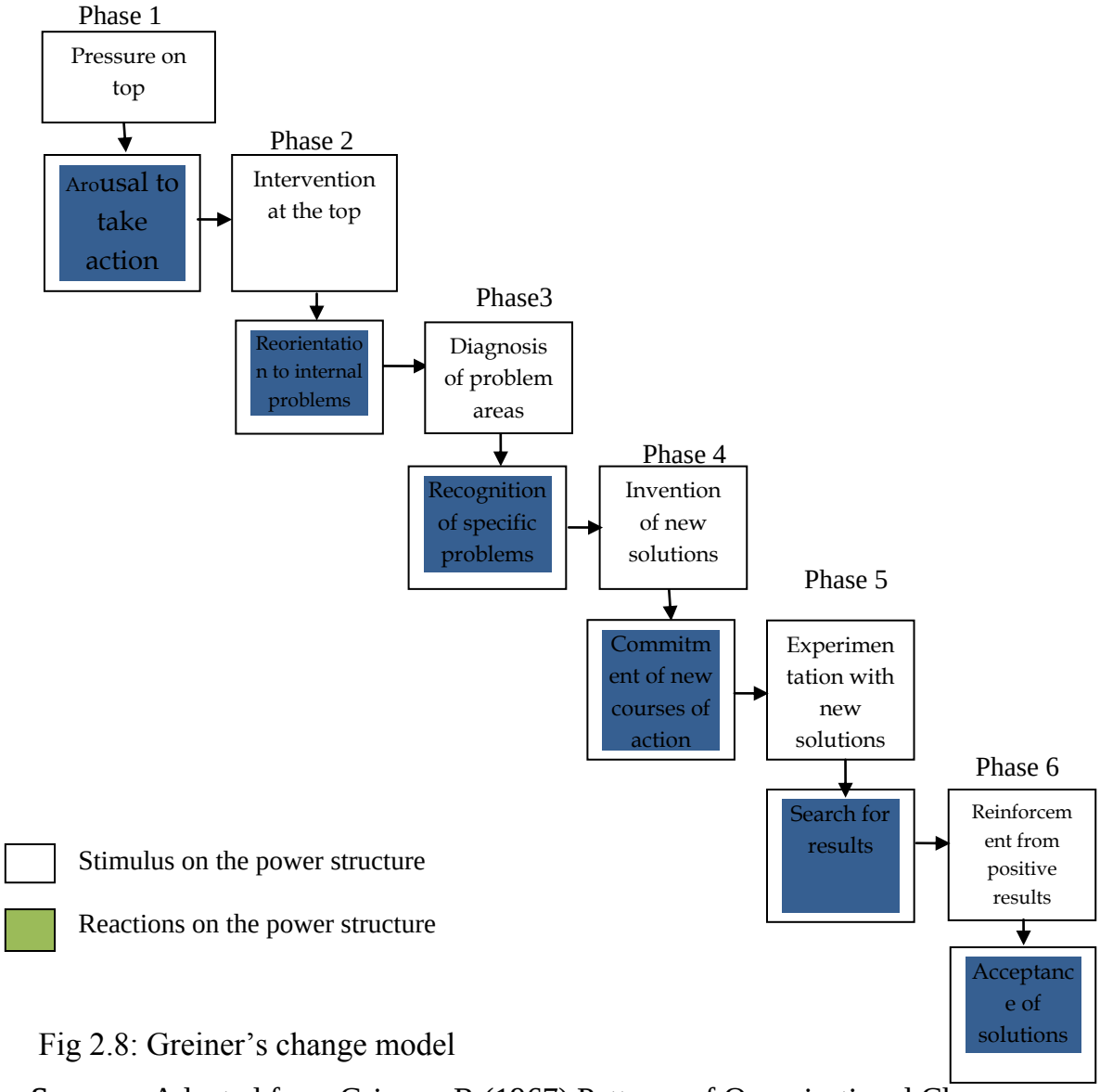


Fig 2.8: Greiner's change model

Source: Adapted from Griener, R (1967) Patterns of Organisational Change

Phase 1: Pressure and Arousal

The process begins when the management feels a need or pressure for change. This pressure can be exerted by external factors such as increased competition, economic changes, or changes in government policies. Or it may be due to internal pressures resulting from decreasing productivity, increased absenteeism and turnover, serious employee unrest, and excessive employee grievances

Phase 2: Intervention and Re-orientation

Although leaders may sense the need for change, they may not be able to analyse its problems accurately and thereby make the correct changes. When under severe pressure, leaders may rationalize its problems by blaming them on another group such as the employee union or the federal or state government. Leaders may be capable of managing the change process if they are perceived as expert and are trusted. If not, an outside consultant or change agent is often brought in to define the problem and begin the process of getting organisation members to focus on the problem.

Phase 3: Diagnosis and Recognition

In the third phase of successful change, the entire organisation becomes involved in determining the true causes of problems requiring change by gathering relevant information. A shared approach between the leader and staff is common in this stage. The decision-making process has been broadened as the leader shows her willingness to recognise tough problems and to change. Diagnosis of the problem areas leads to recognition of specific problems. This step tends to be avoided in efforts involving unsuccessful change.

Phase 4: Invention and Commitment

After the problem is recognized, the organisation moves toward creative solutions to the problems that have been identified. The shared approach again predominates in this

phase. If organisation members are encouraged to participate in this process, they will probably be more committed to the solutions.

Phase 5: Experimentation and Search

The solutions developed in phase 4 are usually tested in small-scale pilot programmes and the results analysed. For example, in a large organisation, one department may try out an idea before it is attempted in the organisation as a whole. In this way, the leader can work out the bugs before introducing the change on a large scale. Through control mechanisms, the leader determines to what degree the planned change is succeeding in remedying the problem, how well it is being received, and how implementation can be improved.

Phase 6: Reinforcement and Acceptance

Finally, if the course of action has been tested and found desirable, it should be accepted more willingly. Furthermore, individuals need to be reinforced for making the change successful. The positive feedback, coming from the pilot programmes in phase 5, add reinforcement to the change process. Other techniques for reinforcing acceptance include praise, recognition, promotion, salary increases, and continued participation in the change process.

Beer, Eisenstat and Specter's Integrated Approach to Change

The authors of this theory proposed a four-step model for change implementation; of redesign, help people alignment and systems and structures.

Step 1: Redesign

According to Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990) effective change implementation begins with a shared diagnosis. The import lies in the fact that it builds both dissatisfaction with the status quo and a commitment to enact new behaviours. This helps to overcome

defensiveness and resistance to change. In addition, dissatisfaction with the status quo motivates employees in active involvement in re-designing behavioural patterns to support strategic renewal through outstanding performance. Ultimately, redesigning roles, responsibilities and relationship through shared diagnosis serves to align behavioural patterns with the competitive realities facing the organisation; with the values, goals, purpose and principles of the organisation; and with the requirement of outstanding performance (Spector, 2010).

Step 2: Help

This is the stage at which the employees are assisted by the organisation in enacting new behaviours. The initial commitment, generated in the share diagnosis, will propel employees to seek opportunities of learning new skills required for effectively performing their new roles, responsibilities and relationship. The skills and competencies developed at this stage will be continually reinforced by the demands of the new roles, responsibilities and relationships.

Step 3: People Alignment

This is the stage where the organisation tries to match the attributes of employees – their skills motivation, attitudes and behaviours – with the strategic requirements of the organisation. The primary objective of people alignment is to get the right people with the right competencies on the bus and the wrong people off the bus (Collins, 2001).

According to Spector (2010), the specific intervention required in this stage include, assessment of employees to determine the quantum of the new skills possessed and those required, recruitment to attract and select new employees based on the demand for new competencies and fit with the redesigned organisation; promotion; which identifies current employees whose skills makes them effective enablers of the change and removal and replacement; which deals with individuals who cannot or will not alter their patterns of behaviours in ways consistent with the newly defined roles, responsibilities and relationships.

Step 4: Reinforcing New Behaviours

This is the point in which leaders reinforce altered patterns of behaviour through new structures, systems and technologies. Here, commitment could be further elicited through joint decisions about measurement systems. In this way, the system will be viewed as an essential element of the new culture, supporting the ongoing change.

Step 5: Mutual Engagement at the Core

Mutual engagement is at the heart of the change process and supporting every step. Mutual engagement provides opportunities for dialogue, discussion, communication and participation as a way of building commitment to the change. Besides, mutual engagement provides employees vital knowledge about the current state of the company operations, about the shifting expectations of customers, about the required interface with suppliers and about emerging technological trends and development in the industry embedded deeply in and widely across the firm. The success of mutual engagement rests on four fundamental beliefs of mutuality, reciprocity, advocacy and enquiry. Advocacy is the willingness and ability of participants to reveal positions and the assumptions underlying those positions. Inquiry is the willingness and ability of participants to open their own position and underlying assumptions to questions and challenge by others. Mutuality is the belief on the part of individual participants that the other participants have both the capacity and the desire to learn and to change, while reciprocity is the belief, on the part of individual participants, that they have something to learn from the other participants (Agyris, 2000).

Sensing Making framework of Organisation of Change

This approach to understanding a variety of changes has been gaining ground since the 1990. The primary objective of this approach is the provision of a holistic perspective that provides both a theoretical grounding and a practical application (Mills, *et al*, 2009).

Its usefulness is derived from the fact that it provides a way of uncovering why individuals think and act as well as alerting managers of potential problems that could be encountered in the change process. According to Weick (1995), Helms and Mills (2003), unlike the traditional approach of studying change management, which focuses mainly on the issues of adoption, implementation and outcomes; sense-making provides a manager with the scope of exploring the reasoning behind these issues. As noted by Mills *et al* (2009), the sense making model of organisational change leads us to question the notion of organisational change as a linear, wholly rational, or necessary process. While requiring us to analyze the skills needed to successfully implement (or resist) organisational change, Weick (2001), Helms-Mills (2003), posited that decision-making relies on eight interrelated socio-psychological properties – retrospection, cues, on-going sense making, social sense, plausibility, identify construction, enactment and projection.

Retrospection: In the main, people tend to make retrospective sense of an event though unconsciously. People usually have an idea of what they are about to do and may well have planned it in advance. However, the sense of their actions is made meaningful once they have acted. Reflection enables individuals to explain and sometimes justify their actions.

Cues: when we make sense of a situation, we draw on selected cues to understand and explain action. However, our selection of cues is influenced by a number of factors, including an ongoing sense of a situation.

Ongoing sense-making: sense making is influenced by the knowledge we have. This is because ideas do not operate in a vacuum but arise in the context of pre-existing notion. However, ideas are not simple reflections or powerful ongoing ideas as the selected act is a function of the set of social relations that the person have.

Social sense making: A particular action is presumed attractive based on the set of social relations a person is involved in. The stakeholders of a business will to a large-extent determine the acts desirable to a change manager.

Plausibility: plausibility is a sense that something is believable or reasonable if not actually true. Plausibility is dependent on the ability of the actor to sufficiently weave together a story or an account that in its utilization of cues adequately addresses the ongoing and social sense of a situation.

Identity construction: The choice of an act does not depend on the social pressures in the content of an ongoing sense but also on the identity of the actor. The identity of the actor is a product of his experiences, values, and beliefs.

Enactment: This refers to a situation where a sense of something or event is widely accepted. It is worthy to note that there can be various enactments of different senses of a situation.

Projection: This is the ability of more powerful actors to project their sense of a situation onto others and in the process shaping their understanding of the situation. The ability to project a sense onto a situation can be influenced by any combination of interpersonal skills, political power, social standing and/or economic power.

Tipping Point Leadership Theory of Change

Kim and Manborgne (2003) tipping point leadership of change was based on the leadership style used by Bralton in turning around the New York Police Department. The theory which is rooted in epidemiology posits that in any organisation, once the beliefs and energies of a critical mass of people are engaged, conversion to a new idea will spread like an epidemic, bringing abound fundamental change very quickly. The theory suggests that such a movement can be unleashed only by agents who make unforgettable and unarguable calls for change, who concentrate their resources on what really matters, who mobilize the commitment of the organisation key players and who succeed in silencing the most vocal naysayers (Kim and Manborgue, 2003). To accomplish rapid, dramatic and lasting change with limited resources, change leaders must overcome four

hurdles; the cognitive hurdle the resource hurdle, the motivational hurdle and the political hurdle.

The cognitive hurdle: The success of any change effort hinges on the ability of the leader to see the need for change. The failure of most change initiatives can be traced to their not seeing the need for change. Change leaders should be rightly positioned to experience, feel and accept the need for change.

Resource hurdle: Most organisations undergoing change rarely possess the large amount of resources required for change implementation. Often leaders faced with this challenge are caught in the trap of either ratcheting down their expectations of change and accept mediocrity or begin a lengthy and often unsuccessful battle for more resources with shareholders and bankers. According to the tipping point, the antidotes' is not the provision of more resources but the concentration of available resources where they are needed and where the payoffs are the greatest.

The motivational hurdle: In addition to understanding and accepting the need for change, employees must also be actually bold in making change happen. To provide and sustain motivation to change, Kim and Mauborgne (2003) recommend the identification of "Kingpins", consisting of individuals with the most influence in the organisation – not based only on positional power but also on influence, ability to persuade and the ability to block access to resource. These individuals lead charge by taking change of specific duties and responsibilities as by well as meeting some short term targets.

The political hurdle: Change is a political activity because it threatens or alters the status quo (Pfeffer, 1992). As change becomes more probable and imminent, individuals and groups likely to be negatively affected become more vocal and fight harder to protect their interests. The theory identifies two strategies of crossing the political hurdle. First, the potential naysayers should be identified in the early stage and permanently silenced. Secondly, powerful coalitions should be built to gain both internal and external support. The isolation of those outside the coalition well serves to reduce their resistance.

Kanter's Change Masters

The thrust of Kanter's (1983) change masters' theory of organisational change is that effective change must be led by change masters. Change masters are those people and organisations, adept at the art of anticipating the need for, and of, leading productive change. According to Kanter (1983) change masters question old assumptions and beliefs, focus on the big picture, think creatively and exploit opportunities for change. Kanter (2002) stressed the need for change managers to persevere beyond the launch of the programme. According to her, difficulties present themselves after the change has begun, therefore change leaders should employ a combination of the following skills and strategies: tune in to the environment; challenge the Organisational wisdom; communicating with a compelling aspiration; and building coalitions. Others are: transferring ownership to a working team; learning to persevere; and making everyone a hero.

Tuning in to the environment: Physical, intellectual and time, constraints prevent the manager from knowing and understanding happenings in the organisation and the environment. There is therefore, the need for the manager to create a network of listening posts through the opening of satellite offices, a joint venture or a community service. This will help in providing competitive information about what customers want, what other firms are doing among others.

Challenging the prevailing Organisational wisdom: Leaders need to develop a way of constructing patterns from the fragments of data available and manipulating them to form different patterns. To this end, leaders must question old assumptions about how the organisation works, the market requirements and the community fit.

Communicating a compelling aspiration: Leaders must provide others with a genuine conviction for change. They have to appeal to others to passionately buy into the change. This will break any conscious or unconscious resistance.

Building coalitions: Change leaders should involve individuals with the requisite resources, the knowledge and the political clout to make things happen. In the early stages of planning, change leaders must identify key supporters and sell their dream with the same passion and deliberation as the entrepreneur (Kanter, 2002). Coalition-building requires an understanding of the politics of change and the recruitment of a minimum number of individuals to champion it.

Transferring ownership to a working team: While transferring the ownership of implementation to the coalition, the leader should support the teams, provide coaching and resources as well as patrol the boundaries within which the team can freely operate. Additionally, teams can be allowed to form their own identity, build a sense of membership and enjoy the protection they need to implement changes. Team performance is directly related to the provision of adequate and appropriate resources.

Learning to persevere: Leaders should avoid the mistake of abandoning the change initiative after launch. The result is that the change effort may get derailed mid way. Leaders should realise that change, like long marches, need on-going leadership.

Making everyone a hero: To ensure an enduring change, leaders should recognise, reward and celebrate accomplishments. Recognition not only brings the change cycle to its logical conclusion, it also motivates people to attempt change again.

As noted by Mills, *et al* (2009), Kanter's change masters is a combination of the three traditional leadership theories of trait, behavioural and contingency. Kanter's (1989) description of the change masters emphasised the need for them to be charismatic, self motivated, build relationship, use influence and be able to adapt to situations. The main contributions of this theory is that it emphasises the need for team effort where a leader learns from others, willingly take advice and rely more on charismatic and referent sources of power, rather than rely on the more traditional legitimate or position-based power. In addition, the theory advocates that leadership of change should be based on ethics, trust and non-adversarial relationships within the organisation and among

competitors. The theory suggests the replacement of the zero sum relationship in the marketplace with a focus on excellence.

However, the theory has been criticized on the grounds that the strategies are suited only to long-term incremental change and not conducive to rapid and radical change. This is because team work, trust relationship and referent sources of power, all take time to build (Mills, *et al*, 2009). Thus, the concept of change masters provides leaders-to-be with a more modern view of leadership that takes into consideration the need to build relationship based on team work and trust. It is more consistent with today's psychological contract of employment than with the old 'command and control' styles of leadership.

Nadler's Institutionalised Theory of Change Leadership

Nadler (1995) proposed a theory of change leadership that requires managers as leaders to demonstrate certain behavioural patterns in combination with appropriate skills and abilities. These include the following:

Envisioning: This is the creation of a picture of the future with which people can identify and which can generate excitement. In order to generate excitement and provide identification and commitment, the vision must be challenging, meaningful, worthy of pursuit, and be credible.

Energizing: This is concerned with the ability of the change leader to generate energy and the motivation to act among members of the organisation. This could be achieved through the demonstration of personal excitement and energy by the leaders themselves.

Enabling: The role of the leader here is to psychologically help individuals to act or perform in the face of challenging goals. Consequently, there is the need for the leaders to empathise by listening, understanding and sharing the feelings of people in the

organisation. Additionally change leaders must express confidence in the ability of people to perform effectively and to meet challenges (Nadler, 1995).

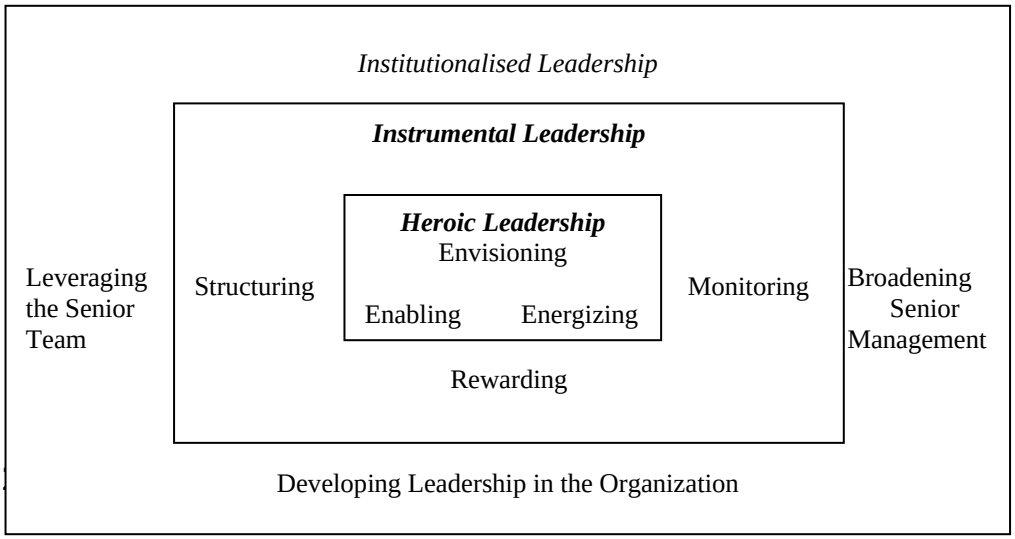
Structuring: Under this role, the leader must invest time in creating structures that make it clear what types of behaviours are required. This usually involves action planning where goals are set, standards set and roles defined, among others.

Monitoring: This involves the creation of systems and processes to measure, monitor and assess both behaviour and results and to administer corrective actions.

Rewarding: This involves both rewarding behaviour that is consistent with the requirements of the change and punishing that which is not.

Mundane behaviours: This is the accumulation of less dramatic day-to-day patterns of activities that leaders use to manage change. It includes behaviours, such as the allocation of time and calendar management, use of humour, stories and myths, among others (Nadler, 1995).

Institutionalizing leadership: This role involves the creation of shared leadership for change through empowerment of employees. This could be achieved through the creation of top management composed of individuals with different skills, capacities, styles and positive attitude towards the change. Secondly, leadership could be broadened to include the set of people who make up the upper management of the organisation. Lastly, there is the development of leadership throughout the organisation. This involves the formulation of relevant policies, the development of appropriate structures, systems and processes for leadership development to foster a climate where people throughout the organisation will assume ownership of the change process.



Fig

Source: Adapted from Nadler, D.A. (1995) Beyond the Heroic Leader, 225

The Politics of Change

Politically, an organisation can be viewed as loosely structured coalitions of individuals and groups having different preferences and interest. Change is a political activity because it threatens or alters the status quo. Change creates a potential for power to change hands in most organisations (Pfeffer, 1992). To this end, the introduction of change in an organisation may threaten the balance of power among groups, thus resulting in political conflicts and struggles (Nadler1987). Political behaviour sometimes emerges before and during organisational changes efforts when what is in the best interest of one individual or group is not in the best interests of the entire Organisation or of other individuals and groups. While political behaviour sometimes takes the form of two or more armed camps publicly fighting things out, it usually is much more subtle. In many cases, it occurs completely under the surface of public dialogue (Kotter and Schlesinear, 2008). Change usually benefits some people, functions, or divisions at the expense of others. When change occurs, power struggles and Organisational conflict in an Organisation are likely going to result in resistance (Kotter and Schlesinger 1979). According to Dawson (2004), political processes are central in shaping the speed, direction and outcomes of change. The greater the support for change, the higher the

likelihood that change will take place and more in expected directions across an unknown terrain. To this end, it has been suggested that outside change agents or new employees are more likely to effectively undertake "a change initiative more successfully since they have no vested interest. While long serving top Organisation members may hinder change that might alter their political base, some will use it to gain political prominence to convince stakeholders – shareholders, suppliers, employees, customers – that they are on top of problems and adapting to a dynamic environment (Robbins and Judge, 2009).

Since the Organisation's stakeholders have vested interest in its prosperity, there is the need for change leaders to identify key stakeholders that will be affected by the change. There is also the need to determine the power and ability of each stakeholder to support or sabotage the initiative. Based on their power to influence outcomes and their commitment to change, Shaw and Waton (1995) classify stakeholders into 'blockers' and 'sponsors'. Blockers are stakeholders who proactively intervene to prevent the change from succeeding, while sponsors are those who proactively work to ensure that the change effort succeeds.

Piercy (1989) and Grundy (1990) provide a more robust model of stakeholders' classification, based on how the stakeholders are affected by the change and their power to influence the outcome. Sponsors and blockers are stakeholders who are directly affected by the change and are more powerful to influence it. Helpless victims and beneficiaries are those stakeholders who are directly affected by the change but are helpless about it. On the other hand, meddlers are those stakeholders who are not directly affected by the change, but are powerful to influence it, while bystanders are those not directly affected and are powerless in influencing it.

Morris and Raben (1995) suggest four strategies for managing the political dynamics of change. Firstly, the change leader should obtain the support of the key power groups through their inclusion in committees or teams. Secondly, change leaders should use their behaviours to generate energy to support the change. Leaders can mobilize groups,

generate energy, provide models, manipulate major rewards and adopt other strategies that can affect the dynamics of the informal Organisation. Thirdly, the leader can use symbols and language to create energy. By using language and symbols to describe change with emotional impact, leaders might create new power centers or bring together power centers under a common banner. Lastly, leaders can build stability through structures, people and physical locations that serve as anchors to hold onto and provide a means for self-definition in the time of turbulence (Morris and Raben, 1995).

Resistance to Change

The literature on change shows that resistance is considered one of the biggest barriers to successful implementation of organisational changes, yet, ultimately for an organisation to change, it is essential that employees of the organisation also change (Bovey and Hede, 2011). Thus, employee co-operation, with organisational change efforts is indisputably connected to either the ultimate success or failure of a change initiative (Hendrickson and Gray, 2012). Erwin and Garman (2010) posit that resistance is a multi-dimensional concept involving how individuals behave in response to change (behavioural dimension), what they think about the change (cognitive dimension), and how they feel about the change (affective dimension). Briskin (1996) reports that the pace of environmental change in the modern world and the resulting conflict with our internalized identities challenge our basic assumptions about ourselves. The resultant effect is that when change is imposed on individuals within organisations, they experience a sort of cognitive dissonance between their personal realities, based on their own autobiographical narratives of experiences, and an attempt by an external force to assert control in the form of changing policies, processes, guiding philosophy, target for change and changes in the individual's senses of self within the organisation. Organisational changes are, therefore, seen as a threat to the individual intra-psychic self structure and a loss of control over the self. These organisational members will either

passively resist or actively fight the change at hand. The ability to identify and address these perceived threats is crucial to managing successful change processes in organisations (Falls, Jara and Sever, 2009).

Employees generally find ways of resisting change. Audia and Biron (2007) point to the fact that even when employees are shown data confirming the need for change, they will counter them with their own superior data suggesting that all is well with the organisation. Resistance can be overt, implicit, immediate or deferred. Overt and immediate resistance involve spontaneous reactions, such as complaint and work slowdown, while implicit or deferred resistance involve more subtle reactions that are more difficult to see and usually prolonged, e.g., loss of loyalty to the organisation, increased errors or mistakes, among others. A change may produce what appears to be only a minimal reaction at the time it is initiated, but then resistance surfaces weeks, months or even years later. Alternatively, reactions to change can build up and then explode in response that turns totally out of proportion to the change action it follows (Robbins & Judge, 2009). This is because our egos are fragile and we often see change as threatening. For Spector (2010) employees resistance could be traced to satisfaction with the status quo, perception of change as a threat, believe that the cost of change out weights the benefit, believe that top management's mishandling of the process and conviction that the change effort is not likely to succeed. Empirical evidence reveal that organisational inertia, the tendency of an organisation to resist change and maintain the status quo is a major reason for its inability to response to changes in its environment (Hannan and Freeman,1999). This is because resistance to change lowers an organisation's effectiveness and reduces its chances of survival.

According to Greiner (1972), resistance or inertia to change can be traced to organisational, group and individual factors. At the organisation level, power and conflict, differences in functional orientation, mechanistic structures and organisational culture may work to induce resistance to change. At the functional level, the traditional differences in the perception and orientation of different functions and divisions increase

inertia to change. Mechanistic structures foster resistance to change by its tall hierarchy, centralised decision-making and the standardisation of behaviour through rules and precedence. People, who work within a mechanistic structure, are expected to act in certain ways and do not develop the capacity to adjust their behaviour to changing conditions (Jones, 2010).

If organisational change disrupts taken-for-granted values and norms, and forces people to change what they do and how they do it, an organisation's culture will cause resistance to change. Most often, values and norms are so strong that even when the environment is changing and it is clear that a new strategy needs to be adopted; managers cannot change because they are committed do things at present. At the group level, group norms, cohesiveness and group think act as impediments to change. Group members will resist change that will alter or change strongly held beliefs or norms, negatively affect its cohesiveness and group think; this may increase escalation of commitment to wrong behaviours and actions owing to its cohesiveness. Individuals may resist change when they feel uncertain and insecure about what its outcome will be. Negative behaviours, such as absenteeism and unco-operative attitudes on the part of employees, may work to delay or slow the change process.

Robbins and Judge (2009) support the view that resistance to change may come from individual or organisational sources. Individual sources include: habit, security, economic factors, fear of the unknown and selective information processing while organisation wise, resistance to change may come from structural inertia, limited focus of change, group inertia, threat to expertise, threat to established power relationships and threat to established resource allocations.

Hullman (1995) list the following as the causes for individual resistance to change:

- Individuals may be satisfied with the status quo. Because their needs are being met, they may view any potential change as negative.

- Individuals may view change as a threat, fearing it will adversely affect them in some significant way.
- Individuals may understand that change brings both benefits and costs but feel that the costs far outweigh the benefits.
- Individuals may view change as potentially positive, but may still resist because they believe that the organisation's management is mishandling the change process.
- Individuals may believe in the change effort but still believe that change is not likely to succeed.

Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) identify five main sources of resistance to organisational change as parochial self interest; misunderstanding; lack of trust; different assessments; and low tolerance for change. People resist organisational change when they think that they will lose something of value as a result. To this end, they focus on their interest at the expense of the organisation. Misunderstandings about the cost implications and benefits could motivate resistance to change. This is particularly so in organisations where there is lack of trust between employees and managers. Individuals resist organisational change owing to differences in assessment of the situation. Variations in information that groups work with often lead to differences in analyses, which, in turn, can lead to resistance. People also resist change because they fear they will not be able to develop the new skills and behaviour that will be required of them. People also sometimes resist organisational change to save face; to go along with the change would be, they think, an admission that some of their previous decisions or beliefs were wrong. Or, they might resist because of peer group, pressure or because of a supervisor's attitude. Gill (2003) opines that people resist change for the following emotional reasons:

- Dislike of imposed change.
- Dislike of surprise.
- Lack of self–confidence and confidence in others: fear of the unknown and of inadequacy, failure and the adverse consequences, such as share price decline and blame.

- Reluctance of management to deal with difficult issues (especially in the case of approaching retirement).
- Disturbed practices, habits and relationships; we have always done it this way. Moving people from the familiar, secure and controllable to the unfamiliar, insecure and probably uncontrollable.
- Self-interest and shifts in power and influence, such as a loss or change of role in the Organisation.
- Lack of respect and trust in the person or people promoting change and skepticism as a result of the failure of previous change initiative.

Indeed, there is probably an endless number of reasons why people resist change (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). Akerele & Akerele (2000) proffer that means of reducing resistance included: advance information on the reasons and possible effects of change. This will enhance employees' preparation and acceptability of the change. Equally, employees' ownership should be created by involving all the organisation's members directly or indirectly in the planning and implementation of change as well as by providing guarantees against employees' psychological and social losses. The following strategies have been identified in the literature for managing resistance to change:

- **Education and Communication:** Education and communication reduce resistance to change by ensuring that full facts of the process are communicated as well as clearing any misunderstanding. However, its primary role is to help "sell the need for change". The success of any change effort is primarily determined by the way it is sold. According to Dutton, Ashford, O'Neil and Lawerence (2001), change is more likely when the necessity of change is packaged properly. This was further confirmed by Fiss and Zajae (2006) in their study of German companies which revealed that changes are most effective when a company communicates its rationale balancing various stakeholders' (shareholders, employees, community, customers) interests versus a rationale, based on shareholders' interests only. However, there is potential for a poor solution and great consumption of time.

- **Participation**: This is based on the assumption that employees who participate in planning and implementing a change are better able to understand the reasons for the change. The opportunity to express one's ideas and assume the perspective of others increases the chances of employees' support for the change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008).

- **Facilitation and Support:** there are a lot of supportive efforts to reduce resistance to change. When employees fear and anxiety are high, counselling and therapy, new-skills training or short paid leave of absence may facilitate adjustment. The disadvantage is that it is time-consuming, expensive and its implementation offers no assurance of success (Robbins, 2000).

- **Manipulation and Co-option:** Manipulation refers to convert influence attempts. It come in forms of twisting and distorting facts to make them appear more attractive, withholding undesirable information and creating false rumours to get employees to accept a change. Co-option is a form of both manipulation and participation. It seeks to buy off the leaders of resistance group by giving them a key role in the change decision. Usually the leaders are consulted and made to endorse change decisions. Both are relatively easy means of gaining support for change. However, it is prone to backfire when the targets discover that they are being used or tricked.

- **Selecting People Who Accept Change**: empirical evidence supports the belief that personality traits, such as openness to experience, positive attitude toward change, willingness to take risks and flexibility, are positively related to ability to accept and adapt to change (Oreg, 2006). Studies of managers in the USA, Europe and Asia have confirmed that change programme have been facilitated in organisations through the selection of individuals who scored high on positive self concept and high risk tolerance. Equally, the selection of people, based on a resistance co-change scale worked well to weed out those who tended to react

emotionally to change or too rigid (LePine, Colquitt and Erez, 2000; Judge, Thorsten, Puciic and Welbourne, 1999; and Oreg 2003).

Putting Resistance to Good Use

Positively, resistance provides a degree of stability and predictability to behaviour as well as a source of functional conflict. In stressing the positive impact of resistance, Ford and Ford (2010) argue that resistance can be a valuable tool in the successful accomplishment of change. To achieve this, managers will have to change the negative perception of resistance as an impediment to change and focus on engaging it. Similarly, managers have to view resistance as a form of feedback which provides valuable information that may not be available any other way. By being willing to consider resistance as a useful feedback, managers can reshape specific aspects of a change, thereby increasing the likelihood of success. Ford and Ford (2010) posit that, in the early stages of change, any talk, even negative or adverse talk might be the only thing that keeps a change proposal alive. Although, managers may consider complaints, criticisms and objections to be forms of resistance, a proliferation of complaints or a highly charged dialogue can serve a useful function by making more people aware of the change. Thus, information available from resistance behaviours can become a critical factor in the ultimate success of change. Rather than trying to suppress or eliminate negative reactions during the early stages of change, change managers may want to let these reactions happen and even interact with them to ensure they serve a useful function (Ford and Ford, 2010).

Change managers do not need to overcome or eliminate all resistance as some of it may be valuable. This is because the anger or fears that some people have about organisational change does not necessarily mean they are against the entire change, believe management is incompetent, or suspect the plan is to cover for something nefarious. Rather than trying to remedy or ignore negative responses to change proposal, it can be useful to take a closer look at the specifics of the objections and use them to improve the change or the

implementation process. Additionally, resistance engagement should be used as a participatory management approach to managing change.

The following change commonest errors must be avoided by leaders (Kotler, 2007):

- **Must establish a great sense of urgency:** Most change efforts begin with individuals or groups' discovery of an avenue need to avoid potential crises or exploit great opportunities. To motivate organisational members to accept this change, there is the need for clear communication emphasizing the urgency of the required change. This phase is supposed to be relatively easier that others, but most managers make a mess of it by underestimating the difficulty of driving people out of their comfort zones, grossly over estimating how successful they have already been in increasing urgency and lack of patience.
- **Not creating a powerful enough guiding coalition:** Most change efforts fail when change leaders fail to create a guiding coalition. While one or few individuals may initiate change with the support of top management, there is the need for the coalition to grow over time for the change to be successfully implemented: Change leaders must create this coalition outside the normal hierarchy so as to garner the long-term support needed to successfully implement the change. Failure to create and secure the support of this coalition will lead to the change running out of steam mid-way into the implementation.
- **Lacking a vision:** Successful organisation transformations can be traced to the development of a vision of the future. This is easily communicated and appeal to customers, stockholders and employees. Strategies and programmes are developed on the basis of the vision to be achieved. A lack of vision causes transformation effort to dissolve into a list of confusing and incompatible projects that can cause organisational drift. Besides, lack of vision results in employees alienation and confusion.
- **Under-communication:** Successful change critically depends on the ability of the leader to credibly and persuasively communicate the need for the change to

others. Employees will only buy into the change effort with the conviction of its desirability and benefits/effects on them. This becomes a daunting task when the firm is going to downsize and some employees loose their jobs. To this end, the vision must include new possibilities and the commitment to treat fairly anyone who is laid off. The task of the leader is to use the existing communication channels to broadcast the vision. It is equally important for leaders of change to match words with actions by "walking the talk".

- **Not removing obstacles:** In addition to communication, there is the need for other obstacles to change to be removed. These may be in the forms of organisational structures incompatible with the proposed change, compensation or performance appraisal systems or individuals whose functioning and belief and values run contrary to the new scheme of things. However, there is the need for tact on the part of the change leaders in removing these obstacles, so as to empower others and to maintain the credibility of the change effort as a whole.
- **Not creating short-term wins:** Transformations are usually long-term in nature. There is therefore, the need to maintain the short-term goals to meet and celebrate. This will help to keep the urgency level up and compel detailed analytical thinking that can clarify or revise vision. In this regard, change leaders should actively devise means of obtaining clear performance improvements, establish goals in the yearly planning system, achieve the objectives and reward the people involved.
- **Declaring victory too soon:** While the celebration of short-term win is a welcome idea, leaders should not fall into the temptation of declaring victory too soon. A premature celebration of victory can kill momentum and allow powerful anti change forces to turn back the hand of the clock. Instead of declaring victory too soon, the credibility conferred by short-term wins should be used as stepping stones for tracking bigger problems.
- **Not anchoring changes in the corporation's culture:** Changes in attitudes, behaviours and approaches are transient, unless they are ingrained in the Organisational culture. Change leaders must therefore ensure that the behaviours

are rooted in the social norms and shared values, so as to internalise and make them become the "the way we do things around here."

Keller and Aiken (2010) identified eight inconvenient truths why leaders and managers fail in successfully implementing change initiatives:

The general belief is that employees will be motivated to change when leaders tell them a compelling story. The truth is that most of the stories fail to compel the need for change in employees. This is because most of the stories centre on the company's benefits, such as beating competition, industry leaderships, and share price targets, among others. Studies have revealed that there are, at least four, other sources of meaning and motivation that can be tapped into to create energy for change. These include: impact on society (e.g., making a better society, building the community, stewarding resources), impact on the customer (e.g., making products easier to use, superior service, better quality products), impact on the working team (e.g., sense of belonging, caring environment, working together efficiently and effectively) and impact on 'me' personally (my development, pay-check/bonus, empowerment to act). Since these sources of motivation equally motivate employees, the challenge of leading change is for leaders to be able to tell the five "stories at once'' and, in so doing, unleash immense of organisational energy that would otherwise remain latent in the organisation.

Although well-intentioned leaders invest significant time communicating change, the inconvenient truth is that much of the energy invested in communicating it would be better spent listening, not telling. Employees show a higher sense of commitment to change initiatives when they are personally involved. However, the conventional approaches to managing change underestimate the power of personal involvement by not allowing others to self-discover what he or she already knows, which results in the stealing from others the energy needed to drive change that comes through a sense of ownership of 'the answer'. Change leaders should emphasise high involvement approaches to leading change initiatives.

There are two approaches to creating change in an organisation: the constructionist and the deficit-based approaches. The constructionist approach to change is based on discovering (discovering the best of what is), dreaming (imaging what might be), designing (talking about what should be) and destiny (creating what will be). While the deficit approach is based on identifying the problem (what is the need?), analyses causes (what is wrong here?), and possible solutions (how can we fix it?). Research has shown that relentless focus on 'what is wrong' is not sustainable, invokes blame and creates fatigue and resistance, doing little to engage people's passion and experience, and highlight their success. Mohr and Watkins (2002) reported that choosing the positive as the focus of inquiry and story-telling was the best answer for creating change. The inconvenient truth is that both the constructionist and the deficit-based approaches have their merits and demerits. Therefore, the leader is expected to intelligently blend the two in achieving effective change leadership. In a similar vein, conventional change management suggests leaders should take actions that role-model the desired change and mobilize a group of influence leaders to drive change deep into the organisation. Whereas conventional change management approaches surmise that top team role modelling is a matter of will (wanting to change) or skill (knowing how to change), the inconvenient truth is that the real bottleneck to role modelling is knowing 'what' to change at a personal level.

The change literature implored leaders to mobilise a set of 'influence leaders' to help drive change. The rule is to find and mobilise those in the organisation who either, by role or personality, (or both), have disproportionate influence over how others think and behave. The inconvenient truth is that it is not enough to invest in a few, rather than in many, as a way of catalysing desired change, no matter how appealing the idea is. It is wise for management to invest in building leadership capabilities of all employees in the organisation in order to facilitate change. The literature on change management suggests that linking change objectives with compensation will increase employees' motivation. The inconvenient truth is that when change programme's objectives are linked to

compensation, motivation for change is rarely meaningfully enhanced. Employees prefer social exchange to market norm as a means of stimulating their motivation. So when it comes to change, social norms are not only cheaper than market norms but are often more effective as well.

The conventional wisdom is that the success of a change programme is solely determined by the extent of achievement of set objectives, the process and its fairness notwithstanding. However, the inconvenient truth is that employees will go against their own self-interest, if the situation violates other notions they have about the way the world should work, in particular, in relation to fairness and justice. To this end, in making any changes to company processes, systems and incentives, change managers should put an unreasonable amount of attention to employees' sense of the fairness of the change process as well as the outcome. Many managers believe in their hearts that all that matters is that employees behave in the needed ways and that it does not matter why. The inconvenient truth is that it is employees' thoughts, feelings and beliefs that drive their behaviours. Ignoring the underlying mindsets of employees during change is to address systems rather than the root causes.

These faulty assumptions could be overcome when managers develop and use their emotional competencies effectively. Coleman(1998) posited that effective leaders should possess self-awareness (knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions), self-management (managing one's internal states, impulses, and resources), social awareness (awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns) and social skills (adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others).

Anderson and Anderson (2010) postulated that the following mistakes are common in leading transformations:

- **Relevance and meaning:** Not overtly linking the change effort to the market and business strategy to create clarity in the minds of stakeholders.

- **Change Governance:** Not providing clear change leadership roles, structure, and decision making, and how the change effort will interface with operations.
- **Strategic Discipline for Change:** Not providing a strategic discipline for how to lead change across the organisation – no enterprise change agenda, no common change methodology and inadequate infrastructure to execute change successfully.
- **Misdiagnosing Scope:** Misdiagnosing the scope of the change either in magnitude, or by initiating only technological or organisational initiatives, and neglecting the cultural mind set, and behavioural requirements.
- **Initiative Alignment and Integration:** Running the change through multiple separate or competing initiatives rather than aligning all initiatives as one unified effort and ensuring the integration of plans, resources, and pace.
- **Capacity:** Not creating adequate capacity for the change – setting unrealistic, crisis producing timelines and then laying the change on top of people's already excessive workloads.
- **Culture:** Not adequately addressing the organisation's culture as a major force directly influencing the success of change.
- **Leadership Modelling:** Leaders not willing to change their mindsets, behaviour, or style, to overtly model the changes they are asking of the organisation.
- **Human Dynamics:** Not adequately or proactively attending to the emotional side of change; not designing actions to minimize negative emotional reactions; not attending to them in constructive ways once they occur.
- **Engagement and Communications:** Not adequately engaging and communicating to stakeholders, especially early in the change process; relying too heavily on one-way top-down communication; engaging stakeholders only after the design is complete.

Synthesis: the theories of leading change are, no doubt, useful guides for theory and practice. However, it is worth noting that managers leading change should bear in mind

that the human elements involved are a serious challenge. Like all other managerial functions and responsibilities, the application of the foregoing theories, as guides for leading change, should be done with caution, depending on the organisational climate, individuals involved and the general environmental factors. In implementing theoretical prescriptions, managers must apply their 'common sense' and intuition by acknowledging the fact that people are irrational in many predictable ways. The scientific study of human irrationality has shown that many of mankind's instincts, related to understanding and influencing personal and other's motivations, push human beings towards failure instead of success. People systematically fall victim to subconscious thought processes that significantly influence their behaviour, even though their rational minds tell them that they should not (Keller and Aiken, 2010).

Summary of Empirical Literature Reviewed

Change and Organisational Performance

The findings on the impact of change on organisational performance have been mixed. Most studies have found that effective change management enhances organisational performance (Isern and Pung, 2006; Trinh & O' Connor, 2002). In contrast, some studies have found that change reduces organisational performance (Singh, House and Tucker, 1986), while others have found either no relationships (Guimaraes & Bond,1996; Zajac and Shortell, 1989) or mixed relationships (Aregbeyen,2011;Smith and Grimm, 1987).

Leadership style, Trust and Change

Empirical evidences suggested that there is a direct relationship between the quality of information and trust. Quality information leads to higher levels of trust (Konovsky & Cropan Zanct, 1991).

Simons (2002) asserted that a critical factor for the success of a change process was top management credibility. So, as they design the change, a company's top management must ask itself "What can we credibly implement?" What change can we really commit to and what type of change will fit our style so that we will be able to support it authentically and wholeheartedly later?" (Bruch, Gerber and Maier, 2005). Kotter (1996) concluded that change processes that lack a credible patron were as unsuccessful as those which lack visible, convincing support from top management. Furthermore, insufficient agreement between "word" and "deed" have negative effects on the energy in change initiative, ranging from loss of momentum to mobilisation of destructive forces within the company (Huy, 2002).

Oreg (2006) found that a lack of trust in management was significantly associated with resistance to organisational change. Equally, lack of faith or trust in management was strongly related to reports of anger, frustration and anxiety, increased action against the change initiative, negative evaluations of the change and increased questioning of whether or not management was able to make informed decisions. Steelcase (1991) found, in his study of employees' perception about change leadership, that 85% of respondents confirmed that it was very important for their leaders to be honest, upright and ethical.

In a study to investigate the impact of leadership styles on organisational change management in China, Long (2008) found that both transformational leadership and transactional leadership have positive impact on organisational change. Laissez-faire leadership predicts organisational change in the result of hierarchical regression, which is not consistent with the results of past research. Equally, transformational leadership has significant and positive relationships with both organisational change and performance. Szabala (2007), reported in his studies of how employees' perception of leadership strategies influence individual's reactions to organisational change. The survey study involved 241 union employees of a Midwest country government, implementing an

electronic performance management system. Three categories of perceived leadership strategies were used and the following results were obtained:

1) 44.7% of employees perceive leadership as rational empirical leaders were experts focusing on facts.
2) 6.6% of employees perceived leadership as normative re-educative leaders were collaborative and involved individuals in decision-making; and
3) 39.4% perceived leadership as power coercive change was justified only by leadership who used their position power to lead the change.

In a similar survey, individuals were questioned about their thoughts on the change, how they felt about the change, and how they intended to behave in response to the change. Szabala (2007) reported that members of the rational-empirical group believed the change would improve their job satisfaction and operations, felt optimistic and enthusiastic about the change and intended to support the change. Members of the normative re-educative groups however, held the most positive beliefs, experienced the most positive emotions and had the highest intentions to support the change. Members of the power-coercive group had both positive and negative beliefs, indicating they believed the change would improve operations but would not satisfy their job related needs. Members of this group reported feelings of anger and frustration, but indicated they would support the change despite their beliefs and feelings

In the same vein, Van dam, Oreg and Schyns (2008) examine the role of manager-employee relationships (leader-member exchange), perceived development climate (i.e. supervisor support and opportunities for personal development), and various change process characteristics (i.e. providing information about the change, participation in the change process and trust in management) and their relation to resistance to change. In addition, the study analyses the relationship between two individual-level characteristics-openness to job changes and organisational tenure and resistance to change. 235 respondents' employees of a large Netherlands housing corporation were surveyed in the study. The researchers (Van dam *et al*, 2008) found that the three change process characteristics fully mediated the quality of supervisor/employee relationships (leader-

member exchange) and perceived development climate with resistance to change. In other words, employees who believed they had high-quality supervisor relationships and that they had been provided more information about the change and had more opportunities for participation in the change process, experienced more trust in management and reported less resistance to change. Individual-level characteristics were also found to influence resistance to change; those employees, more open to change, perceived the change in favourable terms, while those with a longer tenure were more resistant to change.

Communication and Change

In a study of individuals experiencing change in the public housing industry in the United States of America, Wanberg and Banas (2000), found a positive correlation between employees who reported they received information about change and their openness to change. Similarly, Lewis (2006) in his study to examine the influence of communication of change initiative on perceived resistance, found that the higher the perceived quality of implementation information received about change initiative, the less the perceived resistance to change. Larson and Tompkins (2005) in a study of the impact of managerial change communication and actions on resistance involving 48 employees and managers in an aerospace company, reported that contradiction between messages delivered and managerial actions reflected management's ambivalence about change initiative, resulting in opportunities and justifications by employees to resist. Knowledge about the motive for the change will help reduce uncertainty and create readiness for change. Job insecurity is the overall concern about the continued existence of the job in the future. When organisational change results in downsizing and the loss of job insecurity will have a large effect on readiness for change. Uncertainty will reveal itself, when the organisation did not communicate clearly what changes involved employees have to adapt (Elving, 2005).

In a study of the roles of communication in the process of organisational restructuring and downsizing in a Dutch branch of a large International organisation, Nilissen and Van Selm (2008) concluded that organisational change are to a certain extent influenced by management communication about the objectives and consequences of organisational change, but develops, partially autonomously over time comparable to everyday transitions employees face in their work place. In a similar study on the role of communication on employees adaptation to change over time, Jimmieson, *et al*, (2004), found that employees who perceived higher levels of change- related information reported higher levels of psychological well being, client engagement, and job satisfaction .

Similarly, in a study carried out to examine the relationship between communication, uncertainty and well being among staff members at a psychiatric hospital undergoing large scale restructuring, Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish and Difonzo (2004) found that communication helped overcome uncertainty.

Change and Participation

A significant body of empirical knowledge suggested that facilitating participation among stakeholders was beneficial in minimizing resistance while enhancing motivation to implement planned change efforts, increases accuracy in stakeholders' perceptions about the rationale behind the change initiatives and related goals and enhances overall satisfaction with the change initiatives (Edmondson & Pisano, 2001; Brown, 1991; Coyle-Shapiro, 1996; Sagie and Koslowsky, 1994) Moreover, participation reduces uncertainty, while increasing a sense of control, and enhancing employees' perceptions of implementation success (Sagie, Elizur and Koslowsky, 2001; Argote, Goodman and Schkade, 1983; and Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen, Tourish and Difonzo, 2004). By diagnosing problems, understanding their importance and being part of the process of formulating solutions, people develop a psychological sense of ownership over the outcome. That

ownership now creates in employees the heightened motivation to implement change in order to achieve desired goals (Lines, 2004).

Covin and Kilmann (1990) amassed a list of 900 major issues that participants in organisational change believed influence the success or failure of large-scale transformational efforts. They found that failure to share information or inform people adequately of what changes are necessary, and why they are necessary, were viewed as having a highly negative impact. Research has also found that the dissemination of information of formal, quality information from organisational leadership is an important variable during planned change efforts (Russ, 2008).

Organisational Communication

Morley, Shockley–Zalabak & Cesaria (2002) found that organisations that communicate effectively were more effective in achieving their task-related goals and had more positive working environments, as perceived by employees. In a survey of 550 managers and staff in 50 organisations, Berger (1994) found that 92% of respondents rated non-verbal aspects of communication as either important or very important in group settings, such as committees or departmental meetings. However, more than 50% of those surveyed noted that supervisors verbal communication and non-verbal communication were either occasionally or frequently in conflict.

Communication Strategies of Executives

Clampitt, Dekoch and Cashman (2000) found that in practice executives use five main communication strategies: Spray and Pray, Tell and sell, Underscore and Explore, Identify and Reply and withhold and Uphold.

Leadership

Several studies in organisations have shown that creative leadership accounts for about 45% of an organisation's performance (Bass, 1990)

Change communication

In a study of 10 US firms that underwent various types of change Young & Post (1993) found that change communication effectiveness depends on eight factors of: the chief executive as communication champion, the match between words and actions; commitment to two-way communication, emphasis on face-to-face communication and shared/responsibility for employee communications. Others were the bad news/good news ratio; knowing customers; client and audiences; and the employee communication strategy. The authors concluded that the chief executive officers must be philosophically committed to the notion that communicating with employees is essential to the achievement of corporate goals and be a skilled and visible communications role model.

Jimmieson, Terry and Callan (2004) found that communication about impending change is essential to ensure success. The details of the change as well as the rationale must be made known to employees. The provision of accurate and timely information about the change can help prevent unfounded fears and potentially damaging rumours from developing while delay in announcing change as well as secretive handing of change information may result in rumour mongering that may hinder the effectiveness of change effort (Nelson and Quick 2006). Difonzo and Bordin (1998) found that open communication in a culture of trust is a key ingredient for successful change. Thomas *et al* (2009) found that quality of information was more important in communications with co-workers and supervisors but that quantity of information was more important with top management. In all cases, trust was very closely tied to perceptions of organisational openness which in turn mediated employee involvement.

Jimmieson, Bordia and Irmer (2007) found that employees experience three types of uncertainty during organisational change: strategic uncertainty, implementation uncertainty and job-related uncertainty. Strategic uncertainty revolves round employees' worries about the rationale for change and the future direction of their organisation. Implementation uncertainty is concerned with the messy details of implementing the proposed change and how the change would affect the inner structure of the organisation. While job-related issues are worries about work load, job role and job security. Coetsee (1999).

Managing Resistance to Change Fiss and Zajae (2006) in their study of German companies which revealed that changes are most effective when a company communicates its rationale balancing various stakeholders' (shareholders, employees, community, customers) interests versus a rationale, based on shareholders' interests only. However, there is potential for a poor solution and great consumption of time. Studies of managers in the USA, Europe and Asia have confirmed that change programme have been facilitated in Organisations through the selection of individuals who scored high on positive self concept and high risk tolerance. Equally, the selection of people, based on a resistance co-change scale worked well to weed out those who tended to react emotionally to change or too rigid (LePine, Colquitt and Erez, 2000; Judge, Thorsten, Puciic and Welbourne, 1999; and Oreg 2003).

GAP – The fact is that the existing theoretical frameworks and models for managing Organisational change have not produced the desired result. This is because most literature on change are hardly empirical as they try to conceptualize aspects of change processes, using theoretical perspectives coming from a variety of disciplines, discuss the implications of these conceptualizations for Organisational change, and give directions for future research (Jimmieson, Terry, and Callan,2004). Effective of leadership behaviours, communication and participation have been promoted individually as means of enhancing the success of transformational efforts. (Beer and Nohria 2000; Elving, 2005; Burnes, 2005). However, these piece- meal approaches have resulted in poor

change outcomes (Doyle, Claydon and Buchanan, 2000). Organisational change management is a complex phenomenon requiring the simultaneous management of several activities, there is therefore the need to investigate the synergistic effects of simultaneous performance of these activities. This perspective has however been largely unexplored in change management literature. This void will be filled through the empirical investigation of specific patterns of leadership behaviours that combine with communication practices to improve the change management initiatives which will, in turn, improve Organisational performance.

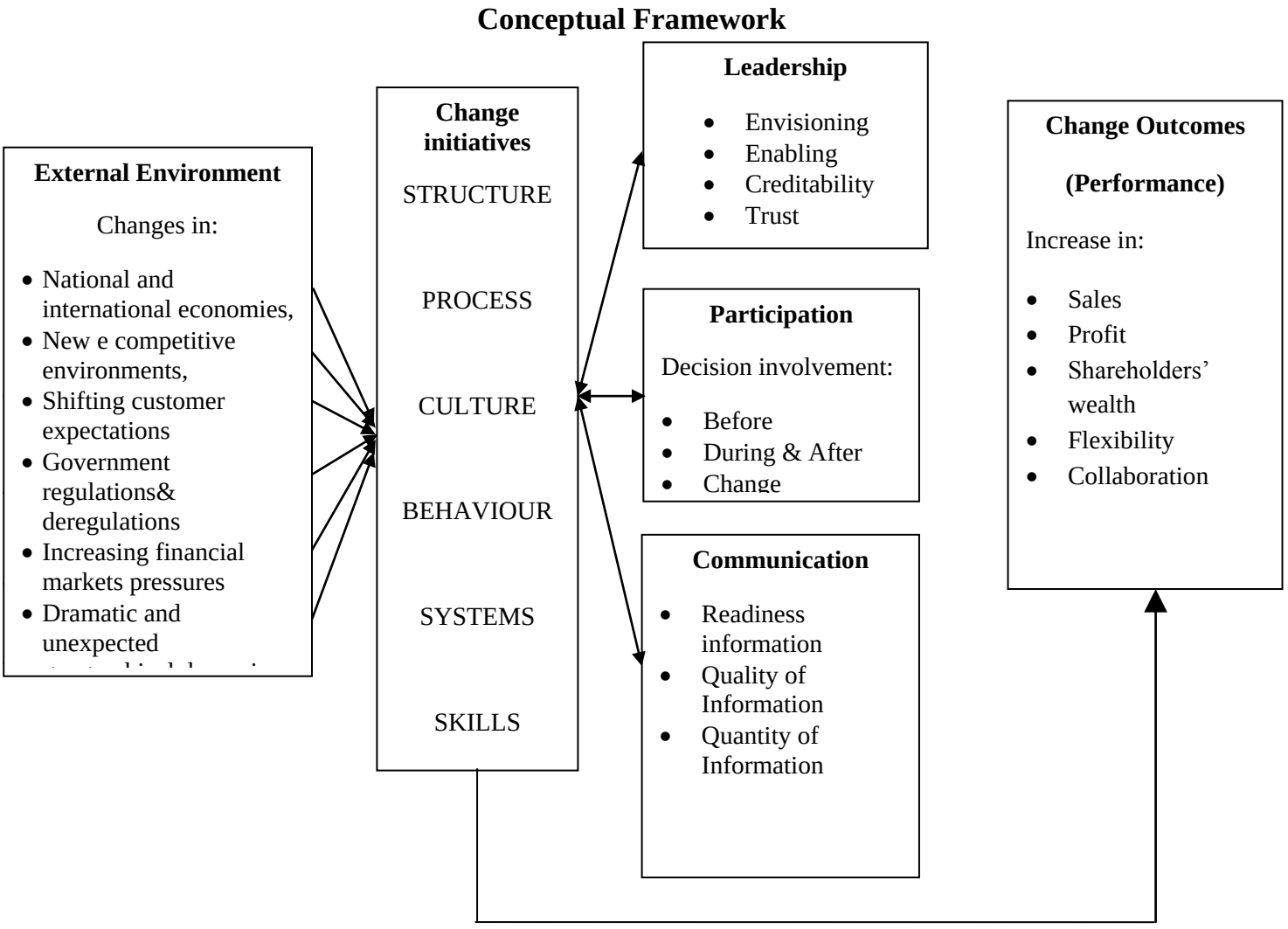


Figure 2.9.1: Managing Change for Improved Organisational Performance
Source: Researcher (2014) Managing Change For Improved Organisational Performance (Adapted from Armenakis, A., A., Harris, S.,G., & Fields, H.,S. (1999) *Change readiness communication Model* and Nadler, D. (1995).*Beyond the Heroic leader*.

The conceptual model is a hybrid of the Armenakis, Harris and Field (1999) change readiness communication model and Nadler (1995) change leadership model. In simple terms, the model proposes that successful change implementation is a function of synergy between effective leadership, communication, and participation. Changes in any of the environmental variables may individually or jointly motivate Organisational change. The success of the change effort will depend on the ability of managers and their representatives to stimulate readiness for change (discrepancy, efficacy, appropriateness, principal support and personal valence), provide timely and adequate (quantity and quality) implementation and post implementation information. Similarly, employees must be actively involved in the decision making process before, during and after the change programme. All these should be complemented with appropriate leadership behaviours of envisioning, enabling, credibility and trust.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The methodology chapter focused on the "how" of this research. Topics covered include: the research setting, research design, the description of population of study, sample size and sampling technique, instrument's validity and reliability, data collection and procedure and methods of data analysis. According to O'Leary (2004) Research is a creative and strategic process that involves constantly assessing, reassessing and making decisions about the best possible means of obtaining trustworthy information, carrying out appropriate analysis and drawing credible conclusions about the subject of inquiry. While methodology is the framework associated with a particular set of paradigmatic assumptions used in conducting research. The descriptive (Survey), casual (Experimental) and exploratory (Ex-Post Facto) research methods are often used in Business (Asika, 2004).

Research Setting

The setting for the study is Lagos State, situated in the South-Western part of Nigeria.

The choice of Lagos stems from the fact that it is the largest commercial city with the highest concentration of industries in Nigeria (Eze, 2008). This study area is important to the study because most of the organisations, which have undergone change, have their Head Offices in Lagos. This facilitated access to both the vital primary and secondary data required for the study.

Research Design

The researcher adopted the casual and survey research designs in view of their suitability for this type of research undertaken in this study. According to Kellinger (1986), the logic behind the use of a survey is that it enables useful information to be collected from a representative sample of a large population as well as the generalization of the findings to a much larger population. Furthermore, it helps in predicting behaviour and in determining if a relationship exists between and among the variables of the study (Bordens and Abbot, 2002).

Population of Study

The population consisted of employees of organisations in manufacturing and service sectors quoted on the Nigerian stock exchange that have undergone change within the past eight years in Lagos state as reported in business dailies, the stock exchange and the companies annual reports. However, the accessible population consisted of all employees of five organisations: First Bank Plc, Royal Exchange Assurance Plc, Equity Assurance Plc, PZ Plc and GlaxoSmithKline Plc that have implemented various change programmes (total quality, reengineering, six sigma, balance score card and general restructuring) in the past eight years. The choice of these sectors is based on the vital role they play in the socio-economic development of the nation. Ilesanmi (2011) averred that the financial sector of every economy is the nation's "heart beat." On the other hand, the manufacturing sector is seen as a potential engine of modernization, a creator of skill jobs and a generator of positive-spill over effects on the economy (Tybout, 2000).

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The five organisations were selected by ballot from a list of twenty organisations. There is lack of consensus on the exact number of samples to be drawn from a population. However, most authors have suggested that a sample size should be a minimum of 10% of the population (De Vaus, 1996). A sample of 650 (33% of the population) was drawn from an estimated population of 2000 employees at the headquarters of these organisations. The choice of this number was informed by the desire to meet the above requirements in the face of difficulties in retrieving copies of the administered questionnaire. The stratified random sampling method was employed. Since the topic of inquiry pervades the entire managerial and non-managerial levels, respondents were first stratified on the basis of managerial and non-managerial levels in their respective organisations. Thereafter, the samples were drawn from each stratum. The motive behind this approach was to ensure that all categories of employees were sufficiently represented (De Vaus, 1996).

Description of Research Instrument

For the casual study, the performances of the focal organisations were measured, using five main indicators of growth in sales (turnover), profitability, shareholders' wealth, flexibility and collaboration. Growth in sales was measured, using the percentage change in sales (turnover), profitability was assessed, using return on assets 1 and 2 (return on assets 1= profit before tax and interest divided by total assets, return on assets 2 = profit after interest and tax divided by total assets), while shareholders' wealth was measured, using earnings and dividend per share. On the other hand, flexibility and collaboration were measured, using employees' opinion in the absence of financial proxies for them.

The data on the pre-and post-change performance indicators were obtained from between 8-10 years' annual reports of the focal organisations. For company A (Royal Exchange

Assurance Plc), the pre change years were from 2001-2005, while the post-change years were from 2007-2010. 2000-2004 and 2007-2010 constitute the pre-and post-change years respectively for company B (Unilever Nig Plc, replaced Equity Assurance owing to inaccessibility of financial data for the period). For Company C (GlaxoSmithKline Plc), the pre-change period was between 1999 and 2004, while the post change years were from 2006-2010. Company D's (PZ Cussons Nig Plc) pre-change years were between 1999 and 2005, while the post-change years were from 2007-2011. Company E's (First Bank Group) pre-and post-change years were 1999-2003 and 2006-2010 respectively.

For the survey, the primary instrument of data collection was a questionnaire, structured on a five-point Likert-rating scale of Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree and Strongly Disagree. The instrument consisted of opinions, factual (categorical) and open-ended questions. It comprised six sections arranged alphabetically A-F, with each section containing seven question items. The focus of Section A was on the biographical characteristics of the respondents and the approach adopted in implementing change by the focal organisations. Section B (communication scale) sought the respondents' opinions on the extent to which the change communication was able to create change readiness and commitment to facilitate change implementation. Section C (leadership scale) comprised items describing the behaviours exhibited by the change leaders before, during and after the change. Section D (participation scale) sought the respondents' opinions on the extent of their active involvement in the decision-making process in the organisation, especially during the change period. Section E (performance scale) examined the extent to which the stated objectives of the change initiatives were achieved. Section F comprised open-ended questions, aimed at eliciting independent opinions on the main challenges faced by leaders and subordinates in the change process as well as recommendations for coping with them.

Instruments, validity and reliability

The researcher made use of a questionnaire adapted from Posco's (2009) Change Management Survey Questionnaire, the content validity of which was determined by a panel of experts. In this regard, copies of the questionnaire were given to three experts (two professors in the Department of Business Administration, University of Lagos, and a Senior Manager in the industry); their comments and suggestions informed the development of a modified version adapted for this study. The instrument was pre-tested in a pilot study involving junior academic staff in the Faculty of Business Administration. Internal validity was established when the factor analysis in chapter four reported the following Kaiser-Meyer measures of sampling adequacies: Leadership scale= 0.618, Communication scale=0.798, Participation scale: 0.80 and Participation=0.845.

The Cronbach's alpha reliability co-efficient estimate was used to determine the reliability of the instrument and it yielded a co-efficient of 0.654, indicating a high reliability (Kellinger, 1986; Klime, 1999).

Concurrent reliability was determined when the scores of the adapted instrument correlated positively with the scores of the original instrument administered to the pilot study population after three weeks (Spearman correlation co-efficient r Leadership = 0.76, Participation = 0.82, Communication = 0.64 and performance=0.70 respectively).

Data collection and procedure

Copies of an introduction letter were obtained by the researcher from the Head of Department of Business Administration, University of Lagos. The letter enabled the researcher to access the focal organisations and establish contacts with some senior managers in each of them as well as the Security and Exchange Commission. With the aid of two research assistants and these managers, copies of the questionnaire were directly administered and retrieved from the respondents.

Methods of data analyses

The data collected from the respondents through the questionnaires, were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 14 after they had been appropriately coded. Also:

a) Descriptive statistics, involving simple percentages, pie and bar charts were used in analyzing the annual accounts and respondents' biographical data.
b) Hypotheses, about correlation, regression (multiple and simple) were tested and t-test were carried out.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSES, AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter focused on the presentation, analysis and interpretations of data collected the surveys, interviews and financial statements analysis, mostly in the form of tables. Some of the tables provide biographical information, while other statistics address the respective hypotheses.

Response rate analysis

A total number of six hundred and fifty (650) copies of questionnaire were distributed to the respondents. However, three hundred and thirty three (333) copies were returned, with three hundred (300) found usable. The return rate of 51% is in line with those of similar studies (Hammond, Gresch and Vitale, 2011).

Table 4.1 Response Rate analysis

	Total copies of questionnaire administered	**Total copies of questionnaire found usable**	**Percentage (%)**
Company : GSKM	100	47	47
Company :PZ	130	64	49
Company: FIRST BANK	200	64	32
Company: ROYAL EXCAHNGE ASS	150	90	60
Company: EQUITY ASSURANCE	70	35	50
Total	650	300	51

Source: Researcher, 2012

Descriptive Data Analyses

The data on the pre and post change performance indicators were obtained from between 8-10 years' annual reports of the focal organisations. For company A (Royal Exchange Assurance Plc), the pre-change years were from 2001-2005, while the post-change years were from 2007-2010. 2000-2004 and 2007-2010 constitute the pre-and post-change years respectively for company B (Unilever Nig Plc). For Company C (GlaxoSmithKline Plc), the pre-change period was between 1999 and 2004, while the post change years were from 2006-2010. Company D's (PZ Cussons Nig Plc) pre-change years was between 1999 and 2005, while the post-change years were from 2007-2011. Company E's (First Bank Group) pre-and post-change years were 1999-2003 and 2006-2010 respectively.

From tables, 4.2.1a and 4.2.1b (see appendix), the pre-change average percentage growth in sales for company A (Royal Exchange Assurance) was 45%, while that of the post change period was 2.3%. The average return on assets 1 and 2 were 9.5%, 7.5% and 2.3% and 2.5% respectively, while the pre-and post-change average earnings and dividend per share were 22k, 12.5k and -10k and 224k respectively.

Tables 4.2.2a and 4.2.2b (see appendix) revealed that the pre-and post-change average percentage growth in sales for company B (Unilever plc) were 26.25% and 16.75% respectively. The return on assets 1 and 2 averaged 37.25%, 33.5% and 62.5% and 41.55 for the same period. Equally, the average pre-and post-change earnings and dividend per share were 52.25k, 105k and 43.25k and 160.25k respectively.

For company 3 (GlaxoSmithKline Plc), as depicted in tables 4.2.3a and 4.2.3b, (see appendix), the pre-change percentage growth in sales, return on assets, 1 and 2, earnings and dividend per share stood at 30.25%, 33.4%, 22.8%, 38.4k and 17.6k respectively, while the corresponding post- change figures were 13.25%, 18.2%, 13.2%, 124.8k and 77.4k.

Tables 4.4a and 4.4b (see appendix) showed that company D's (PZ) pre-change averages for percentage growth in sales, return on assets 1 and 2, earnings and dividend per share, were 26%, 13%, 9.45, 73.8k and 61.4k respectively. On the other hand, the average post-change figures for these measures were 9.75% 17.2%, 12.4%, 143.6k and 74.6k respectively.

The performance indicators for company E (First bank group),as depicted in the tables 4.2.5a and 4.2.5b (see appendix) revealed that the pre and post change averages for percentage growth in sales, return on assets 1 and 2, earnings and dividend per share were 27.5% and 37.5%, 3% and 3%, 2.4% and 1.8%, 326.8kand 198.4k and 109.6k and 277.5k respectively.

Table 4.3.1: Sex distribution

Sex	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Male	167	54
Female	138	46
Total	300	100

From table 4.3.1 above, out of the 300 respondents, 162 (54%) of them were males while 138 (46%) were females. There was a fair representation of both sexes in this study.

Table 4.3.2: Age distribution

Range	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
18 – 25	33	11
20 – 33	117	39
34 – 41	81	27
42 – 49	51	17
50 and above	18	6
Total	300	100

The result of the age analysis displayed in the table above revealed that 33 (11%) of the respondents were between 18 and 25 years old, 117 (39%) of them fell within the 26-33 age bracket, 81(27%) of them were between 34-41 years old, 51(17%) of them fell within

the 42-49 age bracket while 18(6%) were in the 50 and above fifty age bracket. The survey thus covered all the working age groups. Therefore, data collected from it can be considered comprehensive and reliable for the study.

Table 4.3.3: Martial Status Distribution

Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Single	99	33
Married	191	63
Separated	7	2
Divorced	3	2
Total	300	100

The table above showed that 99 of the respondents were single, 191 were married, 7 were separated while 3 of them were divorcees. Again, the survey covered all the relevant employees' age barracks in the focal Organisations. This will no doubt, increase the reliability of this study.

Table 4.3.4: Qualification Distribution

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
WASC/GCE	3	1
OND	24	8
HND	48	16
B.SC.	105	35
PG	120	40
Total	300	100

From the table as depicted 4.3.4 above, 3(1%) of the respondents possessed the west African/ General certificate of education (O/L), 24(8%) had Ordinary National Diploma (OND) as their highest qualification, 48(16%) possessed the Higher National Diploma (HND), 105(35%) of them were with first degree (B.Sc.) as their highest qualification while 120 (40%) possessed post Graduate qualifications. The qualification distribution

revealed that the respondents were highly qualified to understand and provide relevant answers to the questions in the questionnaires.

Table 4.3.5: Tenure Distribution

Employee's Length of Service	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1 – 5	112	32
6 – 11	86	29
12 – 17	64	21
18 – 23	26	9
24and above	12	4
Total	300	100

The table above revealed that 112 of the respondents have spent between 1 and 5 years in their respective Organisations, 86 of them have spent between 6 and 11 years , 64 of them have spent between 12 and 17 years while 26 and 12 of them have spent between 18-23 and above 24 years in their respective Organisations. The tenure distribution revealed that the respondents have had long working experiences in the respective Organisations. This will predispose to provide information which assures the reliability of the survey.

Table 4.3.6: Job Title Distribution

Title	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Non-Managers	87	29
Supervisors	45	15
Middle Managers	132	44
Senior Managers	27	9
General Managers	6	2
Total	300	100

The job title distribution as shown in the table revealed that 87(29%) of the respondents were non managers, 45(15%) of them were supervisors, 132 (44%) of them were in the

middle management level, 27(9%) of them were senior managers while 6(2%) and3 (1%) were general managers and directors in their respective Organisations. The job title distribution showed that all categories of employees were sufficiently represented in the survey. The import of this is that the data and the attendant information will be robust to enhance the reliability of the survey.

Table 4.3.7: Change Programme Distribution

Title	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Organisation-wide Restructuring	178	59
Departmental Restructuring	40	13
Business Process Restructuring	42	14
Six-Sigma	30	10
Others	10	4
Total	300	100

The above table represents respondents' perception about the nature of change their Organisations have embarked upon in recent years. (Entire Organisational restructuring=178, Department restructuring=40, Business process re-engineering BPR =42, Six Sigma=30, others=10). The above change programme distribution revealed that all the focal Organisations have undergone various forms of change programme. This has served to increase the reliability of the survey. This is because they are all conversant with the topic of inquiry.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis, one to three were tested suing t- statistics while hypotheses four five and six were tested using correlation and regression analysis. To test hypotheses, four, five and six, there was the need for a test of correlation or relationships among the selected variables of leadership, communication, participation and Organisational performance (successful change outcomes). Since the data sets were large, there was the need for a reduction using factor analysis, to achieve a more manageable size while retaining the

original information as much as possible. Fields (2009) posits that by reducing data sets from a group of interrelated variables to a smaller set of factors, factor analysis achieves parsimony by explaining the maximum amount of common variance in a correlation matrix, using the smallest number of explanatory constructs. The result of the factor analyses are reported below:

Table 4.4.1: **KMO and Bartlett's test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.618
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	252.722
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

Source: Researcher, 2013

Table4.4.1 above revealed that the Kiaser-Meyer measure of sampling adequacy for the leadership construct is 0.618. This score exceeds the 0.5 score minimum recommended and suggests an adequate correlation between the individual items in the leadership construct (Kaiser, 1974). **(**Led 1 = envisioning, Led 2 = enabling Led 3 = trust, Led 4 = credibility, Led 5 = empowerment, Led 6 = planning skills and led 7 = empathy).

Table 4.4.1b**: Communalities**

	Initial	Extraction
LED1	1.000	.789
LED2	1.000	.503
LED3	1.000	.604
LED4	1.000	.509
LED5	1.000	.714
LED6	1.000	.734
LED7	1.000	.746

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The communalities table extracted through the principal component analysis showed that item 1 (**Led** 1) shared 79% of the variance with other items in the leadership constructs,

Led 2 shared 50% with others; **Led** 3 shared 60% of the total variance with others; and **Led** 4,5, 6 &7) shared 51%,71%, 73% and 75% respectively with others in the construct.

Table 4.4.1c: **Total Variance Explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings(a)
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	2.188	31.251	31.251	2.188	31.251	31.251	1.641
2	1.287	18.386	49.637	1.287	18.386	49.637	1.596
3	1.125	16.065	65.701	1.125	16.065	65.701	1.635
4	.803	11.473	77.174				
5	.651	9.297	86.471				
6	.480	6.859	93.329				
7	.467	6.671	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The total variance explained in the table above revealed that: item 1 (**Led** 1) ,with an eigenvalue of 2.188, accounted for 31% of the total variance explained by the extracted component; **Led** 2, with an eigenvalue, of 1.287 accounted for 18% of the total variance explained and **Led** 3 with an eigenvalue of 1.125 accounted for16% of the total variance explained by the extracted component. **Led** 4,5,6 and 7 accounted for 11%, 9%, 7% and 7% respectively. However, the eigenvalues of each of them is less than 1. In line with Kaiser criterion, three items, **Led** 1, **Led** 2 and **Led** 3 are retained because they have eigenvalues equal or higher than 1. In this connection, envisioning and enabling, trust and integrity jointly define the leadership construct.

Table 4.4.2a: **KMO and Bartlett's test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.798
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	602.165
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

Source: Researcher, 2013

From the Table above, the Kaiser-Meyer measure of sampling adequacy for the communication construct is 0.798. This is a good value, suggesting that adequate correlation exists between the individual items contained in the construction construct. (Chacom 1= provision of relevant and timely information, Chacom 2= Selective communication, Chacomm 3= Role communication, Chaco 4= Vision communication, Chacom 5= Open communication, Chacom 6= communicating the reason for change and Chacom 7= Knowledge sharing).

Table 4.4.2b**: Communalities**

	Initial	Extraction
CHACOMM1	1.000	.149
CHACOMM2	1.000	.387
CHACOMM3	1.000	.431
CHACOMM4	1.000	.530
CHACOMM5	1.000	.676
CHACOMM6	1.000	.622
CHACOMM7	1.000	.551

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The communalities Table above extracted through the principal component analysis revealed that the proportion of variance that item 1 (**Chacomm** 1) has in common with other items is 15%. For item 2 (**Chacomm** 2), it is 38%; for item 3 (**Chammo** 3) it is 43%; for (**Chacomm** 4) , it is 53%. While it is 67%, 62% and 55% for items5, 6, and 7 (**Chacomm** 5, **Chacomm** 6 & **Chacomm** 7) respectively.

Table 4.4.2c: **Total Variance Explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.346	47.802	47.802	3.346	47.802	47.802
2	.984	14.059	61.861			
3	.860	12.287	74.148			
4	.708	10.118	84.266			

5	.439	6.267	90.533			
6	.360	5.145	95.678			
7	.303	4.322	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The total variance explained in the Table above revealed that item 1 (**Chacomm** 1) had an eigenvalue of 3.346 and accounted for 47% of the variance explained by the extracted component. **Chacomm** 2 accounted for 14% of the total variance by the extracted component, with an eigenvalue of 0.860 and **Chacomm** 3 accounted for 12% of the total variance by the extracted component with an eigenvalue of 0.860. On the other hand, items,4, 5, 6 and 7 (**Chacomm** 4-7) accounted for 10%, 6%, 5 % and 4% of the total variance explained by the extracted respectively with eigenvalues of less than 1 for each of them. Since Kaiser criterion suggests a retention of those factors with eigenvalues equal or higher than 1, only item 1 (**Chacomm** 1) is retained. Thus, the provision of timely and relevant information to those directly concerned with change defines the communication construct.

Table 4.4 .3a: **KMO and Bartlett's test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.800
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	323.326
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

Source: Researcher, 2013

From the Table above, the Kaiser-Meyer measure of sampling adequacy for the participation is 0.8. This is greater than the 0.5 minimum and suggests the existence of an adequate correlation between the individual items in the participation construct. (Par 1= empowerment, Par 2= shared leadership, Par 3= involvement in decision making, Par 4= openness, Par 5 = training and development, Par 6 = extensive involvement and Par 7 = change ownership)

Table 4.4.3b: **Communalities**

	Initial	Extraction
PAR1	1.000	.575
PAR2	1.000	.545
PAR3	1.000	.501
PAR4	1.000	.312
PAR5	1.000	.804
PAR6	1.000	.445
PAR7	1.000	.613

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The communalities Table extracted through the principal component analysis revealed that the proportion of variance that **Par** 1 shared with other construct items is 58%; **Par** 2 shared 55% of the total variance with others; **Par** 3 shared 50% ,while **Par** 4, 5, 6 and 7 shared 31%, 80%, 45% and 61% respectively of the total variance jointly with others.

Table 4.4.3c: **Total Variance Explained**

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings(a)
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	2.742	39.168	39.168	2.742	39.168	39.168	2.694
2	1.053	15.042	54.210	1.053	15.042	54.210	1.200
3	.829	11.849	66.058				
4	.725	10.359	76.417				
5	.633	9.049	85.466				
6	.532	7.603	93.069				
7	.485	6.931	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The total variance explained in the Table above revealed that **Par** 1, with an eigenvalue of 2.742, accounted for 39% of the total variance explained by the extracted component; **Par** 2, with an eigenvalue of 1.053, accounted for 15% of the total variance explained.

Par 3, 4,5 6, and 7 accounted for 12%, 10%, 9%, 8% and 7% respectively of the total variance explained by the extracted component. However, the eigenvalues of each of them is less than 1. In line with Kaiser Criterion, three items, **Par** 1, and **Par** 2 are retained because they have eigenvalues equal or higher than 1. This suggests that empowerment for decision making and shared leadership jointly defines the participation construct.

Table 4.4 .4a: **KMO and Bartlett's test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	729.412
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

Source: Researcher, 2013

From the Table above, the Kaiser-Meyer measure of sampling adequacy for the performance construct is 0.845 greater than the 0.5 minimum. This is a good value, suggesting that adequate correlation exists between the individual items contained in the performance construct. (Per 1= profitability, Per 2= service improvements, Par 3= efficiency improvements, Per 4= flexibility improvements, Per 5= collaboration improvements, Per 6= quality improvements and Per 7= increased productivity).

Table 4.4.4b: **Communalities**

	Initial	Extraction
PEF1	1.000	.526
PEF2	1.000	.506
PEF3	1.000	.643
PEF4	1.000	.580
PEF5	1.000	.606
PEF6	1.000	.516
PEF7	1.000	.451

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The communalities Table above, extracted through the principal component analysis, revealed that the proportion of variance that **Per** 1 has in common with other items is 53%. For **Per 2,** it is 50%; for **Per** 3, it is 64%; and 58% for **Per** 4, while it is 61%, 52% and 45% for **Per**, 5, 6, and 7 respectively.

Table 4 .4.4c: Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.828	54.690	54.690	3.828	54.690	54.690
2	.772	11.028	65.718			
3	.674	9.630	75.348			
4	.579	8.274	83.622			
5	.516	7.369	90.991			
6	.351	5.011	96.002			
7	.280	3.998	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Researcher, 2013

The total variance explained Table revealed that **Per** 1,with an eigenvalue of 3.828 , accounted for 55% of the variance explained by the extracted component. **Per** 2 accounted for 11% of the total variance by the extracted component with an eigenvalue of 0.772, while **Per** 3 accounted for 10% of the variation explained. On the other hand, items 4, 5, 6 and 7 (**Per** 4-7) accounted for 8%, 7%, 5 % and 4% of the total variance explained by the extracted component respectively with eigenvalues of less than 1 for each of them. Since Kaiser Criterion suggests the retention of those factors with eigenvalues equal or higher than 1, only item 1 (**Per 1**) is retained. Therefore, profit defines the performance construct.

Hypothesis One**: Organisational change does not result in significant increase in sales.**

Table 4.5: Paired samples (pre and post performance indicators) t-test results

Pair	t-statistics	Probability value	Remarks
Growth indicators			
Company A			
Pre and post growth rate in sales	-0.5821	0.6014	Not significant
Company B			
Pre and post growth rate in sales	1.0694	0.3633	Not significant
Company C			
Pre and post growth rate in sales	0.9155	0.4275	Not significant
Company D			
Pre and post growth rate in sales	0.899	0.4349	Not significant
Company E			
Pre and post growth rate in sales	0.899	0.4349	Not significant

Evidence from table 4.5 above indicated that there was no significant difference in the pre-and post-change growth indicators. For company A, the t-statistic = -0.5821, Probability Value=.6014; For company B, t-statistics=1.0694, Probability Value=0.3633; For company C, t-statistics=0.9155, Probability Value=0.4275; For company D, t-statistics=0.899, Probability Value=0.4349; For company E, t-statistics=0.899, Probability Value=0.4349. Hypothesis one is therefore accepted. Hence, Organisational change does not lead to significant increase in sales volume.

Hypothesis Two: **Organisational change will not lead to relatively higher profits.**

Table 4.6: Paired samples (pre and post performance indicators) t-test results

Pair	t-statistics	Probability value	Remarks
Profitability indicators			
Company A			
Pre and post return on asset (1)	0	1	Not significant
Pre and post return on asset (2)	1.5	0.208	Not significant
Company B			
Pre and post return on asset (1)	-4.6572	0.0187	Significant
Pre and post return on asset (2)	-1.1973	0.3172	Not significant
Company C			

Pre and post return on asset (1)	1.6802	0.1682	Not significant
Pre and post return on asset (2)	1.5582	0.1942	Not significant
Company D			
Pre and post return on asset (1)	-3.3845	0.0277	Significant
Pre and post return on asset (2)	-1.5811	0.189	Not significant
Company E			
Pre and post return on asset (1)	0	1	Not significant
Pre and post return on asset (2)	1.5	0.208	Not significant

Table 4.6 above revealed that the differences in the profit indicators for the pre -and post-change years were insignificant, except for company B's and D's ROA1. (company A: ROA1, t-statistics 1=0, Probability Value=1 ROA 2, t-statistics =1.5. Probability Value=0.208, Company B:ROA1, t-statistics =-4.6572, Probability Value=0.0187,ROA2, t-statistics=-1.1973, Probability Value=0.3172, Company C: ROA1 t- statistics =1.6802,Probability Value=0.1682, ROA2, t- statistics =1.5582, Probability Value =0.1942, Company D: ROA1,t-statistics=-3.3845, Probability Value=0,0277, ROA2, t-statistics= -1.5811, Probability Value=0.189, Company E: ROA1, t-statistics=0, Probability Value=1,ROA2t- statistics=1.5, Probability Value=0.208). This implies that there was no significance in post-interest and tax return on assets, while the pre-interest and tax return on assets was mixed. Since most of the results were insignificant, hypothesis two is accepted.

Hypothesis three: **Organisational change will not impact positively on shareholders' wealth**

Table 4.7: Paired samples (pre and post performance indicators) t-test results

Pair	t-statistics	Probability value	Remarks
Shareholder's wealth indicators			
Company A			
Pre and post earnings per share	2.6155	0.0591	Not significant
Pre and post dividend per share	-0.0805	0.9397	Not significant
Company B			
Pre and post earnings per share	-1.3983	0.2565	Not significant
Pre and post dividend per share	-5.1876	0.0139	Significant

Company C			
Pre and post earnings per share	-3.1123	0.0358	Significant
Pre and post dividend per share	-6.3841	0.0031	Significant
Company D			
Pre and post earnings per share	-6.7911	0.0025	Significant
Pre and post dividend per share	-1.1231	0.3243	Not significant
Company E			
Pre and post earnings per share	2.6155	0.0591	Not significant
Pre and post dividend per share	-0.0805	0.9397	Not significant

From the results in table 4.7 above, it can be seen that there were both post-change positive and no impact on shareholders wealth. This is because changes in Earnings and dividend per share were significant for company C and dividend per share was significant for company D. In contrast, these were insignificant for companies, A,B and E respectively. (company A: EPS, t- statistics= 2.6155, Probability Value=0.0591,DPS t-statistics=-0.0805, Probability Value=0.9397, Company B:EPS,t-statistics=-1.3983,Probability Value=0.2565,DPS, t- statistics=-5.1876,Probability Value=0.0139, Company C: EPS, t- statistics=-3.1123,Probability Value=0.0358,DPS, t- statistics=-6.3841,Probability Value=0.0031, Company D: EPS, t- statistics=-6.7911, Probability Value=0.0025, DPS, t-statistics=-1.1231, Probability Value=0.3243, Company E: EPS, t-statistics=2.6155, Probability Value=0.0591,DPS,t- statistics=-0.0805, Probability Value=0.9397). Based on the result of the analysis, hypothesis three is accepted.

To test hypotheses four, five and six there is first the need to establish that a correlation exist, between and among the variables.

Table 4.8: Correlations

		FAC_CHACOMM	FAC_LED1	FAC_LED2	FAC_LED3	FAC_PAR1	FAC_PAR2	FAC_PER
FAC_CHACOM	Pearson Correlation	1	.304(**)	.489(**)	-.271(**)	.412(**)	.316(**)	.404(**)
FAC_LED1	Pearson Correlation	.304(**)	1	.144(*)	-.093	.205(**)	.326(**)	.288(**)
FAC_LED2	Pearson Correlation	.489(**)	.144(*)	1	-.173(**)	.352(**)	.073	.274(**)
FAC_LED3	Pearson Correlation	-.271(**)	-.093	-.173(**)	1	-.213(**)	-.331(**)	-.455(**)
FAC_PAR1	Pearson Correlation	.412(**)	.205(**)	.352(**)	-.213(**)	1	.130(*)	.533(**)
FAC_PAR2	Pearson Correlation	.316(**)	.326(**)	.073	-.331(**)	.130(*)	1	.256(**)
FAC_PER	Pearson Correlation	.404(**)	.288(**)	.274(**)	-.455(**)	.533(**)	.256(**)	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher, 2013

Evidence from Table 4.8 above, shows that there is significant relationship between change communication and all measures of leadership (r=.304, 0.489 and 0.27; respectively) change communication exhibited positive and significant correlation with measures of participation (r=0.412 and 0.316; p< 0.01). Communication also exhibited significant relationship with performance measure (r=0.404; p<0.01) Similarly, all measures of leadership exhibited significant relationships with participation measures r=0.352 and 0.326; 0.352; -0.213 and -0.331; p<0.01 respectively,) and performance (r =0.288,0.274, -0.455; p<0.01). On the other hand, performance measure exhibited significant relation with measures of participation (r=0.533, 0.256; p<0.01). Thus there is

a significant relationship between successful change management and organisational performance.

Simple linear regression equations were used in testing hypotheses four and five in forms of : y= bxn + a

Hypothesis Four: **There is no significant evidence that change will improve Organisational flexibility**

Table 4.9: Simple Linear Regression Result

Model Summary (b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.445(a)	.198	.189	.90055747

a Predictor: (Constant), CHANGE

b Dependent Variable: FAC PER4 (FLEXIBILITY)

Source: Researcher, 2013

A simple linear regression is fitted as exhibited in table 4.9 above. The value of R (0.445) is positive indicating a positive relationship between Organisational change and flexibility. To this end, Organisational change has the potential of improving Organisational flexibility. Thus, hypothesis four is rejected.

Hypothesis Five: **Change will not enhance Organisational collaboration**

Table 4.10: Simple Linear Regression Result

Model Summary (b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.456(a)	.208	.193	.89841556

a Predictor: (Constant), CHANGE

b Dependent Variable: FAC_PER5 (COLLABORATION)

Source: Researcher, 2013

A simple linear regression is equally fitted as exhibited in table 4.10 above. As can be observed from the table above, the value of R is 0.544, indicating that organisational change will enhance organisational collaboration. Hypothesis five is therefore rejected. This therefore suggests that effective change will enhance organisational collaboration.

Hypothesis six**: The synergies from the systematic management of the leadership, communication and participatory aspects of change will not improve the success rate.**

To test hypothesis six, a multiple regression analysis was employed since it is appropriate in analyzing the combined effects of independent variables on the dependent variable (McMillan and Schumacher; 2001). Thus, multiple regression of the form:

y = bx1 + bx2 bx3…….bxn + a

Was used to establish the combined effects of the independents variable of leadership, communication and participation on the dependent variable of Organisational performance (successful change outcomes).

bx1…….bxn = Regression co-efficient (standard beta)

x1 = Leadership (led)

x2 = Communication (com)

x3 = Participation (par)

Successful change (y) =b(led) +b (com) + b(par)

Table 4.11: Multiple Regression Result

Model Summary (b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.662(a)	.439	.426	.75811137

a Predictors: (Constant), FAC_PAR, FAC_LED, FAC_CHACOMM

b Dependent Variable: FAC_PER

Source: Researcher, 2013

A multiple regression as fitted in the Table 4.11 above, showed that there is a (positive) relationship between successful change outcomes, as indicated by an R value of 0.662. Since a positive value of R and adjusted R implies a positive relationship, hypothesis six is rejected. The table reveals that 43 % (R-Square =0.426) of variations in successful change outcomes can be explained by the synergistic effects of leadership, communication and participation. Thus, success of change efforts can be improved by the synergies from the systematic management of the leadership, communication and the participatory aspects.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Introduction

This last chapter of this works summaries the major findings of the study, the conclusions and recommendations. In addition areas for further studies will be dealt with.

Summary of Findings

The under listed are the main findings of this study:

i) There was no significant change in sales growth rate as a result of Organisational change efforts in all the focal organisations. In absolute terms, changes in sales may appear significant, but may not be so in relative terms.

ii) The differences in the profit indicators for the pre-and post-change years were insignificant, except for companies B's and D's return on asset 1(ROA1).

iii) iii). There are both post change positive and no impacts on shareholders' wealth. This is because changes in earnings and dividend per share are significant for company C and Dividend per share was significant for company D. In contrast, all measures were insignificant for companies A, B and E respectively.

iv) Organisational change has the potential of enhancing organisational flexibility

v) The success of change effort is enhanced when managers and change leaders tap the synergies from systematic management of the leadership skills and behaviours, communication and participatory dimensions in managing the change process.

vi) Change programmes are likely to be successful and enhance organisational prosperity when managers/leaders with high credibility set the right vision for change, align organisational members towards the change vision, and provide the necessary support both collectively and individually.

vii) Change will be successful and organisations will prosper when organisational leaders provide information that create employee change readiness, are useful and timely before, during and after the change.

viii) Employee's participation and not mere consultant is essential in enhancing the success of change efforts so as to improve organisational performance.

ix) Change is likely to thrive in an organisation characterised by climate of empowerment and low power distance.

Discussions on Findings

The findings of hypothesis one showed that there was significant change in sales growth due to organisational change. Since change may involve more investments, the absolute increase sales may not be relatively significant. However, managers hide under the canopy of an absolute increase in sales to justify change efforts. This is in line with the findings of Guimaraes and Bond (1996) who in a study of 586 American manufacturing firms concluded that BPR had a less than an impressive impact on company performance

The findings in hypothesis two revealed that the differences in profit indicators for pre- and post change years were insignificant, except for companies B's and D's return on

asset1. Although, increase in profitability is one of the cardinal objectives of all change efforts there has been mixed findings on the impact of change on it. Aregbeyen (2011) reported that BPR significantly improved the profitability performance of first Bank, while Guimaraes and Bond (1996) found a no improvements in profitability performance due to BPR.

The findings in hypothesis three revealed that organisational change has no significant impact on shareholders' wealth. This is because changes in earnings and dividend per share are significant for company C and Dividend per share was significant for company D. In contrast, all measures were insignificant for companies A, B and E respectively. This is in contrast with the findings of Trinh and O'Connor (2002) who in a study of the influence of strategic change on urban hospitals performance in USA found that changes in market share, operational efficiency and financial performance were caused by strategic change.

The findings in hypotheses four and five revealed that organisational change has the potential of improving organisational flexibility and inter departmental collaboration. The values of R=.445 and R= .450 respectively indicated that change has the potentials of positively affecting flexibility and collaboration. This is due to the fact that most change initiatives try to break down chaotic individualism by departments or units thereby increasing collaboration and flexibility.

The findings in hypothesis six showed that 67% (R=.662) variations in change outcomes can be explained by the synergistic effects of leadership, communication and participation. However, 43% (R square=.426) of the variations can be solely attributable to the synergistic effects of these variables. Though, the 43% variations in change outcomes attributable to the proposed model may appear to be low, it is indeed a good result. This in view of the fact that the current success rate is 30% (Burnes, 2005; Isern and Pung,2006).

As depicted by the model (see appendix), changes in any of the environmental variables may individually or jointly motivate organisational change. The success of the change effort will depend on the ability of managers and their representatives to stimulate readiness for change (discrepancy, efficacy, appropriateness, principal support and personal valence), provide timely and adequate, (quantity and quality) implementation and post implementation information. Furthermore, employees must be actively involved in the decision making process before, during and after the change programme. All these should be complemented with appropriate leadership behaviours of envisionment, enablement, credibility, and trust.

Diagnosis of the need for and nature of change

Change should begin when any of the environmental forces provide the needed signal. Top management should lead the diagnosis process in conjunction with all the employees where possible. However, where total participation is not feasible, a committee should be set up to handle the job. The signal should be appropriately interpreted so as to institute the right change. Information about how the company will be adversely affected by failure to institute the change should be made available. There should, therefore, be reasonable agreement that it is the change is desirable and the most appropriate.

Organisational assessment

Here, an attempt should be made to genuinely determine the resources required for change vis-à-vis those currently possessed by the organisation. The immediate needs for the effective take-off of the change should be determined and where they are not readily available, urgent actions should be taken to improvise. In addition, arrangement should be made to provide all the resources required for successful change implementation.

Vision and objectives setting

The diagnosis and organisational assessment stages provide the basis for vision and objective setting. Employees will be further motivated by a picture of the organisation after the transformation. Individuals should see where their career interests are best served in the vision, otherwise, skepticism sets in. Besides, short-term objectives should be set to provide support that the change is on track. This will serve to renew motivation when they are achieved.

Empowerment for implementation

At this stage, management should do their best to provide the needed resources in terms of human, money and materials. In addition, adjustment should be made in the administration systems, structures and human resources systems to support the change. Short term training and development, as well as employees' deployment or appointment, may also be required.

M**easuring and celebrating short term wins**

This is a crucial stage in the change process. The ability to achieve short term targets and celebration are pointers that employees' efforts and management support are in the right direction. This will provide the needed impetus to complete the entire process.

Strengthening the change process

The achievement and celebration of short-term wins will provide the needed impetus to fully implement the change across board. More resources will be justifiably requested and provided to further consolidate the change process. More support will equally come from the doubting Thomases' who have been skeptical about the entire change process.

Internalization of the change outcomes

This last stage tries to internalise the change benefits through the development of appropriate systems, process and supporting culture.

The novelty of this proposed model lies in the fact that genuine participation, credibility and trust, as well as effective change communication, is a necessary condition for a successful change management effort. The inability of change leaders or agents to provide these ingredients will inevitably frustrate the change efforts and, at best, sub-optimal results will be achieved.

Conclusions

Organisational change is a journey into the unknown. To this end, it evokes fear, cynicisms, uncertainty and despair. These negative perceptions, notwithstanding, change is a *sine qua non* for organisational survival and prosperity in the modern business world of increased turbulence and complexity. So, instead of lamentations, organisations are better off when leaders develop effective skills and strategies for managing change.

The main conclusion that can be drawn from this study is that the existing frameworks for change management have failed to deliver as promised. There is, therefore, the need for an integrated management approach for the achievement of the desired results. Consequently, managers, wishing to succeed in this venture, must simultaneously manage the leadership, communication and participatory aspects of change. The success of the change programmes depends much on the ability of management to create a conducive atmosphere for it. This will ensure that both parties maintain a positive attitude throughout the period of the change and beyond.

The high failure rates of change programmes are attributable to the piece meal approach adopted by change managers who rely singularly on one dimension of participation, leadership or change communication, to the neglect of other dimensions. In addition, these dimensions are often poorly implemented. Regarding leadership, management lacks the credibility to truly engage organisational members in a genuine dialogue. This is because employees' memories are full of records of broken promises by management.

Participation wise, employees would naturally support a change programme which they see as their own, having been fully involved in the diagnosis, implementation, review and evaluation processes. However the efficacy of this motivational tool is diminished as employees are at best consulted under the guise of participation. Three main reasons account for this: firstly, management hide under the fact that the nature of the environmental pressures and time constraints for change may not permit participation in most cases especially in the diagnosis stage. Secondly, most Nigerian organisations are still highly power-structured and the high-power distance leads top management to erroneously believe that they are in the best position to diagnose and provide solutions to organisational problems. The lower level managers and non managerial employees are mere "order or decision takers". Thirdly, most employees in these categories lack the requisite skills and knowledge to effectively participate in the process. Presumably, this is to perpetuate the high power distance.

Communication is highly desirable in all stages of the change process. However, change communications in the focal organisations are largely one-way types. This is characterised by a one day management broadcast of the change vision, objectives, strategies and performance measurements. As expected, change vision, objectives are displayed in pamphlets, displays in strategic locations, among others. However, the effectiveness of these tools is diminished due to their broadcast nature.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions and findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. The present 'piecemeal' approach to managing Organisational change should be replaced with the systems approach. Top management should emphasise the inter linkages and dependencies between leadership, communication and participation. This will no doubt increase the chances of Organisational change succeeding.

2. Change leaders should establish change visions which are clear, understandable and motivating. Furthermore, efforts should be made to enable stakeholders see the link between the change vision and the entire Organisational vision, mission and objectives.

3. Before change programmes, management should deliver on her promises so as to establish a track record of credibility required for earning stakeholders' trust during change.

4. Since the belief in the abilities of top management is a prerequisite for stakeholders' buy-in, management must clear all doubts about the efficacy and appropriateness through the exhibition of high levels of competencies and skills to convince stakeholders that the decision on the change is based on sound analysis and judgment.

5. Open communications through dialogue should be encouraged in all Organisations before, during and after change. Management should lay emphasis on continuous communication to clear issues that might arise daily, concerning the change programme and report on short term achievements.

7 Targeted messages and information that are timely and adequate should be tailored to the stakeholders. This should mostly be done through face to face communication.

8 To all intents and purposes, top management must exhibit positive and total commitment to the change programme through words and actions. Lack of total buy-in from top management will send wrong signals that will frustrate the change process. While it might not be feasible to involve all employees in the diagnosis of the need for change, a cross-functional team should be set up to develop implementation strategies. Members of the team should be drawn from relevant departments and should include employees who are not sectional or departmental heads. Decisions and conclusions reached should be shared in appropriate departmental and sectional meetings. After the change has been set in motion, the team should meet periodically

to review the extent of objectives achievement and discuss challenges in change implementation.

9 Often most change programmes may involve costs, and management should appropriately fund such so as to provide needed materials, tools, rewards and other requirements.

10 Organisation's management should lay emphasis on employees training and development to increase such skills and abilities that will enable them participate fully in the change process.

11 The high-power distance and authority structure in most Organisations should be replaced with a climate that encourages empowerment, genuine participation and not consultation.

12 There is the need for leaders to "walk" the "talk" of the change. This can be done by showing practical leadership or leading by example.

There will never be a blueprint for the management of Organisational change. This arises from the fact that each Organisation's internal and external contexts vary, and therefore what works in one Organisation may not necessarily work in another. Change leaders are therefore admonished to see these recommendations as useful guides whose intelligent applications will serve to enhance the success of change programmes. To this end, adaptability and flexibility to take environmental and Organisational contexts into account will therefore be a critical success factor in Organisational change management.

The fact remains that change management in Nigerian Organisations will be greatly enhanced when management remove all structures, systems and policies that foster high power distance between the non managerial employees and managers on the one hand and top management and lower managers on the other hand. This will provide a conducive atmosphere for genuine dialogue to thrive. All members of the Organisation, levels notwithstanding, will engage in meaningful conversations where parties are willing

to listen to one another, reflect upon opinions and perspectives different from their own and be willing to learn in the face of superior arguments. However, this will require a lot of education for mangers to change their orientations and for lower level employees to be sufficiently equipped to assume the resultant responsibilities.

Contributions to Knowledge

These are summarized below:

- The study developed and proposed an integrated framework for implementing Organisational change to enhance its success.
- The study has contributed to the understanding of change management and Organisational performance. This is done using some selected Nigerian companies.
- The study established that communication, participation, trust and credibility are central in the effective management of Organisational change.
- The study reveals the need for a mental revolution in the mindsets of top management to improve the success rate of change implementation efforts.

Suggestions for Further Studies

Change is inevitability for Organisations in the modern day turbulent and complex business environment. Since the prosperity of Organisations and by implications are directly tied to effective change management, the current low rate of success in Organisational change efforts is a cause for concern. It is therefore suggested that continuous studies be undertaken to discover better strategies for managing and improving the success rate of change efforts. This robust model of change should be extensively applied in investigating changes in other Organisations within the manufacturing and service sectors as well as other sectors of the economy. This is to

further validate and strengthen the model. Arguably, transformations in the public sector of Nigeria has met with little success, this model should be used in managing future changes in this sector.

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Appendices

Table 4.2.1a: ROYAL EXCHANGE ASSURANCE NIG PLC (PRE-CHANGE YEARS)

YEAR	SALES (TURNOVER) #'000	TOTAL ASSET	PROFIT BEFORE TAX	PROFIT AFTER TAX	%GROWTH IN SALES	RETURN ON ASSET (1)	RETURN ON ASSET (2)	EARNINGS PER SHARE	DIVIDEND PER SHARE
2001	384,588	1,458,126	196,764	153,530		13	11	28	15
2002	494,302	1,644,539	235,523	194,109	29	14	12	28	15
2004	953,669	5,321,341	308,576	258,227	92	8	5	24	15
2005	1,095,974	5,418,611	171,908	133,549	15	3	2	8	5
AVERAGE					45	9.5	7.5	22	12.5

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2005) Fact Book

Table 4.2.1b: ROYAL EXCHANGE ASSURANCE NIG PLC (POST-CHANGE YEARS)

2007	3,097,268	15,332,786	775,405	647,142		5	4	16	355
2008	3,314,953	12,307,253	-119,391	932,832	7	-1	3	-66	165
2009	3,645,594	14,402,475	337,122	160,070	10	2	1	4	193
2010	3,267,714	13,082,278	143,692	273,406	-10	1	2	6	183
AVERAGE					2.3	2.3	2.5	-10	224

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2010) Fact book

Table 4.2.2a: UNILEVERNIG PLC (PRE-CHANGE YEARS)

YEAR	SALES (TURNOVER)	TOTAL ASSET	PROFIT BEFORE TAX	PROFIT AFTER TAX	%GROWTH IN SALES	RETURN ON ASSET (1)	RETURN ON ASSET (2)	EARNINGS PER SHARE	DIVIDEND PER SHARE
2000	11,215,046	4,165,417	1,294,780	853,992	19	31	21	28	28
2001	15,203,511	5,093,909	1,585,738	2,164,114	36	31	48	72	42
2002	19,003,356	5,390,381	2,053,089	1,571,918	25	38	29	52	50
2004	23,693,92	6,072,80	2,970,04	2,167,24	25	49	36	57	53

	3	0	7	9					
AVERAGE					26.25	37.25	33.5	52.25	43.25

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2004) Fact Book

Table 4.2.2b: UNILEVER NIG PLC (POST-CHANGE YEARS)

2007	33,990,848	5,030,844	2,013,148	1,296,533	33	40	26	28	133
2008	37,377,492	6,681,553	4,144,849	2,596,533	10	62	39	69	177
2009	44,481,277	8,202,734	5,661,052	4,093,,822	19	69	50	108	111
2010	46,807,860	8,335,227	6,151,855	4,180,620	5	79	50	217	220
AVERAGE					16.75	62.5	41.25	105.5	160.25

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2010) Fact book

Table 4.2.3a: GLAXOSMITHKLINE (PRE-CHANGE YEARS)

YEAR	SALES (TURNOVER)	TOTAL ASSET	PROFIT BEFORE TAX	PROFIT AFTER TAX	%GROWTH IN SALES	RETURN ON ASSET (1)	RETURN ON ASSET (2)	EARNINGS PER SHARE	DIVIDEND PER SHARE
1999	2,397,083	2,562,038	73,745	50,145		29	20	7	10
2000	2,644,342	2,481,519	97,066	66,005	10	39	27	8	8
2001	2,681,263	2,824,688	180,659	119,875	14	63	42	15	12
2002	40,988,758	5,423,788	783,208	497,053	14	14	9	62	22
2004	7,149,635	6,021,983	1,325,259	955,261	83	22	16	100	36
AVERAGE					30.25	33.4	22.8	38.4	17.6

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2004) Fact Book

Table 4.2.3b: GLAXOSMITHKLINE (POST-CHANGE YEARS)

2006	10,389,553	8,869,207	1,522,437	1,082,293		17	12	13	45
2007	9,915,400	8,719,161	1,166,449	836,876	-5	13	10	45	87
2008	12,545,129	9,609,995	1,851,364	1,277,440	26	19	13	134	60
2009	14,952,445	12,078,362	2,469,596	1,701,829	19	20	14	178	75
2010	16,863,533	14,737,912	3,370,886	2,461,395	13	22	17	254	120
AVERAGE					13.25	18.2	13.2	124.8	77.4

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2010) Fact book

Table 4.2.4a PZ CUSSONS NIG PLC (PRE-CHANGE YEARS)

YEAR	SALES (TURNOVER)	TOTAL ASSET	PROFIT BEFORE TAX	PROFIT AFTER TAX	%GROWTH IN SALES	RETURN ON ASSET (1)	RETURN ON ASSET (2)	EARNINGS PER SHARE	DIVIDEND PER SHARE
1999	14,662,299	11,845,091	1,177,283	851,646		10	7	59	31
2000	15,382,258	12,432,261	1,352,686	932,288	5	11	7	64	40
2001	16,089,203	15,218,466	1787337	1,270,164	5	12	8	87	45
2002	20,614,761	16,415,556	2430740	1,685,918	28	15	12	57	116
2005	34,134,609	25,067,953	4379962	3,237,173	66	17	13	102	75
AVERAGE					26	13	9.4	73.8	61.4

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2005) Fact Book

Table 4.2.4b PZ CUSSONS NIG PLC (POST-CHANGE YEARS)

2007	45,494,687	33,441,360	5,355,884	5,355,884		16	16	111	71
2008	55,239,418	36,284,610	5,980,297	3,950,935	21	16	11	124	62
2009	63,800,733	39,952,484	7,671,087	4,818,611	15	19	12	152	68
2010	62,667,910	43,700,112	7,951,448	5,301,742	-2	18	12	167	86
2011	65,877,984	46,839,270	8,025,666	5,217,530	5	17	11	164	86

AVERAGE					9.75	17.2	12.4	143.6	74.6

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2011) Fact book

Table 4.2.5a FIRST BANK PLC GROUP (PRE-CHANGE YEARS)

YEAR	SALES (TURNOVER)#'M	TOTAL ASSET	PROFIT BEFORE TAX	PROFIT AFTER TAX	%GROWTH IN SALES	RETURN ON ASSET (1)	RETURN ON ASSET (2)	EARNINGS PER SHARE	DIVIDEND PER SHARE
1999	19,962	137,869	4,,283	3,360		3	3	307	64
2000	29,757	194,744	5,367	4,739	49	3	2	346	100
2001	32,291	224,007	6,715	5,066	9	3	2	312	130
2002	46,267	290,293	6,172	4,776	43	2	2	235	104
2003	50,597	409,083	14,420	11,010	9	4	3	434	150
AVERAGE					27.5	3	2.4	326.8	109.6

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2003) Fact Book

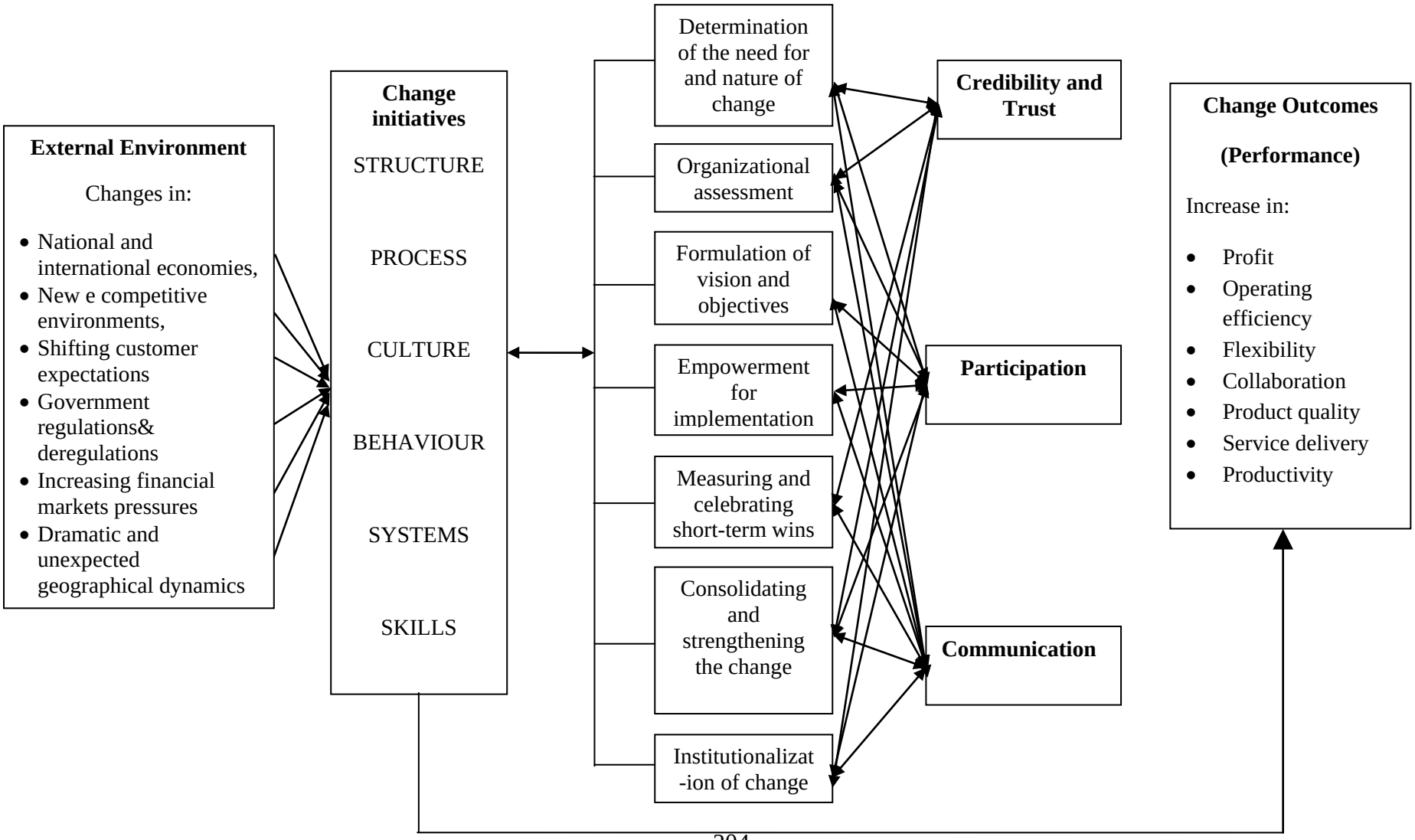
Table 4.2.5b FIRST BANK PLC GROUP (POST-CHANGE YEARS)

2006	67,440	616,824	21,833	17,383		4	3	294	100
2007	91,163	911,427	25,854	20,636	35	3	2	178	110
2008	155,725	1,528,234	47,906	36,679	70	3	2	267	120
2009	218,287	2,009.914	53,799	12, 569	40	3	1	51	135
2010	230,608	2305258	41299	33411	5	2	1	102	90
AVERAGE					37.5	3	1.8	198.4	277.5

Source: The Nigerian Stock Exchange (2010) Fact book

PROPOSED MODEL FOR MANAGING CHANGE

Figure 5.1: The proposed model for change management



SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS AKOKA

QUESTIONNIARE

Dear Sir /Madam

The researcher is a PhD student conducting a study on ‘’**Change Management and Organisational Performance in Nigerian Organisations: A study of Selected Firms in Lagos State, Nigeria.** This questionnaire is designed to provide needed data on managing change in Nigerian Organisations. I solicit your kind co-operation in filling and completing the attached questionnaire . The information provided through your response will be treated in utmost confidence and shall be used for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your anticipated co-operation.

Okonji Patrick

SECTION A : RESPONDENTS BIO-DATA

Please tick (x)

1. **Age:**

   (a) 18-25 [ ] (b) 26-33 [ ] (c) 34-41 [ ] (d) 42-49 [ ]

   (e) 50 years and above [ ]

2. **Sex:**

   (a) Male [ ] (b) Female [ ]

3. **Marital Status:**

   (a) Single [ ] (b) Married [ ] (c) Separated [ ] (d) Divorced [ ]

4. **Educational Qualification**:

   (a)W.A.EC/G.C.E [ ] (b) O.N.D [ ] (c) H.N.D [ ] (d) B.sc [ ]

   (e) Post graduate qualifications: PGD [ ] MBA [ ] M.Sc [ ] PhD [ ]

   (F) Professional qualifications: Please specify……

5. **Length Of Service;**

(a) 1- 5years [ ] (b) 6-11years [ ] (c) 12-17 years [ ] (d) 18-23 years [ ]
(e) 24 years and above [ ]

6. **What is your job title?**

(a) Non managerial employee [ ] (b) Supervisor [ ] (c) Middle manager [ ]

(d) Senior manager [ ] (e) AGM/ GM , [ ] Assistant Director/ Director [ ]

7 Which of the following change programs have your Organisation undergone?

(a) Restructuring of the entire Organisation [ ](b) Restructuring of a department[ ]

(c) Business process reengineering [ ] (d) Introduction of balance scorecard/Six Sigma [ ]

(e) Others : Please specify…….

SECTION B : Communication: Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the underlisted statements.

STATEMENTS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1 The success of change is diminished when communication about the change is 'limited ' to only those directly concerned with it.					
2 The success of change implementation is enhanced when Communications about the change are timely and relevant.					
3 The success of change efforts will be enhanced when Employees are aware of the purpose, plan and roles they are expected to play in the change process.					
4 When employees are aware of the vision , mission and strategic goals of the Organisation they are likely to be supportive of any change.					
5 The open communication of ideas during change implementation will enhance its success.					
6 Understanding why change is necessary will enhance its success.					
7 The success of change programs will be enhanced when the communication of relevant information and the sharing of knowledge in the Organisation is encouraged by management.					

SECTIONC: Leadership

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with these statements .

STATEMENTS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1 The success of change is enhanced when the leaders convince employees that the change is an opportunity to contribute to something larger than themselves.					
2 Change efforts will succeed when Managers create an atmosphere of openness, trust and shared learning.					
3 Managers and change leaders that match words with actions will likely succeed in leading change.					
4 Change efforts will likely succeed when managers demonstrate the ability to communicate and sell change to groups at all levels in the organisation.					
5 Managers who empower every one to take initiative in implementing change will likely succeed as change leaders.					
6 Managers and leaders who develop plans on how activities will be manage through the transition state will be successful in managing change initiatives.					
7 Managers and leaders who recognize the impact of change initiatives on workload, balance and plan commitment accordingly will succeed in leading change .					

SECTION D: PARTICIPATION: Please indicate your level of agreement with the underlisted statements.

STATEMENTS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1 Change efforts will be successful when people are empowered to make decisions at every level whenever possible.					
2 Collaborative leadership and decision making enhances the success of change efforts.					
3 The chances of change succeeding are higher when Managers and non managers are involved in setting Organisational goals.					
4 Change will likely be successful in an Organisation that creates an environment where people feel able to be open about how they are feeling and share their views on the change.					
5 Organisations that train and support employees to effectively carry out their duties create environments for change to thrive.					
6 Extensive participation increases motivation and makes it more likely that change will be successful.					
7 Employees will support the implementation of change when they take ownership and influence the details of the change.					

SECTION G: PERFORMANCE: Please indicate your level of agreement with the underlisted statements.

STATEMENTS	SA	A	U	DA	SD
1 Successful Organisational change will result in increased Organisational profitability.					

2 A successfully lead change will increase Organisational flexibility.					
3 Efficiency improvement is a key benefit of a successful Organisational change.					
4 One of the major benefits of a successful change program is service improvements.					
5 A successfully managed Organisational change will result in product quality improvement.					
6 Improved interdepartmental collaboration is a key benefit of a successful Organisational change.					
7 Increased employees' productivity is a mark of a successful Organisational change program.					

SECTION F:

Please describe the main challenges you faced in adjusting to the change either as a manager/Leader or subordinates

a ……

b ……

c ……

16. Please enumerate the tactics you used in coping with the above challenges

a ……

b ……

c ……

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!