Communicating
For Organisational Change

Exploring Links
Between Internal Organisational Communications
And Organisational Change In A Quality Context

Rosheen Mc Guckian, BSc, MA, Dip Marketing

Submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Dublin City University
School Of Business

February 2000

Declaration

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

Rosheen Mc Guckian

ID no. 92701531

Date _February 22, 2000_

ABSTRACT

Internal communications is identified as being a key lever of organisational change The literature consistently puts forward a comprehensive list of guidelines for communicating for change, but these guidelines tend to be prescribed universally and with no explanation given as to why a relationship between the two might exist Research was carried out to explore this relationship, using total quality as the context of organisational change

Through the findings of a questionnaire completed by 116 Irish Q Mark organisations and a series of follow-up interviews, a number of conclusions were drawn about communicating for change It was concluded that organisations do not necessarily adhere to all of the methods of communicating for change advocated in the literature and that the literature is incorrect in assuming that all communications practices are of equal importance It is also concluded that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables

By identifying two key communications approaches - 'Integrated' and 'Person-centred' communications - and charting their relative impact on organisational change to total quality, an explanation was also put forward regarding how communications can influence organisational change Integrated communications promotes open sharing of information in all directions to achieve management's change objectives, while Person-centred communications focuses more on the personal needs of employees in the organisation Person-centred communications was found to have a stronger relationship with transformational organisational change and as a result, it is argued that the relationship between communications and organisational change is explained by the extent to which the communications approach taken supports individuals in taking 'emotional ownership' of the required changes It is concluded that the relative success of this humanist approach to communications in supporting transformational organisational change challenges traditional assumptions that the primary purpose of communications in a change setting is to achieve managerial goals

Further research opportunities arise from this work, including investigating whether the two communications approaches apply in other organisational change situations and whether they can be further added to or refined

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

BPR	Business Process Reengineering
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
HR	Human resources
MNC	Multinational corporation
QA	Quality assurance
QC	Quality control
Q Mark	A quality guarantee awarded by Excellence Ireland
SPC	Statistical process control
TQM	Total quality management

INTRODUCTION

The researcher has acted as an advisor to senior management on internal organisational communications and change management for a number of years and during this time, had become uneasy with the apparent lack of depth or critical thought in much of the literature on this subject In general, the books and journals tended to prescribe the same 'golden rules' for communicating for change with no attempt to differentiate between situations or different organisations The literature also appeared to focus on 'what to do', without attempting to explain 'why' Meanwhile, in the researcher's own experience, organisations facing different types of change were successfully using a variety of communications practices suitable to their own needs The researcher became increasingly aware that while she knew from experience that communications can help support change, there did not appear to be an in-depth understanding in the literature into how or why it has an impact

The researcher set out, therefore, to determine what are the key aspects of communications which do link with change and why? The study was embarked upon to gain a better understanding of the area, in order to better advise senior management on how to use communications to achieve organisational change This is an important point The very purpose of the study and therefore the research questions asked, were strongly influenced by the researcher's assumptions at the time, that organisational communications is a management strategy which supports managers in achieving their goals As the researcher progressed through the study, however, the realisation grew that this assumption may not be the only way to consider the issue

A context for researching organisational change had to be selected Quality was selected as the context for a number of reasons Firstly, it was important to select an organisational change process which involves transformational change Equally, given that the preferred approach was to examine the issue across a large number of organisations, rather than through a limited number of case-studies, a population of organisations undergoing the same change process in Ireland needed to be identified Thirdly, the change process itself had to be deemed to be positive (as opposed to downsizing for example), to enable some level of commitment to be generated Quality fitted all of these criteria

During the review of the literature, the researcher's initial impressions regarding the prescriptive and uncritical nature of the literature were further confirmed. It was quickly realised that to gain a better understanding, it would be important to explore a number of related areas of writing including change and change management, attitude theories, persuasion and rhetoric, organisational development, interpersonal communications, organisational communications and total quality itself. This background reading was structured into three chapters at the beginning of the thesis.

The thesis is structured into six sections.

Section one comprises three chapters on the literature review, beginning with chapter one, a description of organisational change and exploration of change management strategies. Chapter two follows, with further exploration of one type of organisational change, becoming a total quality organisation, followed in turn by chapter three, a comprehensive analysis and discussion of organisational communications and current knowledge on what aspects are important for supporting organisational change.

Section two (comprising chapter four), details the research methodology, including the hypotheses put forward from the literature review, the philosophical approach underlying the selection of research method, the research method itself, the strategies used to make it both valid and reliable and finally, the analysis plan.

Sections three and four comprise the findings. Section three describes the findings on the communications practices of the participating organisations, while Section four describes the findings relating to changing to become total quality organisations.

There are five chapters in Section three. Chapter five provides details on the 116 Q Mark organisations which took part. Chapter six compares and contrasts the communications practices found to be commonly used by this sample with those advocated in the literature. Chapters seven and eight explore whether or not core principles of communicating for change can be identified and chapter nine brings together these findings to describe and validate a model of communications incorporating the core principles.

There are two chapters in Section four. In chapter ten, the quality characteristics of the participating organisations are described, followed by the testing of a model which describes the process of organisational change to total quality. Chapter eleven then links that model with the communications model identified earlier to establish whether a relationship can be found between the two.

In section five (chapter twelve), the findings are discussed and interpreted The chapter compares and contrasts the findings from this study with relevant issues raised in the literature, pointing to a number of weaknesses in the literature It then advances an explanation as to how the relationship between organisational communications and organisational change works
In section six (chapter thirteen), key conclusions are drawn from the study and implications for further research are explored

By identifying core principles of communicating for change and being able to indicate where, how and why different communications approaches link with organisational change in a quality context, the primary goal of this study was achieved As a result of this study, the researcher has gained an in-depth insight into which communications practices are more central than others for organisational change, which types of organisations successfully use different approaches to communicating and how and why communications can influence organisational change

However, the researcher also learnt much more than was originally envisaged during the process of reading, researching and analysing the findings Two key approaches to communicating for change were identified, one based on the traditional perspective that communications is a management strategy to achieve management's goals and the other based on the humanist perspective that communications is a means of meeting the personal needs of employees By analysing their relative success in supporting transformational change, it is concluded that the humanist approach to communications, hitherto largely ignored in the literature, is as important, if not more important, than the traditional approach in the context of organisational change It is argued that the managerial assumptions which predominate in the communicating for change literature need to be challenged, as they may be hampering a fuller insight into the nature of the relationship between organisational communications and organisational change

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Tables

CHAPTER 5

CHAPTER 6

CHAPTER 7

CHAPTER 8

CHAPTER 9

CHAPTER 10

CHAPTER 11

Figures

CHAPTER 1

CHAPTER 2

CHAPTER 3

CHAPTER 4

CHAPTER 7

SECTION ONE

BACKGROUND

OVERVIEW OF SECTION ONE

This thesis set out to explore the links between internal organisational communications and organisational change, using quality as the context for change Before undertaking any primary research, it was important to review the literature Three distinct academic areas are explored - organisational change, total quality and organisational communication It quickly became apparent that there is little or no overlap between the three areas Writers and researchers in one area rarely appear in the literature in either of the other two fields

Accordingly, it was decided to structure the review of the literature into three distinct chapters, one for each of the academic areas First of all, it was important to establish what is organisational change and to explore the different types of strategies available to support organisational change (of which communications is one strategy) This is carried out in chapter 1, 'The Management Of Organisational Change' Chapter 2, 'Quality As The Context For Organisational Change Research', then explores one aspect of organisational change in more detail, changing to become a total quality organisation The review then moves on to organisational communications Chapter 3, 'Organisational Communications And Change', begins by defining communications in the broader sense before defining organisational communications in particular It looks at the historical backdrop to today's theories of organisational communications and explores the various strategies put forward for communicating for organisational change

Because of the breadth of areas to be covered, the review has had to be firmly focused on those issues of particular relevance to communicating for change and in a quality context in particular As a result, certain debates in related areas, while referred to, are not explored in detail

CHAPTER 1. THE MANAGEMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

1.1.   Introduction

Change management has become an area of intense academic interest This is not
surprising, given the speed with which new challenges are thrust upon organisations
Organisations have to survive in a world of rapidly changing markets, consumers,
lifestyles, technical innovations and increasing competition (Burke et al, 1991, Covin
and Kilman, 1991, Greenwood and Hinings, 1996, Noel and Dennehy, 1991, Trotman,
1996) In a recent study of 293 organisations of all sizes and sectors in the UK, 86 per
cent of the organisations had experienced major change, including reorganisation, staff
reduction and merger and acquisition activity, while 80 per cent of the respondents
expected organisational change to dominate their internal communications activities
during the subsequent 12 months (Stewart, 1999) Similar forces of change are
affecting organisations based in Ireland In a recent study of 450 Irish workplaces
(Roche and Geary 1998), over three quarters of the workplaces had experienced
change in recent years in areas such as introduction of new products or services,
introduction of new technologies, employment levels and target setting In a document
on union involvement in managing change, ICTU (1995) notes that both private and
public sector organisations in Ireland are subject to a combination of globalisation of
competition, technological advances, increasing demands by consumers and the
dismantling of monopoly markets

Despite this, there does not appear to be a great understanding of the dynamics of
change For example, a recent survey of 700 executives from Fortune 500 companies
reveals that 45 per cent of respondents believe that executives in their organisations
manage change poorly (McKinnon and Barrett, 1996), and Burke et al (1991) also
carried out a survey amongst 700 executives on their understanding of the principles
behind change   As the title of their article succinctly puts it, 'Managers Get a 'C' in
Managing Change' Their survey points to executives placing more emphasis on the
operational practicalities involved in change than the people factors and they argue
that omission of the people aspects in change management plans will doom their
change programmes to failure

3

This chapter begins by defining the different types of change through which organisations may go It reviews the theories of management of change and explores different paradigms within which organisational change has been researched and written about to date It then looks at organisational change from two perspectives change and the individual (looking primarily at resistance to change and commitment to change), and change at the organisational level (looking at the relationship between change and organisational type) Finally, it discusses the strategies for organisational change which are put forward in the literature and points to the prescriptive and universalist nature of the literature in this area

1.2   Defining Organisational Change

In referring to organisational change, this thesis refers to change which is planned and implemented A useful definition of planned change is given by French et al (1985 548) who describe it as 'a deliberate effort to modify the organisational system to respond to environmental and internal forces', while Scott and Jaffe (1989) refer to it as a movement from one state (the known) to another (the unknown) Both definitions imply a transition from an existing state to something new and the concept of planned change emphasises change being deliberately conceived, developed and implemented

Change can range from minor tinkering at an operational level right the way through to a fundamental transformation of the organisation's very mission, culture or structures (Greenwood and Hinings, 1996) Burnes (1992 150) categorises the degrees of change in an organisation along a continuum ranging from incremental, which he classifies as 'relatively small scale, localised and designed to solve a particular problem or enhance the performance of a subsection of the organisation', to radical change, which he describes as 'large-scale, organisation-wide transformation programmes involving the rapid and wholesale overturning of old ways and old ideas and their replacement by new and unique ones' Rajagopalan and Spreitzer (1996 62) also differentiate between gradients of change writing

> When strategic change does not involve a shift in underlying knowledge
> structures, it is viewed as evolutionary When strategic change is accompanied
> by major shifts in organisational ideologies and cause maps, it is viewed as
> transformational

4

It is clear from the literature that the scale and content of planned change programmes can vary greatly so that the consequences can range from minor operational features to a full-scale change in culture It might be concluded, then, that the literature would advocate different approaches to managing that change according to the scale or content of the required change Evolutionary change is unlikely to require the same approach as revolutionary or radical change or, from the perspective of the employees, is less likely to instil the same sense of upheaval and uncertainty Yet, it will be seen later in this chapter that the literature on managing organisational change generally tends to offer universal guidelines for change management, regardless of the nature or extent of the planned change

1.3   Theories Of Organisational Change

The seminal work by Kurt Lewin (1951) on 'Force-Field Analysis' is probably the biggest single influence on the theories of managing change (Bonvilhan, 1997, French et al, 1985, Goodstein and Burke, 1991) Lewin (1951) talks of two types of forces driving forces and restraining forces Driving forces of change could be increased competition or cost structures that are too high, for example, while examples of restraining forces include staff complacency, lack of money, or lack of understanding of why change might be needed Lewin's model takes into account both the environmental and organisational factors as well as factors relevant to the individual person Under Lewin's model, managers evaluate the strength or priority of each of the driving and restraining forces They have to 'unfreeze' the present status quo by addressing existing perceptions or problems, 'move' the organisation by implementing changes and 'refreeze' the new state of the organisation by institutionalising and reinforcing the changes

Lewin's concept of restraining and driving forces has influenced many models for organisational change Many writers, for example, endorse the notion of assessing the organisation's 'readiness for change', by examining negative and positive variables across the organisation (Burnes, 1992, Elliot, 1990, Greenwood and Hinings, 1996, Klein and Spear, 1996, Newton, 1993) These variables can be within the individual, within the organisation, or can be influenced by the external environment Newton (1993), for example, lists individual driving and restraining forces such as aspirations or existing beliefs, organisational driving and restraining forces such as the life-cycle of the organisation or political interests in the organisation, and environmental driving

5

and restraining forces such as changing customer needs and legal constraints
Greenwood and Hinings (1996) have also developed a model to attempt to explain the
relationship between external and internal forces which can enable or prevent change
(Figure 1 1)

Figure 1.1   Model For Understanding Organisational Change
Source : Greenwood And Hinings (1996 : 1034, Figure 1)
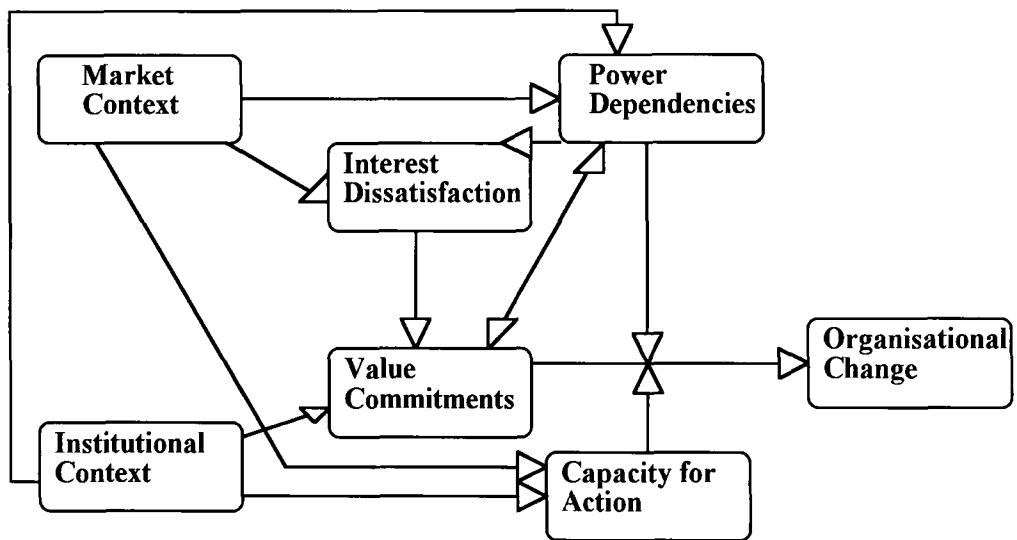
They distinguish between 'enabling dynamics' - factors, which if absent, would prevent
change from happening such as capacity or lack of capacity for action and
'precipitating dynamics' - actual drivers of change such as aligned values or
dissatisfaction with the status quo by those in key positions While their model is more
complex than that proposed by Lewin, it is clearly firmly rooted in his original concept
of driving and restraining forces However, Greenwood and Hinings did not test their
model, so while it looks persuasive, its validity has not yet been supported by evidence
A similar group of driving and restraining forces have also been identified by Klein
and Speer (1996), although this time they call them 'determinants' of implementation
effectiveness for innovation There is a remarkable similarity between their model and
that of Greenwood and Hinings Like Greenwood and Hinings, they identify values fit,
commitment, the organisational climate and capacity for action (they call those skills
and absence of obstacles), as the key forces While structured differently, there are
clear similarities between the two and, like Greenwood and Hinings, they have not
tested their own model for validity

6

A second major influence from Lewin's model of change, is the view which continues to be prevalent across many theories of change that change is a linear, staged process Lewin saw change as being a three staged process of pre-change, a transitional phase and a future state, and many of the theories described in the management literature borrow from Lewin's model For example, Beckhard and Harris (1987) look at the present and desired future as two ends of the transitional phase, while Jackson (1991) identifies four stages of change including a pre-transitional phase of apathy, awareness of the need for change, the transition itself and a future state of integrated change

Nelson and Coxhead (1997) along with a number of writers also look at the same 'pre', transitional and future stages from the perspective of the individual who has to go through the desired change process They identify six states of emotions through which the individual has to travel during the pre-stage ('confronted by change'), the transitional stage ('letting go'), and the future state ('change addressed') According to Nelson and Coxhead (1997), when faced with change during the pre-stage, the individual experiences numbness and denial, but moves onto the transitional stage experiencing emotions such as self-doubt and then finally internalises the desired changes by the time of the future state, that is, when change is addressed (See Figure 1 2)

Figure 1.2   Individuals' Reactions To Change. An Example Of A
Linear Model Of Change
Source : Nelson And Coxhead (1997 : 37), Figure 7
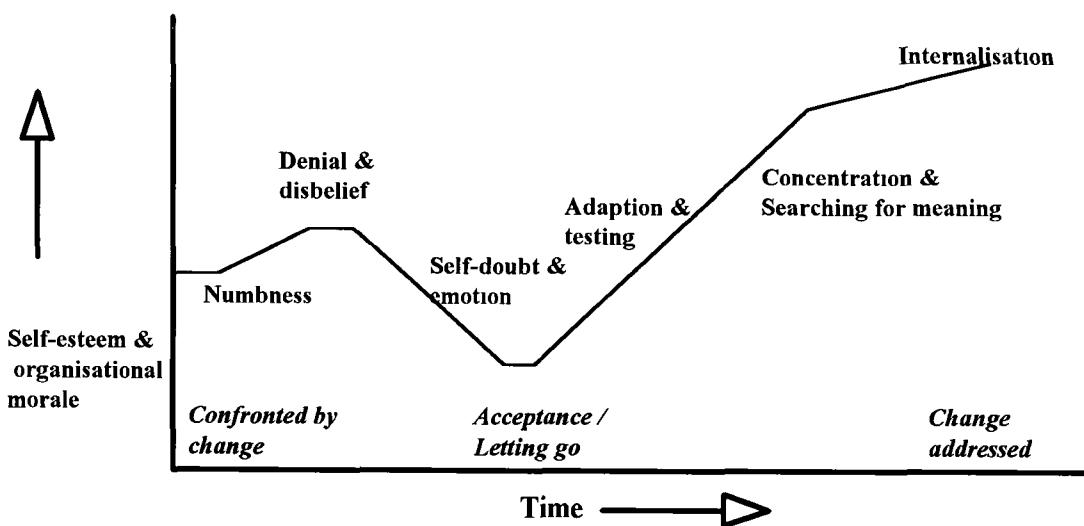
This concept of a staged process from resistance to acceptance to a higher level of internalisation and commitment has gained currency in the change management literature In fact, it might appear from the discussion to date, that all of the literature tacitly accepts the two key themes of Lewin's model on organisational change, that driving and restraining forces are in some way involved and that change should be considered as a staged and incremental process However, not all writers agree with this view Lovelady (1984), for example, argues that it is inappropriate to try to describe change as a process of tidy sequential steps On the basis of a review of the work of nine consultants in six organisations over a period of three years, she argues that, in reality, different stages can overlap with each other at any time She views change as being a constant process of reviewal and reappraisal of the progress of the change programme and there is no clear beginning, middle and end Bonvilhan (1997) also argues that implicit in Lewin's model is the assumption that there is an end state of order once the organisation has 'refreezed', which is questionable in today's world of continuous change He argues that organisations which subscribe to this assumption will view change as being an isolated and discreet event and that this can only lead to frustration as employees and their managers eventually recognise that the final state will never actually be attained Change, according to Bonvilhan, should be construed as an iterative and evolving process

Orlikowski and Hofman (1997) also reject Lewin's model, arguing that in today's uncertain times, the model is too simplistic They propose an alternative model where three types of changes can influence the change process The first type, anticipated changes, are the staged processes of change envisaged in Lewin's model But these types of change can be altered by emergent changes which are unplanned changes resulting from anticipated changes They also identify opportunity based changes, which are identified as the change process moves forward According to Orlikowski and Hofman, change is much more improvisational and unexpected than Lewin's model would suggest There is also a growing argument that radical or transformational change may not necessarily be the 'far end' of a spectrum of change, built up in incremental steps Tushman and O'Reilly (1996), for example, claim that organisations need to be able to manage two types of change simultaneously Organisations may be subject both to environmental pressures which require

evolutionary, incremental change and, at the same time, be subject to extraordinary upheavals which require radical discontinuous change

Despite these contrasting views, Lewin's model is generally accepted and as will be seen later (Chapter 1 6), many strategies for the management of change have been devised around the concept of the three stages of change and restraining and driving forces for change in the organisation

1.4 Managerialism - A Key Influence On The Organisational Change Literature

Lewin's (1951) pervading influence on the theories of managing organisational change has already been noted It is also important to observe that, implicit in the driving and restraining forces identified by Lewin, is a strong managerial influence For example, his restraining forces for change include staff complacency or lack of understanding why change is needed, while the driving forces include competitiveness Both of these sets of forces are expressed in managerial terms The assumption is that organisations should be competitive and that management's role is to work on staff complacency and lack of understanding to make them competitive

In chapter 4, the different paradigms which can influence the approach taken by a researcher or theorist will be explored in more detail, but at this juncture, it is important to point out a dominant paradigm - managerialism - which has a significant influence on the literature on organisational change This is not to suggest that managerialism is necessarily wrong, but rather, to be aware that many of the questions asked or unasked in the literature on organisational change are heavily influenced by this paradigm (Boje et al, 1997, McCabe and Wilkinson, 1997, Wilmott, 1997) A number of writers (Grice and Humphries 1997, Hill 1990, and McCabe and Wilkinson, 1997) argue that whether we like it or not, management literature is dominated by the managerialist approach because, as Grice and Humphries (1997 418) put it

> We live in a society where capitalism is the dominant economic system and where the institutional framework is saturated with the influence of the system

9

The managerialist approach leads to an assumption that when managers identify the need for organisational change, there must be a need for change As will be seen later in the writings of Larkin and Larkin (1994) and Quirke (1995), that need for change is usually embedded in the capitalist argument that the organisation needs to be more competitive or to respond to environmental threats in order to succeed

The majority of the literature on organisational change and change management does not therefore focus on issues such as democracy in the workplace (Cheney, 1995, Likely, 1998, Wilmott, 1997), economic rationality (Kovacic, 1994), the feminist perspective (Natalle et al, 1994), the ethics of change (Grice and Humphries, 1997), or the politics of change in the organisation (Cheney and MacMillan, 1990, Deetz, 1994, Eisenberg, 1996, Fimbel, 1994) Rather, the literature tends to explore how management can best use strategies to achieve organisational change for competitiveness

Throughout this chapter, it will be seen how the managerialist perspective has dominated the literature as writers grapple with issues such as resistance to change, commitment to change and identifying those change strategies which appear to work better than others for managers

1.5   Managing Change

1.5.1   Introduction

The different theories on managing change tend to be addressed at two different levels from the perspective of the individual (how to motivate the individual to be committed to the change and act accordingly), and from the perspective of the organisation (the types of organisations, systems and structures considered to be supportive of change) The result of this approach means that two very different sets of theories have emerged, with little cross-over from one perspective to the other While there is a recognition at both levels that ultimately change requires the support in some shape or form of people, each strand tends to analyse the causes and supporting strategies in isolation

10

1.5.2   Change And The Individual

There is a consensus across the literature that the success of any change programme is down to the commitment of individuals in that organisation This was the conclusion of Werr (1995) who reviewed 60 books on organisational change between 1989 and 1993 Because people are considered to be critical to the success of change, much attention has been given to understanding the process the individual goes through when confronted with change Ghoshal and Bartlett (1996 23) write 'the managers of successful companies recognise that transformation is as much a function of individuals' behaviours as it is of strategies, structures and systems' The belief that when faced with change, people undergo a series of reactions from resistance to commitment, has strongly influenced the research on change and the individual

Individuals will have different reactions to a proposal for change (Zuwerink and Devine, 1996) Their perception of the necessity and viability of the proposal will be affected by a whole range of factors based on past experience, their backgrounds and abilities Their perceptions about proposed changes can also be influenced by emotional factors and values So, what may seem to be necessary to senior management for survival, may not be seen to be important at all by others, or may even be perceived to be threatening to their existing status quo It is because of this that West and Hughes (1986) stress the importance of obtaining a real understanding of individuals' perceptions on the rationale behind, as well as the proposed change initiative itself as it is too easy to make assumptions about what they are thinking Herzog's (1991) article entitled 'People The Critical Factor in Managing Change', argues that it is essential to measure the state of readiness of people to proposed changes before undertaking any change programme while Plant (1989) adds that organisations ignoring the emotional response of people to change, even when logically it might appear to make sense, do so at their peril

Burnes (1992 170) is also concerned that managers be aware of the variety of factors which can influence individuals' potential response to change, writing,

> Individuals are engaged as whole persons not segmented persons This
> means that the demands of an individual's job and that person's thoughts,
> beliefs and ambitions should all be called into play, not just one or two of
> these

11

It is evident that people's responses to change can be affected both by their own complex make-up and by various environmental factors. This would suggest that individuals' needs and the context within which the change is being proposed appear to be important variables to take into consideration.

1.5.2.(i)   *Resistance To Change*

Resistance to change is a concept which has received considerable attention in the literature, with the main focus being on how managers can overcome that resistance. As McCabe and Wilkinson (1998) point out, this should come as no surprise, given the unquestioning view in the literature that it is management's role to find the best way to encourage staff to accept changes. Recognising that the interest in resistance to change is predominantly influenced by this perspective, the literature in this area nevertheless identifies some interesting insights into why people may not want to accept change.

The symptoms of resistance can range from passive to active. One individual may openly reject change proposals while another may outwardly accept them, but indirectly prevent their progress through, for example, delaying tactics. Gilbreath (1990) argues that detachment, apathy and delaying techniques can be just as dangerous to the implementation of the change proposals as open defiance while Zuwerink and Devine (1996) write that when resisting arguments for change, people can deny the validity of the message, distort the arguments, derogate their source, become aggressive, or can ignore them altogether (assuming, of course, that the argument is valid in the first place).

Many writers attempt to identify the factors which cause resistance to change. It is frequently suggested that resistance can be as much due to irrational as rational factors (eg Fiorelli and Margolis, 1993; Mariotti, 1998; Quirke, 1995), and there is considerable overlap in opinion regarding what these factors are. Factors identified most consistently include threatened power base (eg Hayes, 1996; Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985; Scott and Jaffe, 1989), and uncertainty (eg D'Aprix, 1996; Quirke, 1995, Scott and Jaffe, 1989; Williams, 1989), followed by low tolerance for the unknown (eg Cole and Pace, 1991; McGrath and Geaney, 1998; Plant, 1987; Scott and Jaffe, 1989), fear of failing (eg Hayes, 1996; Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985; Williams, 1989), and threatened values and beliefs (eg Fiorelli and Margolis, 1993;

McGrath and Geaney, 1998, Strebel, 1996, Zuwennk and Devine, 1996) Other factors are also put forward, such as fear of exposing lack of abilities (eg Pugh, 1986), the belief that change implies criticism of the way things were done before (Williams, 1989) and low trust in management (Fiorelli and Margolis, 1993, Plant, 1987) Many of these factors could be interpreted as being both rational and irrational For example, people may feel their status or powerbase are threatened by proposed changes with good reason Alternatively, their fears may be disproportionate to reality Nevertheless, regardless of how rational or irrational these fears may be from the perspective of the manager, they are very real to the people involved

By analysing the literature, two main categories of causes of resistance emerge These two categories have previously been identified by Robbins (1986) They are resistance due to perceived loss of the known (eg uncertainty, fear of failing, fear of exposing abilities), and resistance due to perceived personal loss (eg threatened status, powerbase and values) However, despite relatively consistent views regarding these two main contributing reasons for resistance to change, not one of the references cited rely on empirical evidence to substantiate the factors identified The review of the literature shows considerable agreement regarding key aspects of change, with little or no empirical evidence to either support or negate the contentions

Assuming that these arguments are valid, causes of resistance to change, if defined as loss of the known or personal loss, can be both emotional and rational This will have a strong influence on the success of those change management strategies which are selected, particularly communications For example, logical information programmes are unlikely to be sufficient without the backing of a full insight into the individuals who will be affected, their own personal circumstances and likely counterarguments created by the individuals themselves

Much of the change management literature focuses on the importance of minimising resistance to change At the other end of the spectrum, it also advocates the importance of maximising commitment to change The next section explores what is known to date on gaining commitment to change

13

1.5.2. (ii)   ***Commitment To Change***

Robbins (1986 532) defines commitment as, 'the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual needs', while Ginnodo (1989) claims that commitment is the difference between the minimum amount of effort needed to avoid penalties and the actual amount of effort put in Both definitions describe the tension that exists between internal individual needs and external rewards A growing body of literature on the theory of what lies behind commitment recognises that it is not only driven from within, but also by socially learned needs and situational variables

Robertson and Cooper (1983) classify the theories under two strands, 'process' theories which focus on the external rewards which can exert an influence (eg Vroom's Expectancy Theory, cited in Vroom and Deci, 1970), and 'content' theories, which focus on the internal needs of the individual (eg Maslow's (1970) Hierarchy of Needs or McClelland's Needs Based Theory cited in Robbins (1986), while Herzberg's (1970) Motivation / Hygiene Theory straddles the two perspectives The empirical evidence to support these theories has been inconsistent over the years, but Katzell (1981) notes that despite this, it is broadly agreed that there is intuitive substance to the theories put forward by both perspectives

There is broad consensus that there are varying degrees of commitment The lower levels of commitment (viewed as similar to compliance), are considered to be the outcome of the satisfaction of lower level 'hygiene' factors such as working conditions, whereas higher levels of commitment are considered to come from the recognition that the new behaviour will lead to higher self-esteem, recognition and self actualisation Meyer and Allen (1997), on the basis of a comprehensive literature review, attempt to categorise the different levels of commitment and have come up with very similar concepts to the earlier theorists What they call 'continuance commitment' which is closer to compliance than internalised commitment, occurs when the individual believes the cost of not committing is too great Normative commitment is stronger and based on moral obligation, while affective commitment, where the individual wants to be committed, is the strongest Figure 1 3 below, illustrates how each of the main models of commitment compare

14

Figure 1.3   A Comparison of Models Of Compliance To Commitment

Physiological Needs	▷**Affiliation / Love** **Social Needs**	▷	**Self Actualisation**	**Maslow** (1970)

Physiological Needs	▷**Affiliation / Love** **Social Needs**	▷ **Self Actualisation**	**Maslow** (1970)

Working Conditions	▷**Fellow Workers**	▷ **Recognition / Job Challenge**	**Herzberg** (1970)

Continuance Commitment	▷**Normative Commitment**	▷ **Affective Commitment**	**Meyer & Allen** (1997)

Compliance	▷ **Commitment**
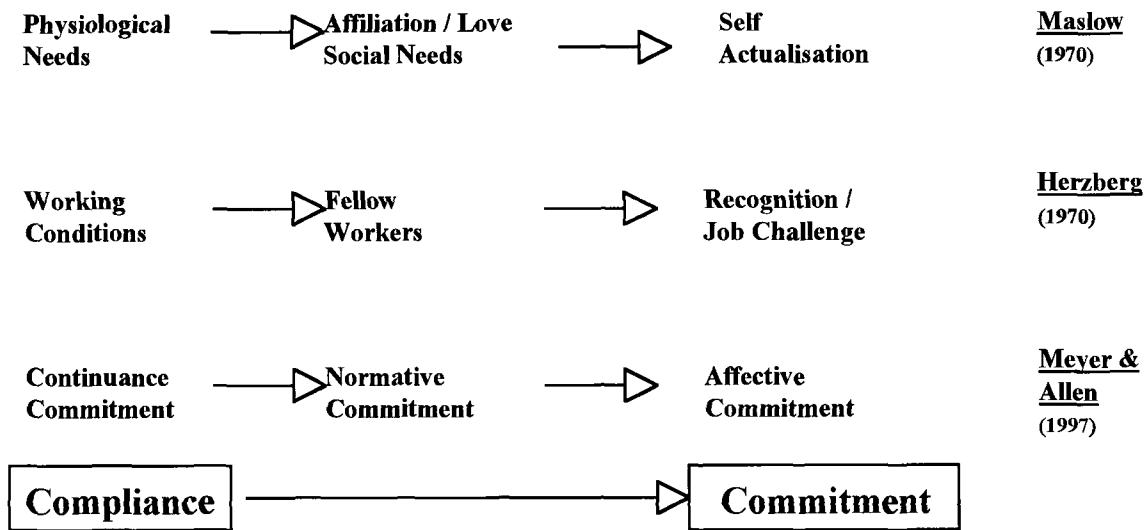
The prevailing argument put forward, regardless of labels, is that there is a gradient of 'strengths' of commitment and that the 'strongest' level of commitment is based on deeper, intrinsic factors such as self-actualisation and 'will' The assumption is that the types of commitment further to the left of the spectrum are in some way weaker and that their hold on consequent behaviour will also be weaker

The difference between external variables and internal variables and the different strength of commitment has been investigated in a number of recent studies (eg Hartline and Ferrell, 1996, Maitlis and Briner, 1994, Miller et al, 1994, Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997) While the studies looked at various types of commitment ranging from commitment to customer service to commitment to change, some common themes emerged Both external factors, such as availability of resources, and internal factors, such as need for achievement and respect for the individual, did appear to correlate with commitment (eg Hartline and Ferrell, 1996, Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997) In all four of the studies, two common themes emerged, the willingness of the organisation to provide quality information and demonstration of respect for the individual, appeared to be important factors in facilitating commitment

The results of these studies also correspond to the findings of the review of all the major research carried out on commitment up to 1997 by Meyer and Allen (1997) They list the factors which appear to be associated with the strongest type of

commitment, affective commitment The factors include self efficacy, the manner in which policies are communicated, role ambiguity, relationship with a supervisor, ability to participate and fulfilment of personal goals They summarise all these factors as supportiveness, fairness and personal importance and competence (ie trust placed in the individual's judgement), both of which, in turn, relate to the concept of 'respect for the individual' which was one of the themes emerging as being key from Hartline and Ferrell (1996) and Peccei and Rosenthal's (1997) findings

Despite all this interest in the theories of commitment, it has been argued that commitment actually does not guarantee anything very much in terms of changed behaviour McKendall and Margulis (1995) reviewed a number of studies on commitment and conclude that the relationship between commitment and behaviour can be modest They write (1995 24)

> Studies have also shown that employees who are very highly committed and secure can demonstrate a lack of creativity, resistance to change, tendency to engage in group think, insufficient turnover and the pursuit of improper goals

Robertson and Cooper (1983) also note that even if the level of commitment is high within individuals, it may not be reflected in performance, because it is just one variable in a number of factors including individuals' abilities, the level of resources given to allow the performance, and so on On the basis of their comprehensive review of existing research in the area, Meyer and Allen (1997) also stressed that extenuating factors such as ability and access to resources can affect behaviour changes as much as commitment

It is apparent, even from this brief review on commitment, that there is still some way to go in reaching a full understanding of how individuals become committed to a particular change proposal Managers rely on a variety of motivating mechanisms such as open communications, clear goals and job roles, flexibility, feedback and recognition and rewarding of performance (Caudron, 1995) Perhaps the best way to view the various theories on commitment which emphasise either internal or external variables, is that they do not conflict with each other, but rather complement each other in bringing together a deeper understanding of the complex nature of commitment to change

1.5.2.(iii)   Overview - Change And The Individual

Because it is argued that people are critical to the success of change, there is
considerable discussion in the literature regarding how commitment and/or resistance
to change can develop Theories of commitment have identified a number of internal
and environmental factors which can affect an individual's attitude to change
However, while there is some understanding of the complex interactions between the
antecedents to commitment to change, considerably more work needs to be carried out
in this area There is also broad agreement on the factors which can influence
resistance to change, which have been encapsulated under two headings, personal loss
or loss of the known, but there is little empirical evidence put forward to support this
position The clearest argument coming through from theories on resistance is that
resistance can be based as much on irrational and emotional concerns as rational
concerns

1.5.3   Change And The Organisation

Planned change also must be looked at in the context of the organisation as a whole
Planning a change programme for an organisation involves taking into account many
organisational factors, because of the impact that one decision has on another   The
literature also explores change at the level of the organisation, in particular looking at
the type of organisations which are deemed to provide a supportive environment for
change

1.5.3.(i)   The Organisational Types Which Support Change

For almost 40 years, the literature has discussed how the organisational environment
can support or prevent change (Burnes, 1992, Goodstein and Burke, 1991, Heath,
1994, Hosking and Anderson, 1992) and a review of the literature on organisational
types supportive of change reveals six key parameters The criteria by which
organisations tend to be judged to be 'good for' or 'bad for' change are the extent to
which control is devolved (eg Burns and Stalker, 1961, Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998,
Likert, 1967, Pascale, 1990, Pasmore, 1994), the extent to which rules and tasks are
flexible or rigid (eg Burns and Stalker, 1961, Jelinek et al, 1986, Moss Kanter, 1989,
Pasmore, 1994), the extent to which information flows are open (eg Beckhard and
Harris, 1987, Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998, Likert, 1961, Moss Kanter, 1989 and 1997,

17

Peters, 1988b), the extent to which the organisation is flat (eg Drucker, 1996, Handy, 1986, Moss Kanter, 1989, Peters, 1988 a), the extent to which there is co-ordination and integration (eg Burns and Stalker, 1961, Handy, 1986, Lievegoed, 1973, Moss Kanter, 1989 and 1997, Pasmore, 1994, Peters, 1988b, Thompson, 1967), and the extent to which employees are enabled to contribute (eg Burns and Stalker, 1961, Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998, Jelinek et al, 1986, Likert, 1967, McLagan and Nel, 1996a, Walton, 1986) Taking examples of some of the well known writers, the six themes are summarised in Table 1 1 below

Table 1.1   Six Main Parameters By Which Organisations Have Been Judged As Being 'Effective' For Change.

Human Relations ⟶ *Integration*

	Employee contribution is sought	Devolved control	Flexible rules & tasks	Open information flows	Flat hierarchy	Co-ordination & integration
Beckhard & Harris (1987)		✓		✓	✓	✓
Drucker (1996)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Ghoshal & Bartlett (1998)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Handy (1986)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Jelinek et al (1986)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Lievegoed (1973)				✓		✓
Likert (1961)	✓	✓		✓		
Moss Kanter (1989)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Pascale (1990)		✓			✓	✓
Pasmore (1994)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Peters (1988)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Thompson (1967)				✓		✓
Walton (1986)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

In looking at Table 1.1, two common themes emerge. One theme could be summarised as the Human Relations argument that to support change, employees need to be involved and empowered, rather than directed by management on what to do. Devolved control, flexibility, open information flows, flat hierarchies and seeking employee contribution all fall within this grouping. The second theme is one where information and learning are shared across the organisation to ensure that an integrated effort is maintained. Factors such as open information flows, flat hierarchies and co-ordination and integration feature here.

The table demonstrates that the literature on organisations and change consistently advocates the same six traits. However, this tacit agreement within the literature regarding the ideal organisational type could lead to an assumption that once a majority or all of the six factors are in place, the ideal environment for change is in place and, de facto, change is more likely to take place. This viewpoint ignores two fundamental issues which require further exploration. First, is it possible to place a value judgement on what constitutes a 'good' organisation or 'bad' organisation for supporting change? Second, is it possible to assume that one organisational type is appropriate for all change management situations?

1.5.3.(ii)   *'Good' or 'Bad' Organisational Characteristics For Organisational Change*

The first question throws up a deeper philosophical debate about whether or not it is appropriate to describe organisations, or indeed any subject of research, in value laden terms such as these. Sarantakos (1993) notes that arguments are put forward by positivistic researchers that 'facts' should be kept apart from 'values'. Under this paradigm, neutral descriptions of different types of organisations which are or are not found to be related to successful change would be presented. No judgement would be proffered as to whether the organisations observed would compare or contrast with an 'ideal'.

All of the literature which explores organisational types for change starts (either consciously or unconsciously), with the assumption that it is possible to explain phenomena in value laden terms such as 'good' or 'bad' for change. It is accepted (see chapter 4), that all researchers and theorists are heavily influenced by value

19

judgements. Those who take a 'critical' view argue that it is possible to take a stance and juxtapose 'good' and 'bad' characteristics as long as the researcher is aware of the stance he or she is taking. However, postmodernists would argue that this is a very limiting approach to research, where everything is defined in binary terms (Grice and Humphries, 1997), although this is a discussion which extends well beyond organisational theories and which is still the subject of strong debate. It is not yet agreed as to whether organisational theorists could or should be placing value judgements about which characteristics are 'good' or 'bad' for change. However, while this debate continues, many writers have continued with the assumption that the six 'good' characteristics for organisational change identified above in Table 1.1, apply.

1.5.3.(iii)   Different Organisational Characteristics For Different Situations - The Contingency View

The second issue which tends not to be addressed by the more recent literature prescribing particular organisational types for change, is the question as to whether or not it is too simplistic to say that one type of organisation will best support change in all types of situations and environments. It was already seen in chapter 1.2 that change can range from evolutionary to revolutionary in scale. Organisations themselves develop according to the industry they are in, the type of product or service they provide, the level of competition they face and so on. Yet, while there was considerable debate some 30 to 40 years ago regarding whether or not it is feasible to suggest that one organisational type is appropriate for all circumstances, this seems to have been ignored by the literature on managing change today (Welch and Goldstein, 1998). Burns and Stalker (1961), along with other Contingency theorists of the 1960s such as Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) and Woodward (1965), considered management strategies and organisational types to be contingent upon a complex mix of environmental, situational and individual variables. Yet, a glance at Table 1.1 demonstrates that many of the more recent influential writers such as Drucker, (1996), Handy (1986), Moss Kanter (1989) and Peters (1988) appear to subscribe to a much more universal view of the right organisational types for flexibility to change, regardless of situation or environment.

Joan Woodward was a key advocate of the contingency approach in the 1960s and 1970s. While Woodward was not specifically looking at organisational factors which link with change, the work she carried out in identifying organisational factors which

20

link with 'organisational effectiveness', is an important precursor to an understanding of organisational types which support change today Dawson and Wedderburn's (1980) comprehensive critique of Woodward's work describes how Woodward carried out a wide scale research study into the effectiveness of organisations in the UK and noted that different organisational structures and strategies are contingent upon a number of factors In the 1950s, Woodward concluded that organisations which were involved in large batch and mass technology more successfully used mechanistic strategies, while those using individual batch or process lines more successfully implemented organic strategies In the 1960s, however, she developed her thinking more and concluded that the variables were not so much related to the production technology, as to the degree of personal control of the front-line employee (as against the manager or automated process), and the extent to which that control was integrated or fragmented across the organisation (See Figure 1 4 below)

Figure 1.4   Woodward's Contingency Model Of Organisational
            Types.
            Source : Dawson And Wedderburn (1980 : 56)
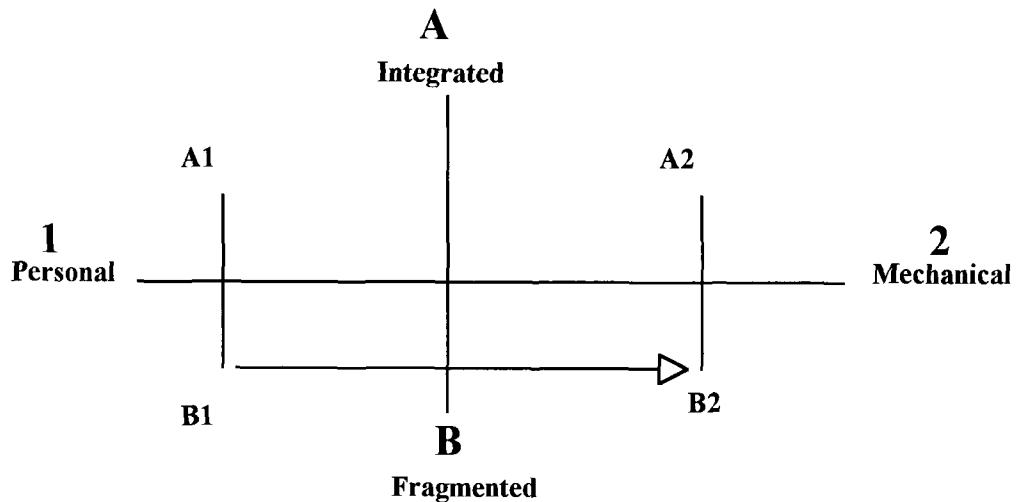
Woodward identified four points (A1, B1, B2, A2), where different organisational types are associated with one of each of four combinations of personal vs mechanical control, or integrated vs fragmented functions in the orgamsation She argued that organisations which produce small batches or personal service are best suited to A1 (personal control and integration of standards), while organisations with large batch automated processes tend to require integrated mechanical control (A2) However, she

21

saw that there were organisations which fitted right across the continuum between the four points, arguing that there is no ideal organisational type for all circumstances Woodward's contingency model has come in for some criticism Dawson and Wedderburn (1980) write that the main criticisms of her work include inadequate definition of what she means by high performing organisations, an assumption that the organisational structures cause the improved performance, rather than the other way around, and the fact that she ignores external variables such as the trading environment altogether in her model (This is addressed by Burns and Stalker, 1961, for example) However, her thinking has been very influential and has been the basis of other interesting work in more recent years

For example, borrowing from the Contingency theorists such as Woodward, a limited number of writers have tried to identify organisational types which are deemed 'right' for change, according to different circumstances One such contingency model was developed by Plant (1987) in an effort to describe organisational types which would be supportive of change Using an inventory of 41 statements relating to concepts such as communications flows, involvement, pride, and morale, Plant devised a quadrant against which four organisational profiles can be mapped (see Figure 1 5 below) Plant's two dimensions are based on a number of criteria outlined earlier in this part of the chapter The Autocratic vs Permissive dimension reflects the dichotomy between the mechanistic and organic strategies identified by Woodward, including factors such as devolved control, flat hierarchies and seeking contribution, all referred to in Table 1 1 The Integrated vs Fragmented dimension is built on theories about integration developed by Thompson (1967), Lievegoed (1973) and others, reflecting factors such as openness, co-ordination and integration, also referred to in Table 1 1 Like Woodward, Plant sees both dimensions as being continuums rather than polar and he sees the two dimensions as being perpendicular to each other

22

Figure 1.5   Plant's (1987 : 110) Organisational Profile For Change

Integrated

Bureaucratic   *Organic*

Autocratic ─────────────┼───────────── **Permissive**

Autocratic   *Anarchic*
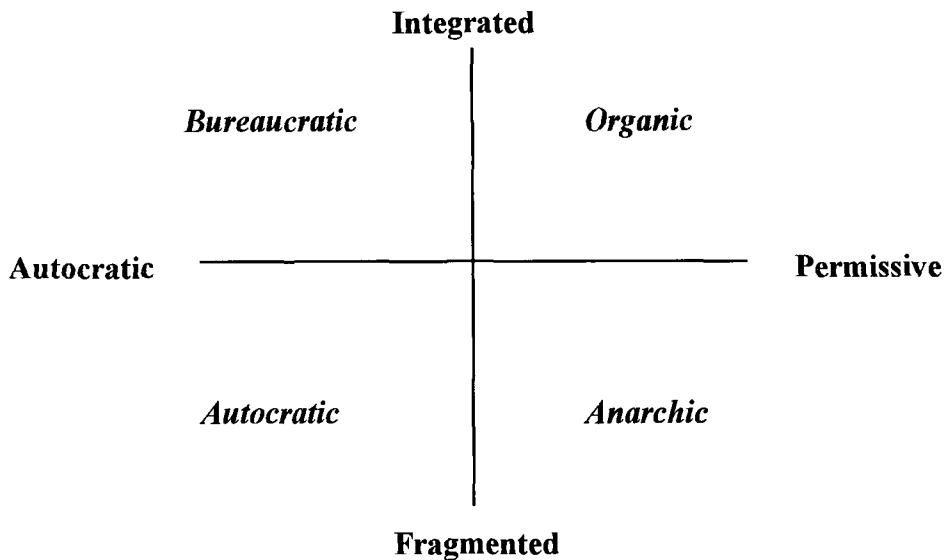
Fragmented

According to Plant, organisations score on two axes The vertical axis relates to the extent to which the organisation is Integrated or Fragmented The horizontal axis relates to the extent to which the organisation is Autocratic or Permissive Organisations which score high on both the Autocratic and Integrated axes are, according to Plant, bureaucratic and have characteristics such as dependence on the leader, over-reliance on roles and status, and vertical communications (both up and down) These are concepts very similar to the bureaucratic organisations described by Likert (1967) Organisations which score high on Integrated and Permissive are organic, with characteristics such as joint decision making, high participation and shared satisfaction Organisations which score high on Autocratic and Fragmented are Autocratic with characteristics such as a high level of power given to those in authority, low satisfaction levels and withholding of ideas These organisations are similar to the Mechanistic organisations described by Burns and Stalker (1961) High scorers on Fragmented and Permissive dimensions are classed by Plant as Anarchic, with characteristics such as individual personalities predominating, possessiveness over ideas, and high individual satisfaction

The right organisation for many change management situations, according to Plant, is one which combines high Permissive and high Integrated features ('Organic' organisations), although in certain situations, other organisation types may

23

successfully use different combinations of the different features to support change For example, he contends that civil service departments have successfully developed bureaucratic organisational structures which are high Integrated and high Autocratic and in which change can be driven Plant believes that the organisational type which supports change is contingent upon the nature of the organisation, although there is no reference to the nature of change itself having any influence Interestingly, he also implicitly advocates that it is feasible to identify and describe an organisation in value laden terms such as 'good' or 'bad' for change

Plant's quadrant does not identify any new characteristics that have not already been identified by the principal writers of the 1960s to today However, what Plant's model does do, unlike the other models put forward, is to bring together the two key themes which were identified from Table 1 1, one based on the Human Relations concept of individual satisfaction through involvement and empowerment, the other based on the concept of co-ordination and integration along a continuum Plant suggests that an organisation could be high on one dimension, not so high on another, and yet still successfully support organisational change Plant did not accept that all organisations which are Permissive are necessarily also Integrative (Anarchic organisations being examples of organisations which are Permissive and Fragmented) This view contrasts with that of other writers such as Drucker (1996), Handy (1986), Moss Kanter (1989), and Peters (1988) who advocate both key themes (individual satisfaction and integration), as being equally important (See Table 1 1) However, Plant does not provide any evidence to back his contention that the two dimensions can, in fact, be charted as two axes of a quadrant He has taken two key concepts identified earlier in the literature and has brought them together in an interdependent relationship which may in fact not exist From an examination of the literature since his 1987 book, it does not appear that this assumption has been tested either by Plant or by other researchers

However, another model has recently been put forward with characteristics very similar to those identified by Plant This model has already gained considerable attention in the space of a few short months (eg Quinn, 1998) From interviews with leaders of organisations which have successfully transformed, Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) have identified three key features for what they call the 'Individualized Organisation' - two of which are very similar to the Permissive and Integrated features in Plant's model.

24

The first feature suggested (Ghoshal and Bartlett 1998 14), is similar to Plant's description of the Permissive feature, 'an ability to inspire individual creativity and initiative in all its people, built on a fundamental faith in individuals' They argue that organisations such as GE and ABB which have successfully transformed have a new management philosophy underpinning everything they do - the organisation is there to create value and opportunities for its employees, not to create short-term gain This is a radical departure from the common Western capitalist view of the purpose of organisations (Hill, 1990), requiring a fundamental shift in orientation from the traditional profit goals towards the fulfilment of individuals who make up the organisation As part of this philosophy, they emphasise the need to be flexible enough to enable every employee to bring their full range of experiences and talents to the organisation This requires, in turn, thinking of employees as individuals with their own complex and varied lives outside of work

The second feature identified by Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998 14) is very similar to the Integrated feature put forward by Plant (1987) They argue that the second key dimension of an organisation's ability to transform is its 'ability to link and leverage pockets of entrepreneurial activity and individual expertise by building an integrated process of organisational learning' They argue that these capabilities are linked through 'rich horizontal flows of information' (Ghoshal and Bartlett 1998 100), which in turn is based not just on a communications infrastructure, but on openness and transparency, fairness and equity in its dealings and on trust The third feature of the Individualized corporation is an ability to continuously renew itself, which, they argue, requires total devolvement of control to the front-line

Like Plant (1987), Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) admit that they have not come up with something fundamentally different from that which has been put forward before They acknowledge the key writings over the 1980s and 1990s which have influenced their thinking including de Gues (1997), Moss Kanter (1983), Morgan (1993) Peters (1992) and Rousseau (1995) for their views on the importance of the organisation being oriented towards employees' autonomy and developmental needs and Nona and Takeuchi (1995), Quinn (1992) and Senge (1990) for their views on integration of effort and learning However, what they have done, is to successfully bring together a number of themes developed by these writers and, by adding these to the experiences of organisations which have undergone transformational change, have crystallised

these themes into a compelling picture of the common features found in organisations which can successfully support transformational change

It is interesting to note that like Plant (1987), Ghoshal and Bartlett have been quick to discount the notion that they might be putting forward a universal prescription for the 'right' organisational type for change They write (1998 13)

> Instead of adding to the proliferation of prescriptive tools and normative techniques, we have developed a set of integrated ideas and a conceptual framework that we believe provides a mental map of the new corporate terrain

They point out throughout their book how different organisations can successfully borrow some of the features and not others according to their particular needs

This review of the work of Woodward (1965), Plant (1987) and Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) suggests that a universal model of the 'right' organisational type for change is probably too simplistic Dawson (1994 61), who reviewed the process of organisational change towards total quality in two plants concludes

> The thrust of much of the prescriptive literature perpetuates the view that there is 'one best way' Little attention has been given to contextual issues in a largely uncritical acceptance of the model However, differences in workforce composition, workplace cultures and the history of the companies all serve to influence employee response to the implementation of TQM

There are many internal and external variables influencing each organisation, making each organisation's circumstances unique (eg Burns and Stalker, 1961, Horwitz and Neville, 1996, Plant, 1987, Wood and Albanese, 1995, Woodward, 1980) Yet the change management literature, borrowing from respected organisational writers such as Drucker, Handy and Moss Kanter, tend to list the same six universal criteria as the basis for judging the extent to which organisations are 'right' for change For example, Kilmann (1984) stresses removing hierarchies and encouraging employee contribution Saunders (1984) advocates co-ordination and devolvement of responsibility, employee contribution and open information flows, while Peters and Waterman (1986) emphasise flexibility, openness with information, co-ordination and contribution Little attention is paid to exploring whether different combinations of these factors may be

more or less appropriate according to the type and extent of required change and the circumstances of the organisation itself

1.5.3. (iv) *Overview Of Change And The Organisation*

There has been considerable attention paid to identifying the characteristics of an organisation which best supports change The tacit assumption behind this body of work is that it is valid to talk in terms such as 'good' and 'bad' organisational types in the first place Two key themes lie behind the six factors considered to be supportive of change The Human Relations theme suggests that classical hierarchical organisations are not conducive to change It is argued that organisations need to have respect for people, minimal hierarchies and encourage participation and devolvement of power The second theme is integration, where sharing of information and learning and co-ordinated effort around a common goal is emphasised In the 1960s, the contingency argument was put forward that while important themes have been identified, one type of organisation does not fit perfectly in all situations However, in much of today's literature on organisational types which support change, the 'universal' view of the right type of organisation for change remains

1.6 Strategies For Change Management

1.6.1 Introduction

It has been noted a number of times already in this chapter that the literature commonly prescribes what is considered 'right' for change management, with no reference to empirical evidence to support the assertions This phenomenon is particularly prevalent in the literature on change management strategies The literature tends to advocate lists of 'what to do' and 'what not to do' for managers embarking on change management programmes McGrath and Geaney (1998 5) point to a lack of theoretical underpinning to the literature on change management strategies, writing,

> The field has remained theoretically unsophisticated, relying heavily on poor descriptive or programmed theories of change and a narrowly prescriptive shopping list of do's and don'ts

A brief summary of the titles of some of the articles in this area underscores this point Carr's (1994) 'Seven Keys to Successful Change', Caudron's (1995) 'Top 20 Ways to Motivate Employees' and Ginnodo's (1989) 'How To Build Employee Commitment', are just some examples of the prescriptive nature of this literature Moreover, as with the literature described earlier on organisational types which support change (chapter 1 5), there is a prevailing certainty that there is a series of 'right' ways and 'wrong' ways to approach change management, regardless of the circumstances Examples of this universalist approach include Hall's (1991) assertion that there are six elements involved in managing change for all situations and Kilmann's (1984) equally certain contention that there are five tracks to managing change, while Spiker (1994) suggests that there are three steps involved in overcoming resistance to change

Effectively, the literature on strategies for managing change prescribe best practices with the implication that if managers were to follow these prescriptions, they can successfully manage change But on what grounds are they basing their beliefs? In the following section of this chapter, the empirical evidence used to substantiate these claims (although, as has already been noted, many of those making the claims do not actually refer to the empirical evidence), is detailed

1.6.2   Successful Strategies For Change - The Research

Organisation development professionals and HR managers make use of a range of change strategies which cover management skills, individual skills, organisational systems and structures and communications A number of studies have been carried out to identify management's views on what appears to work in managing change and a number of factors consistently emerge across these studies

From twenty-five years of consulting organisations, Armstrong (1993) outlines twenty-five lessons which he learned about managing change from personal experience He emphasises commitment from the CEO, articulating a clear vision, providing sufficient resources and information to undertake the change, involving as many people as possible and developing a climate of trust Brege and Brandes (1993) carried out an in-depth longitudinal study on the successful transformation of Scandinavian company ASEA / ABB (One of the companies in Ghoshal and Bartlett's (1998) work) They identify twenty important lessons and, like Armstrong, they identify having a clear vision, full support at the highest levels, and a challenging

28

climate, based on trust Brege and Brandes specify that the key factor is the deep involvement of the CEO and senior management in the process They add further factors not mentioned by Armstrong including dialogue between senior and middle management and early successes

Beer et al's (1990) classic article on 'why change programmes don't produce change' was based on an in-depth tracking of change programmes across six large organisations in the US (all with a minimum of US$4 billion revenues) Their findings suggest that organisations should focus their change energy on solving key business problems and align all responsibilities and roles around this focus, rather than expending effort on a cultural and attitudinal change per se While their claim to have found a very different approach to change management starts promisingly, in reality, the six features of their 'critical path' are very similar to the strategies and features identified in the other research into change management, leaders creating the environment for change, communication and involvement in a shared vision, competency training, an organisation which is participatory and supports interfunctional co-ordination and eventual institutionalisation of the changes through policies and systems

Like Brege and Brandes, Beer et al's study was qualitative and cannot be immediately generalised to all other types of organisations, but other quantitative studies support much of their and Armstrong's findings For example, Covin and Kilman (1990) surveyed 398 managers and consultants involved in change programmes and asked them which strategies they found had most impact The respondents were not given a list from which to select to prevent them from being unduly influenced and interestingly, no strategy received an overwhelming response, with the highest response only at 18 per cent However, like Alexander (1985), Beer et al (1990) and Brege and Brandes, the role of senior management was found to be important, as was openness with information and employee involvement The more successful strategies include visible support from top management (18 per cent), adequate assessment and preparation (15 per cent), employee participation (11 per cent) and a high degree of sharing information from the top (10 per cent) (See Table 1 2)

Table 1.2   <u>**Six Change Strategies Believed To Have Most Impact**</u>

<u>**Views of 398 Managers and Consultants**</u>

<u>**Source Covin and Kilman (1990 : 244-248)**</u>

Strategy	Percentage
1 Visible Management Support And Commitment	18%
2 Preparation	15%
3 Encouraging Employee Participation	11%
4 High Degree Of Communication	10%
5 Instilling Recognition of Business Need For Change	10%
6 Reward System Supporting Change	5%

The relative importance of a number of management mechanisms for implementing TQM was assessed in a Gallup survey of 615 senior executives of both large and small organisations cited in Bowen and Lawler (1992a) Training was mentioned by 75 per cent of the sample, systems controls received mentions from 53 per cent and resourcing the acquisition of capital equipment was mentioned by 45 per cent However, the highest rated management tool by the sample was employee involvement, mentioned by 85 per cent of the sample

Kotter (1995) summarised his experiences with 100 organisations undertaking change programmes and found eight key factors in successful change programmes, including communications forming a powerful coalition, empowering people, planning short-term wins and institutionalising the new approaches Gundogan et al (1996), in a survey of 32 manufacturing organisations implementing TQM programmes, found change management strategies consistent with the other studies, including the need for communications, senior management commitment, resourcing with time and people and training

Looking at the issue from the other perspective, a number of studies have also been carried out to investigate what, in managers' experiences, can have most impact on the failure of change management Not surprisingly, the absence of factors identified by Armstrong (1993), Covin and Kilman (1990) and Gundogan et al (1996), such as visibility of leadership, lack of adequate preparation, poor information sharing and insufficient attention paid to employees' concerns have been listed For example

30

Burnes and Weekes (1989) studied 15 companies covering some 30 different projects and found that 20 of those projects either fell considerably short of their targets or failed completely A number of reasons were given for this, but the two most common problems reported were the failure of the companies to assess adequately the extent of the change needed and to investigate adequately change options other than the ones they chose

Alexander (1985) also surveyed managers in 93 private sector firms to find out the most common reasons for implementation problems with their change initiatives The firms surveyed represented a wide breath of industry from all geographic locations in the USA and ranged in size from companies with less than 400 employees to companies with more than 5,000 Inadequate planning for unforeseen circumstances and 'people' problems surfaced over and over Table 1 3 summarises the ten problems cited most often by the sample of 93

Table 1.3   Ten Most Common Implementation Problems In Change Initiatives Cited By 93 Firms. Source: Alexander (1985 : 93).

Problem	Percentage of firms
1 Implementation took more time than originally allocated	76
2 Major problems surfaced during the implementation that were not identified beforehand	74
3 Poor co-ordination of implementation activities (eg task forces)	66
4 Competing activities and crises detracted attention away from the strategic change	64
5 Capabilities of employees involved were not sufficient	63
6 Training and instructions to lower level employees were not sufficient	62
7 Uncontrollable adverse factors in external environment	60
8 Leadership by departmental managers was not adequate	59
9 Key tasks were not sufficiently identified	56
10 Monitoring information systems were not adequate	56

31

An interesting phenomenon surfaced when Alexander categorised the 93 firms' change programmes into high, medium and low success categories, according to data he had on the degree of success they had with achieving their goals Carrying out a t-test to evaluate the significant difference between the number of times each problem was cited by the low success and the high success firms, Alexander found that low success change programmes were riddled with people and communication problems Problems that cropped up significantly more in these firms than in the high success firms included, top management not hearing about problems quickly enough, key tasks not being defined in enough detail and key employees not properly understanding changes in their roles and responsibilities

People problems, as with any organisational change programme, are most commonly associated with the failure to implement TQM Hutchins (1990) goes as far as saying that almost all TQM failures can be attributed to people problems This view appears to be supported to a great extent by Marchington and Dale's (1993) survey of management in UK companies 80 per cent of TQM programmes which failed, experienced people problems and key change strategies deemed to have been lacking according to the respondents to this survey, were communications and a lack of a role for HR

However Wilkinson et al (1994) survey of management in companies which experienced difficulties with their TQM programme did not mention people factors This is surprising, given the general emphasis put on people by other authors The three major factors identified in their survey were resource limitations, cost constraints and emphasis put by management on short-term goals

Table 1 4 below brings together the key findings of the 11 studies cited above and demonstrates that managers from all types of organisations are consistently identifying the same six key change management strategies, many of which focus as much on managing people through change as focusing on resources and structures However, while the managers have identified people factors as being a vital component, they do not draw any links back to how or why attitudes, resistance, or other theories described earlier in this chapter may have an impact on the implementation of change

32

Table 1.4   Change Management Strategies Identified By The Research.
            A Summary

	Leadership & vision	Clear & manageable objectives	Providing the right structures	Proper resourcing	Human resource tools	Comms.
Alexander (1985)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Armstrong (1993)	✓		✓	✓		✓
Beer et al (1990)	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Bowen & Lawler (1992a)	✓				✓	✓
Brege & Brandes (1993)	✓					✓
Burnes & Weekes (1989)		✓	✓	✓		
Covin & Kilman (1990)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Gundogan et al (1996)	✓			✓	✓	✓
Kotter (1995)			✓	✓		✓
Marchington and Dale (1994)					✓	✓
Wilkinson et al (1994)	✓	✓		✓		✓

1.6.3   The Strategies In More Detail

The review of the literature in section 1 6 2 above demonstrates that while there are some differences of opinion regarding which factors are key to the success of change programmes, there is general agreement on six factors communications (including involvement), leadership with a clear vision, clear and manageable objectives, provision of the right structures, provision of the right resourcing and a range of HR tools such as rewards systems and skills training Communications as a strategy for change will be explored in more depth in chapter 3, but in this chapter, the other five factors are briefly discussed

33

1.6.3(i)   *Leadership And Vision*

Visible leadership by top management has been identified as one of the key strategies for successful change (eg Beer et al, 1990, McGrath and Geaney, 1998), and in some instances, the most important strategy According to Cox (1991), leaders are visionaries, enablers, developers, coaches, supporters and growers of people and are the number one salesmen of the new vision Bennis (1997) outlines a number of traits which leaders must have including self-awareness and self-esteem, a strongly defined sense of purpose, openness to new ideas and influences and a bias towards action As mentioned in section 1 6 2 above, Gundogan et al (1996) found leadership to be the most important strategy for change ahead of communications, employee involvement and 15 other OD strategies If a strong vision from the top is key to successful change, there is disturbing evidence to show a lack of shared vision from the top in Irish organisations Kakabadse et al (1995), in a study of best practice amongst Irish top management found that 54 per cent of Irish GMs feel that their members of their senior management team hold different visions about the future of their organisations

There is some difference in opinion as to how visible leaders should be in pushing the change project forward Bonvilhan (1997), Kotter (1997), Ward and Hillis (1990), West and Hughes (1986) all see visibility of the organisations' leaders as being a priority In their opinion, leaders should not only be seen to be communicating and promoting the concept behind the change, but should also use every opportunity and symbol to be seen to be living by those changes They argue that without the constant reinforcement of their public support for the changes, the momentum can be lost Bennis (1997 3) writes, 'you need to live a vision, day in day out' However, Karathanos (1998), Moss Kanter (1983 a) and Quinn (1980) take a different perspective. They see leaders taking more of a low-key approach They describe their role as being more of a 'hidden hand' They mobilise others, plant seeds in their minds and influence the people to eventually believe that the solution was their own all along There is no reference to suggest that one method is more successful than another, but the relevance of the role of leaders with vision, remains unchallenged

34

1.6.3.(ii)   Clear And Manageable Objectives

Setting clear and manageable objectives is also identified as being a key factor in effective change management This aspect, according to *Chief Executive* (1997), is the role of the manager rather than the leader Contingency planning should be part of the process to try and account for possible debilitating circumstances and Leonard-Barton and Kraus (1986) also advise implementing a pilot test, for example introducing the changes to one department, to test its feasibility and make adjustments

Recommendations given in the literature on how to manage a change programme include those of Owen (1982), who outlines a series of guidelines, such as responsibilities and accountability should be clearly allocated and the number of strategies being pursued at any one time should be limited Lippitt (1981) emphasises that long-term goals can seem remote or even frustrating to anyone who has to implement the change programme He argues that breaking up the goals into short-term steps can be more encouraging for everyone as they help people chart what progress is being made Moreover, milestones can act as motivating mechanisms, where management publicly acknowledge and celebrate the progress that is being made

1.6.3.(iii)   Providing The Right Structures

In chapter 1 5, the features of organisations which support change were explored Because the organisation itself is seen to play such a vital role in the success of change management, a key strategy is considered to be the provision of the right organisational structures Centres of authority and control should be decentralised if at all possible, according to Moss Kanter (1983a) and Leavitt (1970) Decision making can be more flexible and employees in each of the subunits are more likely to have taken ownership of something over which they have more control as opposed to something imposed on them from a central body The concept of decentralisation goes hand-in-hand with the concept of involvement A classic centralised hierarchical organisation is not seen as providing the type of environment that employee involvement requires The literature also advocates the use of cross-functional structures such as cross-functional project teams to promote co-ordination, integration, and shared learning during change (eg Cox, 1991, Murphy, 1993, Raffio, 1992)

35

However, a problem arises in that an organisation which has never before promoted autonomy or has not experimented beyond very rigid vertical lines of accountability, is unlikely to be comfortable with such structures Given that many change programmes are triggered by an immediate need, how much time has the organisation to establish a working culture within which these structures will work? Moss Kanter (1983a) suggests that resourcing with new organisational structures will not work if not supported by a similar change in leadership style and organisational culture

1.6.3.(iv)   Proper Resourcing

The importance of providing sufficient resources to support the change programme has also been identified French and Bell (1990) write that change agents will have to concentrate more in the future on ensuring that resources such as personnel, information technology, compensation and expertise are taken into account when planning for change Margulies and Wallace (1973) argued the same point almost two decades earlier and Trist (1970) had noted that a change project can falter because of inadequate provision of time, money, people or technical experience

Bonvilhan (1996) suggests that there are two issues at stake with resourcing Organisations should, he agrees, be prepared to back up the change programme with adequate resourcing But he also argues that employees should be educated from the start on what is a reasonable level of resourcing to expect, particularly in the case of smaller organisations Part of the problem, he argues, is that employees are not given clear guidelines regarding what can or cannot be made available This results in employees creating suggestions and becoming involved in problem solving only to become frustrated when they learn late into the process that desired resources will not become available

1.6.3.(v)   Human Resources Strategies

A variety of human resource management strategies are referred to in the literature as mechanisms available to the change agent or management in planned change programmes Marchington and Dale (1993) carried out an extensive study across UK and European organisations to evaluate the extent to which the HR manager is involved in one key type of change programme, the implementation of TQM Over 75 per cent of the companies involved said that they used a HR professional, but many

36

were restricted to a training function Others, however, used their HR department to alleviate potential industrial relations concerns, as a facilitator resource for on-line management to implement changes and in some cases, helping to prepare for the changes at a strategic level Monks et al (1997) looked at the same issue in Ireland and found, on the basis of feedback from 52 organisations holding the Irish Q Mark with specialised HR departments in place, that as a result of their quality initiatives, the HR functions were involved more in training and development and in influencing strategic decisions

Incentives and rewards are widely used and it is argued that if changes in performance or work practice are required, the rewards should reflect the new objectives (eg Schonberger, 1992, Scott and Jaffe, 1989) Training, an integral part of human resource management, is also a common mechanism in change management If, for example, new work practices or technical skills are required, they will either have to be acquired from outside, or trained from within (French and Bell, 1990, Gundogan et al, 1996) But training can often extend beyond technical skills and is regularly used to develop new attitudes and corporate values Cocheu (1992) writes about the need for providing people with the skills to work effectively in groups - problem solving skills, leadership skills and so on Balley et al (1993) write that the HR department must be supported by line management in its training function Training will fail unless employees are given the opportunities to apply what they learn to the workplace and employees are rewarded on the basis of their new skills Other tools used include team building sessions, T-groups (sensitivity training) and the use of human resource assessment tools such as personality tests, leadership assessments and so on to help evaluate the most appropriate people to champion the change programme (Callahan et al, 1986, French and Bell, 1990) Monks et al (1997) found, in a survey of 133 organisations holding the Irish Q Mark, a considerable increase in staff and management training, induction programmes, performance appraisals and recruitment procedures However, there was little change found in rewards - pay systems and performance related pay was not found to have changed significantly amongst this sample of organisations implementing quality programmes

1.6.4   Change Management Strategies - A Summary

A review of 11 studies on change management strategies reveals that six strategies, including communications, are regularly identified The literature tends to take a universal approach to these strategies, leaving the impression that all the strategies are of equal importance in all situations It also tends to advocate the strategies on the basis that other managers have found them useful in the past rather than by trying to explore why they might work by linking them back to relevant theories such as theories of commitment, attitude change, resistance or organisational development Five of the six strategies (excluding communications), were briefly described

1.7   Conclusions

This chapter began by highlighting the differences between incremental and transformational organisational change It then explored the type of features which can influence an individual's level of resistance or commitment to change, in addition to different organisational types associated with change Despite the acceptance that there are many variables at play within each of the individual, the organisation and the nature of change itself, it was observed that the literature tends to take a universal approach to prescribing the 'right' change management strategies and organisational types for all situations It was also noted that there appear to be few links drawn between what is advocated as the 'right' thing to do and the relevant theories underpinning the strategies such as commitment to change, resistance to change and theories of organisational types

One set of theories of particular interest, are those on commitment As was seen in the review of the literature on commitment, internalised commitment appears to be a stronger determinant of willingness to change than externally influenced commitment (compliance) In turn, research on the antecedents to internalised commitment appears to be points towards a willingness to respect the individual and openness with information

The nature of organisational change itself also came under discussion, where the majority of literature subscribes to a view of organisational change as being a linear, incremental process However, a small number of writers take a different perspective One area of organisational change - changing to become total quality organisations - has been selected as the context for this study Chapter 2 identifies what is involved in changing to become total quality organisations, exploring in particular whether or not this organisational change process is considered to be linear and incremental

CHAPTER 2: QUALITY AS THE CONTEXT FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

The concept of total quality management, or TQM, emerged from Japan across the United States and into Europe and has been embraced by organisations as a management approach which should enable greater competitive advantage (Cocheu, 1989, Edge, 1990b, Fisher, 1992 and Wilkinson et al, 1994) This chapter begins by briefly describing the prevalence of quality programmes in Ireland and explores the benefits of quality It then defines what is meant by quality and whether or not it involves any great degree of organisational change A model of organisational change based on becoming a total quality organisation is then put forward as the context for researching organisational change

2.2 Quality In Ireland

Quality has been the subject of both academic and management interest in Ireland for over a decade Recognising that there are far reaching benefits to being a quality organisation, many Irish organisations have introduced quality programmes Murphy (1997), for example, cites a survey of 424 managers in Irish organisations who placed quality as the most critical influence on their purchasing decisions, while a recent survey of 450 Irish workplaces found that in 71 per cent of the workplaces, a quality improvement process was being operated (Roche and Geary, 1998)

Excellence Ireland (formerly the Irish Quality Association), the Irish association which promotes quality and business excellence, has seen a rapid increase in business' interest in holding the quality standards Q mark, the ISO 9000 series and more recently, the Irish Business Excellence Model, based on the European Foundation for Quality Management Model The Q Mark for Irish industry was first launched in 1982 and by 1999, 273 organisations held the Q Mark (Excellence Ireland, 1999) The ISO standard was first introduced in 1986, when four companies registered (Sinnott, 1994) and in 1997, 1600 organisations in Ireland held the ISO 9000 award (IQA, 1997) Roche and Gunnigle (1995) note that initial union scepticism in Ireland about quality appears to have been replaced by a tacit acceptance of its inevitability The ICTU's

40

(1995) 'Managing Change' policy document, for example, acknowledges that quality is the inevitable outcome of the growth in consumerism which demands increasingly higher standards in the quality of goods and services

As in other countries, quality began in the manufacturing sector and gradually was taken up by the services sector in Ireland The public sector also has begun to introduce quality programmes Some commercial semi-state organisations and Government agencies hold the Q Mark (Excellence Ireland, 1999), and quality structures have been identified as one of the five key strategic change initiatives for Government Departments and Offices in the Government's Strategic Management Initiative (SMI) (Government of Ireland, 1996) However, the extent to which quality has been embraced in any fundamental way in Ireland has come under review As Excellence Ireland (1997) points out, only an estimated 2 5 per cent of Irish organisations formally audit their organisations for quality in any systematic way, and there is a view held that quality is not embraced to any great extent by Irish organisations Conlon (1994), for example, notes that in a survey of Q Mark registered organisations, TQM tools were not found to be widely used

Roche and Gunnigle (1995 177) also argue that quality tends to be implemented at a superficial level in Ireland, writing

> While such things as the Q Mark and ISO standards appear to have diffused widely across Irish industry and services, there is little evidence that the new managerial concern with quality has resulted in any radical restructuring of work and industrial relations process based on a shared concept of 'partnership'

However, on the basis of research carried out by Monks et al (1997), it would appear that many Irish organisations are experiencing something considerably more fundamental than superficial change through their quality programmes Monks et al (1997) surveyed 133 Irish organisations implementing quality programmes and found that between 58 and 70 per cent of them reported improvements in participation, reporting systems and team working Half of the organisations (50 per cent), have seen a change in organisational culture, while almost a half (46 per cent), report an increase in devolved responsibility This level of difference has to be viewed as being something more than superficial organisational change

41

2.3   The Benefits Of Quality

The rapid increase in interest in quality in Ireland has been due largely to the
perception that quality brings a range of benefits to the organisation, its employees and
its customers There appears to be overwhelming evidence to support the argument
that quality initiatives, when implemented properly, bring both short and long-term
benefits to an organisation Edge (1990b), for example, notes that quality benefits the
organisation by reducing delays and rework and allowing for better use of time These
views are shared by 150 UK CEOs surveyed by McKinsey in 1989, who saw the main
benefits of TQM as being reduced costs, reduced throughput time, improved flexibility
and a strong selling argument to the customer

The PA Consulting Group (1991 25) summarises the prevailing opinion on the
benefits of quality by writing,

> It is this process which gives rise to increased consumer satisfaction, reduced
> costs, enhanced image and ultimately the greatest prize   strengthened
> competitive position

This opinion is supported by research A large number of case studies of well known
international organisations such as Motorola and British Airways were carried out in
the 1980s and 1990s, (Dale and Cooper, 1992, Fisher, 1992, PA Consulting Group,
1991, Segalla, 1989) These studies suggest that quality can be attributed to
substantial increases in customers, marketshare, savings and earnings Buzzell and
Gale's (1987) Profit Impact of Market Study (PIMS), also points to a strong
relationship between companies perceived to have a superior relative quality service
and their return on sales and return on investment Return on investment is particularly
positively correlated with an increase in perceived quality standards Further evidence
to support this is provided by a McKinsey consulting group survey of 141 automotive
supplier companies in Germany and Japan, compiled by Rommel et al (1994) The
survey reports that organisations deemed to be the equivalent of quality organisations
(termed 'perfection' organisations in their survey), show a 9 3 per cent growth in return
on sales per annum as compared to a 0 5 per cent growth by companies who carry out
little more than quality inspection, or a 4 7 per cent growth by companies who have
basic quality assurance systems in place Sales growth for the 'perfection'
organisations rose by 16 per cent per annum, compared with 5 1 per cent for those
who inspect goods and 7 3 per cent for those with quality assurance

In a more recent study carried out in the US which matches the sales results and operating income of 463 companies which have received quality awards and 394 similar companies without quality awards over a period of ten years, Hendricks and Singhal (1997) found income levels of the quality award holding companies to have increased 107 per cent more and sales growth to have increased 64 per cent more in the companies holding quality awards, than the control companies. They also found higher growth both in employment levels and total assets. Lawler (1996) also found strong evidence to support a correlation between quality and financial benefits in a series of studies of Fortune 1,000 companies between 1987 and 1993. Lawler and his colleagues found that the more organisations used quality processes, the better the financial performance. Organisations with 'high use' of quality initiatives and employee involvement methods consistently out performed organisations with low use of these methods on measures such as return on sales (high users attained 10 3 per cent, low users attained 6 3 per cent), and return on investment (high users attained 14 6 per cent, low users attained 9 0 per cent). Similarly, an EU commissioned study on competitiveness and quality found that effective total quality strategies increase companies' performance by 6 3 per cent on average (IQA, 1996c)

As well as finding improvements on financial indicators, Lawler et al (1992) also found from their Fortune 1,000 studies, a strong correlation between quality and improved internal business conditions such as employee morale, reduction of hierarchies, development of skills and improvement in management decision making Schonberger (1992) also argues that the benefits of quality are experienced as much by individual employees (more flexibility, better training), as the organisation (lower costs, faster machine set ups), and Ishikawa (1985) writes that some of the benefits of quality include a better corporate health and co-operative culture, while Buckley et al (1998) found improved communications flows and supportive climates in organisations in Ireland holding the Q Mark

However, the quality movement also has its critics and some writers argue that quality is in fact an insidious form of increased managerial control (eg Webley and Cartwright, 1996, Wilkinson et al, 1992) Webley and Cartwright (1996), for example, argue that through TQM, managers are taking employees' ideas and ingenuity for their own managerial agenda rather than for any gain for the employees themselves Wilkinson et al (1992 18) also suggest that TQM has been used by many

43

organisations to reinforce a management style 'rooted in Taylorism', where extra responsibility is imposed upon employees, but without any power actually being shared They write (1992 17) , 'While the language is about increased involvement, there is also a strong emphasis on reinforcing management control '

2.4   Total Quality As The Context For Transformational Change

The concept of quality in the 1990s is very different from the concept of quality held by the quality masters earlier this century such as Deming (1948), Feigenbaum (1956), Juran (1951) and Shewart (1931) It has moved considerably from its foundations, where the focus was on defects measurement and conformance levels, to where quality involves a far-reaching orientation of all parts of the organisation towards customers' needs (Bounds et al, 1994, Collard and Sivyer, 1990, Edge, 1990b, Hutchins, 1990, Ishikawa, 1985, Murphy, 1993, Weaver, 1993) Dale and Cooper (1992) point out that unlike other management initiatives that have come before, quality's strength is in its pervasiveness It spans across all aspects of the organisation, encompassing the product, service, process, delivery and distribution, market research, costs, training, finance, and organisational structures

Wright (1996 19) describes TQM as follows,

> Total quality management is on a different plane Such an organisation is concerned with much more than just standards and conformance, such an organisation has an over-riding culture of excellence and quality Excellence and quality mean more than just being customer focused Excellence and quality also mean that everyone in the organisation, from the chief to the cleaner, is determined to eliminate any cost that does not add to the process or service TQM requires a culture where every member of the organisation seriously believes that not one day should go by without the organisation in some way improving the quality of its goods and service

Wright's description of total quality management points to a number of key concepts which mark out the difference between having quality assurance or control measures in place and being a total quality organisation While quality assurance focuses on standards and conformance, the view today is that total quality extends well beyond this to customer focus, continuous improvement and adding value to the process Wright's description also clearly points to the responsibility for quality being devolved to every member of staff

44

A brief review of other definitions of total quality demonstrates how the literature broadly agrees with Wright's definition Stainer and Stainer (1997 71), define it as, 'managing an organisational-wide commitment to continuous improvement as well as totally meeting customer requirements' and Joss and Kogan (1995 13) define it as 'an integrated, corporately led programme of organisational change designed to engender and sustain a culture of continuous improvement based on customer-oriented definitions of quality '

In a similar vein, Westphal et al (1997 367) define total quality as

> A managerial innovation that emphasises an organisation's total commitment to the customer and to continuous improvement of every process through the use of data driven, problem solving approaches based on empowerment of employee groups and teams

In this definition, the level of change required in total quality extends well beyond procedures and systems to the very philosophy of management in the organisation For many organisations, it challenges previous assumptions about what is important for competitive advantage and challenges individuals about the type of contribution they are expected to make

For Burnes (1992), it is an organisation-wide effort which involves changes at all levels including systems, structures, practices, behaviours and attitudes, while for Raynor (1992 3) total quality 'in its fullest form, is an entire system of thought' and according to the PA Group (1991 89), total quality does not simply mean change, 'it means transformation it means turning everything on its head ' Arguing that TQM is so radically different from previous management philosophies that it warrants being put on a par with Taylorism or Human Relations, Hutchins (1990 10) adds that TQM

> represents a social revolution, which in twenty to thirty years' time will be regarded as of at least equal importance to the introduction of the factory system in the mid 1700s and the advent of scientific management as defined by Frederick W Taylor at the turn of the twentieth century

The extent of change involved is also highlighted by contrasting the quality paradigm against more conventional Western management practices For example, Liberatore (1993) and Grant et al (1994) note that under the Western convention, organisations

45

traditionally focus on sales and profits, but in total quality, the organisation focuses on the process of meeting customer needs as an end in itself, with increases in sales and profits merely happening as a result

If total quality does require such fundamental change in organisational practices, attitudes and behaviours as these writers would suggest, it involves a degree of change which is similar to the transformational change defined by Burnes (1992) and Rajagopalon and Spreitzer (1996) and offers a useful context within which communicating for change can be researched However, to be able to measure the type of change involved, it is important to be able to identify what differentiates a total quality organisation from before This in turn, requires an understanding of those principles which are central to the concept of total quality

2.5   The Core Principles Of Total Quality

A number of writers (for example Ahire and Golhar, 1996, Bahls, 1992, Bowen and Lawler, 1992b, Dale and Cooper, 1992, Herbig et al, 1994, Hodgetts et al, 1994, Kahnosky, 1990, Linkow, 1989, PA, 1991, Recardo, 1994, Terziovski et al, 1996, Westphal et al, 1997, Wilkinson et al, 1992), summarise lists of what they believe to be the key elements or principles behind total quality and many of these principles identified overlap with the concepts covered in the definitions earlier in this chapter

Some of the principles would apply to any major change programme, for example leadership, strategic planning, devolution of responsibility and teamwork However, others are more specific to quality such as customer focus, continuous improvement and objective measurement Table 2 1 summarises a search of research based evidence regarding the key principles of total quality It demonstrates that while not every study identifies every principle, common patterns clearly emerge Seven principles are found to be core to total quality by three or more of the studies These are, customer focus, continuous improvement, strategic alignment of quality, everyone takes responsibility, objective measurement, leadership and teamwork However, this list of research should be viewed as indicative only Much has been written on these core principles without the backing of research evidence Moreover, an eighth principle - focus on the process - is also widely referred to in the literature, despite not appearing in the research cited in Table 2 1

Table 2.1   The Core Principles Of Total Quality (Research Based Evidence)

	Customer Focus	Continuous improvement	Strategic alignment	Everyone takes responsibility	Objective measurement	Leadership	Teamwork
Ahire & Golhar (1996)	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	
Bowen & Lawler (1992)	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓
Herbig et al (1994)	✓	✓		✓		✓	
Hodgetts et al (1994)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Linkow (1989)	✓			✓		✓	✓
Terziovski et al (1996)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Westphal et al (1997)	✓	✓		✓			
Wilkinson et al (1994)	✓	✓		✓			

Taking both the research and general literature, the views expressed on these eight principles of total quality are detailed below

2.5.1 Customer Focus

Customer focus consistently emerges as a key principle of total quality amongst all studies in the area, ranging from the smaller qualitative case studies of total quality organisations (eg Hodgetts et al, 1994 and Terziovski et al, 1996), to large-scale organisational surveys (eg Ahire and Golhar, 1996, Bowen and Lawler, 1992, Herbig et al, 1994 and Wilkinson et al, 1994) Bowen and Lawler (1992a) write that a quality organisation is service oriented rather than production oriented and according to Ahire and Gohar (1996), who carried out a study of 499 plant managers for their views, quality is about surpassing customer expectations Dale and Cooper (1992) and Zeithaml et al (1990) note that quality organisations are focused on the customer for good economic reasons The more obvious long-term benefit is that the company will create and retain more customers and, in the short-term, customers will be prepared to pay a premium price for a service they recognise as being superior

Being customer focused involves every aspect of the organisation, not just the more obvious functions such as sales and marketing Recardo (1994) suggests that the business plan should translate customer requirements into long term planning The organisational processes will be aligned to meet customers' requirements efficiently and reliably and the very culture of the organisation is totally oriented towards satisfying the customer Murphy (1993) suggests that under this philosophy, an organisation is no longer a hierarchy, but a support group that delivers to the customer Being totally customer focused requires the organisation to regularly ask what the customer needs He describes (Murphy, 1993), a whole battery of initiatives such as consumer panels, dealer meetings and benchmarking against competitors available to the organisation to carry out this process Zeithaml et al (1990) note that a common failure in providing a quality service to customers is a failure to identify those standards the customer expects in the first place

The concept of customer satisfaction is also applied within the organisation (PA, 1991, Wilkinson et al, 1994) Everyone in the organisation has a direct customer The person who is next in the process is the customer and each person in the organisation works towards satisfying that person's needs in the same way they would for the

48

external customer This makes the concept of customer satisfaction a concrete reality for everyone and it also has implications for organisational design and process planning The organisation becomes a chain of one person 'serving' the next customer rather than a hierarchy where people work within their own function with little reference to the needs of the next

2.5.2   Continuous Improvement

The concept of continuous improvement is the second key quality principle identified and is closely tied in with customer satisfaction (Ahire and Golhar, 1996, Bahls, 1992 and Higginson and Waxler, 1994) In fact, Terziovski et al (1996   459), who carried out case studies of eight quality organisations, actually perceive quality as being a process of continuous improvement They define it as, 'a comprehensive set of processes which engage all people in a company on process improvements' Coughlan et al (1997) add that it involves continuously changing everything from equipment to service agreements to employee skills and requires a tight link with HRM policies to support the drive

Recardo (1994   190) calls continuous improvement 'innovation' and it is also known by the Japanese term 'kaizen' Ishikawa (1985) writes that in Japanese quality organisations, everyone takes personal responsibility for finding new ways of improving their contribution to the final service to the customer Choi and Liker (1995) add that continuous improvement has perhaps become the central philosophy which brings together all aspects of total quality in Japan

Kaizen does not necessarily require innovative 'leaps' Stratton (1990) notes that it comprises an ongoing series of incremental steps and significant changes only emerge in the longer-term However, kaizen does require more than just a series of corrective actions (Murphy 1993) While an important aspect of quality, corrective action only involves monitoring errors and taking steps to remove those errors from the process Kaizen is more proactive in that it involves looking for ways of improving the process and also new ways in which the customers' needs can be better met

This approach may well require a whole restructuring of the actual process itself The PA (1991) group report notes that a common misapprehension amongst managers is that continuous improvement is a steady even process of change This is not, in fact,

49

what is experienced in reality They suggest that improvement occurs in an accumulation of uneven 'jumps', with the overall effect being an incremental change over time

2.5.3   Strategic Alignment Of The Organisation To Quality

Quality has been defined earlier as a company wide orientation towards customer focus and continuous improvement and a number of authors (eg Dale and Cooper, 1992, McCormack 1992 and Wilkinson et al, 1992), suggest that failure to reach total quality is often due to not aligning these concepts into a strategic framework According to these authors, total quality can only happen if every step of the process and every function in the organisation is aligned towards a common strategic quality effort Wilkinson et al (1992 3) write,

> While traditional management systems are viewed in terms of the internal dynamics between functions, TQM implies a change to a larger systems view which integrates the interests of customer and supplier

A key dimension of aligning organisational structures and systems to quality is to move away from vertical chains of hierarchy towards an integrated organisation While there is some agreement that integration is a core part of strategic alignment, there are different views about what that means in practice Ahire and Golhar (1996) see integration as being an alignment of information systems towards quality, while Dale and Cooper (1992) specifically point to the integration of suppliers and customers Kalinowski (1990) broadens the interpretation to include integration of plans, procedures, organisation and technological structures towards the requirements of the customer, while Recardo (1994) views it as integrating the organisational structures, business systems, operations and workforce competencies He also specifically refers to horizontal communications between functions as being key for quality

The consensus in the literature is that because total quality requires a whole strategic alignment of the organisation, it takes time It requires a whole shift in culture and periods of between five and ten years are quoted as the amount of time needed to fully bed quality into the organisation (Dale and Cooper, 1992, Collard and Sivyer, 1990, Stratton, 1990) However, Dale and Cooper do say that benefits will emerge in the

50

short-term The Economist (1992) emphasises the relative inexperience of even the well known quality organisations of the West such as Motorola, Texas instruments and Hewlett-Packard (around 12 years each), in comparison with their Japanese counterparts such as Honda, Matsushita and Nissan (over 30 years each)

This has obvious implications for those who embark on a quality programme expecting 'quick-fix' results It also has deeper implications in that organisations are required to shift their goals away from short-term profit and redirect them towards strategic long-term quality Practices such as keeping down essential costs to maintain high shareholders' dividends are not acceptable in a quality organisation (Grant et al, 1994) Instead, a quality organisation concentrates on exceeding customers' needs in the long-term and, in building that reputation, provides a more stable elevated dividend price for shareholders

This long term planning means placing quality at the highest strategic levels in the organisation (Gundogan et al, 1996) Quality becomes the strategic imperative and all planning, resourcing, systems, structures and organisational development goals are focused on quality Even the company's social and environmental responsibilities come under the umbrella of a strategic vision of quality, according to Madu and Kwei (1993) Recardo (1994) adds that quality organisations align all aspects of planning, organisational structure and organisational culture towards excelling customer requirements

A number of authors suggest that treating quality as an 'extra' programme, rather than integral to the very strategy of the organisation is the cause of many failures Freeman (1994) and Recardo (1994) both argue for full integration of quality into everything the organisation does Smilansky (1993) also cautions against allowing quality to become a 'programme' or an objective in its own right rather than part of the numerous aspects of improving organisational effectiveness He points out (1993 18) 'Not only is there a separate communication to 'sell' TQM as the avenue for transforming the company, but no-one seems to think it has anything to do with other activities to improve the company '

Lawler et al (1992) also find that running separate programmes such as a quality programme and an employee involvement programme dilutes the impact Each one may be incompatible with the other and cause confusion Furthermore, each

51

programme becomes the flavour of the month, but does not become truly integrated into the culture of the organisation They argue instead that the organisation's strategic plan has to incorporate the quality goals and if this imperative is adhered to, all systems, structures and management policies should emanate out of the strategic vision

2.5.4   Devolution Of Responsibility

There is also agreement amongst much of the quality literature that devolution of responsibility is a core principle of total quality (eg Ahire and Golhar, 1996, Bounds et al, 1994, Bowen and Lawler, 1992, Dale and Cooper, 1992, Herbig et al, 1994, Recardo, 1994 and Wilkinson et al, 1994) Employee responsibility is not reserved purely for quality, it is a key part of any change management programme (see chapter 3 4 3 (i)) However, it is seen to be central to the success of TQM (eg Alexander, 1989, Lawler et al, 1995, Westphal et al, 1997), in that the organisation members cannot serve their internal customers if they are not given the tools and the responsibility to identify where service is failing and act upon it Rubenstein (1993) describes the types of responsibilities which employees should be given, including tactical measures such as self-inspection, monitoring the costs of quality and the responsibility to accept or reject any piece of work Dodson (1991   35) adds that devolving responsibility is central to the concept of total quality, writing, 'Total quality replaces bureaucracy with initiative, it replaces top-down authority with peer pressure '

A series of quality processes such as quality circles provide employees with even greater responsibility in the area of planning for continuous improvement An analysis of the quality case-studies (e g Adam, 1991, Jeannes, 1993, Raffio, 1992, Terziovski et al, 1996), provides examples of many task-forces, councils and other employee involving initiatives, all working to the premise that employees have to be involved in the decisions on how the customer can best be served Lawler et al (1992 and 1995) note, however, that these 'parallel power structures', structures that work outside of day to day hierarchical responsibilities, while useful, must be supported by giving employees the responsibility to make the decisions that can improve the quality process within their own area

However, there is some debate regarding the nature of employee involvement in quality in practice and how devolvement of responsibility is not necessarily reflected in increased employee authority or influence Wilkinson et al (1992) are quite sceptical in their view on what devolvement of responsibility in quality means in practice They argue that involvement is limited to minor aspects of production but does not extend to giving employees a say in their work environments or the broader workplace Rubenstein (1993) adds that total quality programmes invariably fail because organisations do not match devolvement of responsibility with empowerment They argue that, as a result, while employees may be given responsibility for satisfying the customer, they may not be given the authority to self inspect or retrieve inadequate work Therefore the aim of customer satisfaction cannot be met

2.5.5   Objective Measurement

As already noted, quality grew out of the concept of statistical based monitoring of production processes (Bounds et al, 1994), and comprehensive and objective data continues to be the mainstay of information upon which quality related decisions are made

Organisations which wish to implement quality programmes have to provide their management and employees with the necessary statistical measurement and analysis skills to be able to make informed decisions Management use the information to plan long-term processual changes while operators or equivalent level employees use the information to monitor and change particular aspects relevant to the process they are carrying out Fisher (1992) and Cocheu (1992) among others note that basic statistical skills are an essential part of any quality training programme

Statistical Process Control (SPC), is the use of statistical measuring tools to isolate probable causes of a problem and to monitor and reduce variation from particular specifications There is, however, some concern regarding over emphasis on SPC as being central to quality Collard and Sivyer (1990) and Edge (1990a) both caution against organisations becoming so caught up in SPC that they lose sight of it being only a means to an end (i e the higher quality issues), rather than an end in itself

The statistical tools used in managing quality can be as complicated and specific to the particular process as the organisation wishes to make them The literature covers a

53

number of basic measurement tools, sometimes referred to as the 'seven problem solving tools', that are common to most quality programmes These include 'Process Analysis' which involves brainstorming all the different stages in a process and identifying points where errors can occur, the 'Pareto chart' which is an application of the concept that a vital few errors make up 80 per cent of the problems and the 'Fishbone Chart' or 'Cause/Effect' diagram which looks at the underlying causes behind the particular problem (Edge, 1990c , Hutchins, 1990, Ishikawa, 1985) Other data tools used by organisations include basic check sheets, scatter diagrams (to determine frequency of problems), and 'Shewart Control Charts' which provide a simple visual means of seeing whether variation experienced in a process has gone outside pre-determined acceptable limits

2.5.6   Leadership

Leadership and visible commitment from the top applies to many organisational programmes, but is also regularly identified as being key to quality (eg Bounds et al, 1994, Dale and Cooper, 1992, Herbig et al, 1994, Liberatore, 1993, Recardo, 1994) Wilkinson et al (1992 4) state

> At the heart of the quality model is senior management commitment senior management are the role models and must be seen to actively participate by example

In their survey of 199 quality companies, Wenmoth and Dobbin (1994) asked organisations to identify the key factors which helped them achieve quality and to weight them by the extent to which they helped Senior management commitment scored by far the highest, ahead of the next three factors (quality policy, corporate philosophy and employee involvement). In addition, Gundogan et al (1996) found that 69 per cent of 32 manufacturing organisations identified top management commitment as being an important requirement in quality (10 per cent ahead of the next most mentioned factor - good communications)

Leadership overlaps with strategic alignment and integration, for it is the role of the senior management team to take the broader view, plan and resource for quality strategies and to integrate the organisation under one common quality vision An examination of Baldridge award winners by Hodgetts et al (1994), for example, found

54

that these three activities by the leaders of the organisations are the three common characteristics across all the award winners

2.5.7   Teamwork

Like leadership, teamwork is a concept not limited to quality, but is also referred to as a key principle (eg Bahls, 1992, Bounds et al, 1994, Dale and Cooper, 1992, Linkow, 1990 and Terziovski et al, 1996) Teamwork is closely aligned to devolving responsibility, but adds a further dimension whereby employees are expected to problem solve and generate ideas in teams rather than individually

In certain areas of the literature, (eg Bowen and Lawler, 1992, Higginson and Waxler, 1994 and Schonberger, 1992), it is advocated that reward structures for quality should be based round the team rather than the individual It is argued that quality is a collective responsibility and should be rewarded accordingly However, Snape (1996) has demonstrated through a survey of 880 UK organisations with quality management programmes in place that individual rewards can also effectively be used to encourage commitment to quality

The best known team structure in quality programmes is quality circles, whereby the team is empowered to meet regularly to identify quality issues, problem solve, brainstorm solutions, implement the solutions and evaluate the improvements (eg Adam, 1991, Cocheu, 1992, Collard and Sivyer, 1990, Edge 1990a, Hutchins, 1990) According to Adam (1991), there is a danger in assuming that once quality circles are in place that employee commitment to total quality increases In fact, by repeating an attitude survey amongst quality circle members and control groups within a company over 18 months, he found that while benefits such as cost savings and efficiencies accrued, there was no notable improvement in attitudes and commitment to quality amongst the quality circle members

Team working receives a good deal of interest in the literature as being an important aspect of quality However, it does not appear to emerge consistently as an important principle when organisations are asked to rate those factors which make a difference to quality For example, in a survey of 199 completed questionnaires amongst quality companies in New Zealand, team working was not rated as one of the top ten factors (Wenmoth and Dobbin, 1994) and in a survey of 32 manufacturing organisations on

55

factors necessary for effective quality, Gundogan et al (1996) did not find teamwork to be an important criteria

2.5.8   Focus On The Process

While this principle did not emerge from the research referred to m Table 2 1, it is considered in many parts of the literature to be central to what differentiates quality from Western management (eg Economic Update, 1993 Edge, 1990, Liberatore, 1993, PA Group, 1991 and Stratton, 1990) According to the quality approach, there is no substitute for a full and in-depth knowledge of the process that goes into providing any particular service This stems from Juran's observation that at least 85 per cent of failures or errors are the fault of the system Consequently, the individual or the manager can determine which part of the process will give the most returns for an investment in effort or new ideas Dale and Cooper (1992) and Liberatore (1993) note that this emphasis on process also helps to promote a blame-free culture (the 'rationality' concept identified by Webley and Cartwright, 1996) Individuals are less likely to be blamed for errors if problems are attributed to be symptoms of an inadequate process or system

2.5.9   Summary : The Core Principles Of Quality

A review of the literature identifies eight principles which to a lesser or greater extent are considered to be core to quality, although in many instances these principles are not linked to research evidence Some of the principles, it could be argued, are core to any major change programme and are not specific to quality These include leadership, team working and devolution of responsibility Those principles which appear to strongly differentiate quality from other management programmes include customer focus, continuous improvement, objective measurement, focus on the process and strategic alignment of the organisations towards quality From a review of the principles identified as central to quality in the literature, it is possible to identify differences between quality and non-quality organisations However, this on its own does not detail the process of change towards total quality This is explored in the next section of this chapter

56

2.6   The Organisational Change Process To Becoming A Total Quality Organisation

Earlier in this chapter, quality was described as involving fundamental and wide reaching change The nature of such transformational change has also been explored in chapter 1 and with some exceptions (eg Lovelady, 1984 and Orlikowski and Hofman, 1997), the assumption is that change follows a sequence of linear steps from one stage to the next This assumption also forms the basis of current thinking on how organisations transform from non-quality states to total quality Dale and Smith (1997 308), drawing on their consulting experience, are unequivocal that the change process towards total quality is linear and incremental They write

> The implications underlying the TQM adoption model is that an organisation's 'quality journey' is a linear progression through various stages of development there is no point in a business addressing a stage 4 issue if it is still at stage 2

The majority of the literature on total quality tends to describe the features of a total quality organisation without referring to the process involved in becoming a total quality organisation There are some exceptions, however, referred to in Table 2 2 below

57

Table 2.2   The Transition Stages Of Organisations To TQM - A Summary Of Stages Identified In The Literature

	Earlier Stages					Later Stages			
Crosby (1979)	Uncertainty	→	Awakening	→	Enlightenment	→	Wisdom	→	Certainty
PA Group (1991)			Awareness	→	Promotion	→	Management	→	Empowerment
Dale & Cooper (1992)			Quality Inspection	→	Quality Assurance	→	Quality Control	→	Total Quality Management
Rommel et al (1994)			Inspection	→	Assurance	→	Prevention	→	Perfection
Dale & Smith (1997)	Uncommitted	→	Drifters	→	Tool pushers	→	Improvers	→	Award winners

While Crosby's (1979) five stages were based more on anecdotal evidence than empirical research, each of the other authors based their views on research evidence. The number of stages vary from four to six and the terms used to categorise each stage also differ, but there is a great deal of consistency between the five sets of authors' views regarding how organisations progress through stages to total quality. In broad terms, they all describe a transition from an initial interest in quality assurance, through a more wide-spread commitment to quality and on to a final total involvement by all employees in continually looking for new ways to better serve the customer. The assumption is that organisations have to travel through quality assurance and control stages before they can truly become total quality organisations.

Crosby's (1979) five stage maturity grid is perhaps the best known model of transition to becoming a quality organisation. In a comprehensive grid, Crosby identifies the characteristics of the five stages - Uncertainty, Awakening, Enlightenment, Wisdom and Certainty - across a number of criteria such as management attitudes, problem handling, responsibility for quality and quality improvement actions. The characteristics of Crosby's first stage in the maturity grid - the Uncertainty stage - clearly relate to organisations with little or no interest in quality. They include lack of inspection, blame culture for mistakes and no quality activities. The next two stages - Awakening and Enlightenment - include monitoring of errors, short-term and corrective actions, a quality leader put in place and limited allocation of resources. In the second last stage - Wisdom - problems are proactively identified early in their development. Detection makes way for prevention and the responsibility for quality broadens from the QA department to other management. It is only the final stage, Certainty, that the characteristics associated with total quality discussed earlier in this chapter (chapter 2.5), emerge. These include quality being designed into the company system at a strategic level, continuous quality improvement and responsibility being divested to all.

On the basis of experience in consulting and a review of academic research, PA Group (1991) identify four stages to the quality change process - Quality Awareness, Quality Promotion, Quality Management and Quality Empowerment. Their Quality Awareness stage is similar to Crosby's 'Awakening' phase, where an awareness of customer pressures begins to emerge, a small number of quality champions begin to promote the quality message and quality inspection data begins to take on a prominence. However, quality is still seen to be an add-on and does not affect the established management systems and structures in any way. During stage 2, Quality Promotion, quality detection is broadened to include some key processes, planned improvement activities

commence and various quality structures such as steering groups are put in place By stage three, quality comes closer to being an integral part of the business Quality planning becomes more strategic Structures and actions become integrated towards meeting quality and responsibilities for quality are broadened to all employees Stage 4, Empowerment, involves 100 per cent participation, continuous improvement, integrated structures and communications and recognition by customers

Dale and Cooper (1992) also identify four stages of transition to total quality which they call 'evolution to total quality' They are the only pair of the five sets of authors referred to in Table 2 2, who explicitly label the stages in quality terminology They suggest that in the earlier stages, organisations will develop a quality manual, process performance data, carry out elementary quality planning and detect sources of non conformance and carry out corrective actions These are the characteristics associated with Quality Inspection and Control, according to Dale and Cooper Their third stage is Quality Assurance Quality Assurance characteristics include more advanced statistical measures and controls, comprehensive quality manuals, widening the scope of involvement to include non-quality department employees and the development of more comprehensive plans and systems The characteristics remain centred around processes, controls and error reductions They argue that it is only when the organisation has reached the maturity of a total quality organisation that it begins to place quality at a strategic policy level, that it involves and empowers all employees, suppliers and customers in the process, and that everyone is committed to satisfying the customer and continuously looking to improve processes beyond their control Three core principles of total quality - customer focus, strategic quality policy and continuous improvement - emerge as important at their ultimate quality stage While in Table 2 2, their four stages are depicted as linear from left to right, Dale and Cooper's own model, copied in Figure 2 1, shows clearly how they envisage that the latter stages of quality incrementally build around the earlier stages Their view is that until the earlier stages are achieved, the latter stages will not be possible

Figure 2.1   Four Levels In The Evolution Of A Quality Organisation
(Source: Dale And Cooper (1992 : 16, Figure 1.4)
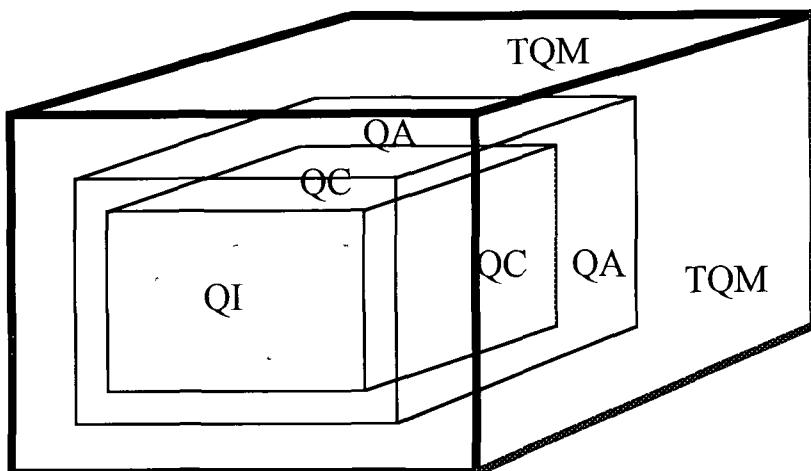
By analysing the performance of 141 automotive suppliers in Europe, Rommel et al (1994) have also categorised the process of becoming a quality organisation into four phases of quality evolution Phase 1, which they call Inspection, is characterised by elementary inspection procedures Phase 2, called Assurance, is characterised by better statistical measures to understand and control the production process and reduce errors By Phase 3, Prevention, the organisations are beginning to design in their processes and organisational structures to eliminate errors Cross company problem solving and emerging customer orientation are also part of this phase's characteristics, but the overall nature of this phase is still very much process and systems oriented Their final phase, Perfection, involves a substantive leap forward from the first three phases The characteristics of this phase include total orientation around the customer, constant striving for perfection, far reaching delegation of responsibility and a systematic alignment of structures and processes along a value added chain (again very similar to the characteristics of quality organisations described in chapter 2 5 above) While they do not specifically allude to strategic alignment of policy and processes towards quality, this concept of alignment of structures and processes to a value added chain would necessitate a buy into quality at a strategic level

In common with Dale and Cooper (1992), Rommel et al (1994) saw the path to total quality as being an incremental, staged process from inspection and eradication of problems, to inspection and quality control, to prevention of quality problems (assurance and prevention), through to three more fundamental concepts, customer focus, continuous improvement and strategic alignment at the total quality phase While Rommel et al assign the term Assurance to phase 2 and Dale and Cooper call their stage 3 Assurance, it is clear that both groups of authors view stage 2 in the same

61

way - that is, being mainly involved in the control of errors. Prevention of errors is assigned by both groups of authors to stage 3. Rommel et al (1994) envisaged this path as depicted in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 : The Path To Quality Excellence
Source: Rommel et al (1994 : 53, Exhibit 4)

Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 4
Inspection	Assurance	Prevention	Perfection

Manufacture & deliver with zero defects

Design to zero defects

Design to final customer
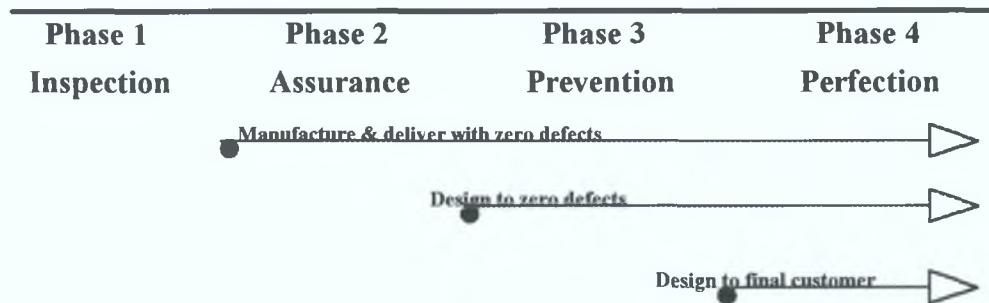
The fifth model of transition towards becoming a quality organisation identified in Table 2.2 involves six stages (Dale and Smith, 1997). Referring to an earlier study carried out by Lascelles and Dale in 1991, Dale has since updated his view of the incremental stages involved on the basis of further field work and consulting assignments. Dale and Smith's (1997) quality management implementation grid is particularly detailed, exploring the characteristics of the typical issues faced by organisations, typical behaviours and effective actions for each of the six stages. With unusual names like 'drifters' and 'tool pushers', Dale and Smith's six stages nonetheless outline a linear process of change from non-quality, to a level of quality associated with short-term goals, to ultimate 'total' quality. The characteristics of the earlier stages are not as clearly associated with quality assurance as those identified in the four previous models, but common characteristics can be identified. At the uncommitted Drifters stage, there is no awareness of customer requirements and little or no quality procedures in place. At the Tool pushers stage, a limited number of characteristics are introduced such as sporadic problem solving, quality detection tools and improvement groups (quality circles). The characteristics of quality assurance are not specifically referred to in the next two stages (Improvers and Award winners). Instead, Dale and Smith refer to wider spread problem solving, cross-functional integration, objective benchmarking and customer loyalty - some of which, as has been discussed in section 2.5, are generally associated with total quality in the literature. The final stage, World class, does refer to problem avoidance, but also to a number of

other characteristics associated with total quality such as organisational alignment, strategic benchmarking, leadership and flat organisational structures

The terminology given to each stage by the different sets of authors is different and the extent to which certain characteristics appear at stage 2 or 3 differ slightly from model to model However, there are clear areas of agreement amongst the five models First of all, while it cannot be assumed that all organisations follow exactly the same stages of change in the same order, clear patterns have been identified, based on observation of actual change processes undergone by organisations towards becoming quality organisations Secondly, there appears to be a common view that organisations build on an earlier stage of quality assurance in an incremental fashion The common thread running through the quality literature is the evolution of organisations from quality procedures and controls, to more advanced stages of customer focus, strategic alignment and continuous improvement

Table 2 3 brings together the characteristics identified by these five sets of authors as being important at each of the stages While this table is complex, it summarises where, in their staged models of changing towards total quality, each of the authors place particular features These authors associate the earlier stages with the more limited aspects of quality assurance such as detection of errors and documented procedures, while the later stages involve characteristics more associated with total quality in its broadest sense, such as customer focus and strategic alignment of the organisational structures and planning towards quality

Table 2.3   The Key Factors Identified In Five Models As Being Characteristic Of Each Stage In Becoming A Quality Organisation

		Crosby (1979)	PA Group (1991)	Dale & Cooper (1992)	Rommel et al (1994)	Dale & Smith (1997)
Earlier Stages ⬇	Documented measures & standards	Stage 3	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 2	
	Micro quality structures (eg quality circles)	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 2		
	Inspection and detection of errors	Stage 2	Stage 1	Stage 1	Stage 1	
	Short-term corrective actions	Stage 3		Stage 1		Stage 3
	Quality limited to QA department	Stage 3			Stage 2	
	Top management commitment	Stage 3	Stage 1	Stage 4		
	Error prevention measures	Stage 4		Stage 2	Stage 3	
Later Stages ⬇	Macro quality structures (eg business process structures)		Stage 3	Stage 3 + 4	Stage 3 + 4	Stage 4
	Customer focus		Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 3 + 4	Stage 5
	Continuous improvement	Stage 5	Stage 4	Stage 4		
	Quality involvement by all employees	Stage 4	Stage 4	Stage 5		
	Strategic alignment of organisation to quality	Stage 5	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 4	Stage 6

This review was carried out to establish the current view in the literature regarding the process of organisational change to total quality. The accepted view is that organisations undergo an incremental, linear staged process of change, starting from having no quality processes, through a quality assurance stage to eventually reaching total quality. Table 2.3 brings together the key factors which are consistently identified as characteristic of the different stages. A number of key characteristics are consistently referred to : documented measures and standards, detection of errors,

macro quality structures, customer focus and strategic alignment are referred to by at least four of the five models On further examination, the table also illustrates that certain characteristics are associated with earlier stages (eg detection of errors, documented measures and micro quality structures tend to be assigned to stages 1 and 2 in each of the models), while other characteristics are associated with later stages (involvement by all employees, macro quality structures, customer focus, continuous improvement and strategic alignment of the organisation to quality tend to be assigned to stages 3,4,5,6, depending on the different models) While Table 2 3 does highlight some patterns, it is relatively complex and does not provide a clear summary of the stages of transition to total quality which can be used to assess organisational change Therefore, based on this review of the literature, a less complex model depicting the transition from quality assurance to total quality is suggested below, which encompasses five stages and five key characteristics

Figure 2.3: **A Suggested Model Of The Five Stages From Quality Assurance To Total Quality**

Quality Assurance				Total Quality
1 Documented measures & standards	2 Detection & eradication of problems	3 Customer focus	4 Strategic quality	5 Continuous improvement
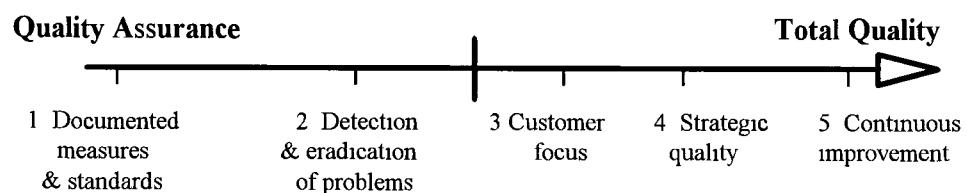
Points 1-2 on the continuum relate to processes, measures and standards to identify and control defects and problems, characteristics associated with quality assurance which are consistently identified in the literature as being in the earlier stages of transition (see Table 2 3) Points 3-5 relate to the three core principles of being a total quality organisation customer focus, integration of quality into the strategic plan and continuous improvement These points are also consistently identified as being core to later stages of quality (see Tables 2 1 and 2 2)

65

As with each of the five models described in the literature and supporting Dale and Smith's (1997) assertion that the change process to becoming a quality organisation is linear, this model is shaped as an incremental staged process An arrow depicts the continuum of change from one stage to the next and emphasises that organisations have to 'travel' through the earlier quality assurance stages before maturing onto the more advance total quality stages

When comparing this model with the stages identified in Table 2 3, an anomaly emerges in the quality assurance stages The lay-out of Table 2 3 would suggest that detection and eradication of problems (stages 1 and 2 in the table), should come before documented measures and standards (ranging from stages 1-3) in the model However, McCormack (1992) argues that current performance standards need to be in place before outputs at variance with those standards can be detected and eradicated In the model, documented measures and standards are placed first on the basis that as a preliminary step, organisations will have to record what standards are actually in place before they can evaluate where their processes or systems deviate from expected standards of quality

Referring to the latter stages, while the literature clearly identifies customer focus, strategic quality and continuous improvement as being core aspects of becoming a quality organisation, the characteristics are assigned to any one of stages 3 to 6 depending on each particular model (see Table 2 3) There is no pattern setting out which principle comes 'sooner' in the change process to total quality than the next However, it is apparent from the literature that the key construct which is considered to mark out the difference between quality assurance and total quality is customer focus As was seen earlier in this chapter, customer focus was identified as a core principle of quality by all the studies (Table 2 1) It represents a 'watershed' between having quality assurance processes and total quality Without customer focus, it is argued, the organisation has not progressed beyond systems and standards associated with quality assurance (Dale and Cooper, 1992 and Rommel, 1994) Dale and Cooper (1992), for example, note that quality assurance is described in terms of conformance and uniformity of standards but that the crux of being a quality organisation is down to focusing on the customers' needs and satisfying those needs Customer focus, therefore, is put in as the first of the three total quality stages because it marks out a clear line between quality assurance and total quality

Both strategic quality and continuous improvement are also identified in the literature as key elements of total quality Again, Table 2 3 does not conclusively point to which of continuous improvement or strategic alignment of the organisation come 'later' At one level it could be argued that strategic alignment would take longer to put in place and hence comes last However, the opposite argument could also be put forward that unless structures, systems and so on are strategically aligned towards quality, it is not possible to develop and continuously deliver quality outputs such as customer satisfaction or improvements On balance, it was decided that continuous improvement is best positioned at the far right of the model because of numerous references in the literature to it being the ultimate objective of the quality programme For example, Herbig et al (1994 33) write that continuous improvement is the 'ultimate aim', Coughlan et al (1997 140) suggest it is a 'long-term aspiration for most companies', and Wilkinson et al (1992) see it as being the final area for organisations to concentrate their efforts

This model is simpler than many of those described in the literature While it may not highlight all the aspects associated with each stage of quality, it focuses on the five key factors identified in the literature which appear to encompass each of the stages of change from having no quality processes in place to being a total quality organisation By reducing the numerous factors identified in the literature to these five key characteristics, this model provides a clear reference point against which the extent to which organisations have changed can be assessed However, this is a provisional model which requires testing for validity This will be referred to in chapters 4 and 10

2.7   Conclusions

There is broad consensus regarding what are the core characteristics of total quality organisations and these can be reduced to three core principles customer focus, strategic alignment of the organisation to quality and continuous improvement There is also broad agreement in the literature that the organisational change process to becoming quality organisations is a linear process, whereby organisations build their quality incrementally on earlier quality assurance stages A five staged model was put forward to summarise the organisational change process to total quality, which can be used as the basis for assessing organisational change The model will require testing for validity including an assessment of whether or not it is valid to suggest that organisational change towards becoming a quality organisation can, in fact, be described in neat, incremental steps

CHAPTER 3   ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS AND CHANGE

3.1   Introduction

In chapter 1 6, a number of studies were described which described management's perceptions about strategies which are important for achieving organisational change Communications was consistently mentioned across the studies as being important and this tends to be the case throughout the literature (eg Bryan, 1997, Nelson and Coxhead, 1997, Tourish, 1997) However, as Jenks (1981 446) points out, it has also become a 'wastebasket category' for all sorts of organisational change problems, because there continue to be many gaps in our understanding of the nature of the relationship between communications and organisational change

This chapter begins by defining communications and discusses organisational communications in particular It looks at the historical backdrop to today's theories before considering the current thinking on interpersonal, group and organisational wide communications and how they relate to organisational change The various communications strategies for change which are commonly advocated are then explored The chapter then concludes with an examination of the current evidence to determine whether or not (as the literature would have it), it is possible to prescribe universal models of organisational communications for all organisations and all change situations

3.2   Defining Communications

Communications has been studied from a number of different perspectives According to Krane et al (1987), some writers concentrate on the physical transmission of messages ('the mechanistic' perspective), some focus on the individual variables which affect interpretation of the message (the 'psychological' perspective), others concentrate on sequences of communication behaviour ('systems interaction'), while others look at the rules and roles involved in communications (the 'interpretative symbolic' perspective)

Except for the earliest mechanistic theories on communications which focus on the transmission of the message through a channel (Engdahl, 1993; Hartley, 1993), there is a common assumption about communications which applies regardless of paradigm under which it is being researched: that is, that communications involves a symbolic act between two or more people. Tourish (1995 : 4), for example, writes that academics who study communications are interested in 'the production, processing and effects of the symbol and signal systems used by humans to send and receive messages'. Robertson (1997 : 47), who refers back to the original Latin roots of the term 'communication', argues that the term originally meant 'to make common' and that today's best interpretation of that original meaning of the term is 'to share understanding and create meaning'. Whalen (1996) sees communications as being a co-operative mutual event undertaken by active participants. According to Whalen, the participants attempt to create the shared understanding through a symbolic process which can include information, words, actions or non-verbal cues. These definitions all refer to the give and take nature of communications. It is not a one way process of either giving information or taking information, but rather, a mutual act of sharing meaning.

One aspect of communications which is not adequately covered by these definitions is the concept of intent. People do not engage in communications purely for the sake of the act itself. They share meaning in order to achieve something else, be it, for example, to disclose information about themselves, to affect attitudes or behaviour, to instruct, or to find out information about their environment (eg. Farace et al, 1977; Heath, 1994 and Nelson and Coxhead, 1997).

Some authors do acknowledge this concept of intent and have introduced it into their definitions of communications. Arguing that there has to be a motivation for people to communicate, Heath (1994 : 19) defines communications as:

> The means by which people make themselves and their opinions known to one another, through which they shape mutual meanings sufficient to co-ordinate goals and activities.

Larkin and Larkin (1994 : 245) express the same view in a more succinct manner: communications is 'information that changes behaviour'. Their perspective of communications fits with the view held by most organisational communications theorists. In their view, people in organisations do not embark on communications just to satisfy the urge to share meaning, but instead to achieve some greater organisational goal, be it socialisation, co-ordination or change of behaviour. Crosson (1987 : 28), for

example, writes that organisational communications is 'the exchange of information which creates mutual understanding and a unification of activities towards the accomplishment of organisational goals,' while ACAS (1994) sees organisational communications as being the exchange of information which enables the organisation to function effectively. Schaffer (1997) describes it as a management tool which drives performance and Field (1997), reflecting the growing interest in knowledge management in the latter half of the 1990s, views organisational communications as a method of making maximum use of the knowledge assets available within organisations.

Kovacic (1994 : 16) sums up the importance of the concept of intent in his description of organisational communications which is:

> a means to form temporary alliances...within which social actors negotiate specific sequences of communicative practices in order to forge temporarily the consensus necessary for the accomplishment of specific tasks.

Two aspects of these definitions appear to be key: the mutual process of sharing meaning and the underlying intention behind it.

3.3   Organisational Communications And Its Key Influences

Organisational communications only really emerged as an academic discipline in the 1940s and 1950s and it is still influenced by a number of related academic fields. Rhetoric, management, journalism, speech and language, marketing, anthropology, sociology and psychology are just some of the disciplines which are linked with organisational communications today (Barnes, 1997; Grunig, 1992; Scott Poole, 1994; Smeltzer, 1996 and Wert-Gray et al, 1991). Because of the influence of many different disciplines, there is still debate as to whether or not organisational communications should be considered a discipline in its own right (eg Deetz, 1994). This dilemma is reflected in the wide variety of journals in which relevant research can be found and the broad range of academic departments in which university posts in this area are located.

As with the broader field of communications, writers and researchers on organisational communications will approach their topic or research question with certain assumptions. The reader has to understand these assumptions in order to decipher the research questions posed and the arguments made. The key influences on organisational communications have been identified by numerous writers. Mumby and Stohl (1996), for example, identified four key 'problematics' of voice, of rationality, of

organisation and of the organisation-society relationship and Cunningham and Lischeron (1991) categorised organisational communications into seven schools of thought the Classical school, the Two-way school, the Interpersonal school, the Group Process school, the Leadership school, the Information Systems school and the Organisational Systems school To understand from where these categories have come, it is useful to briefly trace the history of organisational communications

According to Grunig (1992) and Redding (1985), the precursor to organisational communications was work carried out by academics in speech communications in the 1920s In fact, until the 1980s, many of the theories being developed on organisational communications were emanating from the speech communications departments in universities Marsh (1982) writes that, running in parallel to this, the concept of the importance of communicating with staff also began to emerge in the Human Relations management school, influenced by Elton Mayo's work in the 1920s Dale Carnegie's 1930s book 'How to Win Friends and Influence People', also influenced the thinking behind organisational communications until the 1980s The philosophy behind his book and the focus for many theories of organisational communications until very recently has been how to use communications to secure employees' commitment to management's goals, the managerial perspective already referred to in chapter 1

Influenced by the positivistic approach to management science in the 1950s and 1960s, the focus on organisational communications research at that time was to study what was empirically measurable (Grunig, 1992, Reinsch, 1996) Systems and flows of information and how they link with satisfaction were the primary areas of research In the late 1960s and 1970s, the Human Relations school enjoyed a revival (Scott Poole, 1994 and Wert-Gray et al, 1991), and a new emphasis was put on open and trusting communications climates and, in particular, the communications relationship between superiors and subordinates In the late 1970s, influenced by the emergence of technology in the workplace, attention turned towards the organisation as an information processing system, where organisation scholars rather than communications scholars became more involved in researching organisational communications However, speech scholars found their own niche by returning to their classical roots and looked at the field of rhetoric (Hirokawa and Scott Poole, 1996) The speech communications scholars' aim was to establish how managers use communications to persuade or organise other people

In the 1980s and early 1990s, four main areas of research had evolved (Cheney and Macmillan, 1990) information processing, culture, politics and rhetoric Scott Poole (1994) notes that the 1990s seems to have marked a shift in the fundamental questions facing organisational research Firstly, the rapidly changing environment within which the research into organisational communications is taking place has had a major influence New technologies and changing organisational structures are influencing the research questions being asked Secondly, there is a growing recognition of 'new voices' other than just the voice of management in the research and a recognition that no one voice is totally correct or complete Kovacic (1994) has also seen a shift in research and writings in organisational communications in the 1990s, which he attributes to a general sense of uncertainty permeating into all areas ranging from philosophy to science to the arts and, perhaps more directly, into organisational studies and communication studies There is no longer a certain belief that there is a 'right' or 'wrong' answer Eisenberg (1996) notes that the most recent wave of interest in the mid to late 1990s is in the area of power and politics and the potential impact which technological advances such as intranets will have on organisational democracy and on flexible working patterns A new debate is also emerging (eg Dawson-Shepherd and Ryan, 1997), around whether or not internal communications is, in fact, the same as marketing, albeit specifically aimed at the internal audience

This brief review of the development of the field identifies from where the key influences today have come By looking back over the threads of argument over the past seventy years and today, there appear to be two key perspectives which have a particular bearing on our understanding of the relationship between organisational communications and change using organisational communications to achieve management's objectives (eg managerial perspective), and organisational communications as a means of supporting a relationship of mutual trust and respect (a humanist perspective)

3.3.1 The Managerial Versus The Humanist Perspective On Organisational Communications

The concept of managerialism has already been discussed in the context of the literature on organisational change (chapter 1 4) It is also widely prevalent in the literature on organisational communications - some would say dominant (eg Allen et al, 1993, Deetz, 1994) It brings together the writings of those interested in persuasion and rhetoric, organisational communications systems, power and politics and internal marketing Despite the growing recognition of the importance of 'new voices' being

72

heard, highlighted by Scott Poole (1994), there continues to be a prevailing assumption that communications is a tool which management can use to achieve particular objectives such as productivity or acceptance of change. He (1994 : 273) notes that the vast majority of research in organisational communications continues to assume the 'rightful privilege' of the managerial viewpoint, writing:

> This results in de facto valorisation of white, US style capitalist organisational practices, because these are the setting of almost all organisational communication studies.

Managers may use a combination of tools to both 'sell' a message and involve employees to obtain 'ownership' (Nelson and Coxhead, 1997), but taken from a managerial perspective, regardless of how beneficial the methods used may be for employees' satisfaction and morale, the underlying objective remains the fulfilment of management's agenda. Some writers (eg Fitzgerald et al, 1994; Wilkinson et al, 1992), have warned that there is an insidious growth in management control under the auspices of increased involvement. However others (eg Rosenthal et al, 1997), have found that in fact employees take advantage of new levels of being informed and being involved to put their mark on the management agenda.

It is very difficult to find a definition of organisational communications which does not assume that management's goals or the goals of the organisation are in some way central. For example, ACAS (1994 : 3) define organisational communications as 'the provision and exchange of information and instructions which enable an organisation to function efficiently', and Crosson (1987 : 28) defines organisational communications as; 'the exchange of information which creates mutual understanding and a unification of activities towards the accomplishment of organisational goals'. This position on organisational communications appears to be the dominant one and, as was already argued in chapter 1, that is not to say that this position is necessarily inappropriate. If, as Rosenthal et al (1997) point out, that in setting out to achieve management goals employees also benefit, perhaps this can be construed as positive for all parties.

The second key influence which can be traced throughout the literature is the perspective that organisational communications is an act of genuine personal interest and human respect. This humanistic view of organisational communications focuses on how communications can support a relationship between people based on trust and mutual respect and includes the writings of those interested in trust, openness, organisational democracy and empowerment. According to Deetz (1994), critical theorists have begun to point to the fact that employees' interests and aspirations are

only partly fulfilled by corporate goals Their likes and dislikes, personal situations, political leanings and so on all come into the mix, each day they come into the workplace and the manager has to be aware of and respect these individual characteristics for every individual with whom they come into contact Alvesson and Wilmott (1992) add that the workplace is a forum where the different interests of the different people have to be accommodated This accommodation is supported through organisational communications

Those who advocate the humanist perspective (eg Bryan, 1997, Likely, 1998), argue that without a relationship based on trust and mutual respect, change cannot happen While the end result of this approach to communications may be similar to the managerial approach in that ultimately management's objectives are achieved, management's goals as of themselves are actually not the primary focus of interest Achievement of change or commitment to organisational goals are secondary to the development of these trusting and respectful relationships

It could be argued that these two perspectives - managerialism and humanism - need not be viewed as necessarily exclusive While the underlying objectives may be different, the outcomes of reaching improved performance, for example, may be the same and it might be argued that it is not necessary to go into the different assumptions if the outcome is the same anyway However, to take such a simplistic approach ignores the fact that writers' assumptions can influence them to set a particular research question or put forward a certain point in the first place Moreover, while some of the literature does refer to respecting the needs of individual employees, this tends to be addressed within the context of achieving a managerial agenda (eg Ghoshal, 1995, Mariotti, 1997) For example, Mariotti (1997 106) espouses the principles of respect and dignity in the workplace writing 'perhaps we need to return to basic humanistic principles care about people' However, his underlying motive is not to achieve a respectful relationship for the sake of it, but to achieve managerial goals He adds (1997 106) ' it is much more productive to treat people like you want to be treated - with respect and dignity '

Some time has been taken in this section to highlight the two key perspectives influencing the writings and research into organisational communications. It was important to distinguish between the two perspectives, because the assumptions behind each influence the research questions asked and the guidelines put forward. The dominance of the managerialist perspective in particular was highlighted and as will be seen later in this chapter (chapter 3.4), this is particularly evident in the literature on communicating for change. Many guidelines are put forward as being the right approach to communicating for change, all with one common assumption. That is, if managers were to make use of these principles or guidelines, they will increase their chances of achieving successful change, as defined by management themselves. These guidelines are explored in more detail in the next section.

3.4 The Relationship Between Organisational Communications And Change

It will be recalled that the change management literature tends to be categorised into two levels: the individual and the organisation. The relationship between organisational communications and change tends to be described in the literature at three different levels: interpersonal communications, group or team level communications, and organisational-wide communications (Grunig, 1992; Smeltzer, 1987; Tourish, 1995; Werr, 1995). As with the change management literature, while categorisation of this nature helps researchers to work through the many different theories and studies, there is a danger that writers and researchers in interpersonal communications, for example, pay little attention to developments at group or organisational wide levels. A review of the literature would indicate that this, in fact, is the case. There appears to be little or no effort to develop research or theories which cover all three levels of communication. Moreover, each level tends to be influenced by different academic backgrounds : the interpersonal level is influenced by speech communications theorists and psychologists; the group level by those interested in group dynamics; and organisational wide communications by sociologists and organisational behaviourists. As a result, the research is likely to be approached differently, according to the respective disciplines.

A review of the various communications strategies advocated in the literature also highlights the prevailing assumption that each strategy is universal. That is, equally valid for every situation. While there is acknowledgement in some parts of the literature (eg Smeltzer and Zener, 1995), that communications strategies for change should be adjusted according to factors such as the magnitude of change, how

controversial or sensitive the change may be, or the organisational climate, very few authors attempt to quantify the relative importance of each communications factor or to determine whether that importance increases or decreases according to circumstances (Synopsis, 1998)

3.4.1   Interpersonal Communications And Change

Communications between individuals in organisations is the area of most interest to speech communications writers (Grunig 1992) Known as interpersonal or dyadic communications, much of the work at this level looks at interpersonal communications style (eg Luthans and Larsen, 1986), and interpersonal skills such as listening or non-verbal cues (eg Elmes and Costello, 1992, Helms and Haynes, 1992 and Proctor, 1994) From the perspective of change, the areas of most interest in interpersonal communication are methods of persuasion and the content of persuasive messages In chapter 1, the current understanding of resistance to change and commitment to change is discussed Persuasion and the persuasive message are considered to be two key communications strategies to direct individuals away from resistance and towards commitment to change

3.4.1 (i)   Persuasion

Since the publication of Dale Carnegie's book, *'How To Win Friends And Influence People'*, published in the 1930s, persuasion is seen to be a primary function of communications in the workplace and a key means for using communications to manage change While the agenda is primarily influenced by the assumption that communications can be used to achieve management's objectives (the managerial perspective described in chapter 3 3), there is a growing recognition that to be able to influence opinion, the persuader has to be as much oriented to the needs of the individual as the needs of the organisation (eg Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1996 and 1998, Gorman and Overstreet-Miller, 1997 and Killigen, 1997)

The assumption behind persuasion is that both the source of the message and persuasive messages themselves can affect attitude change and that attitude change is necessary to achieve behavioural change Attitudes can be influenced by a number of factors including a wish to be accepted by peers and 'dissonance' between behaviour and previously held attitudes (Callahan et al, 1986, Robbins, 1986, Schuman and Johnson, 1976 and Weick, 1995). The relationship between the two is not clear cut, but there is sufficient evidence to support the assertion that there is very probably a

relationship between persuasion and attitudes and attitude change and behavioural change.

Miller (1987 : 451) defines persuasion as:

> attempts made to modify behaviour by symbolic transactions (messages) that are sometimes, but not always, linked with coercive force and that appeal to the reason and emotions of the intended persuadee.

Implicit in Miller's definition is the concept of influence, either through authority or some other source of power and the concept of appealing both to logical and emotive reasoning.

Influence is strongly related to the power which one person holds over another. That power may be formalised through the status or position of authority held by an individual within the hierarchy (Deetz, 1994; Klein, 1994; Pelz, 1952), or it may be more informal power vested through peer recognition or credibility as a perceived expert on the subject in question, (Elmes and Costello, 1992; Petty and Cacioppe, 1986). Arising out of this, writers on persuasion in the workplace advocate the importance of line management playing a role in the communications process, backed by opinion leaders who have the perceived credibility of their peers (eg Arnott, 1987; Elmes and Costello, 1992; Folz, 1985; Sing Kwon Lam, 1997; Smith 1991, Yukl and Falbe 1990). Whalen (1996) adds that if the message itself is too complex, the targets of the message tend to rely on their sense about the source in deciding whether or not to accept the argument.

3.4.1.(ii)   Content Of The Message

The Greeks were the first to argue that persuasive communications is based upon three pillars (Whalen, 1996); logos (logic and reasoning), pathos (appeals to the emotions), and ethos (the reputation of the speaker). Today it is argued (Carr, 1994; Richardson and Denton, 1996; Scott and Jaffe, 1987; Spiker, 1994; Spiker and Lesser, 1995a, 1995b), that no matter how much sense the intended change appears to make from a rational point of view, people may still resist because they do not see how it fits their own values or because, emotionally, they cannot buy into the arguments for change being put forward. In chapter 1, it was noted that resistance to change can be based both on rational and irrational fears. Richardson and Denton (1996) recognise that employees will feel a range of emotions when confronted with change such as anxiety,

fear and mistrust and the content of communicating the case for change needs to address these individual emotions as much as the logical business case

Zuwerink and Devine (1996) looked at the influence of emotive and logical arguments from a slightly different perspective. They asked 112 students in the USA to say in advance how much importance they place on an attitude which they hold (using attitudes about gay people being allowed to join the US military as the example), and then examined whether the level of importance which they gave their attitude affected their openness to a series of rational arguments. They found that people who gave more importance to their previously held attitude (whether for or against gay people joining the military), were more resistant to the arguments and in fact became quite irritated by the weaker logical arguments. They argue that this resistance was in fact emotive (ie 'my attitude is important to me and you are threatening it')

There is still some disagreement about the relative importance of either logical or emotive persuasive arguments. Spiker (1994 and 1995) argues that people may accept change at an intellectual level, but it takes more time to accept change from an emotional perspective. However, Petty and Cacioppe (1986), who have carried out much research in this area, believe it is in fact the reverse. They suggest that changes of opinion based on logic rely on considering and accepting more complex cues than just responding to emotive appeals. They argue that change of opinion through cognitive reasoning is more harder to obtain but, once obtained, is more enduring

Recently, the terms 'emotional connection' and 'emotional involvement' have begun to emerge in the literature (eg Berzok, 1997, Gorman and Overstreet-Miller, 1997 and Stainer and Stainer, 1997). With a move away from the concept of job for life, organisations have had to re-evaluate the psychological contract which they enter into with their employees. There is a growing recognition that employees' interests are only partly fulfilled by corporate goals. Killigen (1997) argues that the organisation now has to link what it wants with what the individual wants from life and Nelson and Coxhead (1997 36) expand on this, writing,

> People will change when the case for change becomes a personal matter. Too many change programmes have been based on the premise that changes in employee behaviour will occur 'for the good of the organisation' or 'for the good of future generations of employees' Highly unlikely in these days of diminishing career paths, high employee insecurity and high unemployment

In a similar vein, Ghoshal and Bartlett (1996 30) write,

> only when the organisation's objectives connect with an individual's basic
> belief system is the required personal commitment likely to endure It takes a
> deeply embedded set of unifying values to create such an individual level
> commitment

The challenge, according to Armenakis and Harris (1993), is to present an argument
which demonstrates unambiguously the need for change and how the individual is
better off putting the effort into that change than not They add that the message should
also emphasise the individual's ability to undertake that change If people feel unable to
perform the change, they may deny, resist or withdraw altogether

A number of writers highlight the importance of tailoring the content of
communications around the needs of individuals at a time of change Nelson and
Coxhead (1997) write that good internal communications is tuned to the views and
positions of employees and is designed to meet their types of concerns Kemper (1992)
also notes that managers should acknowledge from the start that there will be pain and
loss for individuals, while Lee (1997a and b) suggests that whatever feelings
employees are going through, no matter how irrational they may seem, should be
acknowledged and afforded dignity and respect Berzok (1997) also argues that
informing and educating employees will not be sufficient Employees' fears and values
have to be anticipated and aligned with the objectives of the organisation This
argument fits with the second perspective on organisational communications identified
in chapter 3 3 1, communications is seen to be an act of mutual respect (the humanist
perspective), rather than seen to be primarily a means of achieving management
objectives

However, not everyone believes that the content of the message needs to be aimed at
the individuals' concerns when persuading people about change (eg Larkin and Larkin,
1994) According to Quirke (1995), employees need to be given information about the
context, why the change is necessary and the consequences of success or failure That
context, according to Quirke, is market forces D'Aprix (1996 3) writes,

> The only argument powerful enough to encourage people to embrace change is
> one that is rooted in the marketplace If the customer insists on change, then
> we have no choice

A number of authors argue like D'Aprix that the need for change should be expressed in terms of the business case. Blake (1992) suggests that employees should be made aware of external competitive powers and that the case for change can be expressed in terms of the wants and needs of the market and how competition is responding to those needs, while both Klein (1996) and Spiker and Lesser (1995) argue that the business case for change should be explained. Pritchett (1997 : 13) sums up this approach by writing; 'give them the logic that's driving the change'.

According to Bacharach et al (1996), it is quite feasible for individuals to accept proposed changes at a rational level, even if emotionally they have a problem with it. On the basis of a case study they conducted in a US airline on the acceptance of change, they argue that people have an overriding need for cognitive consistency. Forced into a position of change, employees can post-rationalise their acceptance of that change and will do so to reduce the dissonance. Accordingly, Bacharach et al argue, the persuasive message for change can be logical. Bacharach et al's hypothesis is clearly influenced by Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory on attitude change (Robbins, 1986). However, as has been noted earlier, writers on attitude change have so far been unable to definitively prove or disprove theories such as those proposed by Festinger.

The guidelines for communicating the case for change also implicitly draw on the conclusions of expectancy theory (see chapter 1.5.2.ii), which states that people will subscribe to an option where the perceived benefits outweigh the perceived level of effort involved. Bryan (1997) suggests that managers should list the options for changing or not changing, enumerate the positives and negatives of each option and highlight why the preferred option offers the most benefits. D'Aprix (1996) suggests that managers should outline to employees the consequences of success or failure in a change programme so they can see how the benefits of change far outweigh the consequences of not changing and Nelson and Coxhead (1997) write that employees will be receptive to change when they can see how the consequences of the change provide a preferable solution to their needs than not changing.

There are clearly two schools of thought regarding the type of persuasive message which should be communicated to make the case for change : one focuses on the rational argument, the other argues that the emotional needs of the individual should be the primary focus. However, aside from Bacharach et al's case study, no empirical evidence is given to substantiate either side's assertions within the context of organisational change.

Once the case for change is made, the second key area of content in communicating for change is communicating the plans for change According to Blake (1992), Davenport and Lipton (1993), Grates (1994) and Schaffer (1997), managers should map out what needs to be accomplished and in what timeframe and what is expected from employees In fact, DiFonzo and Bordia (1998) suggest that this is the primary role of communicating for change - to reduce uncertainties by mapping out what management expect to happen There is some difference of opinion about how definite the end goals should be Blake (1992) for example, suggests that managers should set down clear objectives and tangible milestones leading up to the achievement of these objectives, to help reduce uncertainties However Bryan (1997), DiFonzo and Bordia (1998), Larkin and Larkin (1994) and Quirke (1995) suggest that the most managers will be able to do is set out options and probabilities They argue that managers cannot have all the solutions, they can outline a vision, but employees will flesh out the actual plans As plans progress, managers should consistently communicate the successes and recognise the input of employees throughout (Bryan, 1997, Exterbille, 1996, Klein, 1996 and Smeltzer, 1991)

3.4.2   Group Communications And Change

Group communications refers to communications between three or more people, but with a cut-off point somewhere around 16 people (Hellriegel et al 1989) Group communications theory is influenced by a number of sources including group dynamics, and group decision making (Littlejohn, 1992) Frey (1996) writes that small group theory flourished in the 1950s and 1960s, with concepts such as interdependence, leadership, nature of interactions and group decision making taking up most interest By the 1970s and 1980s, researchers were looking at groups outside the confines of sterile laboratory experiments and adding in information content as a key variable to be examined The researchers were interested in two aspects of communications within groups, the role which communications can play in gelling the groups and achieving tasks (Callahan et al, 1986, Capps, 1993, Hellriegel et al, 1989, Hirokawa and Scott Poole, 1996, Jefkins, 1988)

There are two aspects to group communications which are relevant to the relationship between communications and change the influence of group membership and the growing importance of informal networks in organisational wide communications

81

In the brief reference to theories on attitude change earlier (see chapter 3 4 1), it was noted that people want to be accepted by their peers and their attitudes can be influenced by peer acceptance Schein (1980) outlines the influential work of Mayo and his colleagues in the Hawthorne studies and argues that people have social needs which they bring to the workplace These social needs are so strong that employees respond more to the social forces of their peer group than to the incentives and controls of management

The social influences on employees' acceptance of a persuasive argument have been studied in some detail Armenakis and Harris (1993) and Siebold and Meyers (1996), who reviewed the studies carried out in this area in the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s, say that there is not enough evidence to support the claim that changes of opinion are based on this type of influence alone, but that it does have some bearing on opinion change Siebold and Meyers (1996), however, acknowledge that some research demonstrates that group members look at other members to decide how similar or otherwise they think they are to the others If they feel identification with the group and perceive that an argument being generated by the group would be typical of arguments which that group would support, then they are more likely to support the argument

While the evidence is patchy, there does appear to be some relationship between what others in a group think and the individuals' willingness to accept that argument Therefore, it is too restrictive to consider influence and persuasion at purely an interpersonal level While the individual's psychological variables and the persuasive nature of the message appear to be two important factors to consider, they should not be considered in isolation from potential peer influence

Groups in an organisation do not have to be formally constituted, as in the case of self directed work teams Informal groups, or networks, are prevalent in all organisations and in many organisations, networks are formally encouraged through management fora, task groups and so forth Likert (1967) argued that organisations can be conceptualised as a series of interlocking groups, with individuals (who he called 'linkpins'), acting as points of overlap between the groups Today, such overlapping groups are called networks Blair et al (1985 60) define networks as 'sets of relatively stable contacts among people through which information is generated and flows There is a growing recognition (eg Stohl, 1995), that networks play an important a role in change management through information sharing and diffusion of innovation Most of the research carried out on networks looks at patterns and frequency of communication flows, but tends to ignore actual content The size of the networks, interconnectedness

of members, symmetry and strength of the information flows are the focus of attention (Farace et al, 1977, Heath, 1994, Stohl, 1995)

However, from the perspective of communicating for change, networks are more interesting for their role in supporting adoption of new ideas by exposing members of one part of the organisation to ideas being generated in other parts of the organisation Farace et al (1977) argue that networks provide a mechanism by which ideas can 'leap' from one part of the organisation to another, while Westphal et al (1997) note that considerable evidence has been generated to demonstrate that members of networks are more likely to adopt innovation by being exposed to new perspectives The research referred to by Westphal et al focused on networks between organisations rather than within organisations, but they argue that the same principles apply within Robertson et al (1996) found that the diffusion of information across organisational boundaries is associated more with networks with weak ties Closely knit networks are less prone to being exposed to or taking on board new ideas

Networks have been advocated as a powerful organisational structure because they support lateral communications and integration of different functions towards a task The research to date on adoption of innovation by being a member of a network has concentrated on external rather than internal networks, although it has been argued that the same principles apply Without specific research, it is not possible to definitively draw that link

3.4.3   Organisational-Wide Communications And Change

As organisational sociologists became interested in communications, the research started to focus on organisational-wide communications (Grunig, 1992, Schein, 1996) Writers on organisational communications and change who focus on the organisational-wide level tend to examine four areas

(i)   Information flows (eg Jefkins, 1988, Haseley, 1994)

(ii)   Communications tools (eg Hobson, 1995, Industrial Society, 1994, Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997, Nicoll, 1994) .

(iii)   Roles and responsibilities (eg Davenport and Lipton, 1993, Larkin and Larkin, 1994)

(iv)   The communications climate (eg Filipczak, 1995, Richardson and Denton, 1996)

83

3.4.3.(i)   Information Flows

Information can flow in any of three directions within an organisation: downwards, upwards and laterally (Callahan et al, 1986; Evans, 1986; Goldhaber, 1986; Jefkins, 1988; Haseley, 1994; Lewis, 1987). Nelson and Coxhead (1997) write that there are two fundamental approaches to communicating for change, which are not necessarily exclusive. There is the 'sell' approach (propagating the vision for change downwards) and the 'involve' approach (seeking upwards communications to encourage ownership). They argue that 'sell' will achieve the lower levels of commitment (compliance), described in chapter 1.5.2.(ii), while 'involve' facilitates higher levels of commitment to change.

Downwards Communications

Downward information flows tend to be controlled by management and used to provide information, instructions and direction, feedback about performance and information about policies and goals. Downward communications can also be used by management to set down objectives, and to prepare for change. With the current popularity of employee involvement emphasising upwards information flows, the importance of downward information flows can be forgotten. Francis (1987), for example, reminds us that downwards communications can play an essential role in communicating for change through sharing a vision, providing direction and integrating effort. Each of these require management to take the lead and communicate 'down' through the organisation their vision and how they envisage it being delivered. Similarly, feedback on performance, identified by D'Aprix (1996) among others as an essential purpose of organisational communications, also requires downwards information flow.

There is a new dynamic to the current thinking on downward information flows which only appears to be emerging in the literature in the past three years or so (eg Brandon, 1996; Dean, 1997; Goodman and Wiener, 1997; Malone, 1997). The emergence of new electronic media such as intranets enables employees to 'pull down' information which they require, rather than passively wait for management to 'push down' information from the top. The benefits of such an approach are persuasive. Such an approach ensures that the information is relevant, because employees are likely to pull down information of direct interest. It also reflects the current trend for empowerment (see later in this section), because it devolves responsibility for being informed to the employees themselves.

Upwards Communications

Upwards communications flows are used to encourage information from lower levels of the organisation to elicit input, ideas, criticisms, questions and involvement and to provide feedback. Organisations tend to have less developed upward communications systems than downwards systems (Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997) and managers tend to have a different view on how well they are involving employees from the employees themselves. For example, a survey of 3,000 managers and 30,000 employees in the UK (Cully, 1998), found that while 70 per cent of the managers interviewed believe that they discuss the implications of change with employees before making any decisions, only 30 per cent of the employees feel they are given a good chance to comment on proposed workplace changes. Upward communications overlaps considerably with the concept of employee involvement and consultation. In fact, the term consultation is often used interchangeably with upwards communications although Hyman and Mason (1996) differentiate between the two. They see consultation or participation as being a more formalised mechanism of providing opportunities for employees' views to be represented and for employees to engage in bargaining. In many organisations, upwards communications is seen to run in parallel with more formal consultation mechanisms.

There is general agreement in the literature that involving employees is a key aspect, if not the key aspect, of communicating for change (eg. Bonvillian, 1996; D'Aprix, 1996; Exterbille, 1996; Kemper, 1992; Klein, 1996; Pritchett, 1997; Quirke, 1995; Richardson and Denton, 1996). However, there are different opinions regarding how and when this should occur. While Richardson and Denton (1996) argue that employees should be involved as much as possible and Pritchett (1997) adds that input should be sought throughout the change process, some of the other writers specifically limit involvement to later stages in the change process (eg. Davenport and Lipton, 1992; Klein 1996; Johnson, 1993; and Quirke 1995). These latter authors argue that the initial steps should focus on selling the vision and goals down through the organisation and that employee involvement can be sought once this is achieved.

The key role which involvement plays in achieving consensus for change has been acknowledged since the influential studies on the effects of involvement carried out by Lewin and Coch and French some 50 years ago (reviewed in Pasmore and Fagan, 1992). The argument for involvement is that it provides employees with the opportunity to control what will happen to them to some extent, thereby reducing their

fear of loss (eg Dale and Cooper, 1992; Pritchett, 1997; Quirke, 1995). It is argued that it also brings other benefits. Bennis and Nanus (1985) write that employees feel that they have a significant role to play in change processes and in their organisations as a whole and by involving them, their opinion is valued and their self-esteem is enhanced. Dale and Cooper (1992) add that individuals who are offered the opportunity to become involved will feel less threatened about their jobs. Hanson et al (1995) also note that employees are often in the best position to recognise issues in their working environment and come up with creative solutions for those issues.

However, the relationship between involvement and action is not as clear as would intuitively be expected. Some studies do state unequivocally that involvement increases performance. For example, a survey carried out by Covin and Kilman (1991) on 365 medium to large organisations' views on the success of their change programme, showed a positive correlation between the number of employees involved and success in achieving the change programme's goals. However, in a review of 91 articles on involvement between the 1960s and 1980s, Cotton et al (1988) conclude that there are six different types of involvement, each with varying degrees of influence on improved performance. They found that indirect methods of involvement such as formal representation through staff associations and short-term involvement such as those restricted to training sessions had no effect on performance. But direct, long-term involvement such as schemes to encourage participation in workplace decisions, quality programmes, ongoing encouragement from managers and employee ownership did have a positive relationship with performance. Moreover, Lawler et al's (1995) comprehensive series of studies linking involvement to organisational performance in Fortune 1,000 companies also found that low involvement strategies such as suggestion schemes have limited value. Only comprehensive involvement strategies such as the opportunity to redesign own jobs and contribute to overall business strategy made a real difference.

Pasmore and Fagan (1992) also propose that involvement can take one of five forms ranging from a shallow level of contribution on issues presented by management through to full and comprehensive collaboration on organisational wide issues. They argue that most organisations only involve employees at the more shallow levels. Dulworth et al's (1990) survey of 962 Fortune 1,000 organisations' use of involvement strategies appear to support Pasmore and Fagan's contention. They found that only 10 per cent of the organisations surveyed made use of what they called high involvement practices such as self-managing teams and job redesign. The organisations tended to implement low to medium participation strategies such as surveys, quality circles, task

groups and union committees They found that while all the organisations which made use of involvement strategies saw increases in productivity, product and service quality and work satisfaction, the improvements experienced by organisations making use of high participation strategies far outstripped the others Fenton-O'Creevy et al (1998) add that a review of studies comparing direct and indirect involvement strategies (eg individual input vs consultative committees), show that indirect involvement has little or no impact on employee attitudes, although it can have a positive impact on productivity, in certain instances

Quirke (1995) also puts in a provision that not all change situations are ideally suited to involvement If, for example, the trigger for change is sudden and requires an immediate response, or there is likely to be little or no dissent, a 'drive' approach may be more appropriate than an 'involving' approach Schaffer and Thomson (1996) also hold the view that involvement should not be an end in itself It is only a means to achieving successful change, but sometimes organisations confuse the two By doing so, they may use an involvement approach in a situation which does not necessarily require that approach Stanton (1993) proposes nine circumstances where involvement may not be the best strategy including a non-conducive organisational climate, lack of time, poor competence and lack of training facilities, while Dunphy and Stace (1988) also challenge the notion that involvement is valid in all circumstances They propose that involvement is valid only for situations where non-radical changes have to be made and where the organisation is not under significant time pressure to introduce the changes They offer alternative styles of change strategies from charismatic to dictatorial styles, according to the degree of radicalism with which the change has to take place

The experience in Ireland seems to point to relatively restricted levels of involvement being used in reality In their study of 450 Irish workplaces, Roche and Geary (1998) found that while management may be prepared to involve employees directly in operational issues such as working time arrangements, strategic issues remain the perogative of management For example, 92 per cent of unionised and 97 per cent of non-unionised workplaces claim that formulating plans on mergers or acquisitions is management's perogative, while 71 per cent of unionised and 68 per cent of non-unionised workplaces also claim that target setting is the perogative of management In the unionised workplaces, the direct involvement of employees was found to be somewhat filtered by the role of their unions, but the unions themselves tended to be engaged in collective bargaining rather than in partnership with management in planning change

Hand-in-hand with involvement comes the concept of empowerment. In fact Lawler's (1996 : 39) definition of employee involvement explicitly refers to the importance of decentralising information and power in involvement. He writes that employee involvement involves 'a wide variety of practices that move information, knowledge, power and rewards down through the organisation.' Bowen and Lawler (1992b) see empowerment involving four aspects: sharing of information about the organisations' performance, knowledge that enables the employee to contribute, rewards based on that contribution and the power to influence. Hanson et al (1995) and Heath (1994) also argue that empowerment involves the distribution not only of control and rewards, but also skills and information both about the organisation and the direct work environment. Chiles and Zorn (1995) interviewed and then surveyed 40 employees to find out what elements influenced the extent to which they felt empowered. They found that regular feedback about their own and the organisation's performance, and a belief that they are encouraged by their direct manager to take control, most significantly related to their feelings of empowerment. Each of these descriptions highlights the close alignment of openness with information with empowerment.

Cheney (1995) and Sashkin and Burke (1990) argue that without empowerment, involvement is not sufficient on its own. However, their premise is not just based on the need for empowerment to reach organisational goals (the managerial argument). They argue that organisations have a moral duty to introduce full democracy for employees and that participation, which includes empowerment will facilitate this. In turn, Sashkin argues, employees' psychological needs will be fulfilled and they will want to become actively involved in work and take on greater responsibility of their own free will.

However, just as with research on involvement strategies, research into the effects of empowerment upon performance shows an inconsistent relationship. Studies carried out in the 1970s reviewed by Robertson and Cooper (1983) and Schein (1980) tended to support the relationship between empowerment and satisfaction and low absenteeism, but gave little evidence to support high internal work motivation or performance. In chapter 1.5.2.(ii), Hartline and Ferrell (1996) and Peccei and Rosenthal's (1997) studies on the antecedents to commitment were discussed. These same studies found that empowerment in particular, has an unexpected relationship with commitment. In Hartline and Ferrell's study, empowerment was found to actually increase the sense of role conflict which in turn was associated with less commitment. However, empowerment was also found to increase perceptions of self efficacy which

was the strongest antecedent to commitment The challenge, according to Hartline and Ferrell, is to find a way of increasing empowerment while also reducing role conflict Peccei and Rosenthal (1997) also found that two aspects of empowerment, supervisory support and job autonomy, had no relationship with commitment

It is widely accepted in the literature that involvement or upwards communications is a central approach to achieving successful change It is also apparent that there is a wide spectrum of variation between the more limited aspects of upwards communications (such as suggestions specific to the individual's job), and full scale empowerment The assumption about upwards communication or involvement is that it helps generate a fuller commitment than compliance (people buy into what they suggest), and that it provides an opportunity for employees to control their future and hence reduce fear of the unknown and loss, two key aspects of resistance to change explored in Chapter 1 However, there is some disagreement regarding when and to what extent involvement is best used This may be due to a lack of understanding in the literature about why involvement actually makes a difference

Lateral Communications

Lateral communications flows is the third direction in which it is argued information must flow to support change Lateral communications, the process of communications which improves integration and co-ordination, receives less attention in the literature on communicating for change than communicating for involvement (upwards communications) Recent interest in lateral communications has been generated by those interested in knowledge management (eg Dickinson, 1998, Field, 1997, Mayo, 1998) rather than those writing about communications and change management Even in their description of Individualised corporations, Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) refer to lateral communications primarily as a means of enhancing shared knowledge and learning rather than as an enabler of change The lack of discussion about the role of lateral communications in change management in the communications literature is surprising, given that integration and co-ordination are seen to be key both by those who describe the ideal organisational types for change (see chapter 1 5 3), and those who write about the roles of networks in adoption of innovation (see chapter 3 4 2) Hall (1987) notes that research into lateral communications has been minimal, arguing that organisations tend to focus on communications channels within hierarchies because of traditional vertical organisational structures

Lateral communications flows are perhaps the most difficult to sustain For example, a survey of 1,350 employees across 30 organisations in Ireland directed by this author (Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997), found that employees scored lateral communications in their organisations lower than either upwards or downwards information flows On a range of 1 to 5, employees scored mean averages of less than 3 for satisfaction with different types of lateral communications, compared with mean averages of 3 and upwards for upward and downward information flows D'Aprix (1996) also writes that lateral information flows are often the most difficult to maintain because organisations, by their nature, tend to be hierarchical

There is a limited number of references to the role of lateral communications in co-ordinating for change   Exterbille (1996) notes that communications flows should be 3-directional, not just vertical (2 directional) in change programmes and Moss Kanter (1997) notes that it is essential to support change by transferring learning between functions Richardson and Denton (1996) and Lee (1997) also argue that a key role for the top management team is to integrate the common effort by communicating a clear common vision for all functional areas of the organisation and by supporting lateral communications structures D'Aprix (1996) is perhaps one of the first writers on communicating for change who focuses specifically on the role of lateral communications for co-ordination of effort for driving change He notes in particular how difficult it is to maintain horizontal flows of information, but suggests a number of structures to support lateral communications including top team integration, multifunctional teams and network alliances

The dearth of attention given to the role of lateral communications in co-ordination of change in the literature on communicating for change, is surprising By its nature, change requires an integration of effort If change only occurs in vertical pockets of the organisation, it could not be considered to be the widespread transformational change described in chapter 1

3.4.3.(ii)   The Communications Media

The three different information flows are supported by communications structures and media Much of the literature on organisational communications is devoted to the relative advantages and disadvantages of different organisational communications media (see Table 3 1), and the literature gives advice regarding the importance of matching the right communications medium to the needs of each particular audience (eg Evans, 1986, Rafe, 1994, Sinickas, 1994)

Table 3.1   Benefits And Disadvantages Of Communications Media
(IBEC 1996 : 8)

Media	Can Be Good For	Can Be Bad For
Written Tools	complex ideas dispersed audience permanence	speed expense informality exchange of opinions
Verbal Tools	exchange of opinions participation informality immediacy	control of the message records complex information dispersed audiences
Electronic Tools	immediacy dispersed audiences exchange of opinion selecting information	expense inhibition

Written tools such as memos or newsletters allow for permanent record and are particularly useful as a point of reference for complex ideas However, they take time to develop, particularly if they are to be designed and printed and, more importantly, they do not allow for exchange of ideas or for the communication of subtle nuances very well Verbal tools such as meetings, briefings or 'walking the job' are advocated as a key part of any manager's armoury Electronic tools such as e-mail enable messages to be transmitted efficiently to dispersed audiences but may be inhibiting for many people Face-to-face communications tools are considered to be the most effective approach overall Both Klein (1994) and Richardson and Denton (1996) argue that distortion of the message is reduced as new layers of redundancy are added (ie using multiple means of communication) and that face-to-face communications is the most effective method to use because it is rich in redundancy That is, it provides overlapping verbal, non-verbal and paralanguage cues Davenport and Lipton (1993) add that the benefits of face-to-face communications are an ability to check the receivers' understanding of the issues being discussed and that it provides the receivers with an opportunity to express views and concerns to seek clarification

91

However, it is argued that the role of written and electronic tools should not be underestimated as supporting mechanisms for face-to-face methods. They ensure consistency of message, an ability to reach everyone if, for example, a CEO cannot physically reach everyone and they provide materials which employees can refer back to at a later date. Results from Foehrenbach and Goldfarb's (1990) studies of employees in 300 organisations across the UK and USA carried out in 1980 and updated in 1989, are often quoted to emphasise the key role which face-to-face methods play, but omitting to refer to the support for written tools. In fact, in their studies, employees were found to have viewed newsletters, employee annual reports and employee handbooks as important sources of information (41 percent, 37 percent and 46 percent of employees respectively selected each of these tools as preferred sources of information in their update survey).

Electronic tools such as e-mail have in the space of five years invaded mainstream organisational communications. A survey carried out by Hobson (1995) amongst the Fortune Top 100 companies in the US found that in 1992, less than 10 per cent of the organisations surveyed used electronic communications. Three years' later, Holzinger (1995) reported a twenty fold increase in the usage of bulletin boards in the United States between 1987 and 1995, while more recently, Hacker et al (1998) report substantial growth in use of e-mail, with almost 80 per cent of organisations in the USA using e-mail. Electronic communications has also become one of the tools available to communicators in Ireland. 14 out of 30 participating organisations in a survey of Irish organisations say they use electronic bulletin boards or intranets (Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997). The more obvious roles for electronic media in communicating for change include making information widely available and in the case of intranets, enabling lateral group discussions on new innovations. In theory, these appear to have many benefits (eg Kroll, 1997), but in practice, the role of technology in communications remains quite limited. A study carried out by Zona Research in 1996, found that only 17 per cent of users have ever used their technology for group work and most use it (67 per cent), for accessing documents and data (Ragan Publishing, 1996).

Despite the conclusion that face-to-face tools are more effective, in practice, organisations are increasing the use of all three types of media - written, verbal and electronic. In a recent study of 293 organisations of all sizes and sectors in the UK (Stewart, 1999), e-mail, employee publications and group meetings were found to be used widely (83 per cent, 88 per cent and 91 per cent of the organisations respectively). In two studies of over 250 organisations based in Ireland, Gunnigle et al (1994) and

(1997), found an overall increase in the use of all three types of communications methods The Drury Communications and IPD Ireland (1997) benchmarking study of 30 organisations in Ireland also found wide use of all three types of tools even though employees clearly marked their preference for face-to-face mechanisms The 1,350 employees in this study say they find that team briefings, informal one-to-ones and other types of verbal communications to be the most valuable communications methods Table 3 2 below details the preferred methods by the employees for six key types of communication

Table 3.2   Preferred Communications Methods By 1,350 Irish
**   Employees For Six Communications Objectives**
**   (Adapted from Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997)**

Communications Objective	Method Ranked 1st	Method Ranked 2nd
Providing task information	Training (49%)	1 to 1 (46%)
Update on organisation's performance	Mass meetings (45%)	Annual report (40%)
Sharing future plans	Mass meetings (34%)	Meeting with head of function (27%)
Seeking input	1 to 1 (39%)	Team briefing (32%)
Announcing urgent news	E-Mail (42%)	Mass meeting (37%)
Sharing information across the organisation	E-Mail (45%)	Grapevine (23%)

Organisations in Ireland, it seems, are unwilling to put all their resources into face-to-face methods The advantages of written methods as communications tools of record and their ability to reach dispersed audiences may be one reason for this, but a survey of 913 organisations in the UK and Northern Ireland carried out by the Industrial Society (1994), may also help to explain why This study found that managers viewed newsletters, notice boards and team briefings as useful methods of communicating downwards, while 'walking the job' and team briefing were considered the most effective means of monitoring opinions The organisations said they use notice boards to communicate, 82 per cent said they used team briefing, 78 per cent in-house newsletters and 38 per cent E-Mail To elicit opinions and ideas, 70 per cent said they used 'walking the job', 65 per cent team briefing, 49 per cent consultative committees and 24 per cent attitude surveys

Some conclusions can be drawn from this review of the literature. Verbal methods are the preferred communications method because they allow for face-to-face exchange of views. The literature contends that they are of particular value in communicating change as they allow managers to listen and respond to concerns (both rational and emotional), and to seek contributions. However, larger organisations cannot rely purely on verbal methods. Written methods, and increasingly electronic methods, allow organisations to communicate with dispersed audiences and put a level of control on the message because it is 'on-the-record'. In practice, organisations appear to be using a mix of all these types of tools. There appears to be a consensus that print media on its own is not sufficient and that face to face methods are key (eg. Dulye, 1993; Exterbille, 1996; Klein, 1996; Richardson & Denton, 1996). The literature suggests that it is important to use a combination of rich and lean media (eg. Bonvillian, 1996; Exterbille, 1996; Klein, 1994, Richardson and Denton, 1996; Tourish, 1997), so that the repetition of message over a variety of methods will increase employees' memory of the message. However, it is largely accepted that face-to-face communications is the most effective method of communicating for change and this puts a great level of responsibility on managers as communicators of change.

3.4.3.(iii)   Communications Programmes

A review of many of the individual case-studies on communicating change (eg Brege and Brandes, 1993; Cole and Pace, 1991; IPM, 1993; Jackson, 1998; Lorenz, 1993), could leave the impression that this type of communications only happens within formal communications programmes. However, there is a growing argument to concentrate less on putting specific communications tools and programmes in place and instead integrate communications into ongoing activity. In fact, a number of studies have demonstrated that informal communications, whether direct dialogue between management and employees, networks or the grapevine, are considered by employees and managers alike to be the best form of communications (eg Harcourt et al, 1991; Johnson et al, 1994 and Nicoll, 1994).

Landes (1992) also cautions against 'programitis', where special communications programmes are introduced separately to on-line communications. He cites campaigns which include special newsletters, promotional material, slogans and so on, which do not relate to the ongoing business of management. Haseley (1994) and Quirke (1995) similarly advocate ongoing communications which follow management structures, rather than 'fad' programmes running in parallel and Smilansky (1993) and Walker (1994) argue that a key failing with the introduction of TQM programmes is where

94

organisations try to 'sell' the concept as a distinct campaign. According to Smilanksy, TQM then takes on an identity in its own right and employees then begin to believe that it has nothing to do with other activities to make improvements. In short, it is not integrated with the strategic focus of the organisation. Nevertheless, it appears that in practice, many organisations, particularly the larger organisations, are encapsulating their change programmes into special communications programmes (eg Cole and Pace, 1991; Lorenz, 1993) and McGrath and Geaney (1998) argue that the benefit of such highly visible initiatives which require the commitment of resources, management time and energy can help build general commitment to the change programme. Moreover, there is no evidence offered by Landes, Smilansky or Walker to substantiate their claim that programitis can impair the level of success of the change programme.

3.4.3 (iv)   Communications Roles

Communications is the responsibility of line management, according to many writers (Davenport and Lipton, 1993; Industrial Society, 1994 and Larkin and Larkin, 1994). However, there is some disagreement as to whether communications structures should be run directly from senior management to employees (thereby reducing the potential for distortion at each level in the hierarchy), or be tiered to include middle management in the process. Foehrenbach and Goldfarb (1990) carried out two IABC surveys of 300 UK and US organisations in 1980 and 1990. In the 1990 survey, 60 per cent of employees said they would like to receive information from their top executive and 90 per cent said they would like to receive information from their immediate manager. This is supported by Larkin and Larkin (1994) and Klein (1996) who argue that the most credible source of information is the supervisor. However, Puitti et al (1990) found in a survey of 122 employees of an engineering company that commitment to the organisation correlated more with the strength of the communications relationship between the employee and top management rather than the communications relationship between the employees and their supervisors.

Top management, and particularly the CEO, are considered to play a key role in taking on the mantle of 'leaders' in communicating change. This has implications for the role of top management as communicators. Kemper (1992) and Quirke (1995) write that employees need to have confidence in their top management team, which means that the top team need to be visible and active communicators. Haseley (1994) and Richardson and Denton (1996) and Tourish (1997) suggest that the CEOs have to demonstrate their commitment to change, while Schaffer and Thomson (1996) and Quirke (1995) add they also have to actively demonstrate their vision of the future.

D'Aprix (1996) outlines four specific communications roles for the leaders of the organisation during change: to be visible, to set the tone for change, to take a long-term view of values and to point to the type of role models of the new organisation which are required. All, according to D'Aprix, involving active and visible communications from top management.

Line managers, too, are considered to play an equally important, although a different role from the top management team. Referring to IABC studies which demonstrate that managers are a preferred source of information (Foehrenbach and Goldfarb's work, 1990), various writers (Klein, 1994; Larkin and Larkin, 1994 and Richardson and Denton, 1996) argue that line managers are the key communicators of change. Larkin and Larkin (1994) and Klein (1994) both warn that if line managers are bypassed in the communications process, their credibility is undermined. The daily incremental changes needed to make up the overall change programme is dependent on their relationship with their reporting employees.

Whereas top management's communications role is to set out the broader picture, the line managers' role is considered by the literature to be more focused on daily activities relating to the change process. Bonvillian (1997 : 24), for example claims that their role is to bridge the 'two worlds of strategic and operational reality' by translating the vision into how it will impact people on a daily basis. Their language is the same language as that used by their employees, while senior management can revert back into management speak. They also are involved in more daily listening and interacting with employees, which enables questions and concerns to surface.

Earlier in this chapter (chapter 3.4.1), it was seen that an important factor in persuasion is the perceived expertise, credibility or likeability of the source. Key persuaders are known as opinion leaders and opinion leaders have also been identified by Klein (1996) and Larkin and Larkin (1994) as having a key communications role in change management. However, Larkin and Larkin specifically identify supervisors and line managers as being those opinion leaders, unlike Klein, who point out that people outside the line structure can have a disproportionate impact on their peers' attitudes. These people, according to Klein, should be actively used as endorsers of the change process.

There are inconsistent views, based on research evidence, as to which function in the organisation is being given responsibility for sponsoring communicating for change. Drury Communications and IPD Ireland (1997) found that 21 out of 30 Irish

organisations participating in their survey on communications placed responsibility for internal communications with the HR function. Four placed it in the PR/Marketing department and a further three in the CEO's office. Research in the UK and Northern Ireland (Industrial Society, 1994), would also suggest that the HR function is increasingly being given the responsibility for co-ordinating organisational communications. However a study of 11 Irish manufacturing organisations (Foley et al, 1996), found that none of the participating organisations had given responsibility to HR for organisational communications, although they were responsible for industrial relations, while a more recent Irish study of 52 organisations implementing quality programmes which had recognisable HR departments in place, also found a very limited role for the HR function in delivering communications support (Buckley et al, 1998). While it is argued in some corners (eg Buckley et al, 1998), that the HR function should be playing a more central role in providing and maintaining communications programmes to support change, there is a concern that in allocating this role to HR, on-line managers do not abdicate their own responsibilities, given the importance of their role as communicators (Larkin and Larkin, 1994; Quirke, 1995).

3.4.3.(v)   *The Communications Climate*

Tools, structures and communications programmes make up the more tangible aspects of organisational wide communicating for change. It is also argued in the literature that a more intangible aspect of communications - the communications climate of the organisation - can have an influence on the acceptance of change (eg Filipczak, 1995). Fiorelli and Margolis (1993 : 8) write:

> Large systems change is difficult to impossible in an environment where open communication, mutual trust and risk taking are not nourished and actively encouraged.

The two key factors which those writing about communications climate continuously refer to are openness and trust; both factors, Eisenberg and Witten (1987) argue, being the legacy of the Human Relations movement. They are also the very aspects of the communications climate which can come under most pressure during change. For example, Quirke (1995) cites a study of UK organisations carried out by MORI which found that trust levels drop radically from an average of 66 per cent in stable times to 49 per cent when undergoing change and McLagan and Nel (1996b) note that learning from errors, vital to the learning involved in change, will not occur in a climate which does not have high levels of trust.

Openness is considered to be a vital ingredient in trust. Various writers (Champy and Nohria, 1996; Dulye, 1993; Exterbille, 1996; Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998; Klein, 1996; Pascale et al, 1997; Quirke, 1995 and Richardson and Denton, 1996) all agree that it is key for credibility and trust. Dulye (1993 : 24) points out:

> Regardless of how bad the news is, people need to hear it. Information gaps cause employees to misinterpret decisions, mistrust occurs, people polarise themselves from management. Communications arms people with the facts. It redirects energy away from anxiety to action.

This view is supported by a study carried out amongst 400 employees in the UK banking sector (*Financial Times*, 1998), which concludes that managers' perceived lack of openness is viewed as the most common reason for lack of trust.

Caldwell (1994 : 17) explains that openness is based on;

> Direct, face-to-face communication in which employees are active participants, encouraged to ask questions, offer feedback and assume ownership for actions agreed within a framework of open dialogue.

A matter of some debate for management is to what extent an organisation should be open with information, particularly if the information is commercially sensitive or if it involves bad news. The prevailing opinion (eg DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998; Filipczak, 1995; Kemper, 1992; Richardson and Denton, 1996), is that open communications enhances the organisation in many ways. It opens up levels of trust, it reduces uncertainty and rumours and it provides people with the information they need to make better decisions and to input meaningfully into the success of the organisation.

However, Filipczak (1995) cautions against indiscriminate openness for the sake of it, which may not be relevant to those concerned and may cause information overload. Similarly, Eisenberg and Witten (1987) argue that the concept of 'openness' has been discussed in woolly terms and when more closely defined, it is apparent that total unquestioning openness in an organisation is a nonsensical aspiration. They differentiate, for example, between disclosure of non-personal information and personal information. They suggest that a working relationship may be harmed rather than improved by disclosing personal thoughts about the other person and a manager is better off using ambiguous statements when providing negative feedback about performance than clear, unambiguous statements. However, Eisenberg and Witten's examples fail to support their argument that openness should be curtailed in any way.

The way in which information is presented is something quite different to withholding of that information. Schweiger and Denisi (1991) also argue against universal openness. They write that during acquisitions, for example, while it is essential to be open and honest, there is little to be gained from focusing on negatives which are not likely to arise in the future and which may cause uncertainty and fears for little reason.

In reality, not all organisations are prepared to be open with financial and performance related information or information of particular relevance to change management - information about the future. DiFonzo and Bordia (1998) note that managers may fall silent because they are afraid to mislead or give out incorrect information, because they themselves do not have all the answers. Lawler et al (1992) carried out a study of 313 Fortune 1,000 organisations and found that while three quarters of the organisations were willing to share information about the companies' operating performance, only 54 per cent were prepared to share information about the operating unit's performance and less than half were prepared to share business plans for the future. On a smaller scale, a survey of 30 Irish organisations (Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997), revealed that only nine of the 30 organisations share information about the organisation's profits with their employees while 12 of the organisations share the organisation's strategic plans for the forthcoming year. Similarly, Gunnigle et al (1994) found in a survey of 267 Irish organisations that only around 40 per cent of organisations share information about financial performance or future strategy with clerical workers and even fewer organisations are prepared to share such information with manual workers (36 per cent for future strategy and 33 per cent for financial performance).

Openness may be associated with straight talking and frankness (eg Champy and Nohria, 1996 and Pascale et al, 1997). However, a concept also tied in with that of openness is timing. Smeltzer (1991) interviewed respondents in 43 organisations undergoing change and found (both through quantitative and content analysis), that timing dominated people's perceptions about the openness and trust levels of the organisational climates and consequent effectiveness of their change programmes. As managers held back on the provision of information, rumours took over or employees relied on outside sources to establish what was happening. In concluding his findings, Smeltzer (1991 : 22) wrote:

> Timing of the communication and the proliferation of rumours was much more important than the message style or channel. 'Just let us know what's going on' is frequently heard from employees.

Miller et al (1994) also looked at timeliness of information amongst eight other factors believed to influence willingness to participate in organisational change. Following a survey of 168 employees of all types and levels in a US insurance company, they identified timely, helpful information as being the key influence and conversely, the absence of timely information was found to increase anxiety levels to a degree which made employees resistant to change.

Quirke (1995), in his model for communicating about change, also advocates being open with information sooner rather than later. Acknowledging managers' reluctance to provide information about something which they themselves have not thought through, Quirke nonetheless argues that to reduce rumours, maintain trust levels and give employees the time to come on board, managers should be communicating options for change sooner in the decision making process than waiting to announce foregone conclusions. Supporting Quirke's contention, Larkin and Larkin (1994) write that if managers wait for certainty, they will never be able to communicate. Instead, they should start communicating sooner about probabilities and options open to the organisation.

Bryan (1997), however, argues that timing marks the difference between openness and transparency. He writes that organisations may select to be open, but only when information is made available as it develops, is an organisation actually 'transparent'. He stresses that being open is not sufficient during the uncertain process of change, but that an organisation has to be transparent in the way it considers options and makes decisions about the preferred direction to take.

The literature overwhelmingly supports the argument that openness is important during change to enable trust levels to remain high and anxiety to be minimised. Dulye (1993) writes that regardless of how bad news is, people need to hear it, providing the information redirects energy away from anxiety to action. Roberts (1991) adds that people need to be treated like adults; they need the freedom to influence their own course of destiny and can only do so if they are given sufficient information about impending changes and in time. Kemper (1992) adds that managers should acknowledge in cases of change that managers do not have all the answers, that trial and error will occur and that there will probably be pain and loss for many. In addition, studies such as Smeltzer's (1991) appear to demonstrate that it does have an impact. The literature argues for openness during change, but it is not clear how strong

an impact it has in comparison with, for example, the right type of persuasive message, or the right type of communications tools This gap in our knowledge leaves an opportunity to examine whether openness is, in fact, a key variable or just one of a number of equally important communications variables

However, despite the perception that openness is key, it is apparent from the literature that what is happening in reality does not reflect the theory (eg Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997, Lawler et al, 1992) Organisations tend to restrict openness either for commercial confidentiality reasons or to await a time when they feel prepared to announce a management decision The reasons for not supporting total openness in practice are relatively clear, but it is also clear that management have not yet been given a convincing enough argument which would lead them to believe that the benefits of openness outweigh the disadvantages

3.4.4   A Summary of the Communications Factors Considered To Be Important For Organisational Change

In the preceding sections of this chapter, a variety of communications practices advocated by the literature to support change are discussed These practices are prescribed in the belief that they will enhance trust levels, reduce resistance, enhance commitment and provide a common vision and clarity on what is required and thus facilitate organisational change Table 3 3 below summarises the practices into six areas, some of which are more relevant to the interpersonal and group-wide communications, but the majority of which are relevant to organisational-wide communications

Table 3.3   The Communications Factors Necessary for Organisational

Change According to the Literature

Factor	Argument	Examples
Content Of Message	Logical and / or emotive argument on benefits	Grates (1994) Quirke (1995) Berzok (1997) Ghoshal (1995)
	Communicate plans and achievements	DiFonzo & Bordia (1998) Schaffer (1997)
Openness	Open climate	Quirke (1995) Smeltzer (1991)
Media	Face-to-face is key Supported by mix of electronic / written	Caldwell (1994) IBEC (1996)
Roles	Top managers play a key role	Kemper (1993) Quirke (1995)
	Middle managers play a key role Opinion leaders play a key role	Davenport & Lipton (1993) Siebold & Meyers (1996)
Information Flows	Mixture of downwards, upwards and lateral	Haseley (1990)
	Upwards is necessary for commitment	Bowen & Lawler (1990) D'Aprix (1996)
	Lateral is necessary for integrated effort	Exterbille (1996) Ghoshal & Bartlett (1998)
Communications Programmes	Communications should be integrated into daily activities	Freeman (1994)

The key arguments put forward are that the communications climate should be open to enhance trust, information should flow freely in three directions, managers and opinion leaders play a key role, communications about change should be integrated into daily activity and face-to-face communications methods are key, supported by a mix of written and electronic methods There is some debate regarding whether the content of the message about change should focus on emotive or logical arguments, or both

The general argument put forward is that all of these practices are equally important for all situations This is surprising, given that organisations vary in size, sector and level of development and given that change programmes themselves can vary in content and scale (eg Dawson, 1994) This issue is explored in more detail in the next section

3.5   Is There A Universal Model Of Organisational Communications?

The impression given by the literature on organisational communications for change management is that there is a universal 'right way' to communicate for change Principles such as face-to-face communications, openness and multidirectional information flows are recommended as being 'right' for every situation For example, Exterbille (1996) lays down five key messages to be communicated in all quality change programmes and Klein (1996) sets out six key principles for communicating change including face-to-face communications, using managers and focusing on relevant content In addition, Wilkinson (1989) claims the 'golden rules' for communicating change include openness, honesty, relevance and two-way communications, while Smith (1991) has her own six 'commandments' for effective communications including senior management commitment, communicating the business case for change and using a diversity of communications media However, these assertions are often made without any empirical support to sustain them, while interestingly, a related field of organisational communications writings which does have a good degree of research based evidence - organisational communications to support job satisfaction or job performance - does not assume that there is a universal 'right' way to communicate

There are many studies which show a relationship between communications and job satisfaction (eg Rodwell et al, 1998, Tourish, 1995) In Baird and Diebolt's (1976) classic study of 50 clerical staff and supervisors in a manufacturing organisation, job satisfaction was found to correlate positively with the frequency of communications between staff and supervisors, as well as the quality of their relationship Schweiger and Denisi (1991), who followed the progress of two companies following a merger, also concluded that communications played a key role in job satisfaction and commitment Various studies have also been published to demonstrate a relationship between communications and performance Tourish (1995) refers to an unpublished doctorate by Harrison (1986) who demonstrates that communications between managers and staff was three times more powerful in predicting profitability in 40 major US corporations than the four next most powerful predictors combined (market share, capital intensity, size of firm and sales growth rate) Bayliss (1996) contrasted the perceptions of employees of high performing organisations with those of low performing organisations (750,000 employees in total), and found considerable differences in satisfaction with certain types of communications Employees from high performing organisations were considerably more satisfied with available information

about their jobs the organisation as a whole and the environment in which it operates, the extent to which their contribution is sought by their managers and personal and team feedback A more recent study by Rodwell et al (1998), based on a survey of 329 employees of an Australian information technology company, found, using regression analysis, that communications was a strong a predictor of job satisfaction and commitment

The relationship between organisational communications and satisfaction or performance is supported by these studies However, is it fair to assume that one universal model of communications is equally effective in all situations? A closer look at the studies reveals that different communications factors actually correlate with different outcomes Three studies on the relationship between communications and performance and / or satisfaction are regularly cited, a study by Lewis et al (1982), which looks at the relationship between communications and productivity in three working situations, a study by Pincus (1986) which examines the relationship between communications and satisfaction and or reported performance, and Clampitt and Down's (1993) research into the relationship between communications and productivity in two companies

Lewis et al (1982) were particularly interested in establishing whether or not it takes different types of communications to achieve productivity in different work situations They looked at the church, the military and at a small manufacturing enterprise Productivity was described differently according to each organisation In the Church, it was measured by factors such as service, in the military it included factors such as leadership and absenteeism and in the small enterprise it was judged on the basis of quarterly efficiency reports Through a survey, they examined what type of communications was the greatest predictor of productivity and found differences according to each work situation The greatest predictor of productivity in the church was 'person' communications, that is, communications which focuses on personal issues However, different results emerged for the military The type of communications which was the greatest predictor of productivity in their case was 'task' communications, that is, communications focusing on the task at hand The small enterprises required a mixture of both person and task communications

These results cast doubts on the assumption that there is a universal 'right way' to communicate for productivity It is clear from this research that the approach is contingent upon the different type of organisations and what productivity means for them Interestingly, the 'person' oriented and 'task' oriented communications identified

by Lewis et al are similar concepts to the emotive and logical message content which has been the focus of much discussion in the literature on persuasion (chapter 3 4 1) They are also resonant of the two different influences on communications identified in chapter 3 3 1 'Person' communications is primarily interested in the humanist concept of fulfilling the needs of the individual, while 'task' communications is much more aligned with achieving management's goals From Lewis et al's research, it would appear that both influences play an important role in achieving productivity, but in different working situations

The study conducted in 1986 by Pincus, examined the relationship between different types of communications and both job satisfaction and job performance Using Downs et al's (1973) Communications Satisfaction Questionnaire, a questionnaire which has been validated for consistency and reliability a number of times, Pincus asked 327 nurses to rate their satisfaction with nine communications dimensions They were also asked to complete a job satisfaction and job performance questionnaire It could be argued that reported job performance is very different to actual observed performance, but there was considerable variation within the group of nurses to suggest that those not performing had scored themselves lower on the scales that their counterparts Through correlation and multiple regression, Pincus discovered clear patterns whereby groups of communications dimensions correlated with job satisfaction, reported job performance or both (see Figure 3 1)

Figure 3.1   Relationship Between Different Communication Dimensions And
Job Satisfaction And / Or Performance
(Source : Pincus 1986 : 403, Figure 1)

Relational Dimensions	Informational / Relational Dimensions	Informational Dimensions
* subordinate communication * horizontal communication * top management communication	* personal feedback * communication climate * supervisor communication	* media quality * organisational integration * organisational perspective

Job Satisfaction

Job Performance

———————————— **Stronger positive correlations**

– – – – – – – – – – **Weaker positive correlations**

The three relational dimensions are predominantly focused on satisfaction with communications relationships with other members of the organisation, whether subordinates' satisfaction with their relationship with their superiors, peer satisfaction or general satisfaction with top management. These relational dimensions strongly correlated with job satisfaction. The three informational dimensions focus on the satisfaction with the flow and content of information throughout the organisation: the formal communications tools, the availability of organisational-wide information such as polices and job related information. These informational dimensions correlated strongly with reported job performance. The three informational / relational dimensions cover both the communications relationships and satisfaction with the content and flow of information. Personal feedback relates both to providing regular performance information, but also recognition of efforts and the communications climate, for example, relates both to the person's identification with the organisations and the

106

timeliness of information These informational / relational dimensions correlate both with job satisfaction and job performance

In common with Lewis et al (1982), Pincus' research demonstrates that the relationship between communications and satisfaction or performance is not universal Different dimensions of communications correlate with different outcomes Moreover, a similar theme to Lewis et al's research emerges in Pincus' results a contrast between person oriented (in this case called the 'relational' dimension), and task oriented (called the 'informational' dimension), communications

The third study was carried out in 1993 by Clampitt and Downs They asked 63 staff from a savings and loan company and a further 110 staff from a chair manufacturer to complete Downs et al's Communications Satisfaction Questionnaire They also asked the staff to both define what they mean by productivity and to the note their own performance against that definition They did not combine the communications dimensions in the same way that Pincus did They found that the two different types of productivity were impacted separately by different communications dimensions For the savings and loans company, a service organisation, personal feedback and the communications climate were both considered to have the most significant impact on either productivity (both very 'person' oriented), while those in the chair manufacturers, pointed to personal feedback and subordinate satisfaction with their relationship with their boss as being key The results point once again to the need to apply different types of communications to different working situations in order to achieve results However, these results stress the importance of person-oriented communications as having the most impact for both organisations, unlike the other two studies where certain situations required task or information oriented communications

What implications does this research on communicating for performance or satisfaction have for communicating for change? These three studies would indicate that it is not possible to attribute one model of organisational communications universally to organisational performance or satisfaction Different strategies work more effectively in different situations Yet, as with the change management literature generally, communications strategies for change, with very few exceptions, are described in a universal manner in the literature as being the 'one' way or 'right' way to communicate for change There is little attempt to differentiate for types of change, the degree of change required or the type of organisation within which change is expected to happen

3.6   Conclusions

This review of the literature on organisational communications and change demonstrates that there is no shortage of attention paid to the subject, but there is a remarkable degree of uncritical acceptance of universal assertions regarding the 'one right' way to communicate for organisational change In making these assertions, there is little distinction made between different organisations and change situations In addition, there are few linkages drawn back to relevant theories (such as attitude theories or theories of motivation), where it has already been noted that there is considerable less certainty about the robustness of various assumptions

Many questions arise from this First of all, is it necessarily correct to assume that the approaches identified in the literature as being key to organisational change (ie content of message, an open climate, the choice of media, the roles of managers and opinion leaders and information flowing in three directions - downward, upwards and laterally), are all equally important? Perhaps some of these factors (or indeed other factors not identified in the literature), are more important than others Secondly, what communications strategies are actually used by organisations which have successfully undergone organisational change in practice? If, as the literature appears to admit, certain approaches are not commonly used such as wide-spread openness or lateral communications, perhaps not all of these factors need necessarily be used in all cases Thirdly, is it correct to assume that all organisations and all change situations require the same mixture of communications practices? Perhaps some practices work better for different situations It was noted that in other areas of organisational communications research (ie connecting organisational communications with performance and satisfaction), that contingency models were more appropriate than universal models Perhaps this is equally relevant to communicating for change

It would be unfair to suggest that all the literature on communicating for change is in total agreement on every aspect There are some areas where there is considerable debate For example, there is a diversity of views regarding the most impactful persuasive message, the extent to which involvement is necessary in all cases, the role of non-managerial opinion leaders in supporting change and the extent to which organisations need to be fully open

Finally, because there is little or no reference back to the theories behind the various communications practices, there appears to be a dearth of understanding surrounding why communications appears to be an important aspect of organisational change As a result, there is a danger that assumptions are being made regarding links between communications and change, which may not necessarily be correct

.

Summary Of Section One

This review of the literature was separated into three chapters to explore in detail what is known and written about in three areas of relevance to this thesis; organisational change, total quality as a type of organisational change and organisational communications as a key strategy of organisational change. It was noted that there was very little overlap between the three strands of the literature, with writers researching and commenting on related issues without referring to the work carried out in the other fields. Yet interestingly, a number of common threads are apparent across two or more of the three chapters, even though the authors themselves do not appear to be aware of what is being written in the other areas.

First of all, it becomes apparent that the managerialist assumption prevails throughout both the change management literature and the organisational communications literature. Implicitly, management is given the prerogative to decide what type of change is necessary and why (chapter 1.4), while organisational communications, in the main, is seen to be a management tool to help management achieve their objectives (chapter 3.3.1). There is even concern expressed in some quarters of the quality literature that total quality itself is largely a management driven initiative (chapter 2.3). A small number of authors do question the prevailing agenda, but in the main, the common thread throughout the literature on the three areas is to find the most successful way for management to implement change, quality or communications.

A second thread which permeates the literature and which is possibly linked to the managerialist agenda, is the prescriptive and unquestioning nature of much of the literature. In chapter 1, it was noted that the literature today tends to describe six features of the 'ideal organisational type' for change (chapter 1.5.3), together with a list of strategies for change management which apply in all situations (chapter 1.6). Similarly, the organisational communications literature prescribes six areas of communications strategies which are deemed to apply equally to all situations (chapter 3.4).These universal guidelines are given, despite evidence in other parts of the literature to suggest that organisational characteristics, employee profiles and different types of change situations themselves, may require different responses.

Looking at the process of change itself, common assumptions prevail between the organisational change literature and the literature on total quality. The dominant view in the organisational change literature is that organisational change can be described in

linear and incremental terms (chapter 1.3), although there are contrary opinions on this point. Meanwhile, all of the descriptions of the organisational process to becoming total quality organisations are built on the assumption that this is a linear and incremental process (chapter 2.6).

When focusing in on the factors deemed to support organisational change, a number of common threads also emerge. One such thread is the concept of integration. In chapter 1.5.3, it was found that three organisational features (open information flows, flat hierarchies, co-ordination), are consistently raised in the organisational type literature as being important for organisational change, pointing to the concept of integration as being key for such change. Integration was specifically selected as being a key feature in two organisational profiles described in detail in this review; Plant's (1987) 'Organisational Profile For Change' and Ghoshal and Bartlett's (1998) 'Individualized Corporation'. The concept of cross-integration of organisational structures and co-ordination also emerged in the quality literature (chapter 2.5), while integration through lateral communications flows was advocated as a communications strategy for organisational change in the organisational communications literature (chapter 3.4.3).

A second common thread which is deemed to support organisational change is the concept of involvement and empowerment. Upwards communications and involvement is strongly advocated in the organisational communications literature (chapter 3.4.3) and the concept is seen to be a key feature both of organisations described as being effective for organisational change (chapter 1.5.3), and in total quality organisations in particular (chapter 2.5).

The third common thread is less easy to label, but permeates the different areas of the literature, nonetheless. This concept relates to the importance of the softer, human aspects of organisational change, perhaps best described as 'humanism'. As with integration, this concept emerges as a common thread between five organisational features consistently identified in the literature as being important for organisational change (chapter 1.5.3). It also emerges as a key dimension in both Plant's (1987) and Ghoshal and Bartlett's (1998) organisational profiles. Earlier in the literature review on commitment to change, it was noted that individuals' responses to change will be influenced by a range of 'soft' factors such as values, emotions, concerns and whether or not the individual feels respected. It is argued that these emotive issues will play a large part in their commitment or resistance to organisational change (chapter 1.5.2). In the organisational communications literature, there is also a recognition that persuasive arguments for change must address these personal and emotional issues as

much as logical concerns (chapter 3 4 1) Moreover, a second strand of organisational communications literature beyond managerialism was traced, whereby 'humanism' is increasingly becoming an important influence (chapter 3 3 1) This strand focuses on how communications can support a relationship of mutual respect - a concept separately identified in the literature on commitment (chapter 1 5 2), as being key for commitment to change

By pulling together these strands, a number of key concepts are beginning to emerge which appear to link organisational communications with organisational change Yet, because the literature in each area does not appear to link in with related areas, it tends to unquestioningly promote prescriptive guidelines without questioning which features are more important or without questioning how or why the different features might work This raises a number of issues and unanswered questions

First of all, there is a tendency to advocate universal guidelines for change management (including communications guidelines for change), regardless of organisational variables or the type of change involved Do such guidelines hold in all situations in practice?

Secondly, there is a tendency to list series of communications practices with no conceptualisation of these into core principles such as the common threads of integration, empowerment and humanism which emerged when pulling the strands of the literature together Can core principles of communicating for change be identified?

Thirdly, there are little or no links drawn between that which is advocated and that which happens in practice Does reality actually reflect that which is advocated in the literature? There are also few links drawn back to relevant theories (eg on commitment to change), to try to explain why an advocated strategy is deemed to be appropriate Can the nature of the relationship between advocated communications strategies and successful change be explained?

The literature review also explores the concept of total quality as the context for transformational organisational change The literature which describes the process of becoming a total quality organisation in linear terms is in broad agreement about the key stages, but is quite complex A model was put forward to summarise that change process, which needs to be validated

These issues form the basis of the research for this thesis, influencing the methodology selected A description of the research methodology, including an explanation as to why the methodology is deemed both appropriate and valid, is provided in the next chapter, chapter 4

SECTION TWO

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 4   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

A review of the literature in section one has shown that an opportunity exists to
investigate in more detail the relationship between organisational communications and
organisational change Many questions were raised about the nature of the relationship
between communications and change management The absence of answers is noted by
Pascale et al (1997 128), who write

> As it is, most of what's been written about transformational change is either
> too conceptual and therefore too impractical, too inspirational and therefore
> too vague, or too company specific and therefore too hard to apply to one's
> own situation

Pascale et al (1997), together with Stainer and Stainer (1997), and McGrath and
Geaney (1998) call for more research to better understand the nature of change
management McGrath and Geaney (1998 31), are particularly concerned about the
lack of research into change management in Ireland writing 'on the research front in
Ireland, one is struck by the low level of significant research focusing directly on
organisational change and its management ' They attribute this to factors such as lack
of time and money, unwillingness by organisations in Ireland to open up to such
research and the area falling between cracks as it is not clearly situated in one
particular academic discipline over another It is clear from their comments that there
is an opportunity to carry out research on change management, particularly in the Irish
context

It has also become apparent in the literature that there is very limited understanding of
internal organisational communications itself In a special edition of 'Human Resource
Management' devoted to internal organisational communications, the editorial
highlights the lack of understanding in this area (Urlich, 1998 2)

> We believe it is time for HR professionals to come to a better understanding of
> why communications matters, how to build communications strategies, how to
> link these strategies to HR and business initiatives and how to design and
> deploy communications tools

In planning the best way of researching the links between organisational communications and change, cognisance has to be taken of the paradigms under which the research method is approached and the influences inherent in the researcher's perspective on organisational communications This chapter raises research issues which remain unresolved in the review of the literature, it discusses the research methods and instruments available for fieldwork, it sets out the instruments which have been selected for this study and why, and outlines the approach to analysis

4.2   Identifying The Research Hypotheses

The review of the literature (chapters 1 to 3), points to a series of issues which are either contested in the literature or about which relatively little is known In addition, it was noted that both in the change management literature and in the literature on organisational communications, there tends to be a considerable number of universal statements made about the 'right' way to achieve organisational change, with little or no empirical evidence to support the claims and with few links drawn to relevant theoretical underpinnings

The topic of organisational communications and change management is very broad and in scoping out which aspects of the relationship should be investigated, there is danger of losing focus It was decided to focus primarily on determining whether or not a relationship exists between the various organisational communications practices advocated in the literature and organisational change In doing so, the research will also determine whether or not long lists of practices can be brought together into a model of communicating for change, encompassing the key principles involved

These two issues were the primary focus of interest However, a number of ancillary issues developed from these primary questions For example, if a model of communicating for change is identified, will it necessarily apply in all situations? Are some communications practices more important for organisational change than others? In addition, if a number of communications practices are identified as having a relationship with organisational change, how and why do they correlate with successful change?

To answer these questions, it was decided to investigate the communications practices of a number of organisations undergoing a similar pattern of organisational change and to contrast the practices of those organisations judged to have made progress in that change process against those which have not In chapter 2 of the literature review,

a number of features of total quality were identified which indicate that quality provides an excellent context for measuring organisational change These features include wide-scale prevalence of quality initiatives in Ireland and the fact that total quality is considered to involve far-reaching change for both the individual and the organisation A five stage model of organisational change from having quality assurance processes in place to total quality was put forward as the indicator of organisational change, but this needed to be tested for validity

The following hypotheses were developed from these issues

Hypothesis 1
The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well-grounded.

Hypothesis 2
Those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature.

Hypothesis 3
Communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change.

Hypothesis 4
The selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables.

Hypothesis 5
It is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change.

The reasons for putting forward each of these hypotheses are set out below

Hypothesis 1

The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well-grounded.

Burnes (1992), Raynor (1992) and Hutchins (1990) all cited in chapter 2, claim that becoming a quality organisation involves fundamental, transformational change A model of change from quality assurance to total quality, involving five quality constructs, is proposed in chapter 2, which was developed from descriptions of the process of change to total quality in the literature This model has to be tested

Three specific hypotheses have been formulated

Hypothesis 1(a)   Organisations achieve quality assurance standards before progressing to total quality

Table 2 3 in chapter 2 summarises five models of becoming a total quality organisation found in the literature (Crosby, 1979, Dale and Cooper, 1992, Dale and Smith, 1997, PA Group, 1991, Rommel et al, 1994) The models suggest that organisations undergo a process of change which starts from having no quality processes, through a quality assurance stage to eventually reaching total quality This premise can be tested by examining the extent to which this sample of organisations appear to have quality standards in place before attaining the features of total quality in any consistent form

Hypothesis 1(b)   Organisations progress through the proposed five stages of quality assurance and total quality in the same sequence.

It was also noted in chapter 2 that while relatively complex, Table 2 3 does highlight consistent patterns of 'earlier' and 'later' characteristics associated with the process of becoming a total quality organisation It is hypothesised that organisations do consistently progress through stages of becoming a total quality organisation in a similar sequence Examining the extent to which this sample of organisations adhere to the five sequential steps proposed by this model, will test this hypothesis

Hypothesis 1(c)	The process of organisational change to total quality can be described in linear and incremental terms.

There is some debate in the literature regarding whether or not change generally is a staged process (eg Dale and Smith, 1997; Orlikowski and Hofman, 1997). The model proposed for this study assumes that organisational change to total quality builds on incremental stages in a linear fashion. This hypothesis can also be tested by establishing whether or not organisations do tend to adhere to the proposed model.

Hypothesis 2

Those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature.

Chapter 3 details a series of communications practices advocated in the literature for change management (Table 3.3). It was noted in the literature that there is general agreement on the communications practices considered 'right' for organisational change, often with little or no empirical evidence to support these claims (Smeltzer and Zener, 1995; Synopsis, 1998). Moreover, what little research has been carried out on assessing the extent to which organisations adhere to the guidelines set out in the literature, indicates that the differences between what is advocated and what happens in practice is marked (eg DCL and IPD Ireland, 1997; Dulworth et al, 1990; Hobson, 1995; The Industrial Society, 1994). Irish Q Mark organisations have been selected as the research population because they have embarked, to a lesser or greater extent, on a process of change (Monks et al, 1997). By comparing the communications practices of these organisations with those advocated in the literature, Hypothesis 2 can be tested.

In particular, the following hypotheses have been formulated

<div align="center">

Content
</div>

Hypothesis 2(a)	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of articulating both the logical and emotive benefits of change

Research indicates that communicating both the logical and emotive benefits of change is important (eg Bacharach et al, 1996; Petty and Cacioppe, 1986; Zuwerink and Devine, 1996). However, there is little evidence on whether or not this happens in practice. It is hypothesised that while organisations might put forward the business

case for change (as advocated by D'Aprix, 1996), there is less comfort with discussing emotive and personal issues within the business environment

Openness

Hypothesis 2(b)   **Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of unrestricted openness with information about the change programme.**

It was noted m chapter 3 4 3 that a number of studies have found that in practice, organisations tend to be very reticent to share information which is deemed to be sensitive or open to change (eg DiFonzo and Bordia, 1998, Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997, Gunnigle et al, 1994, Lawler et al, 1992)

Media

Hypothesis 2(c)   **Organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines of combining rich and lean media to support the change programme**

Research carried out to date on usage of communications media (eg Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997, Gunnigle et al, 1994, The Industrial Society, 1994), points to widespread usage of combined rich and lean media (ie verbal, written and electronic)

Roles

Hypothesis 2(d)   **Organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving management an active role in the communicating for change process**

While it is strongly advocated that both senior management (g Foehrenbach and Goldfarb, 1990 and Kemper, 1992), and middle management (eg Klein, 1994 and Larkin and Larkin, 1994), should play a key role in the communicating for change process, there does not appear to be any research based evidence to indicate how much this actually happens in practice However, given that change programmes are seen to be within the remit of management, it is hypothesised that management do play an active role in the communicating for change process

Hypothesis 2(e)   **Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving non-managerial peer influencers an active role in the communicating for change process.**

It is also argued in some quarters of the literature (eg Klein, 1996), that non-managerial peer influencers can play an important influencing role in the communicating for change process Again, there is little evidence to indicate to what extent this happens in practice, other than, perhaps, Gunnigle et al's (1994, 1997), identification of a considerable level of union involvement in communications within Irish indigenous organisations However, for the purposes of direct communications, rather than through indirect negotiations and bargaining with representatives, it is hypothesised that management tend to wish to keep control of the communications processes for themselves

Information Flows

Hypothesis 2(f)   **Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of seeking employee involvement in the change process (upwards communications).**

There is some evidence in the literature to suggest that employee involvement is not widely utilised as a communicating for change process (eg Roche and Geary, 1998), and where used, is limited to shallow and localised levels of engagement (eg Dulworth et al, 1990)

Hypothesis 2(g)   **Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of lateral sharing of information on the change process (lateral communications).**

The role of lateral communications itself is relatively new in the communicating for change literature and the little research that has been carried out in this field (eg Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997), indicates that it is not widely adhered to, although Buckley et al (1998) found some improvement in lateral communications following the introduction of quality initiatives

Communications Programmes

Hypothesis 2(h)   **Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines advocating that communicating for change should remain within daily management activity.**

There is a growing argument in the literature (eg Haseley, 1994 and Quirke, 1995), that communications should not be removed from daily management activity into communications programmes However, the evidence in the literature points to larger organisations encapsulating their communications into such programmes (eg Cole and Pace, 1991, Lorenz, 1993) Anecdotal evidence in Ireland suggests that such communications programmes may not be so prevalent However, based on the international research evidence, it is hypothesised that this sample of organisations does tend to separate communications programmes from daily management activity

Hypothesis 3
Communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change.

Six broad areas of communications practices are advocated for communicating change (Table 3 3), yet there is little attempt to understand the relative importance of each set of practices This study provides an opportunity to determine whether or not all practices advocated in the literature are of equal importance for organisational change

The following specific hypotheses have been formulated

Content

Hypothesis 3(a)   **Content appealing to emotion is central to achieving organisational change.**

Hypothesis 3(b)   **Content appealing to reason is central to achieving to organisational change.**

There is still considerable debate in the literature regarding the relative importance of emotive over logical business arguments to help persuade people to commit to organisational change (eg Berzok, 1997, Carr, 1994, D'Aprix, 1996, Spiker, 1994) Hypotheses 3(a) and 3(b) are derived from indicators in the few studies that have been carried out (eg Bacharach et al, 1996, Petty and Cacioppe, 1986, Zuwerink and Devine, 1996), that in fact both emotive and logical content are central communications practices for achieving organisational change

Hypothesis 3(c)   **Communicating progress against milestones is central to achieving organisational change.**

It is suggested in a number of areas in the literature that a key role for management is to update employees regularly on progress against set milestones for the change process (eg Bryan, 1997, Exterbille, 1996, Klein, 1996, Smeltzer, 1991)

Openness

Hypothesis 3(d)   **Openness with information is central to achieving organisational change.**

It is also regularly argued in the literature that openness is vital for trust and hence is a key ingredient for enabling acceptance of change (eg Fihpczak, 1995, Fiorelli and Margohs, 1993, Quirke, 1995, Smeltzer, 1991)

Media

Hypothesis 3(e)   **A combination of rich and lean media is central to achieving organisational change.**

The literature advocates a combination of media rich in verbal and non-verbal cues (ie face to face), and media with less cues but more ready access to greater numbers of employees (ie written and electronic media), to increase employees' memory and understanding of the message for change (eg Dulye, 1993, Exterbille, 1996, Klein, 1996, Richardson and Denton, 1996)

Roles

Hypothesis 3(f)   **Senior management playing an active, visible role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change.**

There is a wide-spread argument in the literature that as part of their leadership role, senior management must be seen to actively communicate the vision, need for change and their own commitment to change (eg Haseley, 1994, Kemper, 1992, Richardson and Denton, 1996, Tourish, 1997)

Hypothesis 3(g)　　　**Middle management playing an active daily role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change.**

It is also argued in the literature that middle management play a key role in supporting the change process by daily straddling the divide between strategic necessity and daily operational reality for employees Moreover, by working with employees day by day, they can surface concerns and provide regular endorsement on the necessity for change (Klein, 1994, Larkin and Larkin, 1994, Richardson and Denton, 1996)

Hypothesis 3(h)　　　**Peer influencers playing an active role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change.**

The influencing role of those not in positions of authority (ie non managerial peers), is discussed in two areas of the literature Those writing on rhetoric and persuasion (eg Elmes and Costello, 1992, Yukl and Falbe, 1990), argue that people can be persuaded to accept a concept such as organisational change if they like, trust or respect the source of the message Those writing in the area of group communications argue that employees want to identify with their peers and can be influenced to accept to change by these peers (eg Schein, 1980, Siebold and Meyers, 1996)

Information Flows

Hypothesis 3(i)　　　**Involving employees in decisions about change is central to achieving organisational change.**

It is widely argued in the literature that involvement (upwards communications), is a central, if not the central communications practice in achieving organisational change (eg Bonvilhan, 1996, D'Aprix, 1996, Exterbille, 1996, Kemper, 1992, Klein, 1996, Lawler et al, 1995, Richardson and Denton, 1996), as employees 'buy in' to that which they have created themselves

Hypothesis 3(j)   **Lateral communications flows are central to achieving organisational change.**

While receiving less attention in the literature than upwards information flows, it is argued, nevertheless, that lateral communications is also key to achieving organisational change, because it supports integration and co-ordination of effort (eg D'Aprix, 1996, Exterbille, 1996, Lee, 1997, Moss Kanter, 1997)

Communications Programmes

Hypothesis 3(k)   **Communicating through everyday activity is central to achieving organisational change**

While opinion is divided (eg Cole and Pace, 1991, McGrath and Geany, 1998), there is a growing argument in the literature, not to separate communicating for change from daily management activity into specific communications programmes (Haseley, 1994, Landes, 1992, Quirke, 1995)

Hypothesis 4

The selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables.

The review of the literature points to the fact that while in many aspects of management theory it is acknowledged that models are contingent on particular organisational or situational variables (eg Bowen and Lawler, 1992, Smeltzer, 1991), the literature on communications assumes that the practices involved in communicating for change are universal (chapter 3 4) This study provides an opportunity to address this unresolved issue and to look at whether or not the use of different approaches to communicating for change are contingent on organisational or change variables

The following specific hypotheses have been formulated

Hypothesis 4(a)   **Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the level of change required**

It is argued in the literature that organisational change can range from evolutionary (minor change at an organisational level), to revolutionary or transformational change

(transformation of the culture, structures and so on of the organisation) (Burnes, 1992; Greenwood and Hinings, 1996; Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1996). It is hypothesised that organisations undergoing transformational change will require and select to use different communications practices from those undergoing evolutionary change.

Hypothesis 4(b)   **Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the sector they are in.**

The literature does not tend to break down usage of communications practices by organisational sector (eg Industrial Society, 1994), although intuitively it might be expected, for example, that content and media for manufacturing organisations might be different from that used in services organisations. In addition, Gunnigle et al (1997) have found that private sector organisations in Ireland are significantly more likely to use verbal communications media than public sector organisations. These relationships can be investigated.

Hypothesis 4(c)   **Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to their size and structures.**

There is also little empirical evidence to indicate structural influence on selection of communications practices, other than increased use of written and electronic media by larger and more dispersed organisations (Drury Communications and IPD Ireland 1997). It can be hypothesised, however, that as size, hierarchical layers and number of sites increase, this should influence the number and diversity of methods of communicating to ensure that all employees are accessed.

Hypothesis 4(d)   **Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the profile of the majority of employees within those organisations.**

Again, there is little empirical evidence to indicate differences in usage according to employee profile. However, it has been argued (eg French and Bell, 1990; Gordon, 1996; Vander Houwen, 1998), that younger and more educated employees will demand more openness and more of an opportunity to contribute (upwards communications). Gender could also be considered a factor.

Hypothesis 4(e)   Organisations select different approaches to
                       communicating for change according to whether or not the
                       organisation is unionised.

It is suggested in the literature (eg Gunnigle et al, 1997; Roche and Geary, 1998), that organisations with a union present will tend less to engage in direct communications with employees.

Hypothesis 4(f)   Organisations select different approaches to
                       communicating for change according to whether or not a
                       recent redundancy programme has taken place.

This hypothesis stems from the acknowledgement in the literature (eg Rice and Dreilinger, 1991; Schweiger and Denisi, 1991), that redundancy programmes can have a devastating effect on trust levels within an organisation. It is hypothesised that organisations with recent experience of wide-scale redundancy will have to focus on ways of addressing such trust issues (eg openness with information).

Hypothesis 4(g)   Organisations select different approaches to
                       communicating for change according to their country
                       of ownership.

It has been noted in the literature (Gunnigle et al, 1994; Roche and Geary, 1997), that Irish organisations differ from foreign owned organisations in the extent to which they equate communications with formal negotiations and indirect communicating via staff unions and representatives. Multinational organisations have also been found (Gunnigle et al, 1997), to put resourcing into formal communications structures more than Irish owned organisations.

Hypothesis 5
It is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change.

This study also provides an opportunity to uncover what lies behind the nature of the relationship between communications and change. In chapters 1 and 3 of the review of the literature, a number of concepts about which there is only a limited understanding are put forward as the basis of the importance of organisational communications in

127

change management By analysing the nature of the type of communications used by organisations which have successfully transformed to become total quality organisations (ie those following the five staged model outlined in chapter 2), it is hypothesised that a better understanding of how and why communications makes a difference can be formulated

In particular, four hypotheses are put forward for testing

Hypothesis 5(a)   **Communications supports organisational change by increasing commitment to the change through involvement**

It is argued in the literature that employees will commit to something in which they have played a role in creating (Pasmore and Fagan, 1992) In particular, it is argued that involvement enables employees to control what will happen to them to some extent, thereby reducing fear of loss (eg Pritchett, 1997) and that it increases employee self-esteem and perception of value to the organisation (Bennis and Nanus, 1985), thus enhancing their level of commitment to the organisation's proposals for change

Hypothesis 5(b)   **Communications supports organisational change by building trust levels through openness**

It is argued that acceptance of change will not happen without adequate levels of trust between management and staff (eg Filipczak, 1995), and that in turn, openness is a vital ingredient of such trust (eg Champy and Nohria, 1996, Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998, Richardson and Denton, 1996)

Hypothesis 5(c)   **Communications supports organisational change by persuading employees about the benefits of change**

The literature argues that the content of the message and the source of the message can be instrumental in affecting attitude change, which in turn will influence a change in behaviour (eg Callahan et al, 1986, Miller, 1987, Weick, 1995) The literature review in chapter 3 4 1 explores in some detail the various views on emotive or logical persuasive arguments, but the underlying premise is the same Employees will not accept persuasive arguments for change if they do not see how benefits will accrue (eg Armenakis and Harris, 1993, Killigen, 1997, Nelson and Coxhead, 1997, Petty and Cacioppe, 1986, Spiker, 1995)

Hypothesis 5(d)   **Communications supports organisational change by increasing integration of effort through communications flows**

While explored in less detail in the literature, there is a growing argument that transformational change requires integration of effort across the whole organisation and that in turn, is dependent on open and regular flows of information between teams, functions and locations (eg D'Aprix, 1996, Lee, 1997, Moss Kanter, 1997, Richardson and Denton, 1996)

4.2.1   Summary Of Research Hypotheses

In total, five hypotheses, comprising a further 33 sub-hypotheses have been set out for research An overview of all the hypotheses is provided in Table 4 1 below

Table 4.1   Summary Of Research Hypotheses

	Hypotheses
1	**The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well grounded**
1a	Organisations achieve quality assurance standards before progressing to total quality
1b	Organisations progress through the proposed five stages of quality assurance and total quality in the same sequence
1c	The process of organisational change to total quality can be described in linear and incremental terms
2	**Those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature**
2a	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of articulating both the logical and emotive benefits of change
2b	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of unrestricted openness with information about the change programme
2c	Organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines of combining rich and lean media to support the change programme
2d	Organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving management an active role in the communicating for change process
2e	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving non-managerial peer influencers an active role in the communicating for change process
2f	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of seeking employee involvement in the change process (upwards communications)
2g	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of lateral sharing of information on the change process (lateral communications)
2h	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines advocating that communicating for change should remain within daily management activity
3	**Communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change**
3a	Content appealing to emotion is central to achieving organisational change
3b	Content appealing to reason is central to achieving organisational change
3c	Communicating progress against milestones is central to achieving organisational change
3d	Openness with information is central to achieving organisational change
3e	A combination of rich and lean media is central to achieving organisational change
3f	Senior management playing an active, visible role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change
3g	Middle management playing an active daily role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change
3h	Peer influencers playing an active role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change
3i	Involving employees in decisions about change is central to achieving organisational change
3j	Lateral communications flows are central to achieving organisational change
3k	Communicating through everyday activity is central to achieving organisational change

Table 4.1 ctd   Summary Of Research Hypotheses

4	The selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables
4a	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the level of change required
4b	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the sector they are in
4c	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to their size and structures
4d	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the profile of the majority of employees within those organisations
4e	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to whether or not the organisation is unionised
4f	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to whether or not a recent redundancy programme has taken place
4g	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to their country of ownership
5	It is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change
5a	Communications supports organisational change by increasing commitment to the change through involvement
5b	Communications supports organisational change by building trust levels through openness
5c	Communications supports organisational change by persuading employees about the benefits of change
5d	Communications supports organisational change by increasing integration of effort through communications flows

4.3   Selecting The Research Approach

4.3.1   Research Approaches Are Influenced By 'World Views'

The methodology used in any research will be influenced by the paradigm within which the research question is being approached. Sarantakos (1993:30) defines a paradigm as: 'a set of propositions which explain how the world is perceived'. It is the 'world view' (Creswell, 1994; Guba and Lincoln, 1994 and Sayer, 1984), of a researcher which influences the assumptions about any given subject and consequently the type of questions which will be asked about that subject, the preferred method of collecting data and the way in which that data is interpreted. Webb (1995) sums up the importance of understanding the philosophy of science and its influence on research and analysis. He poses the question 'how do we know what we know?' This question immediately throws into doubt the contention that there can be any definites in the social sciences. The world view of the researcher and the world in which the piece of research is carried out can both influence 'what we know'.

The philosophy of science identifies and debates the different types of world views which can influence the approach taken to research. Salmon (1992), however, notes that the philosophy of social sciences is not as well developed as the philosophy of physical or biological sciences. This is partly because of the uncertainty surrounding studying human behaviour and partly because it is a relatively new science, which until this century received less attention than the other sciences. A major focus for debate today, according to Richards (1987) and Gergen and Thatchenkery (1996), is whether or not it is even feasible to tackle social and human issues by methods which were originally devised for the physical sciences. However, while it could be argued that researching in the field is subject to many variables poorly understood, such as psychological or social factors, it is not unrealistic to expect a high standard of research. It is important to have a clear understanding of what the underlying assumptions are and a clear view on why one research method is selected ahead of another.

A number of paradigms, or world views, have been described in the literature. Andersen (1995) points out that there are two principal perspectives underlying the difference between the paradigms - objectivity and subjectivity. The concept of objectivity is supported by the schools which subscribe to 'positivism' (Guba and

Lincoln, 1994). They argue that empirically measurable and verifiable data (which tend to be quantitative data), are necessary to understand events. The concept of subjectivity is supported by schools which subscribe to the 'interpretive' paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). They argue that qualitative data is more valuable to the researcher.

Andersen et al (1986) and Creswell (1994) note that the differences between these two paradigms are usually discussed under three headings; ontology (what is the nature of reality), epistemology (the relationship between the researcher and the researched), and methodology (the nature of the research process). From an ontological perspective, it is generally agreed that 'reality' is objective and 'out there' waiting to be discovered for positivists. However, interpretivists deem 'reality' to be subjective, even shaped by the values of the researcher. From an epistemological perspective, it is broadly agreed again that the researcher is deemed to be independent and following objective rules by positivists, but interacts with and even assigns meanings to the subject of research, according to interpretivists. The methodology, then, reflects the purpose of research as deemed by each paradigm. Because positivists see the purpose of research to be to explain and predict causal laws from what is being observed, the approach is likely to be quantitative and deductive. However, interpretivists, who see the purpose of research not to look for causal laws, but to interpret and understand what they observe within the context of the subject being researched, are more likely to use qualitative methods and deductive reasoning.

The term positivism was first coined by August Comte in 1848 who argued that social scientists should not seek to explain social problems through supernatural or metaphysical theories. He argued that instead, scientists should look at empirically observable phenomena through scientific methods. This requirement for reliable empirical facts leads to an emphasis on rigour, validity and reliability and, according to Creswell (1994) and Walker (1985), researchers who subscribe to the positivistic paradigm tend to take a deductive approach. They work towards identifying a cause-effect relationship between two or more observables. The elements to be observed are isolated from contextual variables and their relationship is observed. If a relationship is found, it will be immediately generalisable because the natural world conforms to a series of fixed causal laws.

Positivism has had a profound influence on the social sciences throughout this century and, until quite recently, was the accepted paradigm upon which almost all social scientific research was based. However, positivism has been challenged by groups of

sociologists who have variously been labelled as being part of the schools of phenomenology, hermeneutics, symbolic interactionism or the interpretive schools They had become dissatisfied with the positivistic contention that the world can be objectively measured with scientific precision They argued that research methods should take into account the subjectivity of researchers and those being studied Walker (1985) writes that those who subscribe to interpretivism argue that social sciences cannot be equated with the natural sciences In natural sciences, a clear cause / effect relationship can be observed from an action or event But, as Salmon (1992) explains, the behaviour that a researcher may observe a human being carrying out, could be attributed to a wide variety of intentions on part of the person or external variables such as social rules Hence, when trying to measure human or social behaviour, interpretation has to come into the research process

There is a tendency in applied social sciences such as marketing, communications and management to lump all the interpretive movements together (Sarantakos, 1993) In fact, there is a difference between the movements, both in terms of how they emerged and in their approach Hermeneutics, described in detail by Andersen et al (1986), arose out of scholars trying to make sense out of ancient texts They recognised that the scholars' world view at any given historical time would be different from the world view of the original authors of the texts and stress the importance of recognising the prevalent assumptions of any given time when interpreting the texts The hermeneutics school, therefore, argues that researchers have to understand reality as historically contextual Proponents of phenomenology (described in Andersen et al, 1986, Harvey, 1990, Miles and Huberman, 1994), argue that no matter how objective scientists try to be, as soon as they reflect on an issue, it enters their consciousness through a filter of presuppositions The closest a scientist can get to objectivity is to be aware of these presuppositions and look at the phenomenon from a number of angles to try to establish the essence of what is constant across a number of manifestations

Sarantakos (1993) notes that qualitative methods of research apply more readily to the interpretive paradigm, where 'reality' is in fact reality as perceived by the researcher or the subjects Creswell (1994) adds that the assumptions underscoring qualitative research ties more in with interpretive rather than positivist approaches For example, the researcher will recognise that interpretations of data are value based and that the events under observation are context bound De Vaus (1991) also adds that the scientific approach employed under interpretivism is inductive That is, researchers develop theories or models out of what they are observing and try to interpret or understand the reasons for what they have observed

134

Sarantakos (1993) notes that a third paradigm has also been identified in the past few decades and has been as influential as the positivistic or interpretive paradigm. This is the 'critical' paradigm which has evolved out of the works of Karl Marx. People's actions are seen to be influenced both by observable social forces and by their subjective interpretation of or response to those forces. While positivistic approaches emphasise observable facts and interpretive approaches try to interpret the meaning of social acts, critical social research attempts to dig beneath the surface of what Harvey (1990 : 1) calls 'historically specific, aggressive, social structures.'

Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggest that those who subscribe to critical theory concern themselves with uncovering the social, political, gender, ethnic or cultural factors which will influence one's perception of what is real. The values of the researcher are also considered to influence the subject being researched. Therefore, any findings made will have been influenced by the researcher's own values. Critical theorists come under a number of guises (eg Marxism, feminism, managerialism, imperialism, racial studies etc), but the key issue which binds them together is their concern about the ethics of research being carried out which may in some way manipulate or oppress (either consciously or unconsciously), human behaviour (Gergen and Thatchenkery, 1996; Harvey, 1990; Salmon 1992; Sayer, 1984).

4.3.2   The 'World View' Influencing This Research

The paradigm within which the fieldwork for this study was approached is positivism. To understand better the relationship between organisational communications and change, it was decided to gather data on what communications practices are used by Irish organisations undergoing change (ie quantitative data on 'what happens') and to predict causal laws from this information. In particular, a key objective of the present study's research is to identify a causal link between organisational communications and organisational change in isolation from other contextual variables. The aim is to identify a general 'causal law' which could be applied to a variety of organisational change situations.

While 'positivism' is the principal influence behind this research, it is, nevertheless, recognised that the researcher has not been truly objective in selecting the issues for research. The research questions asked have been influenced by the world view of the researcher who, as an organisational communications consultant to management, has tended to focus almost exclusively on how managers can harness communications to

reach their organisational goals. This 'managerialist' perspective underlines this thesis. While it is recognised that there are alternative 'voices' in the organisation (Bryan, 1997; Scott Poole, 1994), such as non-managerial employees, the feminist and humanist perspectives or the non-capitalist voice, this study focuses on the relationship between organisational communications and the successful management of organisational change. In addition, achieving quality was selected as the context for organisational change - an indicator of organisational success which is very much managerially driven (eg Webley and Cartwright, 1996; Wilkinson et al, 1992).

The hypotheses set out earlier in this chapter call for observation of communications practices and then interpretation of what the practices might mean. Smeltzer (1996) advocates such an approach for research into the area of organisational communications. He argues that guidelines drawn from actual examples will be most pertinent to managers grappling with the concepts of good practice communications (again, the managerial perspective coming through). While the literature review has raised a number of interesting issues for exploration, the knowledge in this area has not yet developed to a stage where there are clearly defined models of communicating for change which have been comprehensively tested and validated. The research approach is therefore to observe what empirically appears to be happening and to develop a model of communications from what is observed (Creswell, 1994).

The construction of theories out of observables has been termed 'grounded theory' by Glaser and Strauss (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997; Glaser and Strauss, 1970; Strauss and Corbin, 1994). Sarantakos (1993) explains the process of grounded theory building as follows: the researcher observes and records events, compares them between other groups and develops a substantive theory which is then tested in other environments to establish whether it is a generalisable, formal 'theory'. Theory building is a lengthy complex process (eg Weick, 1989), and it is unlikely that a fully grounded and generalisable theory can be developed out of one research project. In fact, Glaser and Strauss (1970) argue that developing a grounded theory requires constant comparisons of data from different research studies. Sarantakos (1993 : 9) defines a theory as:

> a set of systematically tested and logically interrelated propositions that have been developed through research and that explain social phenomena.

Sayer (1984) sees a theory as being a framework in which both observable elements and their underlying properties are ordered into a higher level conceptualisation. It not only orders and summarises knowledge, according to Littlejohn (1992), but it will also

predict how elements will be ordered in another context and should stimulate a new way of looking at an issue. Weick (1989) argues that a theory is much more than a solution to a problem, which can be quite a limiting way to conceptualise an issue and a good theory, according to Whetten (1989), will add a new conceptualisation to existing thinking on an issue, based on plausible underlying assumptions. Although the terms theory, model and hypothesis tend to be interchanged by those not directly involved in scientific research, Sayer (1984) writes that they are in fact different concepts.

One concept which lies somewhere between a hypothesis which has not been tested in any way and a formal theory, is a taxonomy or typological classification. Nachmias and Nachmias (1982 : 39) define taxonomy as; 'a system of categories constructed to fit the empirical observations so that relationships among categories can be described.' Taxonomies are used by social scientists to categorise and summarise descriptive research, but they do not necessarily offer an explanation about what has been observed. According to the International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences (1968), typological classification is a subdivision of taxonomy. A good typology will describe the connection between types, but it cannot and should not be viewed as a causal explanation of what has been observed. Doty and Glick (1994 : 231) write: 'typologies are a mode of description that must be distinguished from theories', but argue convincingly that this does not mean they are a less sophisticated form of theory or 'sloppy classification system'.

As with formal explanatory theories, well developed typologies adhere to a number of strict requirements. Doty and Glick (1994) write that typologies should explicitly define what is considered to be the ideal type of whatever is under investigation; they should encompass a reading on all the constructs included in the typology and their relative strengths to enable future testing, and the predictions associated with the typology must be testable and subject to disconfirmation. By drawing interpretations from empirical research into communications practices, this research will be suggesting a typology of communicating for organisational change. However, this typology should stand up to the type of scrutiny which Doty and Glick (1994) advocate and should be 'tested' against their criteria for robustness.

In summary, it is acknowledged that the approach taken to this research is heavily influenced by a managerial perspective and that both the setting of research hypotheses and the interpretation of the findings will have been 'filtered' by this perspective. However, the dominant influence behind the research approach taken, is a positivistic

influence, in that the researcher has decided to examine reports of actual communications practices and reported organisational change and to predict generalisable causal links from this data.

4.4   Selecting The Research Method

Qualitative research methods have been attracting a strong level of support in each of the research fields of change management, organisational communications and total quality. In a review of the research methods used to understand TQM, Boaden et al (1993) note that because much of the interest in this field focuses on understanding why elements exist, research into quality tends to be qualitative. Pettigrew (1990) suggests that when researching organisational change, it is not possible to isolate variables and determine a cause and effect relationship in a sterile way. Change is multifaceted and requires a rich and fluid approach to research methods, while Rajagopalan and Spreitzer (1996) add that regardless of whether data is collected longitudinally or at one time, research into change requires more than quantitative observation. It also requires qualitative interpretation of how and why what is going on.

However, Scott Poole (1994 : 275) warns against a growing rejection of quantitative methods in organisational communications research. Claiming that the current interest in critical approaches in the 1990s has begun to weaken the position of quantitative research, he argues :

> There is nothing inherent in quantitative methodology that makes them inapplicable to critical oriented research ... (they) can achieve an unprecedented degree of precision, handle large bodies of data and allow rigorous comparison of competing models - all valuable qualities for some questions in critical research.

There has been much discussion on the merits and disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative research methods (eg Ragin, 1994; Sarantakos 1993; Walker 1985). The trade-off between the two approaches could be summarised as depth of information against reliability and validity of the data collected. Pettigrew (1990) and Spring (1993) suggest that the two approaches are increasingly being used to complement each other. For example, qualitative research can be used to great effect as a preliminary investigative stage to determine which factors should be investigated quantitatively. Walker (1985) adds that it can also be used to help interpret or qualify empirically determined statistical relationships.

The research method selected to respond to the hypotheses outlined in chapter 4 2 above involves a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods and is a six staged process (see Figure 4 1) The main research instrument is a postal questionnaire, supported by in-depth interviews at both the preliminary and follow-up stages

Figure 4.1   The Research Process

```
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │         Stage 1         │
        │   Identify Population   │
        └─────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▽
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │         Stage 2         │
        │  Preliminary Interviews │
        └─────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▽
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │         Stage 3         │
        │ Developing And Piloting │
        │     The Questionnaire   │
        └─────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▽
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │         Stage 4         │
        │ Issuing The Questionnaire│
        └─────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▽
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │         Stage 5         │
        │  Coding And Analysis Of │
        │       The Results       │
        └─────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▽
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │         Stage 6         │
        │ Follow-Up Indepth       │
        │       Interviews        │
        └─────────────────────────┘
```
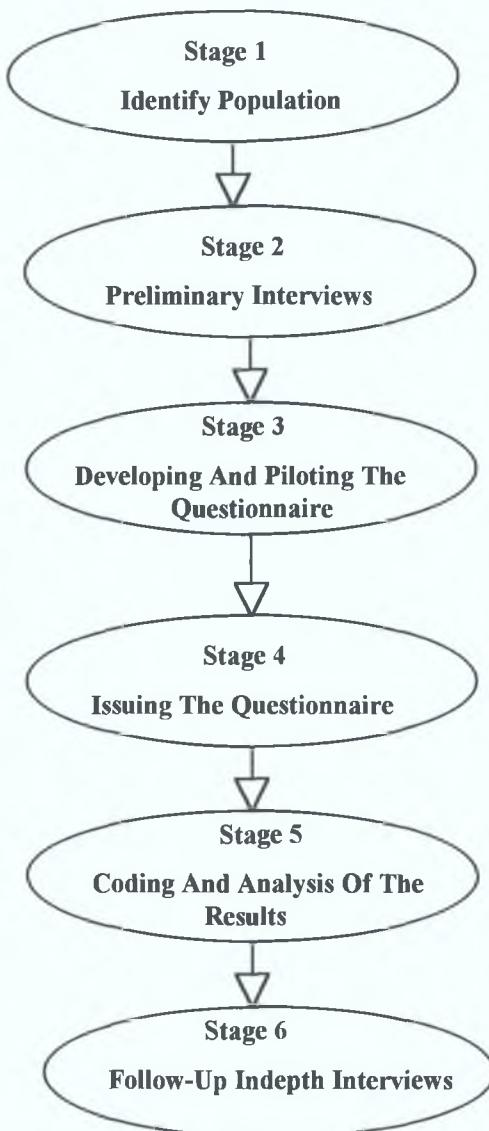
4.4.1   Stage 1   Identifying The Population

The research approach required a sample of organisations that have experienced a similar change process to each other. Quality was identified as being an area in which large numbers of Irish organisations have undergone a similar change process and which has a profound influence across all aspects of organisational life (chapter 2.2). It was decided to select a sample of organisations in Ireland on the basis of these having achieved an independently judged quality award. A number of quality awards are in situ in Ireland including ISO 9000 accreditation, the Irish Q Mark and IBEM (The

140

Irish Business Excellence Model). At the time of this fieldwork, only two awards had attracted a large number of Irish organisations - the ISO 9000 awards and the Q Mark (Conlon, 1994). Both systems were looked at and ISO 9000 was rejected on the basis that it focused too much on quality assurance systems which did not require fundamental and wide-reaching change.

The Irish Q Mark, awarded by Excellence Ireland (formerly the Irish Quality Association), was first launched in 1982 and is currently held by some 273 organisations in Ireland (Excellence Ireland, 1999). Organisations which are members of Excellence Ireland complete a 77 point questionnaire on all aspects of their quality processes including questions on a quality policy, quality objectives, management responsibilities, resourcing of quality, quality documentation, quality self-regulation, quality costs, customer needs, service delivery processes, procurement policy, storage and delivery procedures, a quality environment, personnel skills and communication (IQA, 1995). The organisations are independently audited and, pending adequate scores, are awarded the Q Mark. Organisations holding the Q Mark are regularly re-audited to ensure that quality standards are maintained. The Q Mark is recognised across Ireland as an independent endorsement of quality standards.

In January 1995, the Irish Quality Association, (today called Excellence Ireland), was contacted to seek permission to survey organisations holding the Q Mark. A list of companies holding the Q Mark in October 1994 was forwarded. At that time, the list comprised 302 organisations in total; 224 manufacturing (74.2 per cent) and 78 in services (25.8 per cent). Organisations of any size can be awarded the Q Mark, but the nature of this study required organisations sufficiently large to warrant planned organisational communications. In February 1995, all 302 organisations were contacted by telephone to establish a contact person to complete the questionnaire and to ascertain which organisations had 50 or more employees. 50 employees was taken as the base cut-off point because organisations of this size would be sufficiently large to require some level of formal communications. Organisations with 50 to 249 employees are considered to be medium sized by the EU and organisations of more than 250 employees are considered to be large (European Commission, 1996). However, according to Ireland's Central Statistics Office (1997), there are only some 157 organisations in Ireland with more than 250 employees (3.2 per cent of all organisations), while there are 1,107 organisations based in Ireland with more than 50 employees (22.9 percent). To restrict the sample to those classified as large by European standards and holding a Q Mark could leave a very small sample. A total of 187 organisations from the list employed more than 50 employees.

<u>**4.4.2   Stage 2   Preliminary Interviews**</u>

In advance of designing the questionnaire, eight non-directive in-depth interviews were carried out with organisations which have quality programmes in place   Fowler (1984 100) argues the importance of carrying out preliminary qualitative interviews, writing

> Such discussions help the researcher to understand the way people talk about the survey issues   Such groups also frequently suggest issues or concerns or ways of looking at the topic that the researcher had not thought of

As advocated by Morton-Wilhams (1985), the sample of companies selected for this preliminary phase was purposive   Kidder (1981   427) describes purposive sampling as hand-picking cases which are judged to be typical of the population in which one is interested   Bailey (1987) points out that a nonprobability sample such as this cannot be claimed to be representative of the larger population   However, for preliminary fieldwork purposes, it allows the researcher to select interviewees who have particular experiences upon which the researcher wants to concentrate   The sample comprised the quality managers and /or internal communications managers of eight medium to large organisations   The companies ranged in size and sector, including sectors such as low technology manufacturing, food, high technology manufacturing, marketing and retail and financial services

To gain maximum benefit from the preliminary fieldwork as an exploratory tool, the interviews were largely non-directive   According to Walker (1985), the depth interviewer should carry an aide memoire of issues relevant to the research problem, but give the interviewee the freedom to open up new dimensions to that problem through their personal experience   Researchers should be sufficiently familiar with the issues to appraise the meaning of emerging data and know where to probe for further information

The eight interviews took place between February and March 1995 and lasted between 1 5 and 2 5 hours   The interviews were wide ranging and included details about the organisation, triggers for the quality programme, the nature of the quality programme, types of communications used to support the quality programme and successes and failures (see interview topics Appendix A)

142

Issues regarding the failure of quality programmes could be sensitive for the organisation. To ensure that the interviewee feels comfortable in sharing sensitive information, Bouchard (1976) recommends a number of strategies, all of which were adopted in the preliminary interviewing stage. The researcher should assure the interviewee of confidentiality and should explain in detail the areas to be covered in the interview, why these areas would need to be covered and what will be done with the information. The researcher can also put the interviewee at ease by commencing with broad non-threatening issues and gradually funnelling the direction of the discussion into more sensitive areas. In this instance, the interviewees were found to be very open about both successes and failures in their organisations.

The best method of recording depth interviews comes under some discussion in the literature (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Fontana and Frey, 1994; Jones, 1985 and Kidder, 1981). Some researchers prefer to record the interview and prepare transcripts from the recording, allowing the researcher to concentrate on the thread of discussion during the interview. Other researchers point out that interviewees become uncomfortable with audio recorders and suggest that note-taking is as comprehensive a method as recording. The researcher has had considerable previous experience in recording in-depth interviews by note-taking and felt more comfortable with this technique.

The interviewees were also asked for written material which might assist in understanding their organisation's quality programme and communications approach, including strategy documents, communications documents and so on. These documents were reviewed in tandem with the notes taken during the interviews.

The notes from the interviews were read and expanded on within 24 hours of each interview to ensure that none of the nuances of the interviews were lost in the note taking process. Using a method similar to transcript analysis described by Gronstedt (1996), key themes were marked into the left hand column of the notes and, as the analysis progressed, some themes merged into broader concepts, while others were dropped. The information from the interviews was analysed in three ways. Which issues emerged to affirm the main issues discussed in the literature? Were there any other issues emerging which did not appear to be covered in the literature? In what way were the interviewees using language or terms to describe the relevant concepts which will be included in the survey? As the interviews were preliminary in nature and used primarily to design the questionnaire, the findings of the interviews will not be explored in detail. However, a number of key issues did emerge, which were taken into account

143

when devising the questionnaire Issues of importance to the interviewees, which
appeared to affirm the issues discussed in the literature are listed in Table 4 2

Table 4.2   Issues Raised At Interviews Affirming Literature Review

Issues	Examples in Literature
General Organisational Change Issues	
Financial survival as key trigger for change	Beddowes and Wilke (1990)
Achieving top management commitment	Brege & Brandes (1993), Covin & Kilman (1990)
Providing sufficient resources	Burnes (1992) IPM (1993)
Use of rewards / incentives	Scott & Jaffe (1989) Schonberger (1992)
Need for training to support expected changes	Bowen & Lawler (1990) Cocheu (1992)
Bringing unions on board	Gunnigle et al (1994)
Communications Issues	
Communicating why change is necessary	Grates (1994) Spiker & Lesser (1995)
Communicating realistic goals	Lippitt (1981)
Importance of face to face communications	Caldwell (1994) Drury Communications and IPD Ireland (1997)
Importance of informal as well as formal communications	Jefkins (1988)
Importance of involving middle management as champions	Davenport & Lipton (1993) Larkin & Larkin (1994)
Concept of openness and trust	Smeltzer (1991) Quirke (1995)
Seeking employees' involvement	Bowen & Lawler (1990) Lupton & Tanner (1987)
Appeal to employees' values	Berzok (1997) Bonvillian (1997)
Brand an internal communications programme	Haseley (1994) Smilanski (1993)

144

4.4.3   Stage 3   Developing And Piloting The Questionnaire

The principle research instrument was a self-completion postal questionnaire Both Myon-White (1993) and Plewis (1985) write that the purist measurement of change is longitudinal data gathered, for example, through a single case study over a series of times However, this can be an impractical method for academic research, given the restricted time available for the fieldwork and the level of commitment required by the participating organisations in longitudinal case studies A cross-sectional study, whereby a large number of cases are researched at the same point in time is a more pragmatic approach (Fink, 1995, Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1996), and the questionnaire is the most common research instrument for this type of research

Marsh (1982 6) defines a questionnaire as

> An investigation where systematic measurements are made over a series of cases yielding a rectangle of data and where the variables are analysed to see if they show any patterns

Researchers draw their inferences from questionnaire data by looking for variation between subjects Relationships and patterns can be uncovered, usually correlations rather than direct causal relationships

Kidder (1981) writes that the questionnaire is an important research instrument in situations where it is impractical to collect data by observation and where a large number of cases are being studied Completed questionnaires are verbal reports As such, they are at risk of being inaccurate because in certain instances people are unwilling or unable to remember or describe accurately their understanding or opinions Schein (1996 232), who is particularly influential in the area of research into corporate culture, is also cautious about the misuse of questionnaires, suggesting that researchers forget that the results of the questionnaires are actually abstractions (ie respondents' views on reality), rather than observable reality itself He argues that by not differentiating between the two, researchers can fall into the trap of treating these abstractions as reality, resulting in, what Schein terms 'fuzzy theory', one step removed from reality However, Marsh (1982) argues that while it has to be recognised that verbal reports are not the same as observable behaviours, this limitation can be overcome by supporting questionnaire data with other research methods such as observation

The questionnaire is a well established research tool for studies on change management, organisational communications and total quality. Table 4.3 provides a list of studies since 1990, reviewed in the literature (chapters 1 to 3), which have used self-completion questionnaires.

Table 4.3   Examples Of Studies Carried Out Between 1990 And 1997
Using Self-completion Questionnaires.

Study	Purpose
Change Management	
Beddowes et al (1990)	To uncover triggers for change
Burke et al (1991)	To study managers' understanding of change
Covin and Kilman (1991)	To study triggers for change and OD methods used
Maitlis and Briner (1994)	To understand relationship between attitudes and change
Parker et al (1997)	To uncover what OD mechanisms are needed to develop flexibility at work
Peccei and Rosenthal (1997)	To test a model of antecedents to commitment to change
Wood and Albenese (1995)	To understand compliance vs commitment
Organisational Communications	
Bayliss (1996)	To understand relationship between comms and performance
Buckley et al (1996)	To study nature of comms methods and role of HRM in TQM
Clampitt and Downs (1993)	To understand relationship between comms and productivity
Coyle (1993)	To find out what comms training is provided in US orgs
Filipczak (1995)	To find out credibility of managers' comms
Foehrenbach and Goldfarb (1990)	To determine employee expectations of comms
Grates (1994)	To establish whether employees receive enough comms
Gunnigle et al (1997)	To understand what comms & IR practices are used in Ireland
Hobson (1995)	To establish use of e-mail
Kakabadse et al (1995)	To understand top-team comms in Ireland & other countries
Linkemar (1991)	To establish what comms works for change management
Puitti et al (1990)	To understand relationship between comms and satisfaction
Sing Kwon Lam (1997)	To uncover what influencing methods are used in practice
Smeltzer (1991)	To understand what comms is used by orgs undergoing change
Whitworth (1990)	To measure the effectiveness of comms for satisfaction
Yukl and Falbe (1990)	To uncover what influencing methods are used in practice
Zuwerink and Devine (1996)	To understand what makes people resist persuasion
Total quality	
Ahire and Golhar (1996)	To determine small vs large orgs approach to TQM
Gundogan et al (1996)	To understand reasons for TQM success and failure
Hartline and Ferrell (1996)	To understand antecedents to commitment to customer service
Hendricks and Singhal (1997)	To test whether TQM results in improved performance
Lawler et al (1995)	To document the practices of TQM in Fortune 1,000 orgs
Rommel et al (1994)	To understand differences between low vs high quality orgs
Rosenthal et al (1997)	To test relationship between empowerment & customer service
Snape (1996)	To determine relationship between pay and TQM
Wenmoth and Dobbin (1994)	To determine what helps / hinders quality
Westphal et al (1997)	To determine how / why orgs adopt quality
Wilkinson et al (1992)	To understand role of involvement in TQM
Wilkinson et al (1994)	To uncover difficulties in implementing TQM

146

As with any research instrument, postal questionnaires have a number of advantages and disadvantages (See Table 4 4) There is broad agreement (eg Fowler, 1984, Kidder, 1981 and Nachmias and Nachmias, 1982), about the disadvantages of postal questionnaires Disadvantages include uncertainty about who might be completing the questionnaire, little room for probing or explanation of questions and most importantly, an increased chance of a lower response rate Fowler (1984) adds that postal questionnaires require up to date and accurate mailing lists and Kidder (1981) notes that postal questionnaires must be limited to respondents who would be known to be able to read or write There is also broad agreement regarding the advantages of postal questionnaires, they provide access to a widely dispersed audience at relatively low costs and they provide sufficient time for respondents to give considered responses to the questions They also reduce the likelihood of interviewers influencing the responses Nachmias and Nachmias (1982) add that they also provide anonymity for sensitive issues On balance, if the questionnaire is kept simple and relevant and a number of techniques are used to support the response rate, the advantages of having wide access to a dispersed audience at a relatively low cost far outweigh the disadvantages It was decided that despite its inherent disadvantages, the postal questionnaire would be the most appropriate quantitative research tool to use to access some 187 organisations located throughout the country

Table 4.4   Advantages And Disadvantages Of Postal Questionnaires

	Advantages	**Disadvantages**
Fowler (1984)	Low cost Minimal staff needed Access to widely dispersed respondents Respondents have time to think about answers	Ineffective means of enabling co-operation Interviewer not there to control responses Requires good mailing list
Kidder (1981)	Low cost Anonymity Lack of pressure for immediate response No interviewer bias	Poor response rate Requires simple answers No opportunity for probing Requires respondents to be able to read and write
Nachmias and Nachmias (1982)	Lower cost No interviewer bias Considered answers Accessibility Greater anonymity	Requires simple answers No opportunity for probing No control over who fills out questionnaire Low response rate

In drafting the questionnaire, a number of principles were adhered to. As recommended by Moser and Kalton (1979), the questionnaire was sectioned into four sections, each one encompassing questions in related areas The sections were

Section A	General Information (12 questions)
Section B	Implementing The Q Mark Programme (5 questions)
Section C	Quality In Your Organisation (5 questions)
Section D	Communications With Employees (3 questions, with question 3 encompassing 38 Likert Scale statements)

See Appendix B for a copy of the questionnaire

4.4.3.(i)   Section A   General Information

The twelve questions in this section request biographical information about the organisations to enable comparisons to be made and establish whether or not different organisational characteristics are influential in any way Dilman (1983) writes that general information gaining such as biographical information can be a non-threatening opener to the questionnaire

The sectoral categorisation in question 2 was based on the European Union (1990) economic activity categories (N A C E) The twelve biographical questions reflect areas where the literature would suggest may have an impact on the organisation's response to a change programme, size and structure, characteristics of the workforce such as age profile, education and job functions, ownership of the organisation and presence of a union

4.4.3.(ii)   Section B   Implementing The Q Mark Programme

Pettigrew (1990) suggests that in investigating change through a retrospective means such as a questionnaire, the researcher has to look for variables which will show differences between categories The five questions in this section were put into the questionnaire to elicit whether there was any variation between organisations in the successful obtaining of the Q Mark They relate to the amount of time taken to achieve the award, levels of satisfaction with implementation and level of disruption during the attempt to win the Q Mark.

4.4.3.(iii) **Section C** **Quality In Your Organisation**

This section comprised questions on different indicators of quality To determine the
nature of quality in different organisations and the extent to which organisations
underwent far-reaching organisational change, five questions investigated descriptions
of quality which distinguish having quality assurance processes in place from being a
total quality organisation These questions were devised to test the model proposed in
chapter 2 Management strategies other than communications, such as top management
commitment, rewards and organisational structures were also included

4.4.3. (iv) **Section D** **Communications With Employees**

The questions in this section were devised to test the hypothesis that organisations with
quality programmes will make use of a wide range of communications methods and
that these can be encapsulated into a model of communications The first two questions
look at the communications objectives and tools of the organisation The third question,
which comprises 38 Likert style scales on statements about communications, was
included to establish what type of communications is in place in the organisations

A number of instruments for assessing different aspects of organisational
communications exist (eg Booth, 1988, Carnall, 1991, Clampitt and Downs, 1993,
Dulye, 1993, Foehrenbach and Goldfarb, 1990, Francis, 1987, Grates, 1994, Lewis,
1987, Likert, 1967, McCathrin, 1989, Stevens, 1984 and Whitworth, 1990) However,
many of these instruments measure satisfaction with different aspects of
communications while the purpose of this part of the questionnaire was to ascertain
agreement with what is or is not in place in the respondent organisations In addition,
most of the instruments restrict the breadth of measurement areas to information flows,
satisfaction with supervisor / subordinate interaction, satisfaction with available media
and satisfaction with accessibility of types of information This questionnaire's aim
was to explore a much broader range of issues (see below), and the existing
instruments were considered too restrictive However, before drafting the wording of
the questions in this section, the researcher did review the existing instruments in detail
to establish which wording had been favoured by the researchers to elicit different
constructs

The 38 statements reflect a number of key dimensions of organisational communications referred to in the literature and arising in the eight preliminary interviews including questions about content, openness, media, roles, information flows and communications programmes

4.4.3.(v)   *Improving The Reliability And Validity Of The Questionnaire*

The questionnaire was developed specifically for this research project and consequently required work at the pilot stage to limit reliability or validity error Fink (1995 5) describes reliable data as 'the results of consistent responses over time and between and among groups' In short, reliable data can be replicated She describes valid data as 'measuring what is purported to be measured ' A questionnaire is internally valid when it accurately identifies relationships and can rule out any other explanations about what has been found The questionnaire is externally valid when it is applicable beyond the narrow limits of the study

Conscious that the postal questionnaires were to be filled out without the aid of an interviewer, considerable attention was put into reducing potential response error Using guidelines from Bouchard (1976), de Vaus (1991) and Sheatsley (1983) regarding the construction and sequencing of questions, questions were worded in short, clear and unambiguous sentences and careful consideration was put into ordering the questions so they would follow a logical flow

As per Bouchard's (1976) recommendations, the questionnaire was designed in a non-cluttered layout on white paper Instructions were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire and again at the beginning of section D Examples on how to complete the questions were also provided to reduce ambiguity (recommended by Fowler, 1985) While there were very specific instructions at the outset of the questionnaire, two additional instructions were added into section D to reduce error Because of the similarity of some questions in this section, there could have been some risk of respondents answering one question in the same way as they answered a previous one This is called 'consistency effect' by Bradburn (1983) Respondents were advised that even if some questions appeared to be similar in content, each question was in fact looking for different information Respondents were asked to treat each question as new and distinct from the one before

150

There was also some risk of respondents answering the statements in the way in which they believe would be more acceptable in management circles Fowler (1985) suggests that questions which might in any way be sensitive, should be reserved for the latter parts of the questionnaire so the respondents are more comfortable in disclosing sensitive information The section on communications was kept to the end of the questionnaire and respondents were reminded to fill in the box which best applies to what actually happens in their organisation, as opposed to what they would like to see happening By adding this instruction, respondents were given some comfort that the researcher does recognise that they may not actually condone what is happening in their organisation as being the best form of communications

For ease of coding the data, the majority of questions were closed, although the option 'other' was provided in most cases and an open-ended section was provided at the end of the questionnaire for further comments and observations It is argued (deVaus, 1991, Nachmias and Nachmias, 1982) that closed questions can risk losing out on the type of extra opinions or nuances which open-ended questions can elicit However, Sheatsley (1983) points out that time, cost and coding issues for large scale surveys makes a strong argument for the interviewer to close as many questions as possible

In some parts of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to recall and comment on activities which have happened in the past (for example, in section B, respondents were asked to recall how many months it took their organisation to achieve the Q Mark) Bradburn (1983) and Marsh (1982) draw attention to the risk of 'telescoping', whereby respondents recall an event happening more quickly or more recently than when it actually did occur However, postal questionnaires can bypass this issue because they enable the respondent to verify areas where they might have unclear recall by allowing the respondent to check records in their own time

Golden (1997) adds that retrospective data needs to be accepted with caution Finding in his own research that upwards of 60 per cent of retrospective accounts did not correspond with validated reports of incidents which took place only two years earlier, he cautions researchers to look out for rationalising, simplification, lapses of memory or presenting self to the best advantage He notes, however, that if the respondents do not have personal stakes in the results, purposeful alteration of the reporting of events will be minimised There is still a danger that the managers in this study will unconsciously recall events differently to the way they actually occurred This effect will be softened somewhat by asking a large number of managers to complete the questionnaire In ideal circumstances, the managers' recall could be validated by

contrasting their views with the views of employees themselves. However, time, resources and lack of access to employees has made this approach prohibitive.

Once drafted, the questionnaire was given separately to a panel of seven HR / Quality managers to complete as part of a pre-test phase. Reynolds et al (1993) write that pre-testing is used to identify errors in a questionnaire which may only be apparent to the population concerned, such as specific word meanings. These people were selected from organisations which were not included in the main survey, but would have similar working experience to those targeted in the main survey stage. The seven managers completed the questionnaire without any assistance and timed the amount of time it took to complete. They then spent approximately 40 minutes to an hour each with the researcher going through the questions, their understanding of the questions and familiarity with the terminology used. Reynolds et al (1993) suggest that a personal interview is the most effective means of debriefing those who took part in a pre-test. They were also asked to identify any areas where they thought questions might be leading, ambiguous, or difficult.

On the basis of these comprehensive interviews, a small number of minor adjustments were made to the questionnaires. The sample of managers in the pilot was too small to statistically measure inter-item reliability of the statements measuring similar concepts in Section D. To overcome this, the respondents were asked to select those statements which they felt were measuring a similar concept and what they thought that concept might be. Three of the statements in the original draft were the subject of some confusion for two or more of the seven respondents. Two of these statements were reworded with the assistance of the respondents and one was excluded from the survey as it was felt it did not add to the existing statements already measuring that concept.

Subsequent to the return of the questionnaire by the main sample of organisations, an assessment of inter-item reliability with the Cronbach's alpha test was carried out, to ascertain the internal reliability of the main section, section D of the questionnaire.

Table 4.4 below summarises the findings of the inter-item reliability analysis on clusters of statements in section D. In all, 14 tests were carried out on groups of statements ranging between two and four statements in each group. The statements, developed from issues raised in the literature review on organisational communications and communicating for change, were developed to represent 14 different concepts representing different aspects of the six communications factors necessary for organisational change, according to the literature (Table 3.3). They also cover the

152

concepts raised in hypotheses 3(a) to 3(k), set out earlier. Bryman and Cramer (1994) suggest that a Cronbach's alpha score of .7 or more indicates inter-item reliability. The findings from these inter-item reliability tests suggest that in all but three cases, the concepts could be considered to be internally reliable. In three cases, statements selected to represent the concept 'company-wide message', 'non-managerial influencing role' and 'special communications programmes', the alpha scores would indicate poorer reliability. In all, however, the inter-item reliability scores are adequate for this preliminary stage. Once the key communications factors for change have been identified through factor analysis, it would be intended to develop statements which better represent these concepts and to rigorously test a more refined instrument for reliability and validity.

Table 4.5   Inter-item Reliability Of Groups Of Statements In Section D Of The Questionnaire (Cronbach's alpha)

Concept	Examples in Literature	Statements	Cronbach's alpha score
Content			
Appealing to reason	Blake (1992), D'Aprix (1996)	20,26,38	.7010
Appealing to emotion	Berzok (1997), Scott and Jaffe (1989)	30,35,5	.8013
Updating progress against milestones	Bryan (1997), Klein (1996)	7,10,19	.7141
Company-wide message	Beer et al (1990)	1,33	.5267
Openness			
Openness with information	Caldwell (1994), Dulye (1993), Smeltzer (1991)	19,31	.7007
Restriction of information	Filipczak (1995)	6,21,34	.7210
Media			
Rich and lean media	Klein (1994), Richardson and Denton (1996)	9,10,16,32	.7174
Roles			
Senior management role	D'Aprix (1996), Tourish (1997)	13,24	.7151
Middle management role	Larkin and Larkin (1994)	18,23,36	.8015
Peer influencer role	Schein (1980), Siebold and Meyers (1996)	3,14	.5532
Information flows			
Top-down	Brandon (1996), Francis (1987)	17,37	.7133
Upwards (involvement)	Bonvillian (1996), Exterbille (1996), Lawler et al (1995)	4,11,15,34	.7178
Lateral	D'Aprix (1996), Exterbille (1996), Lee (1997)	27,29	.7338
Communications programmes			
Special programmes	Cole and Pace (1991), McGrath and Geaney (1998)	8,12,28,2	.6893

153

4.4.4   Stage 4   Issuing The Questionnaire

The most serious disadvantage of postal questionnaires is the risk of a low response rate Nachmias and Nachmias (1982) argue that non-response is an important issue because non-respondents differ considerably from respondents in their opinions of the issues being covered in the questionnaire Fowler (1984), for example, notes that people who have extreme views on the subject or have a particular interest in that subject are more likely to return the postal questionnaire The issue of what is an acceptable response rate has not been resolved to any great extent Moser and Kalton (1976) write that postal questionnaires have been discredited in many cases because researchers have used data from response rates as low as 30 per cent Nachmias and Nachmias (1982) add that some investigators consider 50 per cent response rate to be adequate, while other more conservative investigators insist on at least 75 per cent response

A number of strategies recommended in the literature (Bouchard, 1976, deVaus, 1991, Dilman, 1983, Moser and Kalton, 1979, Nachmias and Nachmias, 1982), to increase the response rate were implemented Dilman (1983 361) writes

> A person is most likely to respond to a questionnaire when the perceived costs of doing so are minimised, the perceived rewards are maximised and the respondent trusts that the expected rewards will be delivered

All organisations were contacted by telephone to establish who the relevant person would be to fill out the questionnaire Wherever possible, the person was spoken to directly, to explain that the questionnaire was to be sent within the next two weeks

It was decided to limit the scope of the questionnaire to seek the views of those responsible for implementing the quality initiative in each organisation This tended to be either a quality manager or HR manager and in a small number of cases, Directors or Managing Directors By limiting responses to these individuals, the study was not seeking the views of employees and how they are affected by the quality change programme This approach does raise some limitations with the research For example, there is evidence to suggest that managers and employees tend to hold different views about the effectiveness of communications in their organisation (eg Barton, 1996, Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997) However, to gain access to such a large number of organisations, it was deemed important to minimise the disruption involved in carrying out the research Edwards and Thomas (1993) note that

154

researchers are more likely to gain acceptance of an organisational survey by senior management if they view it as involving little or no disruption to the workplace It was also believed that the complexities involved in achieving adequate samples of diverse groups of employees for some 187 organisations of different sizes would be prohibitive It is recognised, however, that the findings of this study will be limited by the fact that they are based on the views of one management level respondent in each organisation

Respondents were not specifically asked to provide information on their own job title when returning the questionnaire However, by comparing returned questionnaires with the point of contact in each organisation to whom the questionnaire was sent (established in the preliminary telephone calls), it is possible to establish a good overview of the likely respondent profile It should be recognised, however, that it is not possible to state definitively that all the original points of contact actually completed and forwarded the questionnaires themselves Table 4 6 indicates that, on the basis of the points of contact for the returned questionnaires, a strong majority of the respondents appear to be quality managers or executives (70 7 per cent), with just twenty per cent of respondents appearing to be HR managers

Table 4.6   Respondent Profile
(Based on Points Of Contact For Each Organisation)

Profile	Number
Quality Manager/Executive	82 (70.7 %)
HR Manager / Executive	22 (21.5%)
Managing Director / Director	12 (7.8%)

This high proportion of quality managers would suggest that the majority of respondents could potentially feel under pressure to represent their quality initiatives in a good light, given that the quality initiative is the very purpose of their role in their organisations They may also have less of an understanding of the broader 'people' aspects of organisational change than their HR peers Because the respondents profile has been constructed by comparing returned questionnaires to original points of contact, it is not possible to definitively interpret anything more from this data For example, it would not be appropriate to attempt to correlate respondent profile with features of the organisations to determine whether particular biases might be identified

155

The questionnaire was designed and printed for clarity and was clearly marked as a Dublin City University initiative, as questionnaires for academic purposes tend to receive more favourable responses DeVaus (1991) recommends that a contact name be given for people to raise queries A name and contact number of both researcher and supervisor were provided

The questionnaires were issued with a covering letter explaining the purpose of the research and how the information gathered could be of benefit to the business community in the future The respondents were assured of confidentiality The questionnaires were marked by identification numbers for further follow up As an incentive, respondents were offered a summary of the results and a small number of respondents (8 per cent) took up that offer

There has been some debate as to whether the length of a questionnaire affects response rates In general, the advice is given to keep questionnaires as clear and short as feasible However, Moser and Kalton (1979) write that there is no clear evidence to suggest that questionnaire length has an impact on response rates and Nachmias and Nachmias (1982) cite evidence to suggest little difference for different lengths of questionnaires within a cap of ten pages The questionnaire issued was a twelve page document, of which nine pages comprised questions, one page comprised the front cover, a further page comprised instructions and the final page included a section for further comments

96 questionnaires were returned within the first three weeks A follow-up letter was then sent to those organisations which did not initially respond, eliciting a further 34 responses The total response rate was 130 completed questionnaires (69 5 per cent) Of those, 14 were spoilt (ie returned incomplete), leaving a total of 116 questionnaires to be analysed, or 62 per cent of questionnaires sent out

To ensure that there was no significant difference between those who responded and those who did not, lists were drawn of returned questionnaires and the target sample and checked for information on their size and sector Table 4 7 shows no difference of any great note

Table 4.7   Comparison Of Returned Questionnaires With Target Sample

Demographics	Target Sample (Q Mark holders in organisations of 50+)	Responding Organisations
Sector	74.2% manufacturing 25.8% services	76% manufacturing 24% services
Size	64.3% = 50-200 35.7% = 201 +	61% = 50-200 39% = 201 +

4.4.5   Stage 5   Coding And Analysis Of The Results

The questionnaires were coded and analysed with the use of SPSS 6 1 package for MS Windows, a computerised statistical package favoured by many social scientists for its accessibility and breadth of applications Once the data was inputted into the package, a series of random spot checks was carried out to ensure that the data was inputted correctly Using SPSS, the data was then measured for frequencies, for bivariate relationships and for multivariate relationships

The approach taken during the analytical stage was to be as open as possible to all data or possible relationships which emerge However, the researcher did attend to the hypotheses during analysis, to avoid spurious correlations being given undue attention Marsh (1982) writes that even in exploratory research, researchers should have some sense of model or 'hunch' to explore However, Marsh warns against cross-tabulating all data with the hope that some sort of correlation will be chanced upon

An analysis plan was developed to meet the research questions The plan involved five phases, as outlined in Figure 4 2

<u>Figure 4.2</u>   <u>Analysis Plan</u>

(Note 'H' = Research Hypothesis)

```
┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Phase 1    │              │         Background Information            │
└──────────────┘              └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                                   │
                                                   ▽
┌──────────────┐ H1           ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Phase 2    │              │ Define the dependent variable 'successful change' │
└──────────────┘              └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                                   │
                                                   ▽
                                         ⬭ Successful change ⬭
                                           defined as a five
                                            staged scale
                                                   │
                                                   ▽
┌──────────────┐ H2           ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Phase 3    │              │ Identify how communications is used by this sample │
└──────────────┘              └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                                   │
                                                   ▽
┌──────────────┐ H3           ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Phase 4    │ H4           │  Explore data for conceptual model of     │
└──────────────┘              │          communications                   │
                              │ Establish whether the model is universal or contingent │
                              └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                                   │
                                                   ▽
┌──────────────┐ H5           ┌──────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Phase 5    │              │ Test and interpret relationship between successful change │
└──────────────┘              │          and communications model         │
                              └──────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

4.4.5.(i)   *Phase 1 Of Analysis:*
                Background Information

Hartwig and Dearing (1979) note that the first stage of analysis should begin with inspecting the distribution and frequency of each variable. This provides an overview of the 'shape' of the data, so that any interesting phenomena can be identified for further examination. This phase of analysis was carried out by using the SPSS 6.1 frequencies application.

Section D of the questionnaire, comprising 38 Likert scale questions, was scored in two ways to facilitate analysis. Firstly, organisations which agreed or strongly agreed with each statement were categorised as one grouping to facilitate identification of the frequency with which the relevant method or policy is in use amongst the sample of organisations. Secondly, mean scores for organisations for each statement were also

158

identified, with the range being defiend as -2 for strongly disagree up to +2 for strongly agree, with 0 being assigned to the middle position. This range (-2 to +2), was selected instead of a range from 1 to 5, as it was felt that it more appropriately distinguishes organisations which positively agree that they use a method or policy from those which disagree.

4.4.5.(ii)   Phase 2 Of Analysis:
Define The Dependent Variable 'Successful Change'

Bryman and Cramer (1994) define a dependent variable as the 'effect' of other variables. Before being able to determine the relationship, if any, between communications and organisational change, the dependent variable 'successful change' had to be identified. A number of questions in Section B - Implementing The Q Mark Programme, relating to time taken, related IR unrest and employee satisfaction with the way it was managed, were put into the questionnaire as markers of this dependent variable. However, the frequency distributions carried out on these questions during stage 1 of the analysis, did not provide a substantial enough range of variations between organisations on these factors to use them as means of differentiating successful and unsuccessful change.

An alternative measurement of change was also included into the questionnaire. Question 18 in Section C - Quality In Your Organisation, asks organisations to rate themselves against a number of quality status descriptors which relate to the constructs on the five staged model proposed in Chapter 2. There was a sufficiently large variation between organisations on these factors to use the scale as an indicator of those organisations which have changed to become a total quality organisation from those which remain at the less sophisticated quality assurance stages.

To determine whether or not it is valid to suggest that organisations progress through the first five stages of quality in the order suggested in the model, the Guttman scaling procedure was used. This scoring process involves taking only those scores for each stage achieved by organisations which have scored positively on the earlier stages. For example, if an organisation did score positively on the fifth stage, but not positively on any of the first four stages, its score for the fifth stage would be discounted. The accuracy of the scale was investigated through two methods; by identifying the co-efficient of reproductibility and the minimal marginal reproductibility, as suggested by Moser and Kalton (1979).

To explore whether there are other variables which differentiate the organisations which agree they have reached each of the five stages of the Guttman scale from each other, a non parametric test, the Mann Whitney U test, was then carried out to test significant differences

To facilitate the use of regression analysis on a dependent variable 'successful change' (see 4 4 5 (v) below), an additional index of total quality was also formulated by combining the scores for organisations which have achieved each of the five Guttman stages with their scores for two other quality indicators - the extent to which priority is given to quality by senior management (question 19), and the extent to which there is commitment to quality across the organisation (question 20)

4.4.5.(iii)   *Phase 3 Of Analysis:*
                               Identify How Communications Is Used By This Sample

Hypothesis 2 states that organisations which have achieved the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature Before looking at the relationship between communications and organisational change, it was important to gain a fuller understanding of how the respondents' organisations differ or converge from the literature in their communications policies or methods

Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables The relationship between organisational characteristics and their communications policies and methods was investigated by using the Chi-square test The questionnaire was constructed in such a way that respondents indicated organisational characteristics and the usage of communications practices and methods through a series of yes / no questions This provided a series of nominal variables for analysis Bryman and Cramer (1994) write that if the data being analysed are nominal rather than interval data, a non-parametric test such as Chi-square is appropriate It was decided to use $p =< 05$ as the cut off point for significance, which is generally deemed to be sufficiently significant (eg Babbie and Halley, 1994)

4.4.5.(iv)   *Phase 4 Of Analysis:*
                               Explore Data For 'Deeper' Factors

Up to this stage, the communications variables have been described as separate entities Hartwig and Dearing (1979) argue that to develop a more conceptual

160

understanding of data, groups of variables can be manipulated and explored to establish whether or not a pattern emerges. Groups of variables are analysed through multivariate analysis. Kline (1994) writes that multivariate analysis is appropriate for complex data where it is uncertain what are the most important variables in the field. By identifying the relationship between groups of variables, a construct or 'factor' which was previously unknown can be revealed. Bryman and Cramer (1994) write that multivariate analysis is a useful tool for bringing order to a complex series of variables and enabling the researcher to see which of them appear to be related and which of them are not.

To gain a fuller understanding of how communications is approached by the sample of organisations, groups of statements from the list of 38 statements about communications in Section D of the questionnaire were analysed using principal components multivariate analysis. Kline (1994) recommends that a sample size of at least 100 is necessary for multivariate analysis. The sample size in this fieldwork was 116.

The factor application of SPSS 6.1 package was used to test for the different communications factors. Initial statistics were rotated using VARIMAX. Rotation maximises the loadings on each item, 'clearing out' unrelated factors which may appear to have been related on first analysis. Babbie and Halley (1994) write that VARIMAX rotation, a method of orthogonal rotation, is a widely accepted means of rotating data and accordingly is the default rotation application in SPSS.

Following Marsh's (1982) proposed approach to exploratory multivariate analysis, the full complement of 38 statements was first analysed for emerging factors. Using the initial factors which emerged from this analysis and the hypotheses developed from a review of the literature, those relationships which might be present were gradually clarified by including different groups of variables in the factor analysis. Kaiser's criteria, explained by Bryman and Cramer (1994), was used to select those factors to keep and those to exclude during this exploration. Only those factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or greater were retained. This means that the factors which were retained explained the variance of at least one of the variables put into the analysis. Kline (1994) argues that factor loadings of .3 or more are considered moderately high and for the most part, only those emerging factors from the initial analysis of all 38 statements with loadings of more than .4 were retained for further examination. A small number of factors with statements loading between .3 and .4 were retained for

further examination on the basis that they represented concepts which are strongly advocated in the literature as being central to communicating for change.

Using groups of statements which might better represent the concepts behind eight promising factors which emerged from the first phase of analysis, together with groups of statements which were thought to best represent a further twelve concepts advocated as being key for communicating change in the literature, a total of twenty concepts were tested through factor analysis. The same criteria for inclusion was applied (ie eigenvalue of 1.0 or more and statements loading .3 or higher) On the basis of this analysis, some 15 initial concepts were discarded. A further five promising factors were analysed in greater detail, but then discarded. Two significant communications descriptors with eigenvalues in excess of 1.0, with statements loading at a minimum of .3 and which consistently explained variances between the organisations of this sample did emerge.

To establish whether or not the statements selected to represent each of the two sets of factors do measure the same concept, inter-item reliability of the statements (Cronbach's alpha), was then tested. An alpha score of .7 or more was deemed to be sufficient to indicate internal reliability (Bryman and Cramer, 1994).

However, Huberman and Miles (1994) caution against assuming that findings which emerge from data analysis as being reliable are necessarily valid. They write that some of the most common biases which can steal into the process when drawing conclusions include overconfidence in the data (especially when trying to confirm a key finding), and over-accommodation to information which supports a particular hypothesis. The multivariate phase of analysis of this research project was entered into, knowing that the researcher would have been influenced by the key themes discussed in the literature. However, a conscious effort was made to broaden the possible groupings of statements for factor analysis as wide as possible, in order to explore all possible key themes.

Huberman and Miles (1994) also suggest 'triangulation' as a method of verifying findings. Triangulation is the process of checking findings by approaching the same research question through two or more means of research or analysis. The factors which emerged from the factor analysis were subsequently probed through qualitative interviews (see chapter 4.4.6 below), and appeared to hold up to verification.

Two models emerged and given that organisational communications models have been found to be contingent rather than universal in areas other than change management (ie communicating for organisational performance and satisfaction - see chapter 3.5), it was decided to see whether these models appear to be selected for different circumstances. Two methods were used to determine whether or not the communications models were universal or contingent. Firstly, the questionnaire data relating to organisational characteristics was t-tested with the extent to which the different organisations scored on each of the communications dimensions. The t-test (parametric test), was selected as the two communications dimensions comprise interval variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1994). As with the earlier Chi-square tests, a cut off point of $p = <.05$ was used. Significant differences may highlight interesting differences between organisations using each type of communications. Secondly, this relationship was investigated further during the follow up qualitative interviews to see if any underlying factors emerge, to ascertain why different organisations might use different types of communications to support change.

4.4.5.(v)   ***Phase 5 Of Analysis :***
            Test For Relationship Between Variable
            'Successful Change' And Communications / Other Factors

Once models of communicating for change were identified using multivariate analysis, their relationship with the variable 'successful change' was investigated. Firstly, their relationship with each of the descriptors of total quality was investigated. Again, because the two communications dimensions comprise interval variables, an appropriate method of investigating the significance of the relationship is by using the parametric test, t-test (Bryman and Cramer, 1994).

A second approach to evaluating the relationship between the two communications dimensions and successful change was then carried out. The five groups of organisations which reached each of the five stages of quality assurance or total quality on the five staged scale of becoming a quality organisation were identified. The mean scores on each of the communications factor for each of the groups of organisations were calculated. By carrying out an analysis of variance of the five groups' mean scores for the two communications dimensions using Anova, it was then possible to establish whether or not the variance in scores between groups was significant in comparison to the variance of scores within each group. The mean scores were mapped out to determine whether a relationship exists.

Another method of testing the relationship between one set of variables and another is regression analysis; a method of predicting the scores of the dependent variable by knowing the scores of the independent variable. Because this thesis focuses on explaining the effects of communications on organisational change, in ideal circumstances, the dependent variable for regression analysis should be the scores for changing towards total quality (ie the five Guttman Groups). However, it is argued in the literature (eg Babbie and Halley, 1994), that regression analysis requires an interval / ratio variable as the dependent variable, while in this instance, the Guttman Groups scores comprise ordinal ranking variables. Bryman and Cramer (1994) note that in certain fields of research such as the social sciences, there is a growing trend to treat ordinal variables as interval variables for the purposes of analyses such as regression analysis, but argue that this is more appropriate in instances where there are multiple categories involved. It has been suggested in a seminal paper by Labovitz (1970) that almost all ordinal variables can be treated as interval variables, as the advantages of using a powerful method of analysis such as regression analysis far outweigh the potential for error. This view is considered controversial in some quarters (Bryman and Cramer, 1994), but it was decided in this instance to go ahead with the regression analysis nonetheless, using changing to total quality as being the dependent variable.

To do this, it was decided to create an 'index of total quality', as a new dependent variable by combining the scores for organisations in each of the five Guttman Groups with their scores on two other indicators of total quality; priority given to quality by senior management (question 19), and commitment to quality across the organisation (question 20). This new dependent variable, while still ordinal, comprises a larger range of categories than just the five Guttman Groups, (ranging from 3-15, rather than 1-5), making it more appropriate for regression analysis. Using regression analysis, the predictive nature of the relationship between the two communications dimensions and the index of total quality was then assessed.

The decision was taken to use this index as a dependent variable on the basis that at least two other methods were being used to assess the relationship between communications and organisational change to total quality using the Guttman Group scores as the indicators of change to total quality. The Guttman scale had been found to be a well-grounded indicator of organisational change by testing its co-efficient of reproducibility and minimal marginal reproducibility. The first method, the analysis of variance of the mean scores for each communications dimension amongst the five Guttman Groups has already been discussed. The second method used was also

regression analysis, but in this case, using the two communications dimensions as the dependent variable. This second regression analysis takes the opposite approach to the first just described. It was used to determine whether the scores for each communications dimension can be predicted by knowing the scores for each of the five Guttman groups. The two communications dimensions (factor scores from the factor analysis), were selected as being robust dependent variables in this case, as they comprise interval/ratio variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1994).

Having looked at the relationship between communications and change to total quality in these different ways, it was decided to establish whether or other variables might also have an influence on that relationship. This was investigated in a number of ways. Firstly, by carrying out a series of 2-Way Anova tests, combining the mean scores for each of the Guttman Groups with a series of variables and determining whether combined, these scores are significantly related to the different communications dimensions. Secondly, change management strategies such as reward structures were regressed from the 'index of total quality' variable to establish whether they too have a predicting relationship. Separately to this, the key differentiating features between each of the five Guttman Groups of organisations (other than the two communications dimensions), was also investigated. The Mann-Whitney U test was selected to explore the differences, as it is considered to be a more appropriate test of significant difference for ordinal variables such as these groups.

4.4.6   Stage 6   Follow-Up Qualitative Interviews

Analysis of data gathered from surveys enables the researcher to identify variations or relationships. However, as Marsh (1982) and Sayer (1984) point out, the researcher still has to establish the nature and meaning of that relationship. Hypothesis 5 states that it is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change. This cannot be resolved by analysing the quantitative data presented by the questionnaire alone. Marsh (1982) writes that to explore this, the researcher has to bring evaluation a stage further by both returning qualitatively to a sub-set of the respondents for probing and through 'reason analysis'. Reason analysis is a method by which the researcher draws up a list of possible relevant inputs and outcomes and inquires about each of these in turn.

Qualitative interviews in a follow up phase are an excellent means of probing quantitative results. Sayer (1984) argues that qualitative interviews enables the researcher to ascertain the 'why' behind quantitative results in context, rather than

having to affect controlled conditions Miles and Huberman (1994) also advocate the use of follow-up interviews where possible, but caution that the researchers should be aware of their biases when setting the agenda for discussion and when probing the respondents They also query the generalisability of issues which emerge from a handful of interviews, but when used in a follow-up phase, this issue is less problematic, given that an extensive quantitative phase has already been carried out

In ideal circumstances, an intensive observation of what actually happens rather than a filtered perception of what happens would be preferred as the follow up method However, this was not feasible, either in terms of the researcher's time, or access to organisations While the quantitative phase of research identified features of communications which appear to correlate with the successful introduction of total quality concepts, it did not shed any light on how or why these factors appear to facilitate change The follow-up interviews also sought to identify from the respondents whether there was any pattern to how they used particular communications features to facilitate the change in their organisations

Organisations which had the highest scores on the two key communications dimensions were identified and contacted for a follow-up interview Creswell (1994 97) describes this method of research as 'dominant - less dominant design' By supplementing a major quantitative study with a small number of qualitative interviews, the researcher may be able to elaborate on or enhance the results of the main phase Ten organisations were contacted for follow-up in-depth interviews The ten organisations comprised five of the highest scoring organisations from each of two different communications factors identified from the main phase and all ten agreed to take part in the follow up phase The organisations in the follow-up phase were assured of their anonymity In some instances, the organisations offered both a HR Manager as well as their quality manager for the interviews

A semi-structured discussion guide was developed (see Appendix C), and interviews took between 1 hour and 1 5 hours in length These interviews, while covering a broad range of issues, were more focused than the pilot phase of interviews This was because the researcher wanted to probe specific issues of interest emanating out of the quantitative data Five areas of interest were the focus of the interviews and other issues of interest were probed as they arose

1   The respondents' views on what level of change was needed in progressing towards total quality and whether any resistance was encountered

2   Identification of OD methods used other than communications and rankings of

166

their relative success

3   Clarification of the nature of the type of communications used in their
     organisation

4   Respondents' views on how and why their approach to communications
     developed

5   Respondents' views on how they best use their method of communications in
     achieving change

As with the preliminary interviews, notes were taken by hand rather than recorded and
read and transcribed within 24 hours of the interviews being completed Analysis of
qualitative data can be problematic in that it is difficult to replicate and is open to
researcher bias Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that qualitative data analysis is still
in its infancy in comparison to the clear conventions laid down for quantitative data
analysis However, this should not take away from the value of the data generated by
such a research method The researcher can take a rigorous approach to coding the
information transcribed during the interviews and to the analysis of the data thereafter
A method of coding and analysis was used at this follow up stage to the preliminary
interviews (based on that advocated by Gronstedt, 1996), whereby issues were coded
in the left hand column and the categories of issues were combined or dropped as the
analysis progressed, so that the categories moved from an empirical level to a
conceptual level

4.5   Summary Of The Research Methodology

Arising from the literature review, five hypotheses and 33 sub-hypotheses were posed
relating to the relationship between organisational communications and successful
change The research approach selected to answer the research questions was
positivistic, drawing general causal laws from data obtained from organisations of 50
or more employees holding the Irish Q Mark

Becoming a quality organisation was selected as being the variable which indicates
'successful change' The principle research instrument was a self-completion postal
questionnaire aimed at managers responsible for quality in their organisations,
supported by pre and post questionnaire interviews The response rate of usable
questionnaires was 62 per cent

The questionnaires were analysed through a five phased analysis plan, with the use of a SPSS statistical package Through factor analysis, two communications constructs of interest were identified Both they and other management strategies were then tested for their relationship with the successful change variable The nature of the relationships were also explored in more depth through the use of qualitative follow-up interviews

SECTIONS THREE AND FOUR

THE FINDINGS

OVERVIEW OF SECTIONS THREE AND FOUR

THE FINDINGS

Sections three and four describe the findings of the research Section three, comprising five chapters, describes the findings on the communications practices of the participating organisations, while section four comprising two chapters, describes the findings relating to changing to become total quality organisations

Section three begins with a brief description of the biographical details of the organisations which took part in the study (chapter 5) Chapter 6 explores the communications practices of the participating organisations, comparing and contrasting these findings with those advocated in the literature In chapter 7, a model of communicating for change is identified from the quantitative data (comprising two dimensions), together with a description of the features of organisations which use either dimension This is explored further in chapter 8, building on the data elicited from the follow-up qualitative interviews Chapter 9 brings together the key findings of the quantitative and qualitative research to describe and validate the model

In section four, attention is then turned to the process of organisational change in a quality context Chapter 10 begins by identifying the quality characteristics of the participating organisations It then explores whether or not this sample of organisations appears to follow the process of organisational change to total quality proposed earlier Chapter 11 then links the communications model identified earlier, with the process of organisational change, to establish the nature of the relationship between the two

SECTION THREE

COMMUNICATING
IN A QUALITY CONTEXT

CHAPTER 5   BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

5.1   Introduction

This chapter describes the 116 organisations which took part in this study In all, 15 questions relating to general biographical details were asked, focusing on information about the organisations which might help to explain different approaches to communicating for change Biographical information was sought on organisational characteristics such as sector, size, structures and the presence of union representation Employee characteristics were also sought including average age, sex, skills and education The sample size of the findings is deemed to be 116 for each question unless otherwise stated

5.2   Organisational Characteristics

Size and Dispersion
Table 5 1 shows the breakdown of organisations by number of employees The organisations ranged from 50 to 12,000 employees in size with 61 per cent (n = 70), employing between 50 and 200, which would be considered medium sized (European Commission, 1996), and the remaining 39 per cent (n = 46), employing at least 200 employees

Table 5.1   Organisational Size

	50- 100	100-199	200-499	500+
Percentage of organisations in sample	26% n=30	35% n=40	23% n=27	16% n=19

The profile of this sample is biased more towards larger organisations than Irish organisations generally In this sample, 31 8 per cent (n=37) of the organisations employed more than 250 employees at the time of the research, compared to just 3 2 per cent of all organisations in Ireland (n=157) (Central Statistics Office, 1997) To draw a more direct comparison, only 14 1 per cent of the 1,107 organisations in Ireland employing 50 or more employees, have at least 250 employees The bias towards larger organisations in this sample might be due to larger organisations having the resources to become involved in quality award initiatives such as the Q Mark

Many of the organisations have two or more sites Table 5 2 shows that less than half of the organisations operate out of one site (n = 52)

Table 5.2   Number of Sites Out of Which The Organisations Operate

	1 site	2-10 sites	10+ sites
Percentage of organisations in sample	45% n=52	43% n=50	12% n=14

A number of issues arise from this high incidence of multi-sited organisations Firstly, it is important to recognise that the respondents to the questionnaires may not be fully aware of the communications operating style within all the sites of their organisation Communications within each site may be influenced by the preferred approach of the most senior executive within the site, which may or may not be in keeping with the approach of the organisation as a whole Secondly, the status of the quality initiative itself may also vary from site to site according to the level of support it is given by the senior executive of that site Therefore, there is a possibility that responses given in the questionnaires may not reflect the experience of employees within particular sites in their organisations

The incidence of multi-sited organisations is also likely to have an impact on the types of communications used Drury Communications and IPD Ireland (1997) had found a higher penetration of electronic and written media in geographically dispersed organisations than single site organisations, in order to access dispersed employees However, these methods on their own are considered in the literature to be less effective in supporting organisational change than media rich in redundant verbal cues (ie face-to-face media), (eg Evans, 1986), and therefore, the high proportion of multi-sited organisations in this sample, may have an impact on the effectiveness of media used in communicating for change

Structures

The number of hierarchical layers was also investigated Larger organisations might be expected to have more than two layers of management and this, in fact, was found to be the case Over half of the organisations (54 3 per cent, n=63), had more than four hierarchical layers (Table 5 3)

Table 5.3   Number of Management Layers

	3 or fewer	4 or more	Varies across functions
Percentage of organisations in sample	38.8% n=45	54.3% n=63	6 9% n=8

As hierarchical layers increase, so too does the potential for filtration of message (eg Francis, 1987), and the visibility of senior management amongst front-line employees can also be reduced (Bonvillian, 1997), putting more emphasis on the role of middle management as communicators (Larkin and Larkin, 1994)

Specific integration structures put in place to support change were also investigated Respondents were asked to identify from a list of structures provided, all those which apply to their organisation Hence the percentages in Table 5 4 total more than 100 per cent A minority (17 3 per cent, n=20), claimed that their organisational structures involve very little cross-functional structures, with the overall trend aiming towards permanent cross-functional structures, rather than temporary structures

Table 5.4   Specific Integration Structures To Support Change

	Limited to functional hierarchies	Temporary cross functional teams	Permanent cross-functional structures	Flat organisation shaped as chain from supplier to customer
Percentage of organisations in sample	17.3% n=20	36.2% n=42	46.6% n=54	37.9% n=44

Country of Origin

In terms of ownership, about half of the organisations are Irish owned and half are subsidiaries of foreign owned organisations, with one joint venture (Table 5 5) The high level of foreign ownership is to be expected, given the size of the organisations

Table 5.5   Profile of Country of Origin

	Irish	Foreign owned	Irish and foreign J/V
Percentage of organisations in sample	49.6% n = 57	49.6% n=57	0.8% n=1

n = 115

174

Sector

76 per cent of the organisations are involved in manufacturing (n =88), and 24 per cent are involved in services (n=28) It was noted earlier that this bias towards manufacturing reflects the make-up of the general population of organisations holding the Q Mark The majority of the organisations (86 per cent, n=99) are in the private sector rather than in the public sector (14 per cent, n=17) Table 5 6 provides a more detailed breakdown of the organisations by sector Reflecting the high percentage of the sample involved in manufacturing, over two thirds of the sample (66 5 per cent, n=75) are in the food or technology sectors

Table 5 6   Sectoral Profile of the Organisations

	Food	Low Tech	High Tech	Printing publishing & recording	Financial	Transport storage & comms	Wholesale & retail	Other
Percentage of orgs in sample	23.7% n=27	18 2% n=20	24.6% n=28	10.7% n=12	4.3% n=5	3 5% n=4	7.1% n=8	7 9% n=9

n=113

Union Presence

62 per cent of the organisations (n=72) have more than 50 per cent of employees represented by a union, with only 15 5 per cent of the organisations without a union present (See Table 5 7) The relatively low numbers of organisations without a union (18 organisations) is not surprising, given the bias of the sample towards larger organisations The literature suggests (eg Gunnigle et al, 1994), that organisations in Ireland with 50 or more employees are more likely to recognise unions than organisations with less than 50 employees

Table 5 7   Union Presence

	No union	Less than 50% of employees represented	More than 50% of employees represented
Percentage of organisations in sample	15 5% n=18	22.4% n=26	62.1% n=72

175

Redundancy Schemes

It was decided to investigate some biographical information relating to redundancy schemes as this has been a significant feature of industrial life in Ireland in the 1990s and may have an impact on issues such as trust and the method and style of communications used to introduce new changes Over half of the organisations (56 per cent, n=65) had implemented a redundancy scheme in their organisation within the previous five years The majority of schemes were run on a voluntary basis (70 per cent of the cases, n=81), with just over 15 per cent of the redundancy schemes (n=18), being run on a last in first out basis

5.3   Employee Characteristics

Age and Sex

57 4 per cent (n=66), of respondents reported that the majority of employees in their organisation were less than 35 years of age There was a balanced male / female ratio reported in 42 per cent of the organisations (n=49), while in 51 per cent of the organisations (n=59) at least two thirds of the workforce were male In contrast, only 7 per cent of the organisations (n=8), had women making up more than two-thirds of the workforce

Skills

Table 5 8 shows the skill levels of the majority of employees in each company The majority of employees were classed as skilled or unskilled labour (78 4 per cent, n=91), reflecting the high percentage of manufacturing organisations in the sample

Table 5.8   Skills Profile of Majority of Employees in Each Organisation

	Professional	Clerical	Skilled / unskilled	Other
Percentage of organisations in sample	6%	12%	78 3%	3.7%
	n=7	n=14	n=91	n=4

Just over 10 per cent of the respondents (n=12) said that the majority of the employees in their organisation hold a post-school qualification, with 64 per cent (n=74), saying that the majority of employees in their organisation hold a school Leaving Certificate or equivalent These qualifications reflect the high percentage of employees classed under skilled / unskilled labour in this sample (See Table 5 9)

176

Table 5.9   Educational Profile of Majority of Non-managerial Employees

	No qualification	Inter / Junior Cert	Leaving Cert	Higher Level
Percentage of organisations in sample	4.6% n=5	20.7% n=24	64.3% n=74	10 4% n=12

<div align="right">n=115</div>

5.4   Summary

Details on both organisational and employee characteristics of the sample of organisations which took part in this study are provided in this chapter Characteristics were investigated which may have an influence on the type of communications approach selected or deemed most effective Because the sample was restricted to organisations with a minimum of 50 employees, certain features emerge which may not reflect Irish organisations generally These include the high presence of foreign owned organisations, the high percentage of organisations with four or more hierarchical layers and with more than one operating site

Certain characteristics of the sample also reflect the fact that it was taken from a population of organisations holding the Q Mark It is documented that there is a strong bias towards manufacturing organisations holding the Q Mark generally This sample was found to be strongly biased towards manufacturing and to manufacturing sectors such as the food and technology sectors The skills and educational profile of employees also reflect a strong manufacturing base, including predominance of skilled and unskilled labour and employees holding school rather than post-school qualifications

CHAPTER 6   THE COMMUNICATIONS PRACTICES

6.1   Introduction

Hypothesis 2 states that those organisations which have achieved the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature, while Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of practices for communicating change is contingent upon a number of variables This chapter begins by looking at the communications tools and objectives selected as important by the Q Mark holding organisations It then explores in more detail the communications policies and methods implemented by the different types of organisations to support their quality programmes across six areas - content, openness, media, roles, information flows and communications programmes

6.2   Communications Objectives And Tools

The respondents were asked to indicate which of a series of ten statements on organisational objectives for communications applied to their organisation Levels of agreement with each objective ranged from a low of 41 4 per cent (n=48), (to show the organisation cares), up to 78 4 per cent (n=91),(to provide operational information so employees know what is required), (see Table 6 1)

The findings show that the 116 organisations which took part in the survey were in broad agreement on their objectives for communicating change towards quality These findings are in keeping with the arguments in the literature that a climate of trust and openness (eg Caldwell, 1994, Fiorelh and Margolis, 1993), and a clear vision communicated by top management (eg Robbins, 1986, Ward and Willis, 1990) are both key to successful change The highest number of organisations (n=91), suggest that ensuring employees know what is required is a key objective While this objective is advocated in the literature (eg D'Aprix, 1996, Francis, 1987), it is one of the more operational objectives and does not take into account the softer aspects of change management such as trust and motivation (McKendall and Margulis, 1995)

Table 6.1   Level of Agreement With Each of Ten Suggested

Communications Objectives (In Descending Order)

Objective	%	n
To provide operational information so employees know what is required	78 4	91
To motivate employees	70 7	82
To build open and trusting relationships	65 5	76
To share senior management's vision on quality	62 1	72
To direct employees on what needs to be done	55 2	64
To ask employees for their input so management decisions can be taken	52 6	61
To celebrate progress	45 7	53
To reduce rumours and uncertainties	44 8	52
To co-ordinate different functions	41 4	48
To show the organisation cares about employees during this period of change	41 4	48

The respondents were then asked to identify the communications tools used to support the quality initiative in their organisation Management briefings and noticeboards were the most commonly identified tools (see Table 6 2 below) The more formal tools which take a certain amount of pre-preparation and / or financial commitment, such as videos, newsletters, e-mail and merchandising material were less widely used

Table 6.2   Main Communications Tools Identified By Organisations To Support Quality In The Organisation

Communications Tools	%	n
Management briefings	75.8	88
Notices about quality on noticeboards	75	87
Regular small group employee meetings	67.7	78
Informal open door policy	60.3	70
Circulation of minutes	52.6	61
Mass meetings with staff	50	58
Regular quality performance sheets	50	58
Suggestion schemes	40.5	47
Videos	40.5	47
Newsletter / news-sheet	40.5	47
Letters/ memos	40.5	47
E-Mail	22.4	26
Slogans and merchandising material	14.6	17

The tools used by this sample of organisations are very similar to those reported in the recent Drury Communications and IPD Ireland (1997) survey of internal communications in Irish organisations, although both a survey of internal communications in UK organisations (Stewart, 1999), and the Drury Communications survey looked at tools used generally, rather than for quality programmes. Both surveys found that management briefings, small group meetings and informal open door policy were among the four most common methods in use.

In general, the findings represented in Table 6.2 lend some support to Hypothesis 2(c) that organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines in the literature for combining rich and lean media (ie verbal, written and electronic), for communicating change. However, stronger emphasis was put overall on face-to-face communications mechanisms than written or electronic forms. Evans (1986) suggests that face-to-face tools are a richer communications method for supporting change, while written methods are also advocated for recording more complex information and for organisations where large numbers and dispersed members require written back up for consistency of message (IBEC, 1996). Given that some three quarters of the sample for this study comprised organisations of 100 employees or more and that over a half of the organisations work out of two or more sites, the level of written back up methods is low. Apart from circulation of minutes from meetings, less than a half of the

organisations report using the other written and electronic methods The low use of e-mail reported by the organisations (22 4 per cent, n=26), is not surprising given that at the time of the field research, e-mail was still an emerging communications tool in the UK and Ireland (Hobson 1995) While Hypothesis 2(c) is not rejected, usage of the three types of media is not as widespread as might be advocated

Using the Chi-square test, further analysis was carried out to establish whether the relationship between particular organisational characteristics and the selection of tools arises by chance or is significant This was achieved by calculating the frequencies with which organisations with different characteristics agreed or disagreed that they use particular communications tools with the levels of agreement which would have occurred if there was no significant relationship between the two variables Significant relationships were found in two areas of organisational characteristics - services vs manufacturing and size Organisations in the services industry were found to make significantly more use of letters and memos (p= 0076**), newsletters (p= 0262*) and informal open door policy (p= 0396*), and significantly less use of noticeboards than manufacturing organisations (p= 0009***) (Table 6 3)

Table 6.3   Relationship Between Organisational Sector And Selection Of Communications Tools (Chi-Square)

	Manufacturing		Services		Value	DF	Signif
	Yes	No	Yes	No			
Letters / memos	34% n=30	66% n=58	62% n=17	38% n=10	7 1267	1	p=.0076**
Newsletters	35.2% n=31	64 8% n=57	59.3% n=16	40.7% n=11	4.9376	1	p=.0262*
Open-door policy	55.7% n=49	44.3% n=39	77.7% n=21	22.3% n=6	4.2351	1	p= 0396*
Noticeboards	82.9% n=73	17.1% n=15	53.6% n=15	46 4% n=13	10.8508	1	p=.0009***

*p < 05 **p < 01 ***p < 001   n=115

Not surprisingly, the larger organisations also tend to make significantly more use of mass communications tools than their smaller counterparts (Table 6 4) As organisations increase in size, there is more of a tendency to report using newsletters (p = 0001***) and e-mail (p = 0196*) Management briefings are also significantly more in use in larger organisations (p = 0056**) The relationship between larger organisations and use of formal tools reflects the findings of Gunnigle et al (1994) who found that only three quarters of small firms in Ireland reported having formal communications mechanisms in place

181

Table 6.4   **Relationship Between Organisational Size And Selection Of Communications Tools (Chi-Square)**

	<200 people		200+ people		Value	DF	Signif
	Yes	No	Yes	No			
Newsletters	30.9% n=22	69.1% n=49	55 5% n=25	45.5% n=20	19.7630	3	p=.0001***
e-mail	15 5% n=11	84.5% n=60	33.3% n=15	66.6% n=30	9.8742	3	p=.0196*
Management briefings	67.6% n=48	32.4% n=23	88.8% n=40	11.2% n=5	12.5925	3	p=.0056**

*p< 05 **p < 01 *** p < 001

6.3   Communications Practices

The respondents were given a series of 38 statements about communications (see section D of questionnaire, Appendix B), and were asked to say to what extent they agreed that the statements reflect the methods and policies used in their own organisation   In chapter 3, a review of the literature on communicating for change describes the current views on how best to communicate for change across a number of factors (ie content of message, an open climate, choice of media, the roles of managers and opinion leaders, information flows and communications programmes) The 38 statements in section D test the extent to which the prevailing views held about these factors are practised in reality To determine how prevalent the various methods and policies are amongst this sample of Irish organisations, it was decided to analyse the frequency with which each statement received an 'agree' or 'strongly agree' scoring Table 6 5 summarises the findings

Table 6.5   **Level of Agreement with Communications Practices**

(Percentage Of Organisations Which Agree and Strongly Agree)

	Statemt	Summary of statement	%	n
1. Content	1	Staff receive information as one homogenous group	38.9%	45
	5	Most information is to reduce concerns	34.2%	39
	20	Managers explain what's to be done, not why	28.3%	33
	25	Information is specific to team / department	32.3%	37
	26	Most information relates to hard facts, not soft issues	69.7%	80
	30	Staff told of benefits of quality to themselves	70.5%	81
	33	Information covers company wide objectives	76.3%	88
	35	Managers explain why quality is important	62.7%	73
	38	Business arguments used to argue benefits	71.2%	82
2. Openness	6	Information is restricted to a need to know basis	24.2%	28
	19	All successes and failures are communicated	53.4%	61
	21	Only those involved in project have access to information	28.8%	33
	31	Anyone can check records of progress	48%	55
3. Media	2	Meetings are avoided for control	18.1%	21
	9	Staff are met in groups of less than 25	71.4%	83
	10	Quality is mostly discussed in operational meetings	83.6%	97
	16	Information is communicated in large groups	25.9%	30
	32	Face-to-face is the preferred method	74.3%	86
4. Roles	3	Intermediaries are relied on for communications	14.2%	16
	13	Senior managers won't allow message to be diluted by intermediary	26.4%	31
	14	Peer influencers are given important roles	45.3%	52
	18	On-line managers are responsible for regular communications	74.7%	86
	23	Those in authority are given a central role	61.3%	71
	24	Senior managers prefer to talk directly to staff	26%	30
	36	Middle managers encouraged to own and sell message	75.8%	88
5 Information flows **(upwards)**	4	Staff asked for input into managers decisions	47.5%	55
	11	Managers try to find out what employees think	61.8%	72
	15	Employees' input is sought on their own specific remit	69.4%	80
	17	Staff are kept informed but feedback not required	14%	16
	37	Top down communication only	32.1%	37
(lateral)	7	Staff not up to date on other functions' work	24.8%	28
	22	The communications channels reflect on-line structures	22.9%	26
	27	Considerable sharing of information between functions	58.2%	67
	29	Staff asked to input on areas outside their remit	41.8%	48
	34	Information mostly flows up and down the line	27.8%	32
6. Communications Programmes	8	Most communications is through special tools	24%	28
	12	Many communications tools have been specifically put in place	53%	61
	28	Most communications is via specific quality campaigns	8.6%	10

At this point it is useful to explore results for each of the six areas in more detail

6.3.1   Content

There is some debate in the literature (eg Bryan, 1997, Carr, 1994, D'Aprix, 1996, Spiker and Lesser, 1995a), as to whether logical business arguments or emotive arguments for change are more important In practice, this sample of organisations tended to focus more on business arguments (eg 71 2 per cent, n=82, agreed with statement 39 that their organisation tends to use business arguments), than emotive arguments Only 34 2 per cent (n=39) agreed that most information is used to reduce concerns These findings support Hypothesis 2(a) which states that organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of articulating both the logical and emotive benefits of change The literature also advocates that explanations are given as to why change is important (eg Petty and Cacioppe, 1986, Richardson and Denton, 1996) In practice, 62 7 per cent of the organisations in this sample (n=73) said they do explain why, with a minority (28 3 per cent) saying they only focus on what has to be done The literature also advocates that change should be discussed at a company wide level (eg Lee, 1997, Richardson and Denton, 1996), rather than limited to the particular function (see also 'Integration', below), and in practice, 76 3 per cent of organisations (n=88), said they do cover company wide objectives, with only 32 3 per cent (n=37) saying they focus on issues specific to the team or department However, the literature also argues that this has to be balanced with the recognition that individuals within the organisation have diverse information needs (eg Berzok, 1997, Killigen, 1997) The findings on this are not clear cut A relatively large proportion of respondents, 38 9 per cent (n=45) agreed that their organisation treats staff as one homogenous group

6.3.2   Openness

The literature advocates openness with all types of information to promote trust during change (eg Champy and Nohria, 1996, Dulye, 1993, Exterbille, 1996), although some writers do caution (eg Filipczak, 1995, Schweiger and Denisi, 1991), that there is a need to temper openness with that which is commercially confidential In practice, this sample of organisations tends to be quite cautious about openness While a minority would agree that information is restricted to a need to know basis (24 2 per cent, n=25, agreement with statement 6 and 28 8 per cent agreement, n=33, with statement 21), only around a half of the organisations agreed that in practice all types of information on the quality programme is available to anyone who wants it (48 per cent agreement,

n=55, with statement 31 and 53 4 per cent agreement, n=61, with statement 19)

These findings support Hypothesis 2(b) which states that organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of unrestricted openness with information about the change programme

6.3.3 Media

Various communications tools are described in the literature, and it is argued that management should make use of a selection of rich and lean media to support the change programme (eg Davenport and Lipton, 1993, Klein, 1994, Richardson and Denton, 1996) Face-to-face communication is the preferred method in practice (74 3 per cent agreed, or n=86, with statement 9 and only 18 per cent, or n=21, agreed that meetings are avoided - statement 2) Moreover, there is strong support in practice for small group meetings (71 4 per cent agreement, n=83, with statement 9 and only 25 9 per cent agreement, n=30, with statement 16) These findings, together with the earlier findings relating to usage of communications tools (Table 6 2), suggest that while Hypothesis 2(c) is not rejected, support for a combination of all three types of media is not wide-spread

6.3 4 Roles

The literature points to the key role of management in communicating change (eg Industrial Society, 1994, Larkin and Larkin, 1994) Some of the literature also advocates using respected local champions or influencers who may not necessarily be in a managerial role (eg Klein, 1996) Hypothesis 2(d) states that organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines in the literature whereby management are given an active role in the communicating for change process There is clear evidence to suggest that middle managers in these organisations do play a key role in communicating their quality change programmes There was 75 8 per cent agreement (n=88), with statement 36 and 74 7 per cent agreement (n=86) with statement 18, both referring to managers being given an important role, but only 26 4 per cent agreement (n=31) with statement 13, that senior management will not allow the message to be diluted by an intermediary Hypothesis 2(d) is supported However, the support for a peer influencer appeared less certain, albeit present to some extent Those in authority are given a central role in some 61 3 per cent of the organisations (n=71) and only 14 2 per cent (n=16) agreed that intermediaries are given an important role However, 45 3 percent (n=52) did agree that peer influencers are given an important role (statement 14) The discrepancy between this and only 14 2 percent agreement that intermediaries have a

185

role would suggest that there might have been some confusion with the definition of intermediaries m statement 3 The response to statement 14 suggests that non-managerial influencers are actually given a role by a significant minority Hypothesis 2(e) states that organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving non-managerial peer influencers an active role in the communicating for change process While the findings are somewhat inconsistent, they point to a significant minority of organisations giving peer influencers an active role Hypothesis 2(e) is then rejected

6.3.5 Information Flows

Upwards (Involvement)

Employee involvement is advocated in the literature as being vital for a level of commitment to change which extends beyond compliance (eg Bonvillian, 1996, D'Aprix, 1996, Nelson and Coxhead, 1997, Quirke, 1995) There is also considerable discussion surrounding what degree of involvement is required (eg Dulworth et al, 1990, Pasmore and Fagan, 1992) Hypothesis 2(f) states that organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines regarding seeking employee involvement in the change process In practice, while a minority of the sample of organisations take a very top-down approach (14 per cent agreement, n=16, with statement 17 and 32 1 per cent agreement, n=37, with statement 37), the support for involvement, while there, is not particularly strong At a relatively shallow level, upwards communications is promoted The results indicate that managers in 61 8 per cent of the organisations (n=72) try to find out what employees think and in 69 4 per cent of the orgamsations, (n=80) employees' input is sought, albeit within their direct remit and responsibility However, support for deeper and broader levels of involvement was less wide-spread In only 47 5 per cent of organisations (n=55) is staff's input sought to influence management's decisions and in only 41 8 per cent of the organisations (n=48) are employees encouraged to input on areas outside their direct remit Therefore, while shallow involvement is sought, the deeper levels of involvement advocated m the literature does not tend to be sought by this sample of organisations These findings would lend support to Hypothesis 2(f) This shallow level of involvement is indicative of Roche and Geary's (1998) survey of Irish workplaces, finding that direct employee involvement appears to be restricted to operational issues within the direct remit of employees

Lateral (Integration)

The literature approaches the concept of integration in two ways. It advocates that communications about a change programme should be integrated into daily operational activity, rather than being promoted as an add-on (eg Freeman, 1994), and it advocates that company-wide change programmes require good flows of lateral information between functions and locations to encourage an integrated effort (eg D'Aprix, 1996; Exterbille, 1996; Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998). The concept of integration into daily communications activity is discussed below. Lateral communications flows does not appear to be widely supported. While there were low levels of agreement with suggestions that organisations would set out to restrict information to vertical channels (ie 27.8 per cent agreement, n=32, with statement 34 and 22.9 per cent agreement, n=26, with statement 23), the findings would indicate that in only 58.2 per cent (n=67) of the organisations is there considerable sharing of information between functions (statement 27), and as was already seen, in only 41.8 per cent of the organisations (n=48) are staff are encouraged to input into areas beyond their remit. However, at the same time, there was a low level of agreement (24.8 per cent, n=28) that staff would not be up to date on the work of other functions on the quality change programme (statement 7). In balance, however, the findings would lend support to Hypothesis 2(g) that organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines on lateral sharing of information.

6.3.6   Communications Programmes

There has been some debate in the literature regarding whether or not organisational change communications programmes should be separately branded and run in parallel with every day management communications (eg Freemen, 1994; Haseley, 1994; Landes, 1992). A number of the statements examine this issue, including some of the statements categorised under 'role' and 'media' as well as those specifically categorised under communications programmes. Hypothesis 2(h) states that organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines advocating that communicating for change should remain within daily management activity. The general picture emerging is that these organisations did not choose to put in place specific communications campaigns to support their quality effort (eg 8.6 per cent agreement, n=10, with statement 28 and 24 per cent agreement with statement 8), choosing instead to rely on middle management (eg 74.7 per cent agreement, n=97, with statement 18) and regular operational meetings (eg 83.6 per cent agreement with statement 10). These findings would indicate that Hypothesis 2(h) can be rejected.

6.3.7   Communications Practices - Summary

The findings from this section of the questionnaire support Hypothesis 2 overall by demonstrating that the communications practices of these Q Mark organisations do not consistently reflect the practices advocated in the literature for communicating change As advocated in the literature, the organisations do make use of daily communications integrated into daily life, face to face methods and designating a key communications role for managers, while the content, as advocated in some parts of the literature, does focus on business aspects for change and addresses change at a company wide level Equally, however, there are a number of practices advocated in the literature which do not appear to be used by these organisations The organisations appear to be more cautious about being totally open than advocated in the literature and content does not tend to include emotive arguments The organisations do not appear to facilitate lateral communications and involvement (upwards communications), is restricted

These findings only provide an overview, but it is immediately apparent from the results that there were differences in responses within the sample Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communications practices for communicating change is contingent upon organisational and change variables and seven specific hypotheses (H4(a) to H4(g)), identify different organisational and change variables which, it is hypothesised, will impact the selection of communications approach To determine whether or not there are, first of all, particular types of organisations which do not follow the overall trend, it was decided to examine the relationship between various organisational and employee variables with the statements to see if any patterns emerge

6.4   Difference in Usage of Communications Practices By Organisational and Employee Type

Using the Chi-square test, the extent to which organisations' agreement with the 38 statements relating to communications practices is down to organisational or employee characteristics, rather than to chance, was examined Hypothesis 4(d) states that organisations will select different approaches to communicating for change according to the profile of the majority of employees within those organisations The educational and age profile of the employees were found to be related to the extent to which there was agreement with a small number of the communications practices However, gender was not found to be significantly related to choice of communications approach

The age profile of employees was found to have a significant relationship with two aspects of communicating for change (see Table 6 6) The organisations with a majority of employees under 35 years of age tended to ask their employees for input in areas other than their own remit, significantly more than the organisations with a majority of employees over 35 years of age These organisations also tended to encourage communication in small groups significantly more than their counterparts These two areas point to organisations with younger employees being more open to discussion and input than their counterparts The literature does not specifically identify age as being directly related to communications methods, although both Crosson (1987) and Vander Houwen (1998) have remarked on younger, more educated workforces being more demanding in terms of wanting to participate in business decisions and being kept up to speed

Table 6.6   Relationship Between Age of Employees And Presence of Communications Practices (Chi-Square)

Statement No	Statement	Level of agreement		Value	DF	Signif.
		<35 yrs	35 yrs +			
29	Employees are often asked to input on quality issues which affect areas other than their specific department / team	56% n=77	29.1% n=15	8.6508	2	p = 0132*
16	Information about the quality initiative is usually communicated to employees in large groups via mass meetings, newsletters etc	36% n=24	26.5% n=14	6 1678	2	p = .0458*

*p< 05   **p < 01   *** p < 001

Educational attainment of employees was also found to have a significant relationship with the extent to which it is agreed that their employers use more open communication methods (see Table 6 7) Table 6 7 demonstrates that 100 per cent of organisations with a majority of staff with post school qualifications agreed that there is sharing of information between functions, with only 55 7 per cent of their counterparts (n=58) agreeing on that score However, this finding should be viewed with some caution as the actual numbers of organisations with the majority of employees holding post-Leaving Certificate qualifications was very small in comparison with the rest of the sample (only 12 organisations)

189

Table 6.7 **Relationship Between Employees' Educational Profile**

and Presence Of Communications Practices

(Chi-Square)

Statement	Statement	Level of agreement		Value	DF	Signif.
		School level or no qualification	Post school qualification			
27	There is considerable sharing between functions of information about the quality initiative	55.7% n=58	100% n=12	13.3445	6	*p* = .0378*

*p< .05 **p < .01 *** p < .001*

The findings on the relationship between educational and age profile of employees and the selection of communications approaches both support Hypothesis 4(d).

Hypothesis 4(g) states that organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to their country of ownership. Using the Chi-square test, country of ownership was found to have a significant relationship with the extent to which it was agreed that different communications practices were selected. (see Table 6.8). Subsidiaries of foreign owned MNCs tended to agree that they encourage open access of information much more than their Irish owned counterparts (73.2 per cent agreement, n=42, by foreign owned organisations to statement 31 in contrast with 49.1 per cent agreement, n=28, by Irish owned). They also agreed more that they make use of special communications tools to support quality and make use of their management team to sell the quality message (61.4 per cent agreement by foreign-owned organisations, n=35, in contrast with 44.6 per cent agreement, n=25, by the Irish owned to statement 12). In addition, foreign owned subsidiaries tended to encourage explanation of why decisions have to be made more than their Irish owned counterparts (71.9 per cent of foreign owned organisations, n=41, agreed with statement 35, in contrast with 54.3 per cent of Irish owned organisations, n=31). While it might be suggested that foreign owned organisations could have more access to financial resources to put in place tools and methods, nevertheless, practices such as openness, using managers as communicators and explaining why change is necessary do not necessarily require a financial commitment (excluding the cost of training managers as communicators). It appears that the approach taken by foreign owned organisations is generally more in line with that advocated in the literature than the Irish owned organisations (eg Champy and Nohria, 1996; Larkin and Larkin, 1994; Richardson and Denton, 1996), supporting Hypothesis 4(g).

190

Table 6.8   Relationship Between Origin Of Country Of The Organisation
And Presence Of Communications Practices
(Chi-Square)

No.	Statement	Level of agreement		Value	DF	Signif.
		Irish	Foreign			
35	Management regularly explains why it is important to carry out the quality initiative	54.3% n=31	71.4% n=41	12.2588	4	$p = .0155$*
36	Middle managers are encouraged to "own" and be seen to be communicating the quality message to employees	71.9% n=41	82.1% n=46	12.2205	4	$p = .0158$*
21	Only those directly involved in a particular quality project or initiative have access to data on that particular project	29.8% n=17	12.5% n=7	12.0289	4	$p = .0171$*
31	Anyone can check records to see how well any aspect of the quality initiative is working	49.1% n=28	73.2% n=42	10.2389	4	$p = .0366$*
12	Many communications tools have been specially put in place to communicate the quality initiative	44.6% n=25	61.4% n=35	9.6365	4	$p = .0470$*

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

These findings support those of Gunnigle et al (1994), who found a higher level of formal employee communications resourcing and structures in MNCs (particularly US and Japanese), than Irish owned organisations. By their very nature, MNCs based in Ireland will tend to be large organisations, no matter the size of the Irish subsidiary. The Irish subsidiary may thus be supported by a framework of communications policies and investment in communications methods that the indigenous Irish organisations may not enjoy to the same extent. In addition, Irish organisations have, according to Gunnigle et al (1994), a history of equating communications with formal negotiations and communications with staff unions and representatives. Up until recently, this would have taken up most of the energy and investment of Irish owned organisations' internal communications structures.

Hypothesis 4(b) states that organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the sector they are in. This was supported by the findings for the approaches taken by each of the manufacturing and services organisations, (Table 6.9), but it should be recalled when looking at these results that there were considerably fewer organisations in services (24 per cent), than in manufacturing (76

191

per cent), which could lead to more 'extreme' scores for services Employee involvement in areas beyond their direct remit (statement 29), is sought in 69 2 per cent of services organisations (n=19) and information is restricted to employees directly affected in only 15 3 per cent of the services organisations (n=4) in contrast with 34 8 per cent of the manufacturing operations (n=30) These reflect Horwitz and Neville's (1996) argument, based on earlier work by Woodward in the 1960s, that employees in those organisations which provide a predictable product offer (often manufacturing), do not require as much broad information or flexibility as employees from organisations which provide unpredictable products or services In a similar vein, the services organisations take a different approach to seeking the views of employees than those in manufacturing While 85 2 per cent of respondents in services organisations (n=24) agreed that their organisation regularly tries to find out their employees' views about aspects of the quality initiative, only 54 5 per cent of those in manufacturing (n=48) concurred (statement 11) Of particular interest, however, are the responses to Statement 5 Significantly more respondents from the manufacturing organisations (38 6 per cent, n=34), than services (23 per cent agreement, n=6), agreed that most information is aimed at addressing concerns This is surprising, given that generally the views of employees in services seem to be held in higher esteem

Table 6 9   Relationship Between Presence Of Communications   Practices

And Organisations In Services Or Manufacturing

(Chi-Square)

No.	Statement	Level of agreement		Value	DF	Signif
		Manuf	Services			
11	The organisation regularly tries to find out what employees think about various aspects of the quality initiative	54.5% n=48	85.2% n=24	8.3698	2	$p = 0152^*$
29	Employees are often asked to input on quality issues which affect areas other than their own specific departments	38.6% n=34	69.2% n=19	8.2537	2	$p = 0161^*$
5	Most information communicated to employees about the quality initiative is aimed at reducing concerns about the initiative	38.6% n=34	23% n=6	6.9759	2	$p = 0305^*$
25	Information communicated to each employee about the quality initiative focuses on issues directly relevant to the employee's team / department and not on the organisation as a whole	34.8% n=30	15.3% n=4	6.2144	2	$p = 0447^*$

$^*p< 05$ $^{**}p < 01$ $^{***}p < 001$

The final area in which significant relationships emerged is in relation to union presence (See Table 6 10) Hypothesis 4(e) states that organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to whether or not the organisation is unionised, and this has also been found to be the case Significantly more of organisations without a union (77 7 per cent, n=14), agree that they are anxious to find out what employees think about the quality initiative, contrasting with 57 8 per cent of organisations (n=56) with a union in place However, these results should be viewed with some caution again, as the smaller sample of organisations without a union (18 in total), may have influenced the results Nonetheless, Gunnigle et al (1994) had found a similar pattern whereby unionised organisations rely on the more traditional collective bargaining approach and tend to rely less on direct manager / employee communications than their non-union counterparts Non-union organisations were found to be significantly less likely to agree that they use meetings to communicate their quality change initiative (33 2 per cent, n=6, in contrast with 15 9 per cent of unionised organisations, n=15) In addition, a significantly less percentage of non-umon organisations (61 1 per cent) agreed that logical business arguments are used to

explain the benefits of the quality change initiative than their unionised counterparts (in contrast with 73.1 per cent unionised, n=71).

Table 6.10   Relationship Between Presence Of Communications Practices And Presence Of Union (Chi-Square)

No	Statement	Level of agreement		Value	DF	Signif.
		Non-union	Union			
2	The organisation does not rely on meetings to communicate the quality initiative because they are difficult to control	33.2% n=6	15.9% n=15	22.621	6	$p = .0009$***
38	Management regularly uses logical business arguments to persuade employees of the benefits of the quality initiative.	61.1% n=11	73.1% n=71	21.061	6	$p = .0018$**
11	The organisation regularly tries to find out what employees think about various aspects of the quality initiative.	77.7% n=14	57.8% n=56	16.191	6	$p = .0127$*

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

Hypothesis 4(f) also states that organisations select to use different approaches to communicating for change according to whether or not a recent redundancy programme has taken place. Despite the total sample being clearly differentiated according to whether or not a redundancy programme has recently taken place (65 organisations had, 51 had not), there was no evidence to suggest that one type of organisation is more likely to agree that they select various approaches to communicating for change ahead of the other. Hypothesis 4(f) is therefore rejected.

6.5   Summary

Hypothesis 2 states that those organisations which attain the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature. The findings indicate that this sample of organisations makes use of a wide variety of communications practices. However, a comparison of these results with the literature demonstrates that many practices for communicating change advocated in the literature are not actually used in reality, supporting Hypothesis 2. The organisations do practise what is advocated in terms of face-to-face methods, utilising middle management as communicators, providing strong business arguments for change and explaining why the change initiative is important. However, employee involvement appears to be

restricted to a relatively shallow level, information flows between functions is not as wide-spread as advocated in the literature and there is an ambivalent approach to the use of influencers other than managers and to unrestricted access and openness In addition, the growing argument in the literature for emotive communications content to reduce fears does not happen to any great extent in practice These findings support hypotheses 2(a), (b), (c), (f) and (g) in particular

A comparison of practices used by different organisations also reveals a number of interesting patterns Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communicating for change practices is related to organisational and change variables and by examining the levels of agreement with different communications practices according to organisational variables, the first part of the hypothesis is supported Specifically, Hypotheses 4(b), (c), (d), (e) and (g) were supported, whereby organisations were more likely to agree that they select various communicating for change practices according to sector, employee profile, presence of union, size and structures and country of ownership than on the basis of chance There is greater use of practices advocated in the literature amongst organisations in the services sector, in foreign owned organisations, in non-union organisations, in organisations with younger employees and where employees hold higher levels of educational qualifications However, Hypothesis 4(f) was not supported That is, organisations with or without a redundancy programme having taken place did not tend to have a particular relationship with any type of communications practice that would not have occurred by chance

Overall, the findings demonstrate that the universal guidelines advocated in the literature are not adhered to in practice In chapter 3, it was noted that the literature tends to list series of communications practices with no attempt to conceptualise the key principles for communicating for change Having explored the practices which this sample of 116 quality organisations adhere to, it is useful to see whether or not these practices can be brought together into a framework in which the key principles of communicating for change can be identified Chapters 7 and 8 deal with this issue

CHAPTER 7 THE KEY PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATIONS IN A QUALITY CONTEXT. QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

7.1   Introduction

In the previous chapter, it was found that not all the communications practices advocated in the literature for communicating change are used by the organisations in this study It was decided to investigate whether or not it is possible to construct a model which provides a conceptualisation of the key communications principles for change This was achieved through factor analysis

Factor analysis is a technique used to reduce data in such a way that clusters or patterns can be identified The 38 statements in Section D of the questionnaire were tested, from which 12 factors emerged These factors, together with areas of interest emerging from the literature, were further explored by carrying out factor analysis (principal components analysis), on clusters of applicable statements

This chapter covers the findings which emerged from the more promising factor analyses and then focuses on the most interesting findings which make up a model of key principles of communications similar to Plant's (1987) quadrant of organisational profiles The chapter then explores the extent to which different types of organisations use these key principles of communications

7.2   Exploring The Data For Emerging Factors

Factor analysis was carried out on the 38 statements in Section D of the questionnaire The purpose of this analysis was to determine what factors emerge with an eigenvalue of 1 or over In all, 12 components were extracted, including a number of themes which would not be advocated for communicating for change in the literature Table 7 1 summarises those statements with loadings of 3 or more for each of the 12 factors and puts forward a description, based on the themes coming through from the clusters of statements as to what each factor might represent Kline (1994) writes that it is usual to regard loadings of 3 or more as moderately high and that for samples of at least 100 subjects, loadings of 3 or larger can be regarded as significant

Key patterns coming through the factor analysis include groups of organisations being differentiated by the direction of information flows (factors 3,5,6,10), the extent to which information is restricted or made available (factors 4,8,9,11), the role of management (Factors 2,4,12), and the communications style (factors 1,2) There are limitations with this preliminary analysis Some of the statements load on more than one factor and some 12 components have been extracted from only 38 statements However, this does provide a useful starting point from which themes coming through can be further explored

Table 7.1   Factor Analysis Of The 38 Statements In Section D (Principal Components Analysis)

Factor (and description)	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Statements with loading of > .3 or <-.3	Loading scores
No. 1 Participative communications style	7.414	19.52	Statement 4	.548
			Statement 6	- 451
			Statement 11	704
			Statement 13	.507
			Statement 15	.560
			Statement 17	-.498
			Statement 19	.600
			Statement 21	-.487
			Statement 29	636
			Statement 30	639
			Statement 36	705
No. 2 Authoritarian communications style	3.025	7 96	Statement 1	.386
			Statement 18	.473
			Statement 23	650
			Statement 26	.496
			Statement 38	.609
No. 3 Information flowing 'out' from the centre	2.275	5 98	Statement 1	.400
			Statement 23	708
			Statement 17	.402
			Statement 28	.533
			Statement 32	-.309
No. 4 Managerial control of the communications process	2.086	5 48	Statement 13	551
			Statement 14	- 415
			Statement 24	340
			Statement 32	.533
No 5 Employee contribution	1.860	4 89	Statement 4	541
			Statement 11	319
			Statement 17	- 320
			Statement 22	.338
No 6 Two-way communications	1 665	4.38	Statement 9	.436
			Statement 11	.574
			Statement 32	.388
			Statement 34	633

<u>**Table 7 1 ctd.**</u>   <u>**Factor Analysis Of The 38 Statements In Section D**</u>
<u>**(Principal Components Analysis)**</u>

No. 7 Face-to-face communications	1.529	4.03	Statement 10	.356
			Statement 16	-.341
			Statement 28	- 300
			Statement 32	321
No. 8 Tight control of the message	1 441	3.79	Statement 9	.366
			Statement 21	.350
			Statement 22	.314
			Statement 32	-.372
No. 9 Openness with information	1.317	3.46	Statement 7	- 416
			Statement 19	.328
			Statement 25	-.357
			Statement 31	.310
No. 10 Vertical information flows	1 196	3.14	Statement 22	.318
			Statement 27	-.420
			Statement 37	.318
No. 11 Restriction of information	1.131	2.98	Statement 17	.318
			Statement 19	-.491
			Statement 21	321
			Statement 25	.376
No. 12 Middle management play a daily communications role	1.054	2.77	Statement 8	-.386
			Statement 18	.349
			Statement 32	318
			Statement 36	.375

Eight of the twelve factors which emerged from this analysis were selected as a starting point for further analysis These were, No 1 participative communications style, No 3 information flowing out from the centre, No 4 managerial control of the communications process, No 5 employee contribution, No 6 two way communications, No 7 face-to-face communications, No 9 openness with information and No 12 middle management playing an active daily communications role It is recognised that factors 7, 9, and 12 each accounted for small percentages of the variance (4 02 per cent, 3 46 per cent and 2 77 per cent respectively), and that the loading of statements on each factor, while significant according to Kline (1994), are only considered to be moderately high However, it was decided to retain each of the three factors as a starting point for further analysis because the concepts represented by the three factors are strongly advocated in the literature as being key to communicating for change It was deemed inappropriate to exclude these concepts at an early exploratory phase, particularly given that other combinations of statements representing these or similar nuances may evoke stronger factor loadings The other four factors (Nos 2, 8, 10, 11), were excluded on the basis that they would not represent good practice communicating for change, according to the literature

At this point in the analysis the researcher was faced with two options The first option was to work only with the eight concepts which emerged from the factor analysis The second option was to add more concepts to the eight for further analysis to ensure that key themes have not been excluded at this early stage of exploration Marsh (1982 84) writes that it is appropriate for sociologists to bring in additional variables at this stage and 'gradually elaborate the relationships by rejecting and including variables one at a time' She argues that it is inevitable that new ideas will strike a chord during the analytical phase and to ignore them by sticking rigidly to the original combination of variables can produce sterile relationships For example, these 'new ideas' can emerge from re-reading the literature in the light of initial findings or from respondents supplying a new interpretation of events which might not have been identified at the start It was decided, therefore, to bring in additional concepts for testing by returning to the literature and identifying the themes put forward by the literature as being central for communicating for change (eg articulating a company-wide vision, combination of rich and lean media, peer influence, lateral communications etc) In total, taking the eight concepts which emerged from the first factor analysis and an additional twelve concepts emerging from the literature, a list of twenty areas were put forward for further analysis, using factor analysis A summary of these 20 areas (categorised under the six key concepts of content, openness, media, roles, information flows and communications programmes), is provided in Table 7 2 below Clusters of statements which apply to the 20 areas were analysed to determine whether or not factors emerge

Table 7.2   20 Areas Of Communications And Organisational Change Explored Through Factor Analysis. (Principal Components Analysis)

	Areas Explored	Statements	Examples of Literature Refs
	Content		
1	Content should be tailored to individual needs	1, 9, 15, 25, 30	D'Aprix (1996), Schaffer (1997)
2	A company-wide vision should be articulated	1, 25, 33	Francis (1987)
3	Employees should be informed of progress	10, 17, 19, 27, 31	Blake (1992), Bryan (1997), Grates (1994)
4	The business case for change should be given	20, 26, 33, 35, 38	Blake (1992), D'Aprix (1996) , Petty and Cacioppe (1986)
5	Employees need to see how change benefits them personally	5, 25, 26, 30, 35	Berzok (1997), Nelson and Coxhead (1997) Spiker and Lesser (1995a)
6	Successes should be publicised	12, 19, 30	Bray (1997), Exterbille (1996)
	Openness		
7	Openness with information is key	6, 7, 15, 19, 21, 25, 27, 29, 31, 33, 34	Caldwell (1994), Dulye (1993), Smeltzer (1991)
8	A participative communications climate is key	2, 4, 5, 11, 15, 17, 20, 26, 28, 30, 32, 35, 37, 38	Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998), Hyman and Mason (1996)
	Media		
9	Face to face communications is key	2, 10, 11, 17, 24, 32	Davenport and Lipton (1993), Klein (1994)
10	'Narrow-cast' media is important for the tailored message	9, 16, 25	Foehrenbach and Goldfarb (1990)
11	A combination of rich and lean media is key	9, 10, 16, 28, 32	Dulye (1993), Richardson and Denton (1996)
	Roles		
12	Peer influence is key	3, 14, 18	Schein (1980), Siebold and Meyers (1996)
13	Top management should visibly 'own' the communications process	3, 6, 13, 14, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 31, 36	Beer et al (1990), Gundogan et al (1996)
14	Management can use authority to be persuasive about change	3, 18, 22, 23, 32, 36	Grunig (1992), Miller (1987)
15	Middle management should play an active daily communications role	18, 22, 23, 34, 36	Larkin and Larkin (1994)

Table 7.2 ctd

	Information Flows		
16	Communications must be two-way	2, 9, 10, 11, 15, 32	Bonvillian (1996), Klein (1996)
17	Employee contribution should be 'deep' rather than 'shallow'	4, 7, 11, 15, 29, 34	Cotton et al (1988), Lawler et al (1995)
18	Information should continuously flow 'out' from the centre	1, 16, 17, 19, 28, 37	Brandon (1996), Francis (1987)
19	Lateral communications is key	7, 27, 29, 34, 37	Exterbille (1996), Lee (1997)
	Communications Programmes		
20	Special programmes can help the communications process	2, 8, 10, 12, 28, 32	Cole and Pace (1991), McGrath and Geaney (1998)

In fifteen of the areas, clear factors did not emerge. However, factors did emerge in five of the areas: area 20, the concept of parallel vs on-line communications; area 14, the concept of persuasiveness being related to management status; area 7, the concept of openness; area 13, the role of senior management and area 8, the concept of directive vs participative communications.

7.2.1   Parallel Vs On-Line Communications

Several writers argue that treating change as a separate communications programme can result in failure (eg Freeman, 1994; Landes, 1992; Recardo, 1994; Smilansky, 1993). Their argument is that such programmes become flavour of the month and do not become truly integrated into the organisation's day-to-day operations. Six statements were selected to determine whether this sample of organisations could be differentiated by the extent to which communications runs parallel to daily operations as opposed to being integrated into daily operations. Statements 12 and 8 were selected to represent special 'parallel' communications programmes; statements 28 and 2 were selected to represent specially prepared communications tools which might be used in 'parallel' communications, and statements 10 and 32 were selected to represent on-line regular meetings such as might be found in daily operational communications.

Table 7.3 :   Selection Of Statements To Test 'Parallel vs On-Line' Communications

Statement	Communications Practices
12	Many communications tools have been specially put in place to communicate the quality initiative (eg quality newsletter, Q-circles)
10	Quality is always discussed during regular operational meetings
8	Most communications about the quality initiative happens outside of day to day operations in specially developed 'quality campaigns'
32	Face-to-face meetings, briefings or informal discussions are the preferred means of communicating the quality initiative
28	Most information about the quality initiative is delivered through prepared communications 'tools' such as news-sheets, videos etc.
2	The organisation does not rely on meetings to communicate the quality initiative because they are difficult to control

Three factors were extracted with an eigenvalue of more than 1, each relating to a slightly different pattern Factor 1, the strongest of the three, (eigenvalue of 1 5626) correlated with three of the statements 12, 28 and 2, each supporting the concept of specially prepared communications tools However, a clear pattern did not emerge out of the six statements suggesting that the organisations in the sample are not clearly differentiated by the extent to which they use specific communications tools

Table 7 4   Factor Analysis Results : Parallel vs On-Line Communications

Factor (and description)	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Statements with loading of > 3 or <-.3	Loading scores
Factor 1 Special communications tools	1.562	24.61	Statement 2 Statement 12 Statement 28	.387 492 486
Factor 2 Usage of meetings	1.372	12.73	Statement 2 Statement 32	-.411 513
Factor 3 Daily communications activity	1.143	6.14	Statement 8 Statement 10 Statement 12	-.506 .433 - 379

7.2.2   Management Status /Authority

The literature on persuasion debates what it is that makes a source of information credible Grunig (1992) and Miller (1987) note that persuasiveness can be related to authority and power, both vested in those in management positions Related to this, writers on organisational communications (eg Folz, 1985, Larkin and Larkin, 1994, Sinickas, 1994), stress the importance of middle management and supervisors being given a central role in the communications process

The findings from the first stage of analysis of the 38 statements (see Table 6 5), indicate that middle management is given an important role in communicating the quality initiative, but that influencers who do not hold a management position are not necessarily given a role The role of management in communications also emerged in two of the twelve factors in the initial factor analysis of the 38 statements (areas 4 and 12 in Table 7 1), although the loadings for area 12 - 'middle management play a daily communications role', were only moderately high

Six statements were selected (see Table 7 5) to see if a communications factor such as management status or authority exists amongst this sample Five of the statements relate directly to management channels Statement 32, a statement on face-to-face communications, was selected because it is likely that the meetings or briefings referred to in the statement would be run by management

Table 7.5 :   Selection Of Statements to Test 'Management Status / Authority'.

Statement	Communications Practices
3	Senior management relies on intermediaries (eg managers / shop stewards) to communicate with employees about the quality initiative
36	Middle managers are encouraged to 'own' and be seen to be communicating the quality message to employees
22	The communications channels for the quality initiative always reflect on-line reporting structures
18	On-line managers are responsible for regular communications about the quality initiative
23	Those in positions of authority are usually given the central role in communicating about quality
32	Face-to-face meetings, briefings or informal discussions are the preferred means of communicating the quality initiative

Two factors emerged (with an eigenvalue of more than 1)   Factor 1 (statements 36, 22, 18 and 23), with an eigenvalue of 1 6632, appears to support the concept of management's role in communications Factor 2 (statements 3, 36 and 32, with 36 and 32 negatively correlating), with an eigenvalue of 1 3343, appears to relate to organisations which do not necessarily rely on management However, given the level of overlap between the six statements, it is not possible to say that a clear pattern emerges from the data The sample of organisations was not differentiated by the extent to which the authority for communications is vested in management

204

Table 7.6   Factor Analysis Results : Management Status / Authority

Factor (and description)	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Statements with loading of > .3 or <-.3	Loading scores
Factor 1 **Role for management**	1.663	18.6	Statement 18 Statement 22 Statement 23 Statement 36	.494 .375 .551 .530
Factor 2 **No role for management**	1.334	11.3	Statement 3 Statement 32 Statement 36	517 -.346 -.613

7.2.3   Open vs Restricted Communications

Openness and transparency are widely referred to in the literature (eg Caldwell, 1994, Dulye, 1993, Grunig, 1992, Klein, 1994, Smeltzer, 1991, Wilkinson, 1989), as being key elements of successful organisational communications In contrast, restricting information is generally perceived to be an example of poor communications, although Filipczak (1995) suggests that in certain cases, such as information overload, or where organisational politics demand it, restricting information is a necessary reality The findings from the first stage of analysis of the 38 statements (Frequencies analysis, see Table 6 5), indicated that openness with information is not practised as much by these organisations as advocated in the literature and while there was some levels of top-down and bottom-up information flows, lateral information flows were restricted The concept of openness with information also emerged from the initial factor analysis of the 38 statements (Table 7 1)

Eleven statements were selected to see if this sample of organisations was differentiated by the extent to which they embrace open communications or restrict communications flows The statements relating to open structures, lateral information flows and general information were considered to reflect 'openness / sharing of information', while the statements relating to restricted structures, vertical information flows and specific information were selected to represent 'restricted' communications

Table 7.7 :   Selection Of Statements To Test 'Open vs Restricted' Communications.

Statement	Communications Practices
19	The organisation communicates all successes and all failures with everyone
6	Information compiled on quality in the organisation is restricted on a 'need to know' basis
31	Anyone in the organisation can check records to see how well any aspect of the quality initiative is working
21	Only those directly involved in a particular quality project or initiative have access to data on that particular project
34	Communications about quality mostly flows up or down a management line and not across functions
27	There is considerable sharing between functions of information about the quality initiative
7	Employees in one function would not be well informed about what other functions are doing with regard to the quality initiative
15	Employees' opinions are regularly sought on what has to be done in their specific area to achieve the organisation's quality objectives
25	Information communicated to each employee about the quality initiative focuses on issues directly relevant to the employee's team / department and not on the organisation as a whole
29	Employees are often asked to input on quality issues which affect areas other than their own specific department / team
33	Information communicated to employees about the quality initiative covers company-wide objectives and performance

Three factors were extracted with an eigenvalue of more than 1. (Table 7.8). Factor 1 (statements 31, 15, 29, 27, 25 (negative correlation), with an eigenvalue of 4.1063, appears to relate to openness / sharing of information. Factor 2 (statements 6, 21, 7, 33(negative correlation)), with an eigenvalue of 1.709, appears to describe restriction of information. A third factor also emerged (statements 34, 19 (negative correlation), 25, 27) with an eigenvalue of 1.0413. This factor appears to also relate to restricting information, but with more emphasis on keeping information to within functional hierarchies, that is vertical communications, rather than on general restrictions. While

there was limited overlap between the three factors (eg statement 27), three factors emerging from eleven statements would suggest that the organisations in the sample are not clearly differentiated by being either open or restricted in their approach to communications

Table 7.8   Factor Analysis Results : Open vs Restricted Communications

Factor (and description)	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Statements with loading of > .3 or <-.3	Loading scores
Factor 1 General sharing of information	4.106	38.2	Statement 15 Statement 25 Statement 27 Statement 29 Statement 31	.351 -.386 .643 .538 .488
Factor 2 General restriction of information	1.709	16.4	Statement 6 Statement 7 Statement 21 Statement 33	.519 .434 .612 -.462
Factor 3 Vertical communications	1.0413	9.4	Statement 19 Statement 25 Statement 27 Statement 34	-.335 .387 -.512 .661

7.2.4   Role Of Senior Management vs Middle Management

The role of senior management and middle management with regard to communications is debated in the literature Both are considered to play an important role in communications with staff, but with different results Pincus (1986) writes that senior management communication has been found to correlate with job satisfaction, but not particularly with job performance A number of writers (eg Foehrenbach and Goldfarb 1990, Klein 1996 and Larkin and Larkin 1994), also claim that supervisors and middle management should play a vital role in the communications process

Twelve statements were selected to see whether there was any connection between restricting of information and top management control of that information, or indeed if an opposing connection emerges, that is, middle management control of communications restricts information flows

207

Table 7.9 :   Selection of Statements To Test Role Of Senior Management vs Middle Management In Communications

Statement	Communications Practices
14	Those who carry influence with their peers are regularly given important roles in communicating the quality initiative
18	On-line managers are responsible for regular communications about the quality initiative
22	The communications channels for the quality initiative always reflect on-line reporting structures
23	Those in positions of authority are usually given the central role in communicating about quality
13	Senior management does not like to rely on 'middle men' (eg managers / supervisors) to communicate about the quality initiative, as control of the message can be diluted
3	Senior management relies on intermediaries (eg managers / shop stewards) to communicate with employees about the quality initiative
36	Middle managers are encouraged to 'own' and be seen to be communicating the quality message to employees
24	Senior management likes to talk directly to staff about quality, rather than relying on middle management to communicate the quality message
19	The organisation communicates all successes and all failures with everyone
21	Only those directly involved in a particular quality project or initiative have access to data on that particular project
31	Anyone in the organisation can check records to see how well any aspect of the quality initiative is working
6	Information compiled on quality in the organisation is restricted on a 'need to know' basis

Four factors were found Factor 1 (statements 18, 36, 19, 21(negative correlation), and 31), appeared to be equating openness with using middle management as intermediaries, or delegating out the communications function Factor 2 (statements 13, 3 (negative correlation), 24) appeared to relate to a different concept top management retaining full control over the communications Factors 3 and 4 appeared to relate to on-line management having responsibility for communications vs influential peers having a responsibility While no strong factor emerged, an interesting dimension did

arise middle management participation in the communications appeared to be equated with openness in this sample of organisations

Table 7.10   Factor Analysis Results : Role Of Senior Management /
              Middle Management

Factor (and description)	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Statements with loading of > .3 or <-.3	Loading scores
Factor 1 Middle management role encourages openness	2.738	18.6	Statement 18 Statement 19 Statement 21 Statement 31 Statement 36	534 .710 -.637 .491 .443
Factor 2 Top management controlling communications	2.013	13.4	Statement 3 Statement 13 Statement 24	-.381 .612 .411
Factor 3 Management retain responsibility	1.643	7 3	Statement 14 Statement 22 Statement 36	-.524 .448 .372
Factor 4 Management retain responsibility	1.198	6.1	Statement 14 Statement 23 Statement 24	- 382 .514 .316

7 2.5   Directive vs Participative Communications

According to the literature, to achieve lasting commitment to change, employees need to have both their hearts and minds converted to the change For example, Hyman and Mason (1996) suggest that there is increased chance of employees buying into a change in which they have played a part in creating Miller (1987) and Petty and Cacioppe (1986) indicate that a change of behaviour on its own is not lasting and that a change of attitudes needs to be based on logical (cognitive) and emotive (affective) arguments The strongest factor emerging from the initial factor analysis of the 38 statements relates to the concept of a participative communications style (Table 7 1), involving 11 statements

In total 14 statements were selected to see if a trend emerges whereby there is a connection between using participative communications structures and emotive information content, or alternatively a connection between using directive (one-way) communications flows and mechanisms and selecting to communicate only content aimed at logical rather than emotive arguments (See Table 7 11)

209

Table 7.11 · Selection Of Statements To Test Directive / Participative Communications

Statement	Communications Practices
2	The organisation does not rely on meetings to communicate the quality initiative because they are difficult to control
28	Most information about the quality initiative is delivered through prepared communications 'tools' such as news-sheets, videos etc
32	Face-to-face meetings, briefings or informal discussions are the preferred means of communicating the quality initiative
4	Before management decisions are made about the quality initiative, employees are regularly asked for their input
17	Management keeps employees informed about the quality initiative but does not require any feedback
15	Employees opinions are regularly sought on what has to be done in their specific area to achieve the organisation's quality objectives
37	Information about the quality initiative is usually communicated in one direction - from management to employees
5	Most information communicated to employees about the quality initiative is aimed at reducing concerns about the initiative
26	Information flowing between management and employees about the quality initiative revolves much more around hard facts than 'soft' personal issues
38	Management regularly uses logical business arguments (eg profitability / competitiveness) to persuade employees of the benefits of the quality initiative
35	Management regularly explains why it is important to carry out the quality initiative
20	Management is more concerned with explaining what has to be done to achieve quality than why quality is important
11	The organisation regularly tries to find out what employees think about various aspects of the quality initiative
30	Employees are regularly told of the positive impact of the quality initiative on their jobs (eg more interesting / job security etc)

Five factors were found, Factor 1 having by far the strongest eigenvalue (3.6581), and number of correlations. Factor 1 (statements 17, 37, 38, 32 and 15 (both correlating negatively)), appeared to describe top-down, directive communications which concentrates on logical cognitive arguments rather than employees emotive concerns. Factor 2 (statements 4, 5 15), on the other hand, related more to emotive and participative communications, where employees' input is sought and information is aimed at reducing concerns. Factors 3,4 and 5 tended to overlap with the first two dimensions.

Table 7.12   Factor Analysis Results : Directive / Participative
                  Communications

Factor (and description)	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Statements with loading of > .3 or <-.3	Loading scores
Factor 1 Directive and logical communications	3.658	32.3	Statement 15	-.633
			Statement 17	.516
			Statement 32	-.447
			Statement 37	.325
			Statement 38	.471
Factor 2 Participative and emotive communications	1.846	12.6	Statement 4	.513
			Statement 5	.628
			Statement 15	.432
Factor 3 Participative communications	1.321	8.3	Statement 4	.329
			Statement 11	.349
			Statement 32	.406
			Statement 37	-.508
Factor 4 Directive communications	1.093	6.1	Statement 4	-.622
			Statement 17	.553
			Statement 20	.392
			Statement 37	.346
Factor 5 Logical communications	1.041	4.9	Statement 5	-.361
			Statement 38	.443

7.2.6   Exploring The Data For Emerging Factors - Summary

Some twenty communications concepts were examined through factor analysis, but in only five cases did factors emerge. However, none of these initial factor analyses revealed clear cut factors differentiating one set of organisations in the sample from another, although a number of interesting patterns did emerge:
* Some level of distinction between everyday communications and special campaigns or tools
* Some level of distinction between open sharing of information and restriction of information. Restricting information can be related to restricting access to

information, or to constraining flows vertically within hierarchies

* Some level of distinction between centrally controlling information (thereby restricting it), and delegating the communications role to others (thereby opening it up)

* Some level of distinction between directing employees on what needs to be done and relying on logical arguments to do so, or seeking employees' input and encouraging discussion on emotive, less logical reactions to change.

Two common themes emerge from these factors. The first theme suggests that a number of organisations in this sample appear to follow either a directive or autocratic approach to communications while other organisations appear to take a 'softer', participative approach to communications. The second theme appears to relate to open access vs restricted access to communications. To develop a better understanding of these emerging themes, it was decided to select communications statements which would relate to the two themes and to carry out factor analysis to establish whether or not strong factors emerge in these areas.

It will be noted that these two themes are resonant of the two common patterns which emerged in chapter 1.5.3.(ii), from an analysis of organisational features put forward in the literature as being effective for change. The first pattern relates to employees being involved and empowered in the change programme (the humanist argument), and the second relates to open sharing of information to support integration of effort (integration). In particular, the two themes relate to the organisational types identified by Plant (1987) and two of the three organisational features identified more recently by Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998). Ghoshal and Bartlett, for example, write that organisations which successfully transform tend to be focused on employees as individuals with a full range of talents and experiences which should be tapped into (the first theme), and tend to link pockets of organisational learning through openness and horizontal flows of information (the second theme). They also identified devolvement of control as the third feature.

Chapter 1.5.3.(iii) describes in some detail the work of Plant (1987), which was based on Lievegoed's (1973) theory of developing organisations, Thompson's (1967) theory of organisational interdependence and Blake et al's (1966) theory on the development of organisations from entrepreneurial to dynamic organisations (see Figure 7.1). It will be recalled that Plant's (1987) Autocratic / Permissive dimension relates to the extent to which organisations are directive, top-down hierarchies which withhold power and information, or are willing to share power, seek input and nurture individual

development and satisfaction (the first theme) The Fragmented versus Integrated dimension described by Plant relates to the extent to which co-ordination and sharing of information between functions is encouraged towards a common effort (the second theme) Like Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998), Plant was referring to organisational features, but in many instances in the literature, such a strong relationship has been noted between an organisation's communications policies and methods and its own organisational features, that some authors claim that communications overlaps with the profile and culture of the organisation (Schall, 1983)

Figure 7.1   Plant's Organisational Dimensions (1987 : 110)

Integrated

Autocratic   **Permissive**

Fragmented
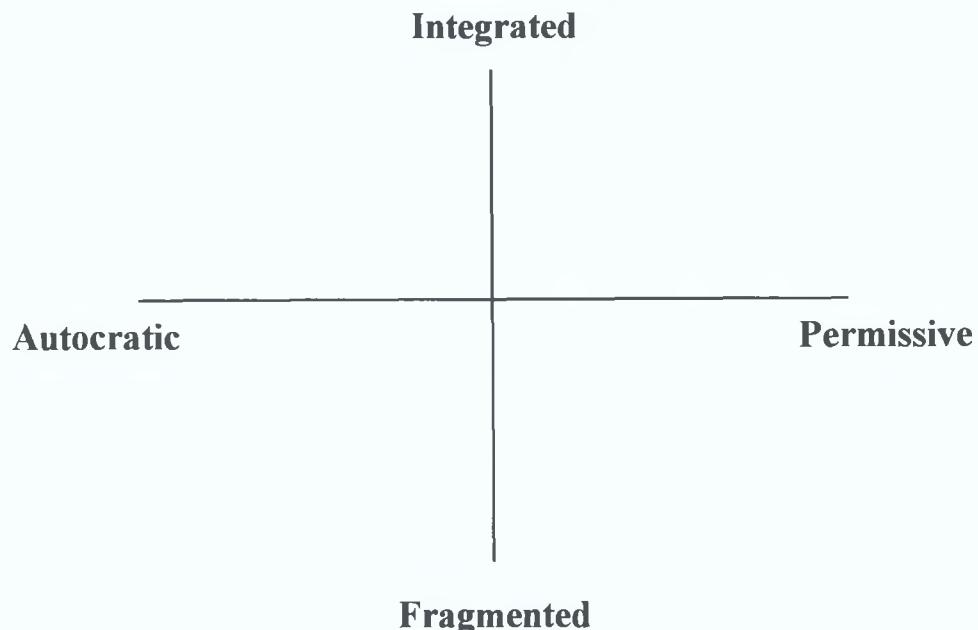
Because the two emerging themes from the first series of factor analyses are strongly resonant of the concepts identified in Plant's organisational dimensions, it was decided to select those statements which best reflected aspects of his Autocratic / Permissive and Fragmented / Integrated dimensions, to identify whether or not strong factors appeared to emerge.

7.3   A Model Of Communications Based On Plant's (1987) Organisational Variables

Sixteen statements in total were selected for factor analysis : eight statements indicative of the concepts described by Plant in his Autocratic / Permissive organisational dimension and a further eight statements indicative of his Fragmented /Integrated dimension.

7.3.1   Statements Selected For Autocratic vs Permissive Communications

Statements 23 (positions of authority), 17 and 37 (top-down communications), and 20 (information content aimed at directing behaviour) were selected to describe 'Autocratic' communications. Statement 27 (sharing of information), 11 (interest in employees' views), 30 and 35 (information content aimed at people's concerns), were selected to describe a person-centred approach to communications similar to Plant's 'Permissive' organisational dimension (see Table 7.13).

214

Table 7.13   Selection Of Statements To Test Autocratic vs Person-centred Communications

Statement	Communications Practices
23	Those in positions of authority are usually given the central role in communicating about quality
17	Management keeps employees informed about the quality initiative but does not require any feedback
37	Information about the quality initiative is usually communicated in one direction - from management to employees
20	Management is more concerned with explaining what has to be done to achieve quality than why quality is important
27	There is considerable sharing between functions of information about the quality initiative
11	The organisation regularly tries to find out what employees think about various aspects of the quality initiative
30	Employees are regularly told of the positive impact of the quality initiative on their jobs (eg more interesting / job security etc)
35	Management regularly explains why it is important to carry out the quality initiative

The eight statements were analysed for correlations using factor analysis Two factors emerged with an eigenvalue of more than 1 0 Factor 1 with an eigenvalue of 3 211 and explaining 40 14 per cent of the variance, showed high correlation with statements 11, 27, 30 and 35 Factor 1 appears to describe a willingness to seek input, open sharing of information and information aimed at the 'softer' affective needs rather than harder directional information, similar to the concepts of Plant's Permissive organisations Factor 1 was labelled 'Factor P - Person-centred' communications

Factor 2, with an eigenvalue of 1 376 and explaining a further 17 2 per cent of the variance, showed high correlation with statements 17, 20, 23 and 37 Factor 2 appears to describe top-down and directional information, with those in positions of authority playing an important role Factor 2 can be labelled 'Factor A - Autocratic'

215

Table 7.14   Factor Analysis Scoring For Autocratic / Person-centred
Communications (Principal Component Analysis)

Statement	Factor 1	Factor 2
17	- 355	636
20	- 341	518
23	211	743
37	- 154	749
11	609	- 512
27	703	- 174
30	801	- 031
35	826	- 089

The statements do not overlap on the two factors and in the majority of cases, those statements positively correlating with one factor, negatively correlate with the other factor In the case of statement 23, it strongly positively correlates with Factor A - Autocratic, and has poor correlation with Factor P - Person-centred The loadings on each factor range from between 518 (statement 20 for Factor 2), and 826 (statement 35 for Factor 1) Kline (1994) suggests that loadings of 3 or more are considered significant Accordingly, the two factors would appear to describe two polar ends of one dimension which can be labelled as the 'Autocratic / Person-centred' communications dimension (See Figure 7 2)

Figure 7.2   The Autocratic / Person-centred Communications Dimension.

Autocratic   **Person-centred**

Statements   **Statements**

17 Employees kept informed
but feedback not required

           11 Organisation tries to find out
                     what employees think

20 Management explain what has
to be done, not why

       27 Considerable sharing of
                       information

23 Those in authority are given a
central communications role

     30 Employees told of positive impact
                       on their jobs

37 Information is communicated
top-down

    35 Management explain why quality
                       is important
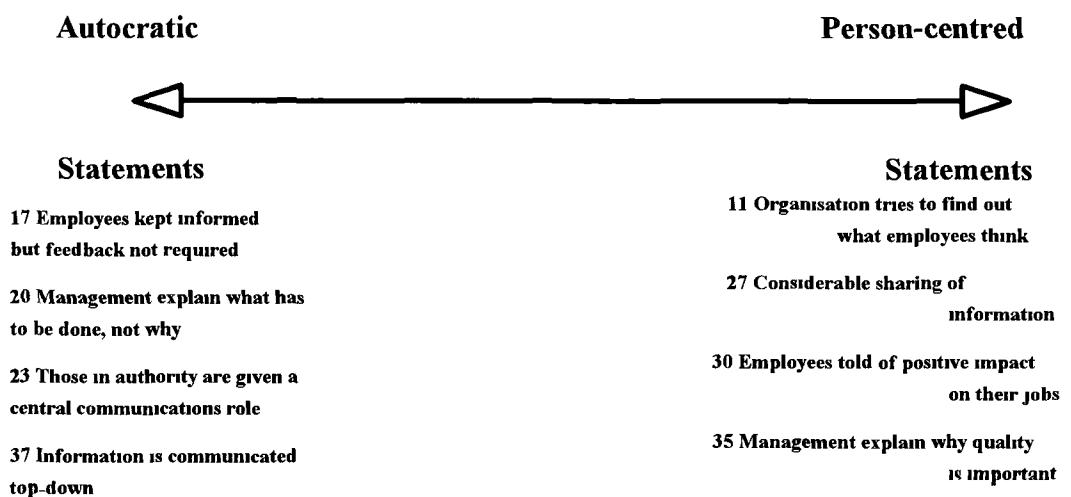
To establish whether or not the statements selected to represent each factor do, in fact, measure the same concept, the inter-item reliability amongst each group of four

216

statements was assessed A Cronbach's alpha of 7 or more is deemed to be internally reliable (Bryman and Cramer, 1994) In this instance, the inter-item reliability of the four statements for Person-centred communications is very strong at 78, while the inter-item reliability of the statements pertaining to Autocratic communications is just under 7, at 69 (Table 7 15) It is possible to say with some degree of confidence that the statements selected to represent each of Person-centred and Autocratic communications do measure the concepts intended

Table 7.15   Inter-item Reliability Of Statements Selected To Measure Each Of Autocratic And Person-centred Communications (Cronbach's Alpha Test)

	No. of cases	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Autocratic Statements 17, 20, 23, 37	**114**	**4**	**.6904**
Person-centred Statements 11, 27, 30, 35	**114**	**4**	**.7808**

7.3.2   Statements Selected For Fragmented vs Integrated Communications

Statements 19 and 31 (open access), 29 and 33 (information available about general areas of the organisation), were selected to describe 'Integrated' communications Statements 21 and 6 (restricted access), 3 (tiered communications) and 7 (information flows contained within vertical lines), were selected to describe 'Fragmented' communications (see Table 7 16)

Table 7.16   Selection Of Statements To Test Fragmented / Integrated Communications

Statement	Communications Practices
19	The organisation communicates all successes and all failures with everyone
31	Anyone in the organisation can check records to see how well any aspect of the quality initiative is working
29	Employees are often asked to input on quality issues which affect areas other than their own specific department / team
33	Information communicated to employees about the quality initiative covers company-wide objectives and performance
21	Only those directly involved in a particular quality project or initiative have access to data on that particular project
3	Senior management relies on intermediaries (eg managers / shop stewards) to communicate with employees about the quality initiative
6	Information compiled on quality is restricted on a 'need to know' basis
7	Employees in one function would not be kept well informed about what other functions are doing with regard to the quality initiative

The eight statements were also analysed for correlation using factor analysis. Two factors emerged with an eigenvalue of more than 1.0 . Factor 1 with an eigenvalue of 3.388 and explaining 42.35 per cent of the variance, showed high correlation with statements 21, 3, 6 and 7 and strong negative correlation with statements 19, 29, 31 and 33. Factor 1 appears to describe restricted, tiered communications with little or no lateral information flows and can be labelled 'Factor F - Fragmented'.

Factor 2, with an eigenvalue of 1.107 and explaining 21.61 per cent of the variance, showed high correlation with statements 19, 27, 29, 31 and 33, with a poor correlation with statement 6 and negative correlation with statements 21, 3 and 7. Factor 2 appears to describe open accessibility of information, sharing of information across functions and ready availability of information on any part of the business. Factor 2 can be labelled 'Factor I - Integrated'. The organisations of this sample are strongly differentiated by the extent to which they take a Fragmented or Integrated approach to their communications, similar to the Fragmented / Integrated organisational profiles described by Plant (1987) (see Table 7.17 below).

Table 7.17   Factor Analysis Scoring For Fragmented / Integrated Communications (Principal Component Analysis)

Statement	Factor 1	Factor 2
19	-.446	.753
29	-.140	.814
31	-.129	.831
33	-.651	.454
3	.470	-.411
6	.861	.098
7	.675	-.259
21	.600	-.307

In cases where factors describe polar ends of each dimension, statements which positively correlate with one factor should negatively correlate with the other. With the exception of one statement (Factor I - Integrated scoring against statement 6) which has poor correlation with Factor 2, the two factors had a strong positive correlation with one set of statements and a strong negative correlation with the statements relating to the other factor. Accordingly, the two factors appear to describe two opposing ends of one dimension which can be labelled as the 'Fragmented / Integrated' communications dimension. The loadings on the two factors again surpass the recommended point of .3, (Kline, 1994), indicating that the loadings are salient.

Figure 7.3   The Fragmented / Integrated Communications Dimension

Fragmented   Integrated

<--->

Statements   **Statements**

21 Only those involved have access   19 All successes and all failures
                                                                are communicated
3 Snr management relies on intermediaries
                                                        29 Employees asked for input on
6 Information restricted on "need to   areas outside own dept.
  know" basis
                                                        31 Anyone can check records on
7 Employees not kept informed about   anywhere
  other functions
                                                        33 Information covers company-
33 (negative) Information covers   wide events
  company-wide events

219

As with the Autocratic / Person-centred factor, the inter-item reliability of statements selected to measure each of Fragmented and Integrated communications was assessed, using Cronbach's alpha test Table 7 18 demonstrates that in both cases, a Cronbach's alpha score of over 7 was found, indicating that each set of four statements does measure a similar concept

Table 7 18   **Inter-item Reliability Of Statements Selected To Measure Each Of Fragmented And Integrated Communications.**
(Cronbach's Alpha Test)

	No. of cases	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Fragmented Statements 3, 6, 7, 21	4	110	.7305
Integrated Statements 19, 29, 31, 33	4	113	.7531

7.3.3   Identifying A Model Of Communicating For Change Based On Plant's Organisational Dimensions - Summary

Two communications dimensions, based on Plant's (1987) organisational dimensions for change, have been identified using factor analysis However, some of the statements used to identify each of Person-centred and Integrated communications might appear at first glance, to be similar

For ease of comparison, Figure 7 4 summarises the key features associated with the two communications dimensions

Figure 7 4   A Summary Of The Features Of The Two Communications Dimensions - Quantitative Findings

Autocratic

* Those in authority are given a central role
* Information is communicated top-down
* Mgt explain what has to be done, not why
* Employees kept informed, no feedback required

Fragmented

* Info is resticted on need to know basis
* Only those involved have access
* Snr mgt relies on intermediaries
* Employees not informed re other functions
* (neg) Info covers company wide events

Authoritarian

Mgt Control

Restricted Info

* Employees told of positive impact on jobs
* Mgt explain why quality is important
* Considerable sharing of information

* Org tries to find out what employees think

* Any-one can check records on anywhere
* All successes and failures are communicated
* Info covers company wide events

* Employees asked for input outside Dept

Personal Focus

Openness

Involvement

Company-wide Availability

Person-centred

Integrated

Figure 7.4 points to some areas in which the polar ends of the two dimensions appear to have commonalties. In the cases of Autocratic and Fragmented communications, a theme emerges whereby management retains control over communications. In Autocratic communications, management is given the central communications role and use communications to inform and direct. In Fragmented communications, information is restricted to a 'need-to-know' basis and only those who are involved have access. It tends to be management who makes the decision regarding who does 'need-to-know' and who can have that access. However, there are also key differences coming through. Autocratic communications is featured by a top-down, authoritarian style, while Fragmented communications is characterised by restriction of information.

There also appear to be commonalties between Person-centred and Integrated communications. Both dimensions incorporate concepts of openness and employee involvement, with Integrated communications particularly emphasising employee involvement in areas outside one's own Department. However, the two dimensions are fundamentally different. The statements which make up Integrated communications focus on the availability of information across the organisation, while the statements pertaining to Person-centred communications, relate to focusing on individual employees' concerns.

The quantitative findings demonstrate that the organisations in this sample can be differentiated by the different approaches which they take to communications. These can be grouped together under two dimensions - Autocratic / Person-centred and Fragmented / Integrated Communications. Each dimension is differentiated by a number of key principles such as willingness to seek input and discuss affective concerns of employees in contrast with top-down authoritarian communications (Person-centred vs Autocratic), and openness with information across the organisation contrasting with restrictiveness (Integrated vs Fragmented). This communications model corresponds with the organisational profiles identified by Plant (1987) and is resonant of the two key themes in the literature on organisational types which are effective for change.

It is important to note that this model distinguishes between two dimensions, which does not support the organisational communication literature's tendency to advocate universal communications guidelines for all situations (eg Exterbille, 1996; Klein, 1996; Wilkinson, 1989). It will be recalled that Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change

variables To explore this issue further, it was decided to investigate whether any of the polar ends of each of the two communications dimensions are found to be associated with any type of organisation in particular

7.4 Which Organisations Use The Two Communications Dimensions? Quantitative Findings

To determine the relationship, if any, between different types of organisations and the four polar ends of the two communications dimensions, t-square statistical analysis was carried out between each of the four communications factors and 16 different organisational characteristics and quality change management strategies Each of the four factors was tested against three broad areas the characteristics of the organisations and their employees, the communications objectives of each organisation and the change management strategies (other than communications), in use to support the organisation's quality initiative The four factors were based on statements selected from section D of the questionnaire which were scored on a range from -2 (strongly disagree), to +2 (strongly agree) Hence, the mean scores in the t-tests will be within this range and may include negative mean scores

7 4.1 Relationship between Factor A - Autocratic Communications and Organisational Variables

Three characteristics significantly differentiated organisations which tend to use Autocratic communications from those organisations which do not (Table 7 19) Organisations which take an Autocratic approach to their communications are significantly more likely to agree that the objective of their communications is to provide operational information and to direct employees, than organisations which do not adhere to the Autocratic communications approach, reflecting those concepts behind the Autocratic organisations described by Plant (1987) Organisations where commitment to the quality initiative is restricted to management rather than devolved to employees are also significantly more likely to use Autocratic communications This concept also reflects the concept of managerial control depicted as being a characteristic of Autocratic communications in Figure 7 4 None of the other characteristics (eg organisational structure, country of origin, presence of union etc), were found to differentiate organisations which use Autocratic communications from those which do not

Table 7.19   Differentiating Characteristics Between Organisations With Or Without Autocratic Communications (T-Test)

Organisational Characteristics					
	Mean Score 1	**Mean Score 2**	**t value**	**DF**	**Signif (2 tailed)**
Organisational commitment	restricted to mgt. Mean= 766 (SD= 98)	most employees committed Mean= 164 (SD= 96)	2 42	94	$p= 017*$
Communications Objectives					
	Mean Score 1	**Mean Score 2**	**t value**	**DF**	**Signif (2-tailed)**
To provide operational info	yes Mean= 33 (SD = 98)	no Mean=- 106 (SD= 9516)	1 978	112	$p= 048*$
To direct on what needs to be done	yes Mean= 423 (SD= 954)	no Mean= 002 (SD= 952)	2 303	112	$p= 023*$

$*p< 05$ $**p < 01$ $***p < 001$

7 4 2   Relationship Between Factor P - Person-centred Communications And Organisational Variables

Table 7 20 below details the characteristics which significantly differentiated organisations with Person-centred communications from those organisations without

Table 7.20   Differentiating Characteristics Between Organisations With Or Without Person-centred communications (T-Test)

Organisational Characteristics					
	Mean Score 1	**Mean Score 2**	**t value**	**DF**	**Signif (2-tailed)**
Employee educational profile	Majority have junior certificate Mean=-.789 (SD=1.229)	Majority have post-school quals. Mean=.409 (SD=.761)	-.2416	14	*p*=.03*
Communications Objectives					
	Mean Score 1	**Mean Score 2**	**t value**	**DF**	**Signif (2-tailed)**
To build trusting relationships	yes Mean=.182 (SD=.949)	no Mean=-.346 (SD=1.014)	2.746	111	*p*=.007**
To show the organisation cares	yes Mean=.312 (SD=.995)	no Mean=-.222 (SD=.949)	2.89	111	*p*=.005**
To motivate employees	yes Mean=.126 (SD=.892)	no Mean=-.307 (SD=1.183)	2.127	111	*p*=.036*

*p< .05   **p < .01   *** p < .001

Three communications objectives significantly differentiate organisations which tend to subscribe more to Person-centred communications from those which do not and all of these relate to person-centred values; building trusting relationships, demonstrating that the organisation cares and motivating employees. Interestingly, these communications objectives would intuitively be expected to be at the other end of a spectrum from the directional and task-oriented communications objectives which were found to differentiate organisations which take more of an Autocratic approach to communications than those which do not. This emphasised all the more, the opposing nature of the two communications factors.

It is also of interest to note that organisations which take more of a Person-centred approach to communications were more likely to have employees with higher educational profiles than those organisations without Person-centred communications. It is not possible, from the information given through this bivariate analysis, to explain this by saying that organisations with Person-centred communications would be found in a sector which is more likely to attract employees with post-school qualifications. However, it might be surmised that organisations with such an employee profile would

225

tend to be conscious of their employees' needs and concerns, given their relative mobility and currency in the employment market.

7.4.3   Relationship Between Factor F - Fragmented Communications And Organisational Variables

Table 7.21 below details four characteristics which significantly differentiate between organisations which use Fragmented communications and those organisations which do not.

Table 7.21   Differentiating Characteristics Between Organisations With Or Without Fragmented Communications (T-Test)

Organisational Characteristics					
	Mean Score 1	Mean Score 2	t value	DF	Signif (2-tailed)
Employee educational profile	Majority have junior certificate Mean=.509 (SD=1.057)	Majority have leaving certificate Mean=-.0751 (SD=.958)	2.291	33	p=.028*
Ownership of organisation	Irish Mean=.305 (SD=1.082)	Foreign Mean=-.234 (SD=.841)	2.891	105	p=.005**
Org. structures restricted to within hierarchies	yes Mean=.6474 (SD=1.22)	no Mean=-.119 (SD=.893)	3.178	107	p=.002**
Quality Strategies					
	Mean Score 1	Mean Score 2	t value	DF	Signif (2-tailed)
Rewards	Not related to quality Mean=.446 (SD=.979)	Quality is one of more important criteria Mean=-.163 (SD=.837)	2.512	64	p=.015*

*p< .05   **p < .01   *** p < .001

These organisations tend to be Irish owned rather than Foreign owned, perhaps reflecting earlier data which indicates that Irish owned organisations were found to be less associated with the communications practices advocated in the literature than foreign owned (Table 6.8). Given that Fragmented communications has been described earlier as being associated with restricting information, particularly to within hierarchical lines, it is not surprising to see that organisations which subscribe more to Fragmented communications are significantly differentiated from other organisations by the extent to which their organisational structures are restricted to within hierarchical lines. The educational profile of the majority of employees working in

organisations with Fragmented communications is more likely to be at junior certificate level than leaving certificate. When contrasting this with the educational profile of organisations with Person-centred communications, it appears that the lower educational profile of the majority of employees, the less likely it is that favourable communications practices exist.

Organisations with higher Fragmented communications scores are also less likely to link quality in with their reward structures. This finding raises more questions than answers. Not linking rewards to quality does not necessarily represent 'poor practice', just that the reward system is not directly structured towards motivating employees about quality in their organisation. It may be linked to other important aspects of change in the organisation which this questionnaire does not uncover.

7.4.4 Relationship Between Factor I - Integrated Communications And Organisational Variables

Table 7.22 below details those characteristics which significantly differentiated organisations which tend to take more of an Integrated communications approach from others.

Table 7.22 Differentiating Characteristics Between Organisations With Or Without Integrated Communications (T-Test)

Organisational Characteristics					
	Mean Score 1	Mean Score 2	t value	DF	Signif (2-tailed)
Sector	Manufacturing Mean=1.182 (SD=.883)	Services Mean=.181 (SD=.648)	-.2.22	49	p=.031*
Employee professional profile	Clerical staff Mean=.1394 (SD=.3183)	Unskilled labour Mean=-.144 (SD=.917)	2.112	51	p=.04*
Org. structures restricted to within hierarchies	yes Mean=-.4958 (SD=1.003)	no Mean=-.002 (SD=.787)	-2.288	107	p=.024*
Communications Objectives					
	Mean Score 1	Mean Score 2	t value	DF	Signif (2-tailed)
To co-ordinate different functions	yes Mean=.469 (SD=1.146)	no Mean=-.175 (SD=.866)	3.208	107	p=.002**

*p< .05   **p < .01   *** p < .001

As would be expected for a communications approach which emphasises openness and co-ordination, organisations with higher Integrated communications scores are significantly less likely to restrict organisational structures to within vertical hierarchies Similarly, organisations with Integrated communications are significantly more likely to subscribe to the communications objective 'to co-ordinate different functions' Both findings add further weight to the concept of Integrated communications being associated with co-ordination across the organisation

The other two differentiating factors are less easy to interpret Organisations which subscribe more to Integrated communications tend to be in the manufacturing rather than services sector, yet at the same time, their employee profile tends to be clerical, ahead of unskilled labour While manufacturing organisations do not necessarily only employ unskilled labour (many manufacturing processes require highly skilled workforces), it could be argued that organisations which are predominantly clerical are more likely to be in the services sector Moreover, there is no obvious intuitive link between manufacturing organisations or clerical staff being particularly associated with co-ordination and integration

7 4 5   Overview Of The Quantitative Findings. Are Different Organisational Variables Associated With Each Of The Communications Approaches?

In all, 15 variables significantly differentiated organisations which subscribe more to any of the four approaches to communications from organisations which do not It might be suggested, then, that each communications factor (and of particular interest for this study, each of Person-centred and Integrated communications), could be identified strongly with one organisational type over another The best way to establish whether or not this is the case, is to illustrate an overview of the characteristics which differentiate organisations subscribing more to each of the four approaches to communications from those which subscribe less

Figure 7.5 below summarises the key themes emerging from the quantitative data.

Figure 7.5 Patterns Of Variables Differentiating Each Communications Dimension

Factor A
Autocratic

Factor P
Person-centred

* Comms. objectives are
   directive & task-oriented
* Commitment to quality is restricted
   to management

* Person-centred comms. objectives
* Higher employee educational profile

Factor F
Fragmented

Factor I
Integrated

* Org. structures are limited to hierarchies
* Lower employee educational profile
* Irish owned
* Rewards are unrelated to quality

* Org. structures
   based around co-ordination
* Comms. objectives
   based around co-ordination
* Manufacturing
* Clerical staff

Figure 7.5 demonstrates that the communications objectives which differentiate organisations subscribing to Person-centred or Integrated communications, add further weight to the description of both types of communications given earlier. Communications objectives focusing on the needs of employees differentiate organisations which subscribe more to Person-centred communications, while communications objectives focusing on co-ordination differentiate organisations which subscribe more to Integrated communications. Organisations with higher Autocratic communications scores are also differentiated by task-oriented and directive communications objectives.

Thereafter, the patterns are less easy to explain. It is noted that educational profile does appear to differentiate between 'poor' and 'good' practice communications. Lower levels of education (junior certificate) differentiate organisations with Fragmented communications, while higher levels of education (post-school qualifications), differentiate organisations with Person-centred communications.

229

Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables A number of variables have been found to differentiate organisations selecting each of the four communications approaches, including sector (Hypothesis 4(b)), the structure of the organisation (Hypothesis 4(c)), employee profile (Hypothesis 4(d)), and country of ownership (Hypothesis 4(g)), which again go towards supporting Hypothesis 4 In addition, a number of communications objectives have been found to differentiate organisations selecting to use different types of communications approaches

7.5   Summary

This chapter set out to determine whether or not a model of communications could be identified which comprises the core practices used by the organisations of this sample By using three stages of exploratory factor analysis on the 38 communications statements in Section D of the questionnaire, it was possible to encapsulate the practices into a model of communications similar to Plant's (1987) organisational profiles Four factors emerged with two pairs of factors each at the polar end of a communications dimension, Autocratic / Person-centred communications and Fragmented / Integrated communications

Autocratic communications is associated with top-down, authoritarian style of communicating, while its polar opposite, Person-centred communications, is associated with the more humanistic principles of willingness to seek input and to discuss issues of concern to employees Fragmented communications is associated with restricting information and keeping flows of information within vertical lines of hierarchy, while Integrated communications is associated with open sharing of information across the organisation

Using the quantitative data, it was decided to determine whether or not each of the four factors were associated with different organisational and employee variables, using t-tests The communications objectives for organisations subscribing to each of Autocratic, Person-centred and Integrated communications closely reflect the concepts associated with each type of communications (directive and task oriented, person-centred, emphasising co-ordination respectively), adding further weight to the descriptions for each The organisations were also differentiated according to a number of organisational characteristics, supporting Hypothesis 4 These are sector, organisational structures, employee profile and country of ownership of the

230

organisation However, these questionnaire results provide little more than an outline understanding of the two communications approaches and the organisations which select to use each type To understand better the nature of the organisations using each of Person-centred and Integrated communications, in-depth interviews were sought and carried out with five of the highest scoring organisations for each of Person-centred and Integrated organisations, to determine whether or not a clearer description of the features of each type of communications could be determined The interviews would also help to determine better the nature of the different organisational variables associated with one approach to communications over another It was decided to restrict the qualitative follow-up research to these two communications types and not to include organisations which scored highly on Fragmented and Autocratic communications, because the research was focusing on communications which aids rather than prevents organisational change The findings from these qualitative interviews are detailed in chapter 8

CHAPTER 8   THE KEY PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNICATIONS IN A QUALITY CONTEXT. QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

8.1   Introduction

Following the identification of the two communications dimensions, Person-centred and Integrated communications through quantitative data, it was decided to explore further the features of the two approaches and the organisations which use them, by interviewing five of the highest scoring organisations for the two different communications approaches (ten interviews in total) It was decided not to focus on organisations which scored highly on Autocratic or Fragmented communications, as these organisations would be unlikely to offer valuable insight into how communications can support organisational change

This chapter begins by describing the preliminary secondary research carried out to identify and then describe the ten organisations Through the interviews, it then details what further insight was gained into each communications dimension and into the features of the organisations which select each communications approach or dimension

8.2   Desk Research On The Ten Organisations

Table 8 1 below provides the scores for each of the five organisations on their respective communications dimensions These scores are total scores, rather than mean scores, for each dimension and hence their total possible range extends from -8 to +8 (ie four statements with ranges of -2 to +2)

Table 8.1   Five Of The Highest Ranking Scores For Each Of Person-centred And Integrated Organisations

Person-centred	
1	2 22962
2	2.01487
3	1 83915
4	1.81498
5	1.79733
Integrated	
1	3.23022
2	2.17346
3	1.83197
4	1 74324
5	1.60031

All five organisations with high scores for Integrated communications scored positively on the Person-centred dimension and vice versa, but none of the ten organisations gave both dimensions a sufficiently high score to be placed in the five highest ranks for both Person-centred and Integrated communications This evidence would add to the suggestion that the two dimensions are actually distinct

Before contacting the ten organisations, the surveys for each organisation were re-analysed in detail to explore whether or not any patterns of features became apparent, either for the five organisations associated with each dimension, or for the ten organisations altogether

Table 8 2 gives a brief description of the nature of the business each organisation is involved in and an identification name to preserve anonymity

Table 8.2   Description Of The Ten Organisations

Person-centred	
Description	**Identity Name**
Catering services	**Caterco**
Printing and packaging	**Boxco**
Manufacturer of fasteners for other manufacturers	**Fastenco**
Hotel chain	**Hotelco**
Financial services organisation	**Finco**
Integrated	
Description	**Identity Name**
Printer of large batches of variety of products	**Printco**
Manufacturer of locking devices for other manufacturers	**Lockco**
Manufacturer of health care products	**Healthco**
Food Ingredients producer	**Foodco**
Telecommunications service provider	**Telco**

The ten organisations represent a wide variety of sectors with two overlaps. There are two organisations involved in printing (one Person-centred and one Integrated), although in different parts of the sector. One organisation (Boxco), specialises in low batch, flexible high quality printing of packaging, while the other (Printco), prints high volume quantities of a variety of items. Two organisations are also involved in the supply of sub-components to other manufacturers (one Person-centred and one Integrated). Fastenco manufactures fasteners, while Lockco manufactures locking devices; both supplying to other manufacturers.

In looking at the nature of the organisations' businesses, there is no immediate pattern coming through for either set of organisations, or for the group of ten altogether. The organisations comprise a broad mix of high technology, low technology, food, printing and packaging, financial and catering services. There is a slight bias towards organisations in the services sector within the Person-centred group of organisations (three organisations), compared with the Integrated group (two organisations), but the difference is not particularly marked. This does not reflect the quantitative findings (Table 7.22), where organisations subscribing to Integrated communications were found to be more likely to be in the manufacturing sector than in services.

However, in looking more closely at the profile of the organisations, one pattern does emerge. Four out of the five organisations with high Integrated communications scores are involved in mass produced manufacturing (ie large batch printing, high volumes of locking devices, health and food ingredients), while some of the organisations with high Person-centred communications scores are involved in more specialised or flexible product or service offers (ie hotel services, financial services, catering). This pattern was explored further in the interviews (chapter 8.4).

An analysis was made of the ownership of the ten organisations. Two organisations in each group of five are foreign owned (four in total), with the remaining being indigenous. This strong representation of Irish organisations is interesting, given the findings in chapter 6.4 pointing to foreign owned organisations tending to be more associated with the communications practices advocated in the literature.

Table 8.3 provides some details on the size and structure of the ten organisations.

Table 8.3   Features Of The Size And Structure Of The Ten Organisations

Person-centred			
Identity	**Size**	**No. Of Sites**	**No. Of Mgt. Layers**
Caterco	200-499	1	3 or less
Boxco	100-199	2-10	4-5 (varies)
Fastenco	50-99	1	3 or less
Hotelco	500+	2-10	4-5 (varies)
Finco	200-499	2-10	3-4 (varies)
Integrated			
Identity	**Size**	**No. Of Sites**	**No. Of Mgt Layers**
Printco	100-199	1	More than 4
Lockco	50-99	1	3 or less
Healthco	200-499	1	4-5 (varies)
Foodco	100-199	2-10	4-5 (varies)
Telco	100-199	2-10	3 or less

There was no noticeable difference in size between the two groups of organisations. The organisations ranged in size from 50-99 to over 500 employees. Only one of the ten organisations, Hotelco, employs more than 500 employees, matching the

proportionally fewer number of organisations of this size in the total sample (19 organisations out of 116)

There was no particular pattern emerging between organisations with either high Person-centred or Integrated communications scores, according to number of sites Not surprisingly, the manufacturing organisations tend to operate out of one site None of the organisations operate out of more than ten sites The number of layers of management in the organisations vary across the board Four out of the five organisations in each group have a union present, with employee membership of the unions, ranging from 60 per cent to 98 per cent in the unionised organisations

As with the organisational features, no particular pattern emerges when looking at the profile of the employees in the ten organisations Table 8 4 summarises features of the employee profiles in the ten organisations

Table 8.4   Employee Profile Of The Ten Organisations

Person-centred				
Identity	**Skills**	**Education**	**Age**	**Gender**
Caterco	skilled/ unskilled	Leaving Cert	< 35	Balanced
Boxco	skilled/ unskilled	Junior Cert	> 35	73% male
Fastenco	skilled/ unskilled	Leaving Cert	< 35	90% male
Hotelco	skilled/ unskilled	Leaving Cert	<35	Balanced
Finco	clerical	Leaving Cert	<35	Balanced
Integrated				
Identity	**Skills**	**Education**	**Age**	**Gender**
Printco	skilled/ unskilled	Junior Cert	> 35	Balanced
Lockco	skilled/ unskilled	Leaving Cert	< 35	88% male
Healthco	skilled/ unskilled	Leaving Cert	< 35	Balanced
Foodco	skilled/ unskilled	Junior Cert	> 35	90% male
Telco	clerical	Leaving Cert	< 35	Balanced

The skills and educational profile of the majority of the employees match the nature of the businesses Not surprisingly, the majority of the organisations (four out of each group), are mostly made up of skilled / unskilled labour, with the remaining two organisations predominantly clerical based staff Only one of the five organisations with high Integrated communications scores has a majority of clerical staff This does not reflect the earlier quantitative results (Table 7 22), suggesting that this is a key

236

differentiating feature between organisations which do or do not take an Integrated approach to communications In line with the skills profile, the educational profile of the majority of the employees varies between Junior Certificate and Leaving Certificate holders It is interesting to note that organisations with a majority of staff holding post-school qualifications were not amongst this group of organisations for either communications dimension, despite this being a differentiating feature for Person-centred communications in the quantitative findings (Table 7 20), and despite these organisations having previously been found to be more associated with a number of communications practices advocated in the literature such as openness and lateral sharing of information (see chapter 6 4) Both openness and lateral communications have been identified as two core features of Person-centred and Integrated communications (see chapter 7 3)

The age profile of the ten organisations (seven out of the ten organisations have a majority of employees of less than 35 years of age), is slightly younger than the overall sample (57 4 per cent of the total sample have a majority of employees of less than 35 years of age) However, there was no marked difference within the group of ten organisations in terms of age profile (Table 8 4)

The gender profile of the ten organisations was not particularly different from the total sample, nor was'there a marked difference between those with Person-centred or Integrated communications In each case, two organisations had more than 70 per cent male employees, with the remaining organisations with no more than 60 per cent of employees being either male or female It is interesting to note that two of the organisations with Person-centred communications have a strong male complement It might have been argued that some of the softer features of Person-centred communications would not have been the first choice for organisations with predominantly male staff

8.3   Features Of The Ten Organisations - Summary Of The Secondary Research

Secondary research into the organisations' size, sector and employee profiles does not reveal any pattern of particular note which would differentiate the two sets of organisations Only two patterns of note emerged

One pattern which was explored further in the interviews, is the extent to which organisations with high Integrated communications scores are involved in large batch,

high volume manufacturing to a large extent, while organisations with Person-centred communications are more involved in small batch manufacturing or services. The other pattern relates to the young age profile of the majority of employees in both groups in comparison with the total sample of 116 organisations.

However, the real value in selecting this group of organisations is the opportunity to probe issues arising out of the quantitative phase of research through in-depth interviews. The findings from these interviews are described in the following section.

8.4   Identifying A Model of Communicating For Change - Qualitative Findings

To explore the nature of the Person-centred and Integrated dimensions in more detail, follow-up interviews with HR managers and quality managers from five of the highest scoring organisations for each of Person-centred and Integrated communications (ten organisations in total), were conducted. Interviewees' views on their organisations' approach to communications were sought in the six broad areas of communications practices identified in the literature, content, openness, media, roles, information flows (upwards and lateral) and whether or not communications programmes are used. The areas of overlap and differentiation which had emerged in the quantitative findings were probed in particular. For example, the quantitative findings had indicated that Person-centred and Integrated communications have commonalties in terms of emphasis on openness and seeking employee involvement (upwards communications). At the same time, they can be differentiated by the extent to which Person-centred communications focuses on individual concerns, while Integrated communications is characterised by company-wide availability of information (see Figure 7 4, chapter 7 3)

8.4.1   Similarities Between Person-centred and Integrated Communications

8.4.1.(i)   Content

In terms of content of what is communicated, there were broad similarities across all ten organisations, reflecting the content areas for communicating change recommended in the literature. Respondents stressed the importance of communicating the need for change. One interviewee from an organisation with high Integrated communications scores said 'If they don't see why it's important, why would they put up with all the disruption?' (Manager, Lockco), while another interviewee from an organisation with

238

high Person-centred communications scores made a similar point 'I can't persuade anyone to do things differently if they don't believe there's any pressure on us' (Manager, Caterco)

Respondents also spoke of their efforts to outline the specific plans for change at both an organisational level and an individual level and of their efforts to keep employees regularly informed on how the organisation and their unit is performing against their targets The organisations involved in manufacturing (eg Boxco, Fastenco, Lockco, Healthco), had regular performance sheets (some prepared on a daily basis), which provided employees with tangible performance indicators on performance such as volumes, quality faults, delivering on time and machinery down-time In some of the service companies (eg Healthco, Finco, Telco), the frequency of the performance information was less and tended to focus on issues such as customer satisfaction, customer complaints and indicators specific to their business However, regardless of sector, a strong common theme running through all the interviews was the willingness of the organisations to share regular feedback on how the organisation and each unit is performing against targets that have been set for the change programme and to involve employees in a discussion regarding why or why not targets and changes have been achieved

One interviewee summarised the prevailing view on regular performance updates,

> We've put a lot of energy into making sure everyone knows how their function and the whole organisation is doing against our monthly targets It helps them understand how far we have got
>
> (Manager, Finco)

8.4.1.(ii)   *Openness*

'Openness' was identified as being a key feature which overlaps between Person-centred and Integrated communications in the quantitative findings Equally, the strongest impression left by all the interviewees is the importance which they put on the willingness to be open as a lever for change All the interviewees were of the opinion that without putting time and effort into communications, they would have experienced much greater difficulties in introducing new quality concepts into the organisation When asked what they meant by communications, openness was cited by all the respondents as being key

239

When asked why his organisation might have compared favourably against the total sample in its approach to communications, one interviewee said;

> Because we're not afraid of sharing information. I'm not saying we're perfect, but if there's anything people should know, they're told.

(Manager, Finco)

Openness was considered vital for a number of reasons: for ensuring that employees know what has to be done and the role that they play; for ensuring that errors are identified quickly, and for keeping levels of trust sufficiently high so that everyone is committed. Comparing experiences in her current company with her previous employer, one manager directly linked openness with trust.

> I used to work in [organisation x], where getting information was like pulling teeth. So, of course everyone was suspicious of anything that was actually said.

(Manager, Caterco)

This emphasis on openness differentiates the organisations which scored highly on Person-centred and Integrated communications from the sample of organisations generally, where only half of all the organisations claimed to be fully open with all types of information relevant to the quality programme. Speaking of the importance of openness, one interviewee from an Integrated organisation said; 'we're asking everyone to approach things differently, so we have to be prepared to be completely up front, even if the news isn't easy to give.' (Manager, Foodco).

8.4.1.(iii)   *Media*

During each interview, the interviewees were asked to list the various methods used to support quality in their organisations. The ten organisations made use of similar supporting communications mechanisms, emphasising the importance of face-to-face methods in particular (Table 8.5). Team meetings, regular management meetings and cross functional task forces / business process teams, were used by all the organisations in some form, supported by regularly updated notice boards and to a lesser extent newsheets and newsletters (six out of ten organisations). Almost all the organisations held 'state of the nation' type forums (seven of the ten organisations), where senior managers promoted the importance of quality and their commitment to quality on at least an annual basis. Six out of the ten organisations had introduced formal upwards mechanisms such as suggestion schemes, but these were not specific to

either set of organisations Suggestions were also sought by half of the organisations through workshops and training sessions (five organisations, three with Person-centred and two with Integrated communications)

Table 8.5   Communications Methods Used By The Ten Organisations

Person-centred										
	Noticeboards	Newsletters	Slogans/ Merchandising	Letters / Memos	e-mail	Mass meetings	Team Meetings	Mgt. Meetings	Task Forces / Projects	Suggestion Schemes	Training / Workshops
Caterco	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Boxco	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	
Fastenco	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Hotelco	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Finco	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Integrated											
	Noticeboards	Newsletters	Slogans/ Merchandising	Letters / Memos	e-mail	Mass meetings	Team Meetings	Mgt. Meetings	Task Forces / Projects	Suggestion Schemes	Training / Workshops
Printco	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Lockco	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓		
Healthco	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Foodco	✓			✓			✓	✓	✓		✓
Telco	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	

8.4.1.(iv)   ***Roles***

One of the features which emerged from the quantitative findings (see Figure 7.4, chapter 7.3), was the extent to which communications is controlled and dominated by management in Autocratic and Fragmented organisations, but with some of that control being devolved to employees in organisations with Person-centred and Integrated communications. This issue was probed in the interviews. It became apparent in the interviews that organisations were not willing to abdicate the responsibility of managers as communicators during change, but that equally, employees were considered to have a responsibility in the communications process.

Interviewees from both sets of organisations emphasised that the lead has to be taken by senior management. One interviewee from an organisation with high Integrated communications scores said; 'If it's not coming from the top, it won't happen' (Manager, Telco), while another from an organisation with high Person-centred communications scores said;

> [The Managing Director] comes down to the line at least three or four times a
> week to see what's going on. He's on a first name basis with everyone.
>
> > (Manager, Fastenco)

Line management are also accorded an important role by both sets of organisations. Many of the interviewees suggested that without their support, the quality effort would fail. One interviewee said; 'I can push as much as I like, but if I don't get their support, nothing happens.' (Manager, Hotelco).

However, the roles and responsibilities for communicating are not restricted solely to management in both groups of organisations. Employees were seen to have a number of responsibilities; to speak up if they saw something getting through which is not up to the required standards of quality, to bring suggestions and comments from the customers and to raise any concerns or ideas they may have about how things could be done better. Comments include :

> 'Everyone has a role to play' (Manager, Telco)
> 'This isn't a one-way street', (Manager, Foodco)
> 'The project groups are there, we expect them to get involved' (Manager,
> Fastenco)

In terms of working with employee representatives, the eight organisations (four Person-centred, four Integrated), which had a union or employee representative group in place, recognised and worked with their representatives. They emphasised the importance of

partnership rather than taking a confrontational or negotiating role in introducing and implementing quality. However, the organisations were relying on managers and employee representatives in different ways. Managers were expected to actively promote the need for quality, while the employee representatives were being relied on for support in a number of different ways; not to negate the quality efforts, not to demand recompense for changes and to support the argument for the need for quality, should they be asked questions by their members.

8.4.1.(v)   Information Flows

Both employee involvement (upwards flows) and sharing of information between functions (lateral flows), were found to be common to Person-centred and Integrated communications and the interviewees from the two groups of organisations confirmed the importance of both.

The importance of seeking employees' contributions was emphasised throughout the ten interviews. While they recognised that this may initially slow down the process of change, they saw the investment at the front end as increasing the likely chances of acceptance. One interviewee said;

> The first thing we did was to get all the managers into a room to talk about why we need to look ahead and to explain the roll-out of the quality programme. Then [Managing Director] and [Senior managers] spent a couple of weeks meeting everyone in groups to talk about our challenges and to ask them what they thought should be done. By the end of that, we already had a whole list of things.
>
> (Manager, Finco)

Explaining the importance of involvement in increasing commitment to change, another interviewee said;

> You can't just tell people what to do. They won't do it. We do everything we can to find out what they think, because they'll get behind it if they came up with the idea.
>
> (Manager, Boxco)

The depth of involvement sought did appear to vary from organisation to organisation. Some were interested primarily in ideas and contributions about the quality process itself (whether from their own area or for other functions), while a minority adopted a more comprehensive programme to engage employees in discussing the very mission of the organisation itself (two Person-centred and one Integrated).

A key feature of Integrated communications is lateral communications, although the concept of sharing information across functions was also apparent in the organisations with Person-centred communications All ten organisations had put in place interfunctional task groups to address quality, some admitting more success than others As one interviewee said,

> The problem is the day job Most of the projects start off all enthusiastic and after a few months, the momentum's gone

> (Manager, Healthco)

The reasons given for engaging in lateral communications include everyone focusing on the same goals, everyone knowing where their contribution fits in, co-operating on key projects and in two instances, encouraging an element of healthy rivalry between areas of the business

8.4 1.(vi)   Communications Programmes

While the organisations put a number of specific methods in place to support their quality change programmes such as training workshops and project task forces, they did not tend to 'package' their communications efforts into a clearly defined communications programme Only Finco had developed a number of poster slogans, but even this was viewed as being an initiative which was not particularly central to their communications about quality

8.4.1.(vii)   Similarities Between Person-centred and Integrated Communications - Summary Of The Interviews

There were a number of similarities in the way both sets of organisations approached communications They all emphasised the vital role played by communications and they emphasised openness, sharing of information and involvement as being key to their approach They reported making use of similar communications media, emphasised the important role of managers and they covered the same broad content areas

On the basis of this, it could be argued that the two communications dimensions are in fact quite similar However, a number of features had emerged from the quantitative research for the two dimensions which were quite different (chapter 7 3, Figure 7 4) Person-centred communications was found to be characterised by a focus on individuals' concerns, while the key feature of Integrated communications was company-wide availability of information

By exploring these and other issues further in the interviews, a number of key differences were identified. The differences emerged in three key areas, openness, content and employee involvement, as outlined below

8.4 2 Key Differences Between Person-centred and Integrated Communications

The key difference between the two communications approaches which emerged during the interviews relates to the assumptions behind why the organisation engages in communication in the first place. The difference in assumption comes through in the organisations' approach to openness, content and employee involvement

8 4 2.(i) Openness

It has already been suggested that openness appears to be a common tenet behind both communications approaches. However, the assumption of the organisations scoring high on Integrated communications was that a climate of openness enables all members of the organisation to make more informed choices to support the change process. Indicative of his peers' remarks, one interviewee from an organisation with high Integrated communications scores said

> You can't make decisions in a vacuum, right? So, I mean, part of my job is to
> make sure that all the facts and figures are there at everyone's finger tips, no
> matter what level they are at. It's up to them to use that information to improve
>
> (Manager, Healthco)

Openness was also considered key by the organisations with Person-centred communications and while they recognised that there was a commercial reason for openness, these organisations tended to add a sub-text whereby people's satisfaction was considered to be as important an end in its own right. Interviewees from organisations with Person-centred communications reported

> 'It's a matter of trust. Without trust, we'll get no-where', (Manager, Fastenco),
>
> 'Everyone deserves to know what's going to happen in their lives' (Manager,
> Caterco)
>
> 'How would you look them in the face' [if not being open] (Manager, Boxco)

Another interviewee from an organisation with Person-centred communications expanded on his reasons for openness, emphasising his orientation towards the human aspects of change

> We want to make sure that everyone feels motivated 110% every day. If they
> think we're not being completely open about [an initiative specific to that
> organisation], we've lost them
>
> (Manager, Finco)

246

A similar difference in orientation arose when interviewees were probed about the persuasive arguments they used to promote the benefits of the quality process The difference in orientation was particularly evident in the type of persuasive arguments used by the ten organisations at the initial stages of the change process (what Klein (1994) terms the 'Unfreezing - Justifying The Change' stage) This is the stage, according to Quirke (1995), where management need to invest the most time and effort Employees need to be aware of and understand why change is necessary before they are ready to talk about detailed plans for achieving that change

Explaining the need for change takes the form of awareness building, education and persuasion The respondents reported using a variety of measures to explain the need for change including presenting facts about the cost of non quality, bringing in speakers from other companies to talk about their experiences and providing training modules on what quality has done for other companies However the two types of organisations had different views on why, fundamentally, the organisation needs to change While the organisations with Integrated communications identified and promoted reasons for change based mostly around the future of the organisation, the organisations with Person-centred communications placed more emphasis on identifying and promoting individual emotive reasons for change

When asked to describe the main arguments for quality which they give staff, *the organisations with Integrated communications concentrated on the benefits to the company's security* Arguments included,
>   'We can't afford not to ' (Manager, Printco)
>   'Without quality, the company can't compete' (Manager, Printco)
>   'If we don't change, the company won't progress' (Manager, Telco)

The arguments given by the organisations with Person-centred communications took a similar vein, but again added another dimension They tended to explicitly state that the individual's own future and job satisfaction is intrinsically tied up with the success of the company's quality programme For example
>   'We tell them that the customer pays their wages '(Manager, Hotelco)
>   'We want them to see how it helps them' (Manager, Caterco)
>   'It makes your job easier ' (Manager, Caterco)
>   'This is what keeps us in our jobs ' (Manager, Fastenco)
>   'The good thing about all of this is you can see your ideas being put to use'
>   (Manager, Finco)

One interviewee from an organisation with high Person-centred communications scores said;

> I found that the usual arguments such as customer satisfaction weren't getting us very far. What they wanted to know was, will it make things any easier? Well I had to say that it wouldn't in the short-term. In fact it was probably going to get worse before better. But once it was up and running they could plan how to handle the crates themselves and avoid having to wait around for them to come in. You see many of them have children who would be in bed by 7.30 or so. They wanted to get home to see them before they go to bed. So that particular argument bought me more than all the others.

(Manager, Boxco)

This interviewee was prepared to openly discuss potential negatives and positives for the employees ahead of the commercial argument. The interviewee was also aware of important personal issues for the employees which had nothing to do with the commercial argument, but which were clearly affecting the employees' willingness to embrace change. And the interviewee was prepared to use person-oriented arguments ahead of commercial arguments to achieve the commercial objective.

Interestingly, the person oriented approach of Person-centred communications does not necessarily mean that communications has to be positive. Both sets of organisations tended to hint at threats to either the individual or the organisation, should quality not be embraced. Arguments such as 'without quality we can't compete' (Manager, Printco), and 'the customer pays our wages' (Manager, Hotelco), are implicitly hinting at the demise of the organisation or individuals' livelihoods should they choose not to embrace the change towards quality. The difference between the two was the thrust of the organisations with Person-centred communications' arguments aimed at the person's well-being, more so than the organisations with Integrated communications, which argued for the company's well-being.

The two groups of organisations also demonstrated a difference in orientation in their reassurances about employees' concerns. The interviewees from the organisations with Person-centred communications stressed this strategy more than those in the organisations with Integrated communications. The types of concerns which the organisations with Person-centred communications identified included feelings of inadequacy coming up to new changes, concerns about increased workload, concerns about lack of training, concerns about management sticking to the priorities which they have identified and to a lesser extent, concerns about job security. The interviewees from the organisations with Integrated communications were not unaware of these concerns and did talk about the need to educate employees on what is involved and why, but they were less concerned about the employees' concerns as legitimate

248

areas to concentrate on for themselves, but more as areas to concentrate on to encourage smooth implementation of change

8.4.2.(iii)   Employee Involvement

The same pattern also emerged when the interviewees were asked in some detail about the opportunities they provide for their employees to contribute towards developing the quality process Both types of organisations emphasised the need for involvement and gave examples of how they sought that involvement However, apart from one exception, the organisations which scored highly on Integrated communications tended to have quite restricted, formal methods in place for involvement (such as team meetings, suggestion schemes, comment boxes for shift report sheets and so on) Employees in these organisations were also given the freedom to bring ideas up informally with their line manager or with the quality manager, but m practice, when they did, they concentrated on aspects specific to their direct working remit in a way similar to the approach taken by the whole sample of organisations

When asked the reasons behind seeking contribution, the interviewees of the organisations with Integrated communications spoke in commercial and output focused terms

> 'They know best what's going on' (Manager, Healthco)
> 'The more brains behind the problem the better' (Manager, Telco)
> 'I don't have the exact figures, but I know that as a result of [x idea], those two saved more money than I could have done if I sat down for a month ' (Manager, Printco)

While not losing sight of the commercial reason for seeking employee involvement, those with Person-centred communications, nonetheless, did demonstrate more awareness of the 'people' benefits of involvement Similar involvement structures such as team meetings, suggestion schemes and so on were put in place, but there was more willingness to include front-line employees m discussion and decision making about areas which may not have been within their direct remit Unleashing ideas, whatever part of the organisation the idea might benefit, seemed to be more of an end in itself Comments from the respondents included,

> 'We are totally against people parking their brains outside we want those brains put to good use inside' (Manager, Boxco)
> 'You should see the buzz around the place coming up to the annual [suggestion scheme] awards' (Manager, Caterco)
> 'If someone has an idea and wants to share it, we should be giving them the chance to do that' (Manager, Finco)
> 'We do give them small vouchers, but it's the fact that we actually ask them that counts for most ' (Manager, Hotelco)

249

In summary, the in-depth interviews revealed an underlying difference in orientation between the two communications approaches. The organisations with Person-centred communications were as commercially aware as their Integrated counterparts, but they also indicated that stressing the 'people' side of management is an important objective in its own right. The focus for managers using Integrated communications is to achieve management's desired change for the organisation. Employees play a key role in delivering that, but are not the centre of management's focus. However, the focus for managers using Person-centred communications is on the employees themselves and organisational change becomes an outcome, rather than the primary goal of communicating itself.

8.5   Which Organisations Use The Two Communications Dimensions?

The quantitative findings (see Figure 7.5), suggest that organisations which select to use either Person-centred or Integrated communications can be differentiated from other organisations by the extent to which the communications objectives they subscribe to are also either Person-centred or revolve around co-ordination. Organisation structures for those selecting to use Integrated communications also support co-ordination. Thereafter, the key differentiating factors emerging from the quantitative findings are less easy to explain. Person-centred communications is associated with employees with higher educational profiles, while Integrated communications was found to be both associated with manufacturing organisations and with organisations comprising a majority of clerical staff. Moreover, the secondary research on the five highest scoring organisations for each of the two dimensions would suggest little difference in organisational profiles between the two types, in terms of sector, size, structure and employee profile.

However, one pattern of interest had been noted in the secondary research. The organisations with high Integrated communications scores tended to be in sectors involving mass produced predictable offers (printing, locking devices, food ingredients and health care mass production), while the organisations with high Person-centred communications scores were more represented by sectors involving specialised or flexible offers (hotel services, financial services, catering).

This dynamic was probed in some detail during the follow-up interviews and what began to emerge was a concept closely aligned to that identified by Woodward (1965); the level of personal control which the front-line employee was expected to deploy in the provision of the offer. The level of personal control tends to be higher in a service organisation, where the

customer demands a flexible response to particular needs and where the locus of control in developing that service rests firmly on the shoulders of the individual. It is that flexibility which differentiates excellent service (an intangible offer), from mediocre service. The level of personal control is much lower for the operator of a line which mass produces a commodity. The control is automated and deviation from a set process is more likely to result in added costs than better service.

It could be assumed that manufacturing organisations would typically require lower levels of personal control because of the automated nature of the business. This assumption was borne out in the interviews with the organisations with Integrated communications. Healthco produces high volumes of a small number of healthcare lines through a highly automated process. Printco produces high volume batches of products, as does Lockco and Foodco's product offer is a commodity offer with very little variation. Very strict hygiene controls drive its process. Interestingly, however, these assumptions were proven to be ill-founded in the case of the two Person-centred manufacturing organisations. Boxco markets itself on its ability to provide small volume high quality printing, requiring rapid changes of the printing line. It devolves control onto the shoulders of the operator rather than the automated process. Fastenco, also scoring highly on Person-centred communications, differentiates itself from competitors by its ability to offer highly calibrated components to fit individual clients' needs. Again, skilled operators take control of the manufacturing process, by continuously adjusting the machinery to meet the requirements of very specific small batch orders.

It was generally apparent that those organisations which pursued Person-centred communications, tended to demand relatively high levels of personal control from front-line operators or service providers, while those choosing Integrated communications, required less levels of personal control from their front-line staff. These organisations were decentralising control closer to the automated process, this in turn meaning that the central planner (most likely to be the manager in charge), makes decisions about what can and cannot be done with the process.

The difference where control is placed between the two sets of organisations also emerged when the concept of opinion leaders was raised. Persuasion theory points to the importance of opinion leaders and group communications theory argues that individuals will be influenced by their peers and group norms (eg Siebold and Meyers, 1996). Elmes and Costello (1992) and Petty and Cacioppe (1986) suggest that opinion leaders' influence can be on the basis of power, perceived expertise or the extent to which they are generally regarded. A number of the interviewees explained how they sought to bring opinion leaders on side early in the process to

help influence general opinion. The important role which managers and employee representatives play as opinion leaders has already been discussed.

A typical comment made by one interviewee was:

> One of the first things I did was to pick off [describes two influential, non-managerial people]. I asked them to be part of the quality project team and got them to think about the likely problems which we were all going to face if we introduced new quality working practices. And then we went through all those problems one by one....This was probably one of the most important things I've done in all of this.
>
> (Manager, Healthco)

This approach contrasts with the ambivalence shown generally by the total sample of organisations towards using non-managerial influencers, where for example only 45 per cent of the organisations agreed that they gave peer influencers important roles in the communications process (Table 6.5).

Managers' influence as opinion leaders is broadly based on their authority and power. Similarly, employee representatives also have authority and power on the basis of having been voted in by their members. An interesting phenomenon emerged in the interviews with the organisations with high Integrated communications scores, who appeared to demonstrate more reliance on 'expert' influencers than organisations with high Person-centred communications scores. The organisations with Integrated communications reported making significant use of their quality officers or managers as influencers. Their role would be to explain the importance of quality, the processes involved, what needs to be done to amend poor performance and so on. On the other hand, the organisations with Person-centred communications did not report making the same use of their quality managers. This phenomenon, at first glance, is difficult to explain. The quality processes and standards did not appear to be any more complex in the organisations with Integrated communications than the organisations with Person-centred communications, thus requiring extra expertise. It could be argued, however, that the organisations with Person-centred communications made less use of expert influence because of their emphasis on localised flexibility and autonomy to come up with solutions, rather than relying on a centralised quality figure.

Another interesting dynamic also began to emerge during the interviews; the relationship between the organisations and their customers. As the interviews progressed, it became apparent that a number of the organisations with high Person-centred communications scores had very close working relationships with their customers. These organisations were totally focused around their customers' requirements. So much so, that key customers were not only being consulted on their needs but, in certain cases, they were coming on to the shop floor and

dictating the pace In two instances, the relationship was practically that of a sub-contractor of a sole key customer, the customer providing the majority of the organisation's business

The interviewee from one of the organisations said,

> 'You'll see fellahs from [company x] over here three, four times a week and at all hours of the night They could make us pull a job even half way through if it's not just right '
>
> (Manager, Boxco)

Even the other three organisations with Person-centred communications which had a wider client base, were very cogniscent of their customers' ability to demand high levels of flexibility in their product offer They had given the customer that power through the way they promoted their product / service promise The customer had responded to that promise and was now, in the eyes of these companies, 'calling the shots' In the case of organisations with Person-centred communications, the locus of control in the relationship between the customer and the supplier appears to be firmly weighted towards the customer

This was less true for the organisations with high Integrated communications scores While it was argued in the interviews how important the customer was to them, there appeared to be more of an ability for these organisations to control the level of flexibility the customer could demand Four of the five organisations were in manufacturing and while their processes were aimed towards customers' requirements, as opposed to the smooth running of the manufacturing process itself, the impression given by the interviewees was that, ultimately, the limitations or otherwise of the process could dictate just how flexible the product offer could be As one interviewee put it,

> We're under pressure all the time to meet the orders But it has to be done properly and in the right conditions
>
> (Manager, Healthco)

In each of the Integrated communications businesses, the organisations were offering customer friendly concepts such as JIT delivery and different product variations, but the decision regarding what the customer wants, was being made within the supplying organisation The place where control rests for the organisations with Integrated communications appeared stronger for the organisation than for their customers

In summary, in organisations with high Person-centred communications scores, control appeared to be firmly decentralised to employees and indeed as far out as the customers themselves, with customer flexibility dictating the pace. In organisations with high Integrated communications scores, control appeared to be more firmly centralised with management who held control over the production process and ultimately could decide how flexible or otherwise the organisation was willing to be for the customer

8.6   Summary

Five of the highest scoring organisations for each of Person-centred and Integrated communications (ten in total), took part in follow-up interviews. The objective of the follow-up interviews was to determine whether any more insight could be gleaned into the features of the two communications dimensions and whether or not the two groups of organisations could be differentiated in any way

During the interviews, it emerged that while on the face of it, both set of organisations take a similar approach to communicating in terms of openness, content, use of media, allocation of roles, involving employees and sharing information across functions, there appears to be a fundamental underlying difference between the two. This difference lies in the assumptions behind the two approaches. Organisations with high Integrated communications scores use communications to achieve organisational change. However, organisations with high Person-centred communications scores, while commercially aware, stress that communications is as much about making a connection with their colleagues as people, as achieving the organisational change objective

Secondary research into the ten organisations did not reveal any major patterns which differentiate organisations selecting to use Person-centred communications from those selecting to use Integrated communications, other than an emerging trend towards organisations with Person-centred communications offering specialised and flexible products or services, contrasting with a tendency for organisations with Integrated communications to manufacture high volume, less flexible products. However, on further exploration through the interviews, this pattern became more distinct. The two groups of organisations could be differentiated on two criteria, predictability and flexibility of product or service offer and devolvement of control. The five organisations with Person-centred communications tended to be characterised by offering flexible, unpredictable service or products, with control decentralised out to front-line employees and as far as the customers themselves, while organisations with Integrated

communications generally tended to offer high volume, predictable product offers with the locus of control firmly centred with management and the automated process itself

These findings from the qualitative phase build on the earlier quantitative findings The next chapter, chapter 9, brings together the two sets of findings to describe a model of communicating for change in a quality context which comprises two dimensions and the type of organisations which elect to use either dimension of the model

CHAPTER 9   TOWARDS A MODEL OF COMMUNICATIONS IN A QUALITY CONTEXT.

9.1   Introduction

In chapters 7 and 8, the findings of the quantitative and qualitative phases of research were detailed. The findings included an assessment of the key features of two communications dimensions, Person-centred and Integrated communications, which emerged through factor analysis and through subsequent interviews. The findings also included a description of the types of organisations which tend to use either communications dimension. This chapter draws together the key findings of chapters 7 and 8 to describe a model of communications used by organisations changing to become total quality organisations. It then determines whether or not the model could be considered to be well constructed.

9.2   A Model Of Communications In A Quality Context.
A Summary Of The Findings

Through the factor analysis and subsequent interviews, Person-centred and Integrated communications were found to converge on four core principles, but to diverge on the core assumptions running behind these principles. This is illustrated in Figure 9 1

Figure 9 1   Key Features of Person-centred and Integrated Communications

Organisation Orientation

Person Orientation

Info for better decisions

Openness

Info for personal satisfaction

Comms used to co-ordinate

Sharing between functions

Comms used to build trusting & caring relationships

Seeking input for the organisation

Seeking input

Seeking input for personal satisfaction

Organisation benefit arguments

Communicating the need

Personal benefit arguments

Integrated

Person-centred

Openness is the first and possibly most vital feature of convergence The principle of openness is implicit in all of the statements found to be associated with the two dimensions through factor analysis The interviewees across both groups of organisations in the qualitative phase of the research also highlighted openness as being a key, if not the key principle, behind their communications approaches Regular updates on progress, for example, was a core part of their approach

Seeking employees' input also emerged as a common principle, both in the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research, whether within a function or across functions This was seen to be a key part of creating acceptance of change and of ensuring that the best ideas are utilised for the change process Moreover, it became apparent in the interviews that employees are actually expected to contribute

Lateral information flows was also found to be as important as upwards communication Both the quantitative data and subsequent interviews point to lateral information flows as being a key feature of both dimensions Task groups and project teams, as well as a willingness to provide information to employees across function lines and seek their input in the same way, was part of this feature

Communicating the need for change is the fourth common principle While this only explicitly comes through in the quantitative findings for Person-centred communications (statement 35, 'Management regularly explains why it is important to carry out the quality initiative'), it emerged as a key aspect of communications for both sets of organisations in the interviews Interviewees refer to how management in their organisation are prepared to discuss both the benefits of change and the threats, should the organisation not embrace change

However, the two dimensions were found to fundamentally diverge on the core assumptions underlying each organisation's reason for communicating The quantitative findings from the factor analysis hinted at a difference between the two approaches Some of the statements specific to Person-centred communications (eg statement 30, 'Employees told of the positive impact on their jobs' and statement 35, 'Management explain why quality is important'), appeared to be related to an emphasis on individual concerns (see Figure 7 4) On the other hand, the statements specific to Integrated communications (eg statement 31, 'Anyone can check on records anywhere' and statement 33, 'Information covers company wide events'), appeared to just re-emphasise the principle of making information open and available throughout the company

The follow-up interviews were more revealing. On probing, it became apparent that while both groups of organisations subscribe to common principles such as openness, seeking input, sharing across functions and communicating the need, the assumption or orientation behind these principles was the key differentiating factor. Organisations with Integrated communications' are oriented towards the achievement of the organisations' goals, while organisations with Person-centred communications' orientation are more focused on the fulfilment of personal goals of the employees.

For example, this difference is highlighted in the reasons behind each group of organisations' openness with information. Both sets of organisations want to be as open with information as possible. However, organisations with Integrated communications are open with information to facilitate better decisions, while organisations with Person-centred communications are open with information to alleviate concerns and enhance personal satisfaction. In addition, both types of organisations communicate the need for change by putting forward the benefits and threats involved. Organisations with Integrated communications discuss the benefits and threats to the organisation, while organisations with Person-centred communications concentrate more on the benefits and threats to the individuals who work within the organisation.

The t-tests carried out to differentiate between organisations which subscribe to either type of communications from those which do not, further re-inforce this argument. Organisations with a Person-centred approach to communicating are more likely to agree that their objectives for communicating relate to person-centred goals such as building trusting relationships, showing the organisation cares and motivating employees. On the other hand, organisations which take an Integrated approach to communicating are more likely to agree that their objective for communications is to co-ordinate different functions.

The difference in orientation between the two dimensions can be summarised as orientation towards the organisation or orientation towards the person. It was also found that the extent to which one approach is pursued ahead of another appears to be associated with organisational variables. This is summarised below.

9.3   The Organisational Types Which Pursue Either Communications Approach - A Summary Of The Findings

It has already been noted, that an assessment of the types of organisations which are more associated with either Person-centred or Integrated communications through the quantitative findings was not very revealing. However, secondary research into the higher scoring organisations for each dimension pointed to one pattern which warranted further probing in the

interviews. It appeared that organisations could be characterised by their product or service offer. Exploring this further in the ten interviews reveals an interesting pattern as illustrated in Figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2   Variables Linked With The Usage Of Either Person-centred Or Integrated Communications

Centre of Control
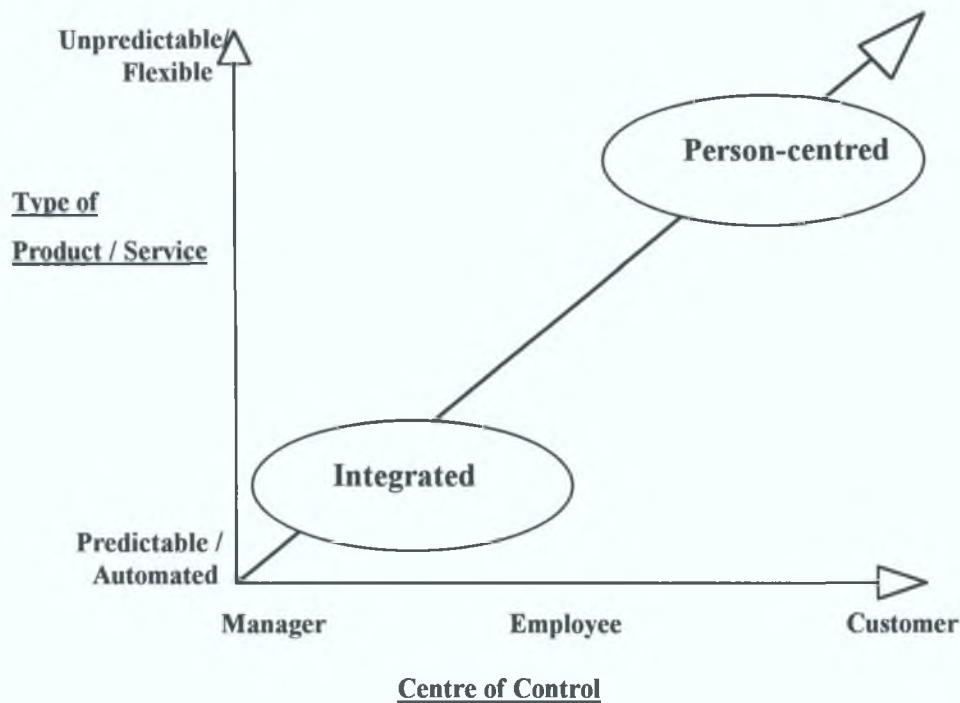
While the numbers of interviews were small, a strong pattern emerged whereby the two sets of organisations could be differentiated by product or service offer and by the extent to which control is decentralised. Organisations with Person-centred communications tend to offer tailored products or services to the customer which could be changed at any notice. This included two manufacturing organisations which were prepared to be very flexible in changing product specifications and manufacturing them in low volumes, according to their customers' needs. In contrast, four out of the five organisations with Integrated communications manufacture large volumes of products from highly automated lines.

A second organisational characteristic was also found to link in with the product or service offer. The more predictable and automated the offer, the more centralised was control to make decisions. Organisations with Integrated communications were found to have highly centralised control, controlled by management. The expense involved, for example, in closing down a highly automated line producing mass volumes, prohibits anyone other than management

259

making that decision. However, as the offer becomes less predictable, less automated and more flexible, the more the power of decision making goes into the hands of the front-line employee and ultimately, the customer. Two of the organisations with Person-centred communications spoke openly about the enormous influence their customers have within their organisation, to the extent, in one case, that the customer can dictate when a line should be closed down. This works equally well in the services industry. A company offering tailored financial services (Finco), or responding to the needs of a guest (Hotelco), needs to empower decision making down to the employee and as close as possible to customers themselves.

While the numbers of organisations involved in the qualitative interviews are small, the indications are compelling that organisations pursuing either Person-centred or Integrated communications can be differentiated by these two variables.

9.4 Has A Well Constructed Model Of Communications Been Identified?

Having developed a model of communications from the quantitative and qualitative data, it is important to determine whether or not the model has been well constructed. In chapter 4, the differences between poorly constructed and well constructed models were discussed, as determined by Doty and Glick (1994). The model was developed by carrying out factor analysis on responses to clusters of statements about communications and by further exploration in follow-up interviews. In chapter 4, Doty and Glick's (1994) list of what comprises a good typology was outlined (see Table 9.1 below).

Table 9.1   The Three Criteria Which Make Up A Well Developed Typology. (Based on Doty and Glick, 1994)

Criteria	
Criterium 1	The predictions must be tangible and subject to disconfirmation
Criterium 2	The typology explicitly defines what is considered to be an ideal type
Criterium 3	The typology should encompass a reading on all the constructs involved

First of all, a good typology's predictions should be tangible and subject to disconfirmation. This requires that transparent and detailed information be given on what constructs have been identified, how they were tested and analysed and what subsequent conclusions have been drawn. A detailed list of the statements used to test the two communications approaches is provided in Chapter 7 (and the full questionnaire is provided in Appendix B). The approach

taken to analyse the data is also provided in detail in chapter 4.4. The model of good practice communications, therefore, fulfils the first of the three criteria set down by Doty and Glick.

Their second criterium requires that the typology specifies what is considered to be the ideal type of whatever is under investigation. In this instance, the typology should describe what it is that makes up the ideal type of communications to support change. The Person-centred and Integrated ends of the two communications dimensions are clearly more representative of 'ideal' communications than either the Autocratic or Fragmented constructs.

Doty and Glick's third criterium for a well developed typology is that it should encompass all potential constructs related to the area under investigation. The rationale for including different statements into the list of 38 statements in section D of the questionnaire is given in detail in chapter 4.4, but in short, they were included on the basis of a comprehensive investigation into current knowledge about organisational communications and change management in the literature, supported by additional points raised in the preliminary interviews. It is not possible to say conclusively that all possible constructs have been included in the original list of 38 statements. However, the list includes all the major constructs identified in the literature at the time of the research being carried out. The approach taken to reduce the possible constructs involved from that original list of 38 is also detailed in chapter 7.2. Because the methodology was exploratory, the researcher methodically tried many combinations of factors before reducing the combinations on the basis of the key themes which had emerged.

One of the advantages of the two models is that they comprise a combination of constructs which are discussed at all these levels of communicating for change - interpersonal, group and organisation-wide communications. In Chapter 3.4, it was pointed out that a major short-coming of the literature on communicating for change is the dearth of theories and research which try to cover more than one of these categories. The Person-centred and Integrated communications dimensions are identified in terms of content (interpersonal communications), the roles of influencers (group communications) and information-flows and open climate (organisation-wide communications). Therefore, they are comprehensively bringing together accepted knowledge at all three levels of the communicating for change literature.

These models of communicating for change appear, then, to fulfil Doty and Glick's (1994) three criteria for well developed typologies. However, having established that the models are based on sound principles, one other issue has to be explored. Are the models original, adding something new to current understanding of organisational communications, or are they just a replica of earlier models, packaged in a different way? The two communications dimensions were broadly based on Plant's (1987) categories, but there are differences between what was

found in this study and his original model Firstly, Plant saw the two dimensions as being interlinked perpendicularly (see Figure 1 6, chapter 1 5 3), and he had specified four quadrants of organisational profiles which were made out of the relationship between the two dimensions, organic, anarchic, autocratic and bureaucratic organisations However, this study did not find a particular relationship between the two dimensions To evaluate whether the two dimensions were perpendicular to each other, factor analysis was carried out on all 16 statements relating to the four factors If they were perpendicular, four distinct factors should have emerged from the analysis This did not occur The results did not support Plant's hypothesis that the two spectrums can be plotted on an x and y axis The dimensions are better viewed as converging in some areas and diverging in others (Figure 9 1, chapter 9 2) This view was borne out by looking at the scores of individual organisations where it was found that some organisations scored highly for both Person-centred and Integrated communications and this relationship between the two was irregular In other words, while some organisations could and did combine the two approaches to communications, the presence of one did not necessarily influence the presence of another

Person-centred and Integrated communications are also similar to two of the three features identified by Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) in their Individualized corporation They argue that organisations which wish to undertake transformational change have a person oriented management philosophy (similar to Person-centred communications), and integrate organisational learning through strong lateral communications, openness and trust (similar to Integrated communications) However, Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) see both features as being equally present in all Individualized corporations, whereas the findings from this study suggest that the two communications dimensions may be favoured by different organisations Plant's own model of organisational profiles, in turn, is based on earlier organisational profiles described in the literature such as those described by Burns and Stalker (1961) and by Likert (1967) It was decided to contrast the model of good practice communications identified out of this study with Plant's and other relevant models of organisational profiles through secondary research Table 9 2 below highlights the key constructs of this study's model and compares these constructs with those identified by Plant (1987), Likert (1967) and Burns and Stalker (1961), to see what level of overlap, if any, emerges

Table 9.2   Comparing The Model Of Communications Identified In This Study And Models Of Organisational Profiles In The Literature.

	This Model	Plant (1987)	Likert (1967)	Burns and Stalker (1961)
Autocratic	Called Autocratic Top-down info. flows Directive control Comms. based on power / status Reasons for change not explained Comms. can still happen regularly	Called Autocratic One way info. flows - Central role for those in authority - Poor comms. flows	Called Authoritative Top-down info. flows Rule by 'iron hand' - - Withholding of ideas	Called Mechanistic Top-down info flows Inflexible Hierarchical Centralised decision making Little interaction
Person-centred	Called Person-centred Multidirectional info. flows Openness with all info Explain why change is necessary Explain how change can benefit	Called Person-centred Multidirectional info. flows General openness Person-oriented approach Person oriented approach	Called Participative Multidirectional info. flows General openness - -	Called Organic Multidirectional info. flows Knowledge is located anywhere - -
	This Model	Plant (1987)	Likert (1967)	Burns and Stalker (1961)
Fragmented	Called Fragmented Information is restricted Vertical info. flows only Lack of global picture Lack of company-wide info.	Called Fragmented - Poor lateral comms. - -	Called Fragmented Control is restricted Vertical info flows only - -	(No name) - Hierarchical - -
Integrated	Called Integrated Sharing of info. across functions Openness with all info. Presence of company-wide info	Called Integrated Sharing of info across functions Open -	Called Integrated Sharing of info across functions Open -	Called Clover Leaf Sharing of info across functions Open Clear company wide vision

Plant's Autocratic / Person-centred dimension was broadly based on the two organisation types based on the classical and human relations schools respectively such as the Authoritative vs

Participative organisations described by Likert (1967) and the Mechanistic / Organic organisations described by Burns and Stalker (1961)

The four statements used to describe Autocratic communications emphasise top down information flows, directive content, management not bothering to share the reasons for change and communications power based on management status in the organisation (see Table 9 2 above) Both Likert's description of Authoritative organisations and Burns and Stalkers description of Mechanistic organisations also emphasised downward flows of information, hierarchical authority and knowledge being centralised at the top Plant's Autocratic dimension, likewise, emphasised one way communication and a central role for management and those in authority However, there is a key difference The Autocratic factor identified in this study does not preclude frequent interactions, while each of Likert, Burns and Stalker and Plant's descriptions emphasised low levels of interaction and withholding of ideas The Autocratic factor in this study's model of good communications still allows for frequent interactions, but the nature of those interactions would be very much top down and directive

The Person-centred communications factor in this study was developed from four statements emphasising upwards and lateral information flows, sharing of information and explaining why change is necessary and how it can benefit These constructs are not as closely aligned to the Organic and Participative organisations described by Burns and Stalker and Likert Their description of organisation types were similar to the Person-centred dimension in their emphasis on upwards and lateral communications and general openness of information, but they did not emphasise the constructs explaining why and how in any way Plant's Person-centred organisation type was a little closer to this model in these areas, with an emphasis on person oriented rather than task oriented approach A task oriented approach would concentrate on communicating what has to be done, while a person oriented approach would explain why, sell in the personal benefits and seek employees' thoughts on the proposals, three of the statements used in this survey to score the Person-centred communications dimension

The Fragmented / Integrated dimension was also based on Plant's organisational profile, which in turn was influenced by Thompson (1967), Lievegoed (1973) and Woodward's (1980) views on organisations with Integrated communications The Fragmented factor was developed from five statements which encapsulated concepts such as restricting information, 'chimney stack' information flows up and down, the lack of a global picture being communicated directly from the top and lack of company wide information Each of Plant, Likert and Burns and Stalker all referred to the poor practice of vertical information flows, but did not encapsulate the concepts of lack of global vision or company wide information into their models The Integrated factor was developed from four statements emphasising information flows across the organisation and

264

openness with all types of information including the company-wide 'bigger picture' These concepts strongly reflect the concepts proposed by Thompson, Lievegoed and Woodward as well as more recent writers such as Handy (1986), Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998), Peters (1988) and Moss Kanter (1989), who saw integration as being based around sharing of information across the organisation, sharing of all types of information and co-ordination of all this information under a clear company-wide vision by top management

Clearly there are many similarities, but the constructs which make up the model of communications is not a direct replica of earlier models Elements of different models have been encapsulated, but there are nuances specific to this model which are not addressed in the others It can be concluded, then, that the model of communications in a quality context is well constructed (as defined by Doty and Glick, 1994), and adds new insights to the current understanding of communicating for organisational change beyond that discussed in the literature

9.5   Summary

This chapter draws together the key findings of the quantitative and qualitative research to suggest a model of two communications approaches used by organisations to support quality Hypothesis 3 states that communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change This research supports Hypothesis 3 The model put forward comprises four central communications practices common to both Person-centred and Integrated communications, openness (Hypothesis 3(d)), seeking employees' input (Hypothesis 3(i)), communicating the need for change in both logical and emotional terms (Hypothesis 3(a) and 3(b)), and sharing information between functions, or lateral communications (Hypothesis 3(j)) The two approaches adhere to these four principles, but with different fundamental assumptions, which ultimately can influence the detail of what is said or how an employee is encouraged to input, in practice Organisations with Integrated communications focus on organisational goals while organisations with Person-centred communications stress the personal goals of the individuals working within the organisations Other communications practices advocated in the literature such as selection of media, (Hypothesis 3(e)), communicating through everyday activity rather than through special programmes (Hypothesis 3(k)), and providing key roles for management and peer influencers (Hypothesis 3(f), (g) and (h)), have been found not to be central to these two approaches to communicating for change

A number of criteria were used to determine whether or not this model put forward has been well constructed It was concluded that the model is well constructed

Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables While a number of organisational variables were found to differentiate the selection of the two communicating for change approaches in the quantitative research (eg sector (Hypothesis 4(b) and employee profile, Hypothesis 4(e)), overall, the quantitative findings were not particularly revealing However by exploring points which emerged in the secondary research through follow-up interviews, a strong pattern is suggested The interviews indicate that the organisations can be differentiated by two related criteria - the extent to which the product or service offer is flexible and the extent to which decisions are decentralised out to employees and customers Therefore the first part of Hypothesis 4 is also supported

At this stage, some useful insights have been developed into the nature of communications to support quality However, a key purpose of this study is to examine whether a relationship can be found between the communications approach taken and the extent to which organisations achieve change This relationship is examined in the next chapter, beginning with an assessment as to how organisational change towards total quality can be described

SECTION FOUR

ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IN A QUALITY CONTEXT

CHAPTER 10   ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE IN A QUALITY CONTEXT

10.1   Introduction

The findings so far have focused on describing the communications practices associated with quality organisations, with the central practices then being identified in a model of communications However, the main purpose of this study is to identify whether or not a link can be found between communications and the successful achievement of organisational change Total quality was identified as being the organisational change context and in chapter 2, a model of organisational change from quality assurance to total quality was suggested This chapter begins with an overview of quality biographical information of the total sample of organisations The suggested model of organisational change is then tested and the relationship between this type of organisational change and change management strategies other than communications is briefly examined

10.2   Quality Characteristics And Management Strategies Of The Organisations - Biographical Information

Two sections of the questionnaire, Sections B and C, comprise ten questions relating to the quality practices and characteristics of the organisations which took part in the study Section B explores the features associated with the implementation of the Q Mark Programme, while Section C broadens out to explore general features of quality in the organisations

There was little variation between the experiences of the organisations in implementing the Q Mark programme 92 2 per cent (n= 107), of the organisations reported that they were awarded the Q Mark on their first attempt (Table 10 1), with the remaining nine organisations achieving the Q Mark on their second attempt

Table 10 1   Number Of Attempts To Attain Q Mark

	One Attempt	Two Attempts
Percentage of organisations in the sample	92.2%	7.8%
	n=107	n=9

78 5 per cent of the organisations (n=91), took 12 months or less to attain the award (Table 10 2), and all organisations attained it in less than two years

Table 10.2   Number Of Months To Attain Q Mark

	12 Months Or Less	12 to 18 Months	18 to 24 Months
Percentage of organisations in the sample	78.5% n=91	16.4% n=19	5.1% n=6

Not surprisingly, there was a higher proportion of larger organisations taking longer than 12 months to achieve the award (Table 10 3), reflecting the added work involved as organisations become larger For example, 63 per cent of organisations with more than 500 employees took at least 12 months, compared with only 13 3 per cent of organisations with less than 100 employees, or 12 5 per cent of organisations with between 100 and 199 employees

Table 10.3   Number Of Months To Attain Q Mark - Breakdown By Size

	12 Months Or Less	12 to 18 Months	18 to 24 Months
50-100 employees	n=26	n=4	
100-199 employees	n=35	n=4	n=1
200-299 employees	n=23	n=3	n=1
500+ employees	n=7	n=8	n=4

However, almost all the organisations were happy with the amount of time taken to achieve their award (Table 10 4) 89 7 per cent of the respondents (n=104) said the Q Mark was achieved either within the time or less than the time expected

Table 10.4   Perceptions Regarding Amount Of Time Taken To Attain Q Mark

	Took Less Time Than Anticipated	Took Around Time Anticipated	Took More Time Than Anticipated
Percentage of organisations in the sample	27.6% n=32	62.1% n=72	10.3% n=12

269

One reason which could be attributed to a delay in achieving the award would be industrial unrest or action There were few reports of associated industrial action 87 1 per cent of the respondents said that there had been no industrial action in their organisations arising from its implementation (Table 10 5) and only one organisation admitted to significant disruption due to the Q Mark programme An analysis of those organisations which did experience IR issues versus those which did not by sector, size and presence of union revealed no particular patterns

Table 10.5   Industrial Action Associated With Implementation Of Q Mark

	No Related IR Action	Some Minor IR Action, Causing Minimal Disruption	Some Major IR Action Causing Significant Disruption
Percentage of organisations in the sample	87.1% n=101	12.1% n=14	0.8% n=1

Overall, it was the respondents' view that employees were generally satisfied with the way the programme went 83 6 per cent (n=97), said that their employees were generally satisfied with the way the programme was implemented (Table 10 6)

Table 10.6   Perceived Employee Satisfaction With The Implementation Of The Q Mark Programme

	Generally Dissatisfied With Implementation	No Opinion One Way Or Another	Generally Satisfied With Implementation
Percentage of organisations in the sample	4.3% n=5	12.1% n=14	83.6% n=97

The overall picture coming from the responses to Section B is of a homogenous group of organisations which tended to have little difficulty in introducing the Q Mark programme to schedule and with little disruption While it is recognised that quality is a more positive type of organisational change programme to introduce than, for example, a downsizing or radical re-organisation, it is surprising, nevertheless, to uncover such a uniformly positive experience Objective indicators such as time taken and number of attempts do point to smooth implementation generally

Section C of the Questionnaire explores a number of characteristics relating to quality generally in the organisations The commitment to quality across the organisation was investigated (Table 10 7), to explore whether or not quality was viewed as an organisational-wide phenomenon, or restricted to pockets within the organisations 70 6 per cent (n=82), of the respondents said that most employees in their organisation would view quality as being important, with the remaining 30 per cent viewing commitment as being restricted to management or the quality function

Table 10.7   Commitment To Quality Across The Organisations

	No Commitment	Only The Quality Dept.	Only Snr Management	Only Snr & Middle Management	Most Employees
Percentage of organisations in the sample	0% n=0	5.3% n=6	9.5% n=11	14 6% n=17	70.6% n=82

According to these respondents, then, in almost one third of the organisations, quality has not yet become a way of organisational life for employees generally, despite the achievement of a Q Mark Award So while the Q Mark itself may have been achieved with a minimum of disruption, it has not necessarily been internalised by employees in some 34 of the organisations and even by management in a further 17 of the organisations again

Senior management leadership was identified in the literature as being a key driving force behind any change initiative in the organisation, including quality (eg Gundogan et al, 1996, Hodgetts et al, 1994, Wenmoth and Dobbin, 1994) The priority given to quality by senior management was explored in this study (Table 10 8)

Table 10.8   Priority Given To Quality By Senior Management

	No Value	Some Value, But Unwilling To Invest In It	Some Value, But Only One of A Number Of Concerns	High Value, Weighed Against Other Concerns	No. One Management Priority
Percentage of organisations in the sample	0% n=0	1.7% n=2	12.2% n=14	56.8% n=66	29.3% n=34

Over 86 per cent of the respondents (n=100), believe that senior management place quality high on their list of priorities, almost 30 per cent of which (n=34), are claiming it is their number one priority. Overall, this paints a very healthy picture of leadership on quality amongst this sample. It is interesting to note, however, that this leadership is not yet being translated into on-the-ground employee commitment for some 30 per cent of the organisations (Table 10.7).

The literature advocates a number of special cross-functional structures to support quality (eg Ahire and Golhar, 1996; Dale and Cooper, 1992; Terziovski et al, 1996). The respondents were asked which organisational structures are in place in their organisations to implement the quality initiative (Table 10.9). Various cross-functional structures, either temporary or permanent, were identified from a selection provided. The respondents could select from more than one box, so the total percentages do not add up to 100 per cent.

Table 10.9   Organisational Structures in Place To Support Quality

	Functional Hierarchies	Temporary Cross-functional Teams	Permanent Cross-functional Teams	Supplier To Customer Chain	None of These Structures
Percentage of organisations in the sample	17.2% n=20	36.2% n=42	46.6% n=54	37.9% n=44	0% n=0

Most of the organisations have put in place cross-functional structures, either temporary or permanent or both to support their quality programmes (ranging from 42 to 54 organisations for each type of structure), with a substantial proportion (37.9 per cent, n=44) indicating that their organisations are shaped as a chain from the supplier to the customer. These results are in line with what would be expected, and compare similarly with results from a recent survey of 450 Irish workplaces (Roche and Geary, 1998).

The literature also advocates that quality performance be appraised and rewarded (eg Edge, 1990b; Ferketish and Hayden, 1992), with some suggesting that in keeping with the philosophy of TQM, it should be done on a group rather than individual basis (eg Rippin, 1994; Schonberger, 1992). Reward structures used to support quality were also investigated (Table 10.10). Only a minority of the organisations (18.1 per cent, n=21), suggest that quality is not taken into account when planning appraisals and rewards. Interestingly, given the debate in the literature regarding whether or not performance should be rewarded on group or individual basis, only 20 of the organisations reward group performance rather than individual performance.

Table 10.10   Linking Appraisals And Reward Structures With Quality

|	Quality Not Taken Into Account	Quality Is One Of The Criteria	Quality Is One Of The More Important Criteria	Group Performance On Quality Is Rewarded
Percentage of organisations in the sample	18% n=21	12.9% n=15	45.6% n=53	17% n=20

n=109

In summary, the findings reveal a picture whereby the organisations have tended to find the introduction of the Q Mark programme relatively uneventful and problem free However, despite apparent commitment from the top, up to 30 per cent of the organisations admit to quality not yet being committed to by employees generally A variety of the management practices advocated in the literature to support quality programmes such as cross-functional organisational structures and quality being integrated into appraisals and rewards, are used by the majority of these organisations

So, with a relatively homogeneous picture regarding the achievement of the Q Mark award, (excepting for the lack of commitment by employees in 30 per cent of the organisations), have all the organisations successfully achieved the same level of organisational change to become total quality organisations? In the following section, the extent to which the organisations have changed to become total quality organisations is examined

10.3   Testing The Proposed Model Of Organisational Change To Total Quality

In chapter 2 (Figure 2 3), a model was proposed which indicates five stages of organisational change extending from quality assurance to far-reaching total quality Hypothesis 1 states that this proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating the five incremental stages, is well-grounded To test the model, question 18 of the questionnaire asks respondents to agree or disagree with the extent to which statements about quality (relating to the five points of the model), describe the situation in their own organisation Figure 10 1 provides a summary of agreement levels with each statement

Figure 10.1   Agreement With Five Statements Relating To The Total Quality Change Model.

Quality Assurance   **Total Quality**

1. Documented measures & standards	2. Detection & eradication of problems	3.Customer focus	4. Strategic quality	5. Continuous improvement
89.7%	51.7%	62.1%	58.6%	44%
n=104	n=60	n=72	n=68	n=51
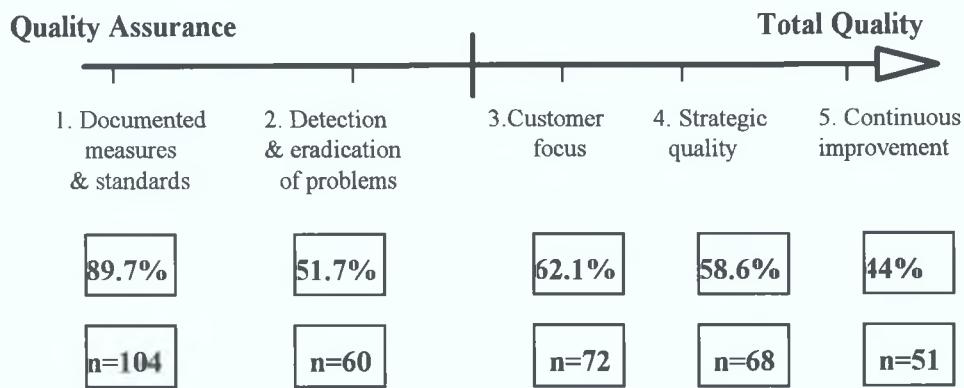
The findings demonstrate that the vast majority of the respondents indicated (89.7 per cent, n=104), that their organisation has at least documented measures and standards for quality in place. However, levels of agreement with each of the four other statements drop significantly, with customer focus being the next most reported factor, at 62.1 per cent agreement (n=72). Continuous improvement was least reported to be in place in this sample of organisations at 44 per cent agreement (n=51).

The variation in these findings reflect the admission noted earlier (Table 10.7), that in some 30 percent of the 116 organisations, quality would not be committed to outside management ranks and the quality departments. While documented standards can be put in place with or without employee commitment, it is less likely that customer focus or continuous improvement would be a genuine characteristic of those organisations in which employees are not committed to quality.

From Figure 10.1, it is not possible to establish whether the organisations have actually progressed in a systematic fashion from the earlier stages of quality assurance to the later stages of total quality. It could be suggested, for example, that organisations could have agreed to different combinations of the five concepts being present in their organisation and, if that were the case, it would not be correct to surmise that the organisations progress from the left side of the continuum to the right side in any consistent way. Moreover, Figure 10.1 would suggest that some of the latter stages of change (ie customer focus at 62.1 per cent (n=72), and strategic quality at 58.6 per cent (n=68), are more widespread than one of the earlier quality assurance stages (detection and eradication of problems, with 51.7 per cent agreement, (n=51).

To test whether or not organisations do go through this proposed staged process of organisational change from the quality assurance stages through to total quality, the Guttman scaling procedure was used (see chapter 4.4.5). When applying the Guttman scale to the responses of the organisations in this order, there were 57 errors. That is, in 57 cases out of a possible 580 responses, the organisations did not fit the scale neatly from left to right. Instead, they had responded that at least one of the concepts further to the right of the continuum was in place in their organisation without one of the concepts to the left of the continuum in situ. Despite this, a visual representation of the number of organisations which did follow the suggested pattern would indicate that the scale holds. See Figure 10.2 below.

Figure 10.2 :   Nos of Organisations Which Reached Each Stage Of The Five Stages Of Quality
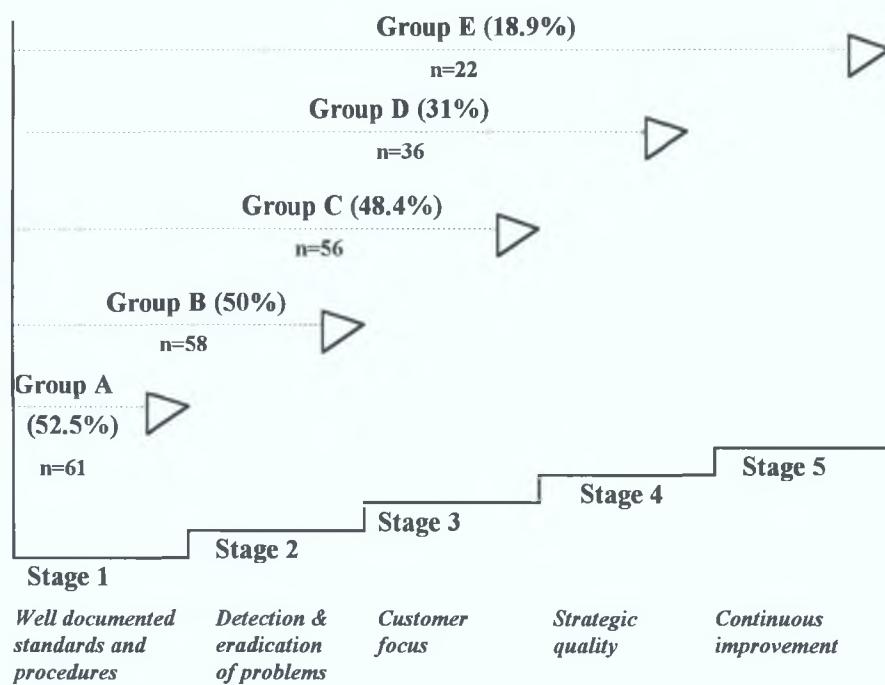

Figure 10.2 shows how, for this sample of organisations, the change process to becoming a quality organisation moves through five stages - a staged process similar to that described in the literature (eg Crosby, 1979; Dale and Cooper, 1992; Dale and Smith, 1997; PA Group, 1991; Rommel et al, 1994). Stages 1 and 2 are associated with quality assurance, while stages 3 through 5, are more associated with total quality. The chart shows how only 18.9 per cent out of a possible 116 organisations agreed that they followed all five stages of the five staged process to reach the furthermost stage of 'continuous improvement'. This group has been called Group E. 31 per cent of the organisations, reached four stages of the five staged process

(Group D), and around half of the organisations reached either the first, the second, or through the first and second to the third stages (Groups A, B and C at 52 5 per cent, 50 per cent and 48 4 per cent respectively)

The accuracy of this scale was checked by two methods, the co-efficient of reproducibility and the minimal marginal reproductibility For the Guttman scale to accurately predict that the organisations move cumulatively from left to right of the scale of organisational change, the coefficient of reproducibility of the scores must be 90 or over The coefficient of reproducibility is calculated as

$$Cr = 1\ 00 - \frac{\text{No of errors}}{\text{No of responses}}$$

In this case the coefficient of reproducibility is

$$Cr = 1\ 00 - \frac{57}{580} = 91.$$

Given that 91 is greater than 90, the coefficient of reproducibility is considered adequate to indicate that the scale is valid

To cross check this, Edwards (1957 91) reported in Moser and Kalton (1979), suggests it is necessary to carry out a further test, the minimal marginal reproducibility Edwards argues that the coefficient of reproducibility can be affected by the proportion of responses in the category with most responses (called 'modal frequencies'), and as a result, a meaningless coefficient of reproducibility could be calculated If it is found that the reproducibility can in fact be much lower than 90 in theory, then it is safe to suggest that the high coefficient of 91 calculated above is not just due to modal frequencies, but due to the validity of the scale

The minimal marginal reproducibility is calculated as

$$MMR = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(\% \text{ responses in modal category})}{N}$$

In this case, the MMR is

$$MMR = \frac{89 + 51 + 62 + 58 + 44}{5} = .61$$

It is clear that the coefficient of reproducibility calculated above at 91 is not high solely because of the modal frequencies It signifies considerable improvement in reproducibility over the minimum level of 61 and indicates that the scale is valid

What these two scores indicate, is that the order in which the stages have been suggested for the model (eg continuous improvement comes after strategic quality rather than before), appears to be salient It also means that it appears appropriate to argue that groups which travel further in the scale have travelled through a series of quality assurance stages before reaching total quality This supports Hypothesis 1(a) which states that organisations will achieve quality assurance standards before progressing to total quality Moreover, they have travelled through earlier total quality stages before reaching the ultimate total quality stage of continuous improvement That is, it can be argued that in becoming total quality organisations, these organisations changed through a staged process, where each stage builds on an earlier stage This contradicts arguments put forward by Lovelady (1984) and Orlikowski and Hofman (1997) (see Chapter 1 3), that change cannot be viewed as a staged process It also supports Hypothesis 1(c) which states that the process of organisational change to total quality can be described in linear and incremental terms

In summary, then, the findings would support the model proposed as a measurement of organisational change and demonstrate in particular that total quality involves more far-reaching change than quality assurance They demonstrate that a sample of organisations which vary in sector, size, employee profile and so on, can follow a similar linear process of change whereby the later stages of change build incrementally on the earlier stages This supports Hypothesis 1(b) which states that organisations will progress through the proposed five stages in the same sequence Overall, the findings would support the contention that organisational change in this sample of Q Mark organisations is a staged process and support Hypothesis 1 The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating the five incremental stages, appears to be well-grounded

10.4   Few Organisations Become TQM Organisations

In chapter 2 4, the literature's perspective on the difference between quality assurance and total quality was discussed (eg Bounds et al, 1994, Ishikawa, 1985, Wright, 1996) TQM was considered to be on 'a different plane' from quality conformance (Wright 1996   19), requiring 'total commitment to the customer and to continuous improvement' (Westphal et al, 1997 367) Within Ireland, there is a concern in some quarters that while many organisations have

been awarded various quality awards such as the Q Mark or ISO standards, very few have actually embraced the concepts of total quality in any fundamental way (eg Conlon, 1994; Roche and Gunnigle, 1995).

The findings from this study would lend support to these fears. The sample of 116 organisations which took part in this study were all Q Mark registered. The relative ease with which they achieved their Q Marks has been outlined. The majority of organisations attained Q Mark status on their first attempt, within the time anticipated and with minimal disruption. Yet even having achieved Q Mark status, almost 30 percent of the organisations (n=34) admit that commitment to quality is restricted to management and the quality department, while large numbers of organisations did not agree that any of customer focus, strategic quality or continuous improvement was a feature of the quality programme in their organisations. Out of 116 organisations, 44 did not agree that customer focus was a feature, 48 did not agree that strategic quality was a feature and 65 organisations did not agree that continuous improvement was a feature of their quality programme. Furthermore, when applying the Guttman scale to the results to establish how many organisations reached each of stages 3,4 and 5 in the five stages of quality, less than 50 per cent (n=56), of the organisations made it as far as stage 3 (customer focus), only 31 per cent made it as far as stage 4 (n=36), and less than 19 per cent (n=22), progressed through the full five stages to be described as total quality organisations. That is, according to these findings, less than 19 per cent of organisations registered as quality organisations, have actually transformed to become total quality organisations.

These findings lend weight to the prevailing view in the literature that there is a considerable difference between putting quality standards and procedures in place (quality assurance), and achieving the necessary transformation required to truly become a total quality organisation. Furthermore, they would suggest that even amongst the quality awarded population of organisations in Ireland, TQM remains an aspiration for most, rather than a reality.

10.5   Variables Which Differentiate The Five Quality Groups

Five groups of organisations have been identified which agree that they have followed the five staged process of organisational change to total quality in the same sequence, but to different extents. To establish a better insight into the nature of these organisations and whether or not they can be distinguished from each other by variables other than their adherence to these five stages of change, it was decided to carry out the Mann-Whitney U test to investigate areas of significant difference. This non parametric test was selected as being an appropriate test for ordinal variables such as the five Guttman groups. Three sets of variables were tested on the Guttman groups; organisational characteristics (eg sector, size, employee profile), quality

change management strategies (eg reward systems, semor management commitment etc), and communications vanables other than the two factors, Person-centred and Integrated communications, identified earlier

Significant differences between the groups were not found for any of the organisational vanables or the change management strategy vanables However, the five groups were differentiated according to a range of communications objectives and usage of two communications tools (see Table 10 11)

Table 10.11   Differences Between the Five Guttman Groups (Mann-Whitney U Test)

Communications objective	Yes	No	U	Z	Signif (2-tailed)
To show the organisation cares	Mean rank = 68 67 (n= 48)	Mean rank = 51 32 (n= 68)	1144	-2 865	p= 004**
To reduce rumours and uncertainties	Mean rank =65 48 (n=52)	Mean rank = 52 83 (n=64)	1301	-2 11	p= 035*
To build trusting relationships	Mean rank =63 78 (n=76)	Mean rank = 48 46 (n=40)	1118	-2 442	p= 015*
To motivate employees	Mean rank = 63 84 (n=82)	Mean rank = 45 62 (n= 34)	956	-2 782	p= 005**
To co-ordinate different functions	Mean rank = 66 8 (n=48)	Mean rank = 52 64 (n=68)	1233	-2 339	p= 019*
Communications Tool					
Mass meetings	Mean rank = 66 92 (n=58)	Mean rank = 50 1 (n=58)	1193	-2 825	p= 005*
Management Briefings	Mean rank = 62 1 (n=88)	Mean rank = 47 38 (n=28)	920 5	-2 105	p= 035*

*p< 05 **p < 01 ***p < 001

Differences were found between the groups according to the extent to which they claim to make use of verbal communications tools such as management briefings and mass meetings with staff It is not possible, from these findings alone, to interpret whether or not usage of this type of tool is more associated with organisations which progress further in the change process to total quality (eg Groups D or E), or those which remain further back in the change process (eg Groups A or B) Significant differences between the five groups were also found in the extent to which they subscribe to person-centred communications objectives and the communications objective 'to co-ordinate different functions'

It is of particular interest to note that four of the five communications objective features which differentiate these five groups are the same communications objectives found earlier to differentiate organisations with Person-centred communications from those without and organisations with Integrated communications from those without (Table 7.16 and 7.18). One objective, to co-ordinate different functions, pertains to the concept of co-ordination associated with Integrated communications. Three of the remaining four objectives; to demonstrate the organisation cares, to build trusting relationships and to motivate employees, pertain to the objectives associated with Person-centred communications. The fifth objective, to reduce rumours and uncertainties, is also related to the concept of person-orientation.

It could be suggested, then, that a link exists between these communications objectives, the two approaches to communicating for change and the extent to which organisations agree that they have successfully progressed through each of the five stages of organisational change to total quality. However, it is not possible, with these findings alone, to determine whether or not organisations subscribe more to each of the communications objectives as they move further up the process of organisational change to total quality. This directionality and the proposition that the link between the communications objectives, the two communications dimensions and the five groups does exist, are examined in the next chapter.

10.6   Summary

This chapter began with an analysis of the quality characteristics and practices of this sample of organisations. It was found that most organisations found the achievement of the Q Mark as being a relatively uneventful process, but up to 30 per cent of the organisations did admit to quality not yet being internalised by employees generally in their organisations. This pattern was reflected in the lower numbers of organisations agreeing that features associated with total quality such as continuous improvement and customer focus were present in their organisation, in contrast with almost universal agreement that features of quality assurance such as documented measures and standards are present. This suggests that even amongst quality awarded organisations in Ireland, few have fully embraced the concept of total quality.

Hypothesis 1 states that the proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well-grounded. Specifically, Hypotheses 1 (a), (b) and (c) specify that organisations will progress in the same sequence through quality assurance stages, followed by total quality stages, in a linear and incremental fashion. By using the Guttman scaling procedures, the three sub hypotheses, together with Hypothesis 1 overall, were all supported. Further analysis was also carried out to establish whether or not the five groups of organisations can be differentiated by variables other than the extent to which they agree that

they have reached each of five stages of total quality Two verbal communications tools and a number of communications objectives were found to differentiate the groups Almost all of the communications objectives (four are person-centred, one is related to co-ordination), overlap with the objectives found earlier to differentiate organisations which subscribe to each of Person-centred and Integrated communications from those which do not, suggesting there may also be a link between the two approaches to communicating for change and the extent to which organisations progress through the five quality stages This link is directly examined m the following chapter

CHAPTER 11   LINKING THE COMMUNICATIONS MODEL WITH ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

11.1   Introduction

Having identified a model of organisational change to total quality, this chapter then turns to the main purpose of this study, the establishment of a link between organisational communications and change This is achieved by examining the relationship between the two approaches to communicating for change, Person-centred and Integrated communications and organisational change, to establish whether or not a relationship exists This is examined in a number of ways, first of all, by establishing (through t-tests), whether or not the two communications dimensions are used more by organisations subscribing to total quality principles than those which do not Secondly, it is examined by tracking the extent to which the five groups (Groups A to E) which advance each of the five stages to total quality appear to use either or both of the two communications dimensions Thirdly, it is also examined by building an 'index of total quality' around the scores of the five groups and testing its relationship with the two approaches to communicating for change

11.2   Relationship Between The Communications Models And The Presence Of Total Quality

11.2.1   Identifying The Links Between Person-centred And Integrated Communications And The Three Total Quality Principles

The first step in exploring the nature of the relationship between Person-centred and Integrated communications and organisational change towards total quality, was to chart the mean scores of the two communications dimensions, Person-centred and Integrated communications, against the three total quality descriptors Should there be a relationship, organisations which have a high score for each total quality descriptor should have a strong positive mean score for Person-centred and Integrated communications In contrast, organisations which do not score positively on each descriptor, should display a negative mean score for Person-centred and Integrated communications The significance of the differences between the organisations' scores for the two communications dimensions was also tested The factors involve non-categorical or continual intervals, so t-tests were selected as the most appropriate method of analysis (Bryman and Cramer, 1994)

Customer Focus

Those organisations which agreed with the statement that they are customer focused had higher scores for Person-centred and Integrated communications than those which did not claim to be customer focused. Customer focused organisations had an average mean score of .1744 for Person-centred communications, while organisations which were not customer focused had an average mean score of -.2734 for Person-centred communications. The difference between the two scores was found to be significant (p=.02*). (See Table 11.1). With regard to Integrated communications, customer focused organisations had an average mean score of .0193, while non-customer focused organisations had an average mean score of -.237. While the mean score for Integrated communications was higher amongst organisations which claim to be customer focused, the difference was not found to be significant (p=.193). Nevertheless, the mean scores do indicate that customer focused organisations tend to have higher scores for Person-centred and Integrated communications than those organisations which are not customer focused.

Table 11.1   Significance of Difference Between Scores For Person-centred And Integrated Communications For Total Quality Descriptor 'Customer Focus' (T-Test).

Person-centred Communications					
	Mean Scores	SD	t value	DF	Significance (2-tailed)
Customer focused	.1744	.9587	2.368	111	p=.020*
Not customer focused	-.2734	1.0128			
Integrated Communications					
	Mean Scores	SD	t value	DF	Significance (2-tailed)
Customer focused	.01933	.9254	1.310	107	p=.193
Not customer focused	-.2370	.6755			

$^*p< .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***} p < .001$

Strategic Quality

Those organisations which agreed with the statement that quality is integrated into all aspects of the strategic business plan had higher scores for Person-centred and Integrated communications than those which did not. Strategic quality organisations had an average mean score of .3139 for Person-centred communications while organisations which were not strategic quality organisations had an average mean score of -.4251 for Person-centred communications.

The difference between the two scores was again found to be significant *(p=* 000***) (Table
11 2) With regard to Integrated communications, organisations which agreed they integrated
quality into the strategic business plan, have an average mean score of 1823, while
organisations which did not agree with the statement had an average mean score of - 2835 for
Integrated communications In this case, the difference between the two scores for Integrated
communications was found to be significant (*p=* 015*)

Table 11 2   Significance of Difference Between Scores For Person-centred And
Integrated Communications For Total Quality Descriptor
'Strategic Quality' (T-Test).

Person-centred Communications					
	Mean Scores	SD	t value	DF	Significance (2-tailed)
Strategic Quality	.3139	.8816	4.156	111	*p*=.000***
No strategic quality	-.4251	1.0018			
Integrated Communications					
	Mean Scores	SD	t value	DF	Significance (2-tailed)
Strategic quality	.1823	.8871	2.470	107	p=.015*
No strategic quality	-.2835	1.0790			

*p< 05 **p < 01 *** p < 001

Continuous Improvement

Those organisations which agreed with the statement that they are oriented towards continuous
improvement also scored more highly on Person-centred and Integrated communications than
those which did not Organisations which embrace continuous improvement have an average
mean score of 2131 for Person-centred communications, while organisations which did not had
an average mean score of - 1632 for Person-centred communications The difference between
the two scores was found to be significant *(p=* 047*) (Table 11 3) With regard to Integrated
communications, organisations which did embrace continuous improvement had an average
mean score of 1670, while organisations which did not embrace continuous improvement had
an average mean score of - 2969 for Integrated communications, which again is significant
(*p=* 004**)

Table 11.3   Significance of Difference Between Scores For Person-centred And Integrated Communications For Total Quality Descriptor 'Continuous Improvement'(T-Test).

Person-centred Communications					
	Mean Scores	SD	t value	DF	Significance (2-tailed)
Continuous improvement	.2131	.8582	2.009	111	p=.047*
No continuous improvement	-.1632	1.0743			
Integrated Communications					
	Mean Scores	SD	t value	DF	Significance (2-tailed)
Continuous improvement	.1670	.8251	2.934	107	p=.004**
No continuous improvement	-.2969	.8081			

*p< 05 **p < 01 *** p < 001

The other factors, Fragmented communications and Autocratic communications, were also t-tested to determine whether or not a strong negative relationship was found with the three total quality descriptors The two factors were not found to have a significant relationship with any of the total quality descriptors, either positive or negative These findings would suggest that while the chances of achieving total quality are greatly enhanced by taking a Person-centred and/or Integrated approach to communications, those organisations which take an Autocratic or Fragmented approach to communications are not necessarily precluded from having total quality characteristics

The relationships between Person-centred and Integrated communications and the three total quality descriptors were significant in almost all cases This suggests that organisations which claimed to be customer focused, embrace the concept of continuous improvement, or have quality integrated into their strategic business plans tend to differ from those which do not, according to the extent to which they use Person-centred and / or Integrated communications However, this finding does not specifically resolve whether or not the communications models correlate with successful organisational change While the relationship between the communications dimensions and the total quality concepts is strong, it does not describe the process of organisational change towards that total quality status This issue is addressed below

11.2 2 Identifying Links Between Person-centred and Integrated Communications And Changing To Become Total Quality Organisations

The data presented above strongly suggest that organisations which agree that they have features associated with the 'more advanced' total quality concepts such as customer service, strategic quality and continuous improvement, in the most part make more use of Person-centred or Integrated communications In addition, Autocratic and Fragmented communications were found not to have a relationship with the total quality descriptors However, these findings included the scores from organisations which did not fit neatly into the Guttman scale, described earlier For example, some of the organisations may have agreed that they subscribe to continuous improvement, but not one of the 'less advanced' features such as customer focus or detection and eradication of problems It was suggested earlier (chapter 10), that such a relationship might exist on the basis of indirect evidence that both approaches to communicating for change have been found to be linked with the communications objectives which the five Guttman groups of organisations adhere to Accordingly, the next step of analysis was to identify more specifically the relationship (if any), between the Person-centred and Integrated communications dimensions and organisations which underwent change through stages 1 to 5 of the total quality continuum

To address this, the mean scores for Integrated and Person-centred communications were calculated for the organisations in each of Groups A, B, C, D and E identified earlier The possible range of the mean scores is from -2 to +2 Analysis of variance was also carried out to establish whether or not the variance in mean scores between each of the five groups is significant Table 11 4 below demonstrates that in both cases, the variance between the five groups (compared to the variance within each of the five groups), is, in fact, significant The F ratio for the five groups for Integrated communications is 3 54 ($p= 005**$), and the F ratio for the five groups for Person-centred communications is 4 553 ($p= 001**$)

Table 11.4   **Analysis Of Variance Of The Five Groups' Mean Scores For The Two**
Communications Dimensions (Anova)

Integrated Communications						
Groups	**Mean scores**	**SD**	**DF**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Signif**
Group A	-.3208	.7774	5	2.252		
Group B	.4899	.6687	(between groups)	(between groups)		
Group C	-.2275	7353			3.537	$p=.005$**
Group D	-.2557	.9643	103	.637		
Group E	- 2012	.8947	(within groups)	(within groups)		

Person-centred Communications						
Groups	**Mean scores**	**SD**	**DF**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Signif**
Group A	- 7097	.9385	5	3.828		
Group B	- 2078	.5602	(between groups)	(between groups)		
Group C	.2327	.9250			4.553	$p=.001$**
Group D	.6559	.6011	108	.841		
Group E	1 0358	.7703	(within groups)	(within groups)		

*$p< 05$ **$p < 01$ ***$p < 001$

Interestingly, however, Table 11 4 also demonstrates that while the mean sores for Person-centred communications rise consistently from a low of - 0797 for Group 1 to a high of 1 0358 for Group 5, the pattern is less consistent for the five mean scores for Integrated communications The mean scores for both are plotted on Figure 11 1 below to facilitate demonstration of the patterns
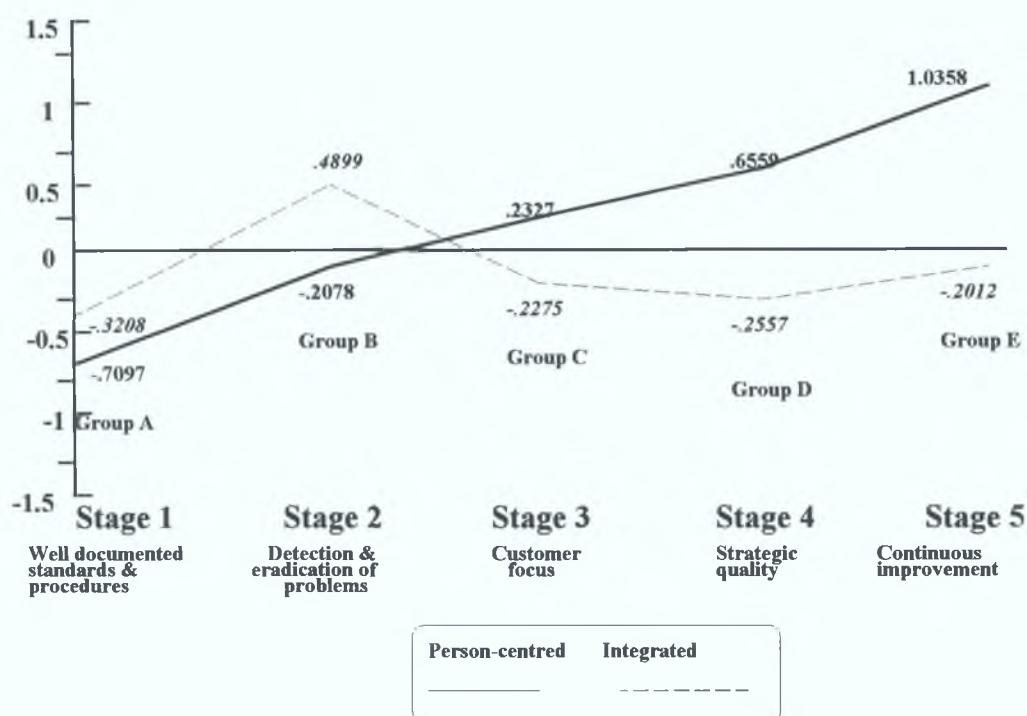
Figure 11.1 illustrates some very interesting trends. Group A, which did not progress in a consistent fashion beyond stage 1 (a quality assurance stage), had particularly negative mean scores for both Person-centred and Integrated communications. Group B, which progressed to stage 2, also had a negative score for Person-centred communications, but a high mean score for Integrated communications. The mean score for Person-centred communications continued to rise higher and higher for each of Groups C, D, and E as they progressed through stages 3, 4 and 5. But the mean scores for Integrated communications actually dropped to become negative scores for the three final stages, with the score for stage 5 only slightly higher than stage 4. The findings depicted in Figure 11.1 indicate that as organisations changed (that is, progressed through the five stages of organisational change to total quality), there was a stronger relationship with Person-centred communications. On the other hand, while there was a particularly strong relationship with Integrated communications at stage 2, that relationship reduces considerably in the final three stages.

These results would suggest that while Person-centred communications is strongly linked to the process of transformational change to total quality, Integrated communications, while linked with the level of change needed for quality assurance, has little or no relationship with transformational change. In fact, it might be suggested that as organisations progress through the three total quality stages, they are not likely to use Integrated communications at all.

In chapter 10, it was noted that the communications objectives set out by organisations (whether person-centred or related to co-ordination), appear to be a common link between the two approaches to communicating for change and the five Guttman groups To understand better the nature of that relationship, it was decided to examine whether these or other variables might combine with the five Groups scoring for the two communications dimensions A series of combined analyses of variance (2-way ANOVA), were carried out, combining the five Guttman Groups' mean scores for the two communications dimensions with the mean scores for a range of organisational characteristics, quality change management strategies and communications tools and objectives While organisational and change management variables were not found to have a significant relationship, similar links as those found before between the communications objectives, the five groups and each of Integrated and Person-centred communications, arose once again from this analysis

Table 11 5 demonstrates that a number of person-centred communications objectives, combined with the five Guttman groups, significantly explain the variance in mean scores for Person-centred communications In other words, as organisations progress through the five stages to become total quality organisations and subscribe to communications objectives which focus on the needs of the people in the organisation, they are more likely to select to use Person-centred communications The three concepts, to show the organisation cares, to motivate and to reduce uncertainties, clearly reflect the concepts associated with Person-centred communications, described earlier (Figure 7 4) They also overlap with the concepts found to differentiate the five Guttman groups (Table 10 11) This finding adds further weight to the description of Person-centred communications as being a person oriented communications model in which the concerns of the employee are central

Table 11.5   Analysis Of Variance Of Combined Mean Scores For Person-centred Communications (2-way ANOVA)

Combined Variables	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	R square	Signif.
Groups A to E and communications objective· 'to show the organisation cares about employees during this period of change'	12 149	5	2.43	3.198	.295	p=.010*
Groups A to E and communications objective: 'to motivate employees'	12.501	4	3.125	4.118	289	p= 004**
Groups A to E and communications objective : 'to reduce rumours and uncertainties'	6.193	5	1.239	2.522	.315	p=.028*

*p< 05 **p < 01 ***p < 001

Table 11 6 also demonstrates an interesting relationship between communications objectives associated with the concepts of co-ordination and integration of vision, the five Guttman groups and Integrated communications In a similar fashion to Table 11 4, these findings suggest that scores for Integrated communications are predicated by a combination of being in one of the five groups and subscribing to communications objectives associated with co-ordination These objectives also add further weight to the earlier description of Integrated communications as a model of communications centred around co-ordination (Figure 7 4) and integration and the earlier finding that co-ordination can differentiate the five Guttman groups (Table 10 11)

Table 11.6   Analysis Of Variance Of Combined Mean Scores For Integrated Communications (2 Way ANOVA)

Combined Variables	Sum of squares	DF	Mean square	F	R square	Signif.
Groups A to E and communications objective: 'to co-ordinate different functions'	10.37	5	2.074	3 222	.217	p=.01*
Groups A to E and communications objective: 'to share senior management's vision on quality'	7.74	5	1.548	2.418	.185	p=.041*

*p< 05 **p < 01 ***p < 001

290

To help understand the nature of this three-way relationship, Figure 11.2 below adds further data to Figure 11.1 earlier in this chapter, which had mapped out the relationship between the Guttman groups and the two communications dimensions.

Figure 11.2   Links Between Stated Communications Objectives, The Communications Approach Taken and Progression Through The Five Stages Of Organisational Change To Total Quality
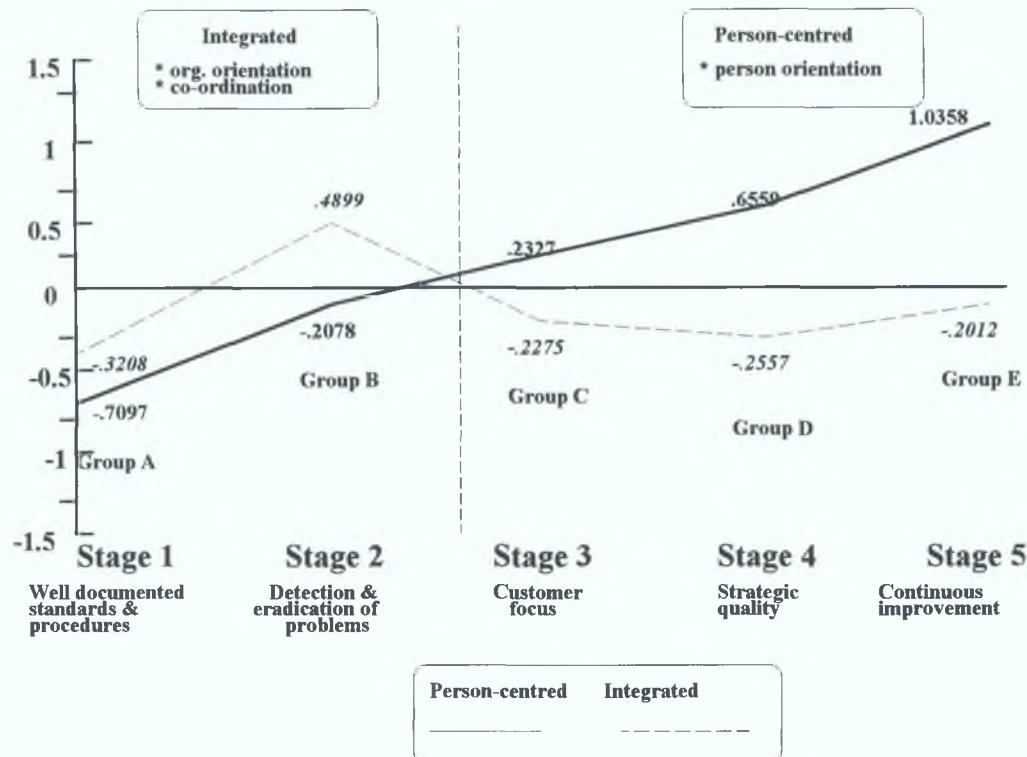
The 2 Way Anova findings confirm the relationship which was emerging through earlier Mann Whitney U tests on that which differentiated the five Guttman groups and the t-tests which identified what differentiates organisations which take either a Person-centred or Integrated communications approach from those which do not. A clearer relationship can now be identified, whereby, as the scores for Person-centred communications become higher (ie Groups C, D, E), the stated communications objectives for these organisations are more oriented towards the needs of the people in the organisations. Humanist principles such as caring, trusting relationships and motivating are key. As the scores for Integrated communications become higher (peaking in this case at stage 2 for Group B), the stated communications objectives are co-ordination and integration of the vision for the organisation.

So far in the analysis, the varying links between the two communications models and the process of change to total quality has been explained by looking at the mean scores for the two

communications models at each stage and determining whether the variance from one stage to the next is significantly greater than the variance within each stage.

Another method of looking at the link is to determine whether a change in the scores for either Person-centred or Integrated communications in turn will predict a change in the scores for change to total quality. This predictive relationship is known as regression analysis. In chapter 4.4.5, the limitations of using a restricted range of ordinal variables such as the five Guttman Group scores as a dependent variable for regression analysis has been discussed in some detail. To enable more robust regression analysis, it was decided to combine the Guttman Groups scores (question 18), with two other indicators of total quality - the priority given to quality by senior management (question 19) and the extent to which there is commitment to quality across the whole organisation (question 20) - thereby creating an 'index of total quality' comprising a larger range of ordered categories. This index was then regressed with the two approaches to communicating for change. Step-wise regression was used to enable identification of the relevant impact of each variable.

Table 11.7   An Analysis Of The Predictive Nature Of The Relationship Between Person-centred and Integrated Communications And Achievement of Total Quality (Stepwise Regression Analysis)

Dependent Variable : 'Index Of Total Quality' - Step 1							
	Unstandardised co-efficients		Standardised co-efficient				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
Person-centred Communications	.676	.204	.311	.08	3.318	11.01	p=.001**

Dependent Variable : 'Index Of Total Quality' - Step 2							
	Unstandardised co-efficients		Standardised co-efficient				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
Person-centred Communications	.809	.201	.372	.18	4.019	10.39	p=.000***
Integrated Communications	.706	.236	.276		2.988		p=.004**

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

292

Table 11 7 above summarises the findings Using the stepwise procedure, only variables which meet the statistical criteria of F ratio value of < 05 were included in the analysis Person-centred communications was found to have the highest correlation with the dependent variable 'Index of Total Quality' (Beta score of 311 and significance of p= 001**) However, the R Square valuation suggests that a variance in the score for person-centred communications would explain only eight per cent of the variance in the index of total quality scores (R Square = 08) This suggests that Person-centred communications on its own does not has a very strong impact on the extent to which organisations score against this Index of Total Quality, suggesting that other variables might be involved

Step 2 of the regression analysis includes Integrated communications and while each variable (when combined together), were found to have a significant relationship with the Index of Total Quality (Person-centred p= 000***, Integrated p= 004**), the variance in the two communications scores was still found to explain only 18 per cent of the variance in the scores for the Index of Total Quality The relative beta weights (Person-centred communications 372, Integrated communications 236), demonstrates that Person-centred communications is the more important factor of the two in relation to the Index of Total Quality Interestingly, the stepwise model excluded Integrated communications as a predictive variable on its own as it did not reach the requisite F ratio value of < 05

To establish what other factors might apply, a series of organisational characteristics and change management strategies were also regressed with the index of total quality (individually and in combination with the two communications variables), to establish whether or not they have a significant predictive relationship Only one change management strategy - the extent to which rewards are related to the quality initiative (question 22), was found to have a significant relationship (See Table 11 8 below)

ϡ

Table 11.8   **An Analysis Of The Predictive Nature Of The Relationship Between The Nature Of Rewards And The Achievement Of Total Quality (Stepwise Regression Analysis)**

Dependent Variable : 'Index Of Total Quality' - Step 1						
	Unstandardised co-efficients		Standardised co-efficient				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
Person-centred communications	.653	.209	.307	.07	3.13	9.8	p=.002**

Dependent Variable : 'Index Of Total Quality' - Step 2						
	Unstandardised co-efficients		Standardised co-efficient				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
Person-centred communications	.667	.202	.314		3.29		p=.001**
Rewards	.497	.188	.252	.14	2.64	8.7	p=.01*

Dependent Variable : 'Index Of Total Quality' - Step 3						
	Unstandardised co-efficients		Standardised co-efficient				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
Person-centred communications	.782	.204	.368		3.83		p=.000***
Rewards	.469	.184	.238	.18	2.54	7.84	p=.012*
Integrated communications	.545	.236	.222		2.31		p=.023*

*p< .05   **p < .01   *** p < .001

As might be expected, Person-centred communications is found to have the strongest predictive relationship with the Index of Total Quality. Interestingly, however, the usage of rewards was found to be a more important factor in relation to the Index of Total Quality, than Integrated communications. The extent to which rewards are used to support change was entered as the second variable ahead of Integrated communications and when all three variables were taken into account (step 3), the beta weight for rewards (.238) was higher than that for Integrated communications (.222). However, by examining the R Square valuations for the three steps, it is clear that there are other variables at play not accounted for here, which can influence the

scores for the Index of Total Quality Less than one fifth (ie eighteen per cent, R Square = 18), of the variance in the scores for the Index of Total Quality is explained by the variance in scores for these variables combined The literature would suggest that variables such as providing the right organisational structures, demonstrating leadership and HR strategies such as training and development would be key enablers of organisational change (eg Alexander, 1985, Beer et al, 1990, Kotter, 1995, Marchington and Dale, 1994) Without detailed questions on these and a range of other OD enablers for change, it is not possible to say whether or not these would explain significantly more of the variance in the Index of Total Quality scores either on their own, or in conjunction with the two communications approaches and rewards

These results would point, once again, to the significant relationship between Person-centred communications and the achievement of total quality However, because there are a number of questions over the robustness of the 'index of total quality' as a dependent variable, it was decided to conduct another regression analysis, this time using the two communications factors (interval / ratio variables), as the dependent variable, and to regress from these the scores for the five Guttman Groups, to determine if a relationship exists in this direction

Table 11 9 below summarises the findings Looking firstly at Integrated communications, the findings indicate that, as suspected, we cannot make predictions about the likely scores for Integrated communications scores for particular values of the Guttman groups The deviation from the line of best fit is such that a significant predictive relationship does not exist between the two Regression analysis, therefore, indicates once again that the links between the two might not be consistently significant

295

Table 11 9 **An Analysis Of The Predictive Nature Of The Relationship Between The Five Stages Of Change To Total Quality And The Two Communications Models (Regression Analysis)**

Dependent Variable :Integrated Communications						
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
(Constant)	- 189	.133	.080	.006	-1.417	.685	p=.159
Guttman Groups	-.041	.050			.828		p=.410

Dependent Variable · Person-centred Communications						
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	R Square	t	F	Signif.
(Constant)	- 264	.144	.378	.143	-1.834	18.656	p=.069*
Guttman Groups	.225	.052			4.319		p=.000***

*p< 05 **p < 01 *** p < 001

There is, however, a significant predictive relationship between the scores for the five Guttman groups and Person-centred communications This significance would indicate that there is very little deviation from the line of best fit and that as the values for the Guttman Group scores increase, so too do the values for Person-centred communications However, Table 11 9 also shows that the R square value for this equation is only 143, indicating that in this direction, the variance in the Guttman scores only explains 14 3 per cent of the variance in the Person-centred communications scores To establish what these other factors might be, a series of multiple regressions were carried out, whereby the Guttman scores were combined with variables representing a range of organisational characteristics, quality change management strategies and communications objectives No other significant relationships were found, suggesting, as with the other regression analyses described earlier, that factors outside the confines of this survey could possibly be at play

In summary, by analysing the potential links between the two approaches to communicating for change and organisational change to total quality in a variety of ways, the findings indicate that while Person-centred communications appears to have a consistent relationship with organisations transforming to become total quality organisations, Integrated communications appears to have a less consistent relationship.

11.3   Summary

Having established that organisations do appear to consistently follow a five staged process of organisational change towards total quality, it was possible to establish whether or not a link exists between Person-centred and Integrated communications and organisational change towards total quality. On first analysis, in most cases it appeared that the two communications dimensions were found to differentiate significantly those organisations in the sample which claimed to have a minimum of one of the three total quality descriptors from those organisations which did not. The one exception is that Integrated communications was not found to differentiate customer focused organisations from non-customer focused organisations.

By using regression analysis, it was possible to determine whether or not the two communications approaches have a significant predictive relationship with the achievement of total quality. An 'index of total quality', combining three variables (stages of quality, priority given to quality by senior management and commitment to quality across the organisation), was devised. Person-centred communications was found to significantly predict scores for this index, while Integrated communications was found to have a weaker relationship when compared with Person-centred communications and was found not to have a significant relationship when analysed as a variable on its own. Only one other variable, the extent to which rewards are related to quality, was also found to have a significant relationship.

However, given the constraints of using the index of quality as the dependent variable in regression analysis, it was decided to look at this issue in other ways. Firstly, the mean scores for the two communications approaches were charted against each of the five stages of quality (the Guttman scores). On analysis of the data against this Guttman scale, it became apparent that the two dimensions did not have the same strength of relationship with the process of organisational change towards becoming quality organisations. The score for Person-centred communications became stronger for each stage of the scale of organisational change towards quality. However, the analysis also demonstrates that Integrated communications scores actually weakened after stage 2 and in fact became negative scores for the final three stages of

the organisational change continuum Fragmented and Autocratic communications were not found to have a significant relationship with the three total quality descriptors

Using regression analysis with the two communications approaches as dependent variables, it was established once again that scores for Person-centred communications can be predicted by the extent to which organisations agree they are at each of the five Guttman stages, but it was noted from the results that other variables not accounted for in this equation must also be at play As expected from the charting of mean scores, the line of fit between the Guttman groups scores and scoring for Integrated communications was not found to be significant

A series of 2-Way Anova analyses was also carried out to establish what combinations of variables might be linked with the two communications approaches and their usage by organisations at each stage of the change process Reflecting the results of earlier analyses, it was found that as scores for Person-centred communications increase (eg Groups C, D, E), the organisations are also more likely to subscribe to communications objectives which emphasise personal orientation Similarly, as scores for Integrated communications become higher (eg Group B), these organisations are more likely to subscribe to communications emphasising co-ordination and integration

The study has successfully identified a relationship between one approach to communications and organisational change But in the process of doing so, a number of anomalies have emerged between the findings of this study and points made in the literature For example, Person-centred communications does not comprise all the communications practices advocated as necessary for organisational change in the literature Secondly, a model of a staged process of organisational change has been identified, contradicting the assertions of some parts of the literature that change cannot be described as a staged process These and other issues are discussed in the next section, where a comparison is made between these findings and issues raised in the literature

SUMMARY OF SECTIONS THREE AND FOUR

Sections three and four describe the findings of the research into the communications approaches used by organisations to support change in a quality context

A review of the communications practices of the sample of 116 organisations concludes that in practice, these organisations do not strictly adhere to the universal list of guidelines advocated by the literature In particular, this group of organisations was not found to adhere to guidelines suggested on employee involvement, lateral communications, unrestricted openness with information, using peer influencers, and emotive content to address concerns

Through factors analysis and further probing with in-depth interviews, a model of communications comprising two dimensions, Person-centred and Integrated communications, was identified and described The two dimensions were found to converge on core principles such as openness, involvement and lateral communications However, the underlying orientation behind the two dimensions differentiated the two Integrated communications orientation is aimed at a co-ordinated approach to change within the organisation, while Person-centred communications' orientation is towards personal needs On the basis of secondary research and follow-up interviews with ten of the highest scoring organisations for the two communications approaches, it is suggested that different organisations will select to use either approach, according to the flexibility of their product or service offer and according to the extent to which control is devolved

The main purpose of this research was to identify whether or not key principles for communications can be linked with organisational change A five staged model of organisational change to total quality was identified and then linked with the two dimensions It was found that while the two communications dimensions in the most part were linked with those organisations which claim to have a minimum of at least one of the total quality descriptions, only Person-centred communications was consistently linked with the process of change from stages 1 to 5 of the organisational change model Similarly, only Person-centred communications was found to have a significant relationship with the index of total quality

All of these key findings raise important issues for the current debate on communications and change in the literature These issues are discussed and interpreted in section five

SECTION FIVE

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

CHAPTER 12   DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION : TOWARDS A MODEL OF COMMUNICATING FOR ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

12.1   Introduction

Sections 3 and 4 detail the findings of this study. The communications practices of the organisations were identified. A model of communications comprising core communications principles was then developed. The quality practices of the organisations were then identified and described, together with two methods of describing a process of organisational change to total quality (the Guttman Groups and the index of total quality). The two strands of findings were then brought together by identifying the extent to which there is a relationship between the two communications dimensions and the scales of organisational change towards total quality.

This chapter compares the findings of this study with points raised in the literature, exploring areas of agreement and those areas where differences arise. It also interprets the findings of this study in the light of the literature. It begins by demonstrating a number of areas where the approach taken to communications by these organisations compares with and differs from that advocated in the literature. It looks in particular at the two communications dimensions identified by the research and points to the limitations of the universalistic assumptions of the literature. By referring to related areas of the literature, the nature of the relationship between the two dimensions and organisational change is then interpreted and an explanation is put forward regarding how Integrated and Person-centred communications might be used to support organisational change to varying extents.

12.2   A Comparison Of The Findings On Communications With The Literature

The 116 organisations which took part in this study were asked to identify whether or not their organisations had a number of communications practices in place, corresponding with a comprehensive list spanning six areas - content, openness, media, roles, information flows and communications programmes - advocated in the literature.

From their responses, it was identified that a number of the practices advocated in the literature were not followed by this group of organisations and furthermore, by developing and describing a model of communicating for change, it was suggested that many of the practices

advocated are not necessarily of equal importance. It was also suggested from the findings that different organisations may select to use different communications approaches according to their needs, which contradicts the universal prescriptions made in the literature. These three issues are discussed in more detail below.

12.2.1 Impact of Organisational Variables On Approach To Communications

It was noted in the literature review that there is a remarkable degree of uncritical acceptance that a broad range of principles for communicating for change apply regardless of organisational variables and change situations (eg Exterbille, 1996; Smith, 1991; Wilkinson, 1989). This occurs despite an acknowledgement in the related field of literature, communicating for organisational performance, that 'effective' communications is contingent on organisational variables (eg Clampitt and Downs, 1993; Dawson, 1994; Lewis et al, 1982; Pincus, 1986). It also occurs, despite acknowledgement in the organisational change literature, that change itself can vary from operational to transformational change (eg Burnes, 1992; Greenwood and Hinings, 1996; Rajagopolan and Spreizter, 1996).

On the back of this anomaly in the literature, a hypothesis was put forward for testing (Hypothesis 4), that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables and the findings from the present study reveal that they do have an impact. They demonstrate, first of all, that when the sample of 116 organisations was broken down by variables such as sector, country of ownership, presence of a union, employee profile and organisational size and structures, significant differences emerged between the types of communications practices used. Furthermore, the findings of the secondary research and follow-up interviews with organisations with Person-centred communications or Integrated communications suggest that the two approaches to communications are also selectively used by different organisations. They indicate that in organisations where the manager or process retains control over the delivery of service and where the product or service is more predictable, the preferred communications style could be Integrated. Equally, in those organisations where the locus of control is devolved to either the employee or the customer (the front-line interaction in service delivery), and the product or service offer is less predictable, the preferred approach could be Person-centred communications.

It is not suggested that these are the only organisational variables which can influence the selection of a communications approach. Other variables may also be at play which have not been uncovered by this research. However, these variables do support the earlier work by contingency theorists, in particular the work of Joan Woodward (1970).

Hypothesis 4 states that change practices are also contingent upon change variables The quality literature (eg Raynor, 1992, Westphal et al, 1997, Wright, 1996), differentiates between the evolutionary change involved in quality assurance and the transformational change required for becoming a total quality organisation This would suggest that organisations which achieve total quality (ie transformational change), are likely to select different communications practices from those aiming for evolutionary change, such as quality assurance The findings from the analysis of variance (Table 11 4), indicate that this is, in fact, the case Organisations further down the route to transformational change to total quality are more likely to select Person-centred communications, while organisations achieving quality assurance standards, give the highest scores for Integrated communications It is not possible to definitively say whether or not the organisations have actively chosen either evolutionary or transformational change as being appropriate for their needs and then selected the relevant communications practices to support them, or whether the reverse is a more accurate picture, that by selecting a particular communications approach, organisations will influence the extent to which they achieve different levels of change What is clear is that the presence of communications practices has been found not to be universal, but instead, contingent upon the extent to which change is evolutionary or transformational, thereby supporting Hypothesis 4

These findings, then, contradict the assumption behind the lists of universal best practice communications strategies put forward by authors such as Exterbille (1996), and Smith (1991) With headlines such as 'golden rules' and 'communications commandments', these authors are assuming that there is an ideal of communications to which all organisations should aspire, regardless of organisational variables Writers such as these are ignoring the fact that in reality, organisations are likely to use different approaches to communicating according to their own organisation's needs

12 2.2 Usage Of Communications Practices By This Sample

It was also suggested in the literature review that the prescriptive lists of communications practices possibly do not reflect what actually happens in reality In chapter 3, a review of the literature on communicating for change, establishes that there is general consensus that there are six communications factors key for organisational change (Table 12 1 below)

Table 12.1   The Communications Factors Necessary For Organisational Change According To The Literature

Factor	Argument	Examples
Content Of Message	Logical and / or emotive argument on benefits	Grates (1994) Quirke (1995) Berzok (1997) Ghoshal (1995)
	Communicate plans and achievements	Di Fonzo & Bordia, (1998) Schaffer (1997)
Openness	Open climate	Quirke (1995) Smeltzer (1991)
Media	Face-to-face is key Supported by mix of electronic / written	Caldwell (1994) IBEC (1996)
Roles	Top managers play a key role	Kemper (1992) Quirke (1995)
	Middle managers play a key role Opinion leaders play a key role	Davenport & Lipton (1993) Siebold & Meyers (1996)
Information Flows	Mixture of downwards, upwards and lateral	Haseley (1990)
	Upwards is necessary for commitment	Bowen & Lawler (1990) D'Aprix (1996)
	Lateral is necessary for integrated effort	Exterbille (1996) Ghoshal & Bartlett (1998)
Communications Programmes	Communications should be integrated into daily activities	Freeman (1994)

Hypothesis 2 states that organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature To test this, all 116 organisations were asked to identify, from a list of 38 statements, whether or not their organisation follows the communications practices advocated in the literature The findings support Hypothesis 2 by demonstrating that there are a number of differences between what is advocated and what this sample of quality organisations actually practise

12 2.2.(i)   Areas Of Consistency With The Literature

Areas where the findings from this sample of quality organisations support the literature include usage of face-to-face methods, designating a key role for managers and peer influencers and some aspects of content It was found that there was strong support for face-to-face methods amongst the 116 organisations, which is in line with the findings of similar studies carried out on use of media (eg Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997, Industrial Society, 1994, Stewart, 1999) and which supports the contention in parts of the literature that

face-to-face methods are a important method (eg Davenport and Lipton, 1193; Klein, 1994). Arguments put forward in recent years in the literature (eg Freemen, 1994; Haseley, 1994) that communicating change should take place in the daily operational setting rather than through specially branded communications programmes, also happens in practice, according to the findings on the 116 quality organisations. Designating a key communications role for managers, advocated by writers such as Larkin and Larkin, 1994 and the Industrial Society, 1994, was also found to happen in the majority of the organisations, and while the findings regarding using peer influencers are less consistent, they also point to a significant minority of organisations allocating such a role. The importance of explaining the need for change in logical terms, advocated by writers such as Carr, 1994 and D'Aprix, 1996, was also found to take place in most of these organisations.

These findings would suggest that in some areas at least, there is consistency between what is advocated and what happens in practice amongst this group of quality organisations.

12.2.2.(ii)   *Areas Of Inconsistency*

However, there were also gaps found between the communications practices of this sample of quality organisations and those practices advocated in the literature. These gaps arise in the areas of media, content, openness and information flows. Firstly, while the media advocates face-to-face media as being important, it is broadly recommended that it should be backed by a mixture of rich and lean media (verbal, written and electronic) (eg Richardson and Denton, 1996). The support for a combination of all three media types was not as widespread as would be expected for a sample of middle-sized and large organisations. Secondly, Berzok (1997), Ghoshal (1995) and Bryan (1997) all advocate the importance of the emotive, personal message when selling the need for change. Only a minority of the 116 quality organisations agree that communications is used to address personal concerns. Equally, the organisations were found to be very reticent with information, despite the literature advocating openness to promote trust during change (eg Champy and Nohria, 1996; Dulye, 1993; Exterbille, 1996). In addition, in terms of upwards and lateral information flows, the findings show a clear shortfall between what this sample of quality organisations practises and what is advocated in the literature. The literature advocates employee involvement as being vital for commitment to change (eg Bonvillian, 1996; Nelson and Coxhead, 1997; Quirke, 1997), but the findings indicate that support for employee involvement amongst this group of organisations is limited. However, support is even more limited for lateral information flows, despite lateral integration of effort being cited in the literature as being equally vital (eg D'Aprix, 1996; Exterbille, 1996; Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998).

While these findings do not support what is advocated in the literature, they are not particularly surprising, reflecting what little empirical research has been reported in the literature on organisations communicating change. It was already noted in the literature review that various studies have found a gap between the level of openness advocated in the literature and what happens in reality. For example, various surveys carried out in Ireland (Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997; Gunnigle et al, 1994) and the US (Lawler et al, 1992), found a reticence to share particular types of information such as future strategy and financial performance. The lack of lateral communications also reflects the low scores given to lateral communications by the Irish based Drury Communications and IPD Ireland survey (1997) of 1,350 employees. The restricted level of involvement similarly reflects the findings of Lawler et al's (1995) three surveys of Fortune 1,000 companies in the late 1980s and early 1990s, where they established that organisations were in general only prepared to engage in shallow involvement practices.

Given that this research confirms earlier work regarding the extent to which organisations are prepared to engage in various communications practices, the question then arises as to why the literature continues to advocate such a broad range of practices when the evidence suggests that only a small number will be adhered to? There is, of course, an important role for the literature to play in advocating 'best practice' which may not necessarily be adhered to in reality. However, this 'best practice' should comprise meaningful guidelines, which, based on empirical evidence, are found to be realistic, achievable and which make a real impact. The review of the literature suggests that this does not happen. It would appear that the authors of the various prescriptive lists are either unaware of or deciding to ignore empirical evidence which confirms what, in reality, organisations are prepared to do. This may be due to the authors taking an uncritical approach, or alternatively, due to an absence of empirical evidence being readily accessible in the literature. Certainly, the literature could be accused in general of being quick to promote long lists of guidelines without being balanced by an assessment of what is or is not actually happening.

It is accepted that just because various communications guidelines are not practised does not mean they are not worthwhile. However, in the light of increasing evidence to show that organisations pick and choose between practices, there appears to be no effort to distinguish between those practices which might be more important than others and around which organisations would be better advised to focus their efforts, if they are going to be selective. This issue is explored in the following section by examining those practices found to be central to the two communications dimensions which have been linked with organisational change to varying degrees.

12.2.3 Centrality Of Advocated Communications Practices

During the process of identifying the model of communicating for change, it became apparent that a number of the practices advocated in the literature may be peripheral in their importance. In taking a broad brush-stroke approach to prescribing long lists of 'good practices', the literature has failed to differentiate between those practices which are central and those which are peripheral to the successful achievement of organisational change. Hypothesis 3 states that communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change. Using Person-centred and Integrated communications as the framework (because these approaches have been found to have links with each of transformational and evolutionary organisational change respectively), it is useful to examine which of the six areas listed in the literature had been found in this instance to be central or peripheral to change and why.

12.2.3.(i)   Content Of Message

In broad terms, the literature advocates two key areas of content during organisational change - communicating the case for change and mapping out the change plans and successes against these plans. It was noted that communicating the case for change implicitly draws on expectancy theory (Vroom and Deci, 1970), whereby people have to be convinced that the benefits of change outweigh the disadvantages. The findings suggest that communicating the benefits and threats associated with change is a core strategy in both Person-centred and Integrated communications, supporting the guidelines advocated by Bryan (1997) and Miller (1987) amongst others.

The review of the literature also explores in some detail the current debate regarding the persuasiveness of the logical business argument for change over the emotive personal argument. It was noted that apart from one study which found that logical arguments can supersede emotional concerns (Bacharach et al, 1996), there is no empirical evidence given to substantiate either side's assertions within the context of organisational change. The present study provides some illumination. Both benefits and threats were communicated to employees in Integrated and organisations with Person-centred communications to argue the case for change. However, organisations with Integrated communications focused on the benefits and threats to the organisation, explaining in logical terms why change is necessary (as advocated by Blake, 1992; D'Aprix, 1996; Spiker and Lesser, 1995), while organisations with Person-centred communications added to the logical arguments by seeking the 'emotional connections' described by Berzok (1997) and Nelson and Coxhead (1997), and in doing so, focusing on the benefits and threats to individual employees' own lives or areas they value. In short, both

logical and emotive benefits and threats were communicated by organisations with Person-centred communications Given that Person-centred communications has been found to be associated with transformational change, it can be suggested that both logical and emotive content is central to achieving organisational change

The second area of content advocated in the literature is the mapping out of change plans and regular updates against achievement of these plans Again, the findings on Person-centred and Integrated communications marks out this aspect of content as being central features of both approaches Interviewees from both types of organisations in the follow-up interviews stressed outlining plans and providing regular feedback on performance against these plans

It would seem, then, that the two key areas of content advocated by the literature are, in fact, central to effectively communicating for change It does not appear, as is argued in the literature, that organisations should stick to either one or other of logical or emotive arguments Initial indications would suggest that both types of arguments can be used successfully in different situations

12 2.3.(ii)   Openness

The literature overwhelmingly supports the argument that openness is important during change (eg Filipczak, 1995, Fiorelli and Margolis, 1993, Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998, Kemper, 1992, Quirke, 1995, Richardson and Denton, 1996, Smeltzer, 1991), and the findings from this study indicate that this, in fact, is a central aspect of both Integrated and Person-centred communications, differentiating these organisations from the general sample It was noted earlier that overall, the organisations in this study were relatively cautious about making information available to anyone who wants it, but both organisations with Person-centred and Integrated communications are open with information and encourage sharing of information across the organisation

Interestingly, openness was described by the interviewees as being prepared to share information and being 'upfront' Their perception of openness did not explicitly include the concept of encouraging open dialogue, which is inherent in Caldwell's (1994 17), definition of openness However, both the quantitative and qualitative findings specifically address this issue, whereby it is clear that employees' thoughts and contributions are actively sought Smeltzer (1991) had also identified in his study that timing of information was the key factor in openness, but this did not emerge as a key concept in this study

Openness is considered by the literature to facilitate a trusting environment which, in turn, allows people to experiment and learn and to accept arguments for change These views coincide with the perspective of the interviewees of both organisations with Person-centred and Integrated communications, who add that being open with information ensures that employees are sufficiently informed to make quick and appropriate decisions It appears that openness is, in fact, a central principle to communicating for change, and one area which clearly differentiates effective from ineffective communicating for change

12 2.3.(iii)   ***Media***

The literature also devotes a considerable amount of attention to the selection of the right mix of communications media for communicating change (eg Evans, 1986, Rafe, 1994, Smickas, 1994) However, this did not emerge as being a key differentiating factor during the identification of the two communications models through factor analysis That is not to say that the selection of communications methods is not an integral part of communicating for change For example, Table 8 5 outlines the various communications methods used by ten of the highest scoring organisations for Person-centred and Integrated communications, where it is apparent that there is a heavy reliance on face-to-face methods, supported by a mix of written methods During the interviews with these organisations, it was clear that a mix of communications methods is taken as read The fact that it did not emerge as a key differentiating factor from the general sample of organisations means that all organisations, whether communicating poorly or well for change, were taking the same approach to selecting communications methods Its importance as a key differentiating factor between what constitutes poor or good communications for change could be construed as peripheral

In the light of this finding, it is interesting to note the high level of interest in this as an area to explore and discuss The literature discusses the benefits and disadvantages of each method (eg Klein, 1994, IBEC, 1996), preferred sources of information (eg Foehrenbach and Goldfarb, 1990, Stewart, 1999), the emergence of electronic methods (eg Drury Communications and IPD Ireland, 1997, Zona, 1996) and general usage of different types of media (eg Gunnigle et al, 1994 and 1997, The Industrial Society, 1994) One reason for this level of interest might be the fact that communications methods are more tangible concepts than, for example, openness or information flows, and consequently constitute an easier starting point for exploring communicating for change However, despite the level of interest in communications media, it appears to be a peripheral aspect of communicating for change

12.2.3 (iv) **Roles**

The literature identifies three key roles in communicating for change, the role of top management as leaders (eg Kasper, 1992, Quirke, 1995, Tourish, 1997), the role of middle managers as daily communicators of change (eg Klein, 1994, Larkin and Larkin, 1994, Richardson and Denton, 1996), and the role of peer influencers who may not hold a management position (eg Elmes and Costello, 1992, Siebold and Meyers, 1996) The questionnaire for this study included a number of statements investigating whether or not roles of top managers, middle managers or peer influencers are particularly central to the successful communication of change, but these factors were not found to be critical distinguishing factors for either Person-centred or Integrated communications

While roles were not found to be a central differentiating factor, it is difficult to dismiss them completely Taking the role of senior management as leaders, it is surprising that leading through communications is not seen to be central, particularly given that leadership is consistently identified as being a key, if not the key, strategy in change management studies (eg Alexander, 1985, Armstrong, 1993, Gundogan et al, 1996) The interviewees do refer to the importance of their CEO in visibly supporting the change programme, but the role of senior management did not emerge as being a central factor in the quantitative data It would be assumed, however, that the prevailing communications style must be influenced by senior management

The literature on communicating change tends to define managers' roles in the context of their authority based influence (eg Deetz, 1994) Managers' roles involve directing and enabling employees to contribute While this role fits that of Integrated communications, it is inadequate to explain the role which relates to managers in organisations with Person-centred communications Instead, a description of the communicating role of managers in organisations with Person-centred communications is found in recent discussions on managers as coaches (eg Ghoshal, 1995, *Supervision,* 1997) As coaches, managers let go of the ownership of decision making and focus their efforts on supporting their employees as they seek the right decision themselves It is argued that in order to be a good coach, managers need to empathise and be fully awake to the value set and needs of the employees with whom they work

The findings of the present study, then, point to short-comings in the current communications literature on management's roles as communicators On initial analysis, it appears that the role of managers does not particularly distinguish those organisations which have selected either Integrated or Person-centred communications from the remainder of the sample However, it is

310

suggested that nonetheless, the roles played by managers are possibly central to the successful communication of change

Another role identified in the literature is that of opinion leaders or peer influencers The interviews also raised an interesting issue regarding the role of peer influencers It was found that while both organisations with Integrated and Person-centred communications do make use of opinion leaders, they tended to use managers and employee representatives, both vested with positions of authority, rather than the general peer influencers advocated in the literature on group communications (eg Armenakis and Harris, 1993, Siebold and Meyers, 1996) The premise behind the group communications writers advocating peer influencers is that because of social needs, employees respond more to the social influences of their peer group than their managers However, in this instance, opinion leaders tended to be used on the basis of their 'expertise' (eg quality experts in organisations which use Integrated communications) The concept, then, of peer influencers playing a central role on the basis of likeability or social needs fulfilment does not appear to be central to effective communicating for change

12.2.3.(v)   *Information Flows*

The literature on communicating for change argues that information needs to flow in all three directions within the organisation - downwards, upwards and laterally (eg Bowen and Lawler, 1990, Exterbille, 1996, Freeman, 1994, Haseley, 1994) It is argued that a vision and clear objectives need to be communicated downwards, employee involvement needs to be sought for commitment and that information needs to be shared across the organisation for integration of effort

With regard to communicating downwards, the role of top managers in communications has already been discussed The main reasons given for communicating downwards are to ensure everyone knows what is going on and understand the key objectives for change (eg Haselay, 1990) A number of questions were included in the questionnaire on this issue, but were not found to be central to organisations with either Person-centred or Integrated communications The high levels of agreement with the relevant questions across the total sample would indicate that this is a minimal level of communications which can be expected across the board

It is of particular interest to note that lateral communications was found to be a central factor in both Integrated and Person-centred communications, given the lack of attention it receives in the literature on communicating for change Those interested in knowledge management are grappling with this area (eg Dickinson, 1998, Field, 1997), but this interest is generally not mirrored in the literature on communicating for change, apart from a few exceptions, for

example, D'Aprix, (1996), Exterbille, (1996) and Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) who suggest that integration and horizontal flows of learning are key aspects to successful transformation and Buckley et al (1998) who found improvements in lateral inter-employee communications and co-operation following the introduction of quality initaitives. Given the importance of lateral communications to both Integrated and Person-centred communications, this aspect of communications is an area that needs to be better understood and yet it is largely ignored by the literature. The lack of interest in lateral communications in the change communications literature is possibly, once again, down to its intangible nature. Researching lateral communications and identifying ways of influencing lateral communications to happen is less concrete than communications media, for example. Organisational structures, in the main, are hierarchical and there is possibly a stronger 'comfort zone' in discussing issues relating to flows of information up and down the line. These issues are within the remit of management's control, whereas it is more difficult to influence flows which do not fit within the organisation hierarchies and hence, within management's direct sphere of influence.

Upwards communications also emerges as a central principle of both Integrated and Person-centred communications, although the evidence from this study does not substantiate claims from some quarters that it could be the key factor in driving organisational change. A number of writers on upwards communications (eg Dale and Cooper, 1992, Hanson et al, 1995, Nelson and Coxhead, 1997 and Pritchett, 1997) argue that employee involvement is the key to achieving internalised commitment to transformational change, on the basis that employees commit to something in which they have played a role in constructing. In this study, upwards communications was found to be central in both Integrated and Person-centred communications, which were associated with change to varying degrees. As a result, while upwards communications is central to communicating for change, it is unlikely that it could be considered the key to effective communicating for transformational change, if it is not found to differentiate between the two.

Moreover, the literature argues that the depth of involvement can differentiate effective from ineffective communicating for change (eg Lawler et al, 1995, Pasmore and Fagan, 1992) but again this did not emerge as being a central issue in this study. In the follow-up interviews, only three of the organisations claimed to involve employees in high involvement strategies such as discussing the mission of the organisation, but the main focus of involvement was on the quality change programme itself. The organisations were using 'shallow level' involvement as part of their effective strategies for communicating for change.

312

12.2.3. (vi)   *Communications Programmes*

Another debate held in the literature surrounds whether or not communicating for change can be packaged into a programme or should be integrated into daily activities (eg Cole and Pace, 1991; Haseley, 1994; Landes, 1992; Lorenz, 1993; Quirke, 1995). This was found not to be a central issue for communicating for change, so long as managers are given an active role in the process. The quantitative findings did not identify the issue as being a key differentiating factor and similarly, it emerged in the qualitative interviews, that the majority of the organisations do not have formal communications programmes.

12.2.3. (vii)   *Summary*

A broad variety of communications practices are advocated in the literature and all are given equal weighting in terms of importance. Supporting Hypothesis 3, this thesis has demonstrated that amongst this sample of quality organisations, certain principles and practices (eg openness, communicating the benefits and updating on achievements, upwards and lateral information flows), are more central to the two communications dimensions which have been found to have a relationship with successful change to varying degrees than others (eg choice of media, roles of managers, branding a programme). It may be inappropriate, therefore, for writers to assert in global terms that 'communications' supports organisational change. Many of the studies carried out to identify management's views on the factors which support change, do refer to 'communications' as a key factor without differentiating between central and peripheral communications practices for change (eg Beer et al, 1990; Brege and Brandes, 1993; Gundogan et al, 1996). These global assertions are not helped by the literature on communicating for change, which tends to assume that all communications practices are of equal importance without any empirical evidence to back their claims.

Of concern, is the fact that a number of the very issues which emerge from this thesis as being central to communicating for different levels of change in Integrated and Person-centred communications (eg openness, upwards and lateral information flows and presenting the emotive (personal) benefits and threats), are the very practices in which the broader sample of 116 organisations did not score particularly well, while they did score well on the peripheral issues such as choice of media and branding a programme. This raises an important point. Because the literature tends not to differentiate between core and peripheral principles, organisations which perceive that they are adhering to a number of the practices advocated, may not be aware that they are in fact failing to use the practices of most importance. As a

313

result, considerable energy may be expended on issues which may not make a serious impact on organisational change.

By identifying those practices which are found amongst this sample to be more central to communicating for change to varying degrees and by interpreting these findings in the light of relevant literature, it is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how Integrated and Person-centred communications each support different levels of organisational change. This is described in the next section.

12.3   Towards A Model Of Communicating For Organisational Change

Hypothesis 5 states that it is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change. In particular, Hypothesis 5(a) suggests that communications supports organisational change by increasing commitment through involvement; Hypothesis 5(b) suggests it is by building trust levels through openness; 5(c) puts it down to persuading employees about the benefits, while 5(d) suggests that it is through increasing integration of effort through lateral communications. Given that involvement, openness, communicating the benefits and lateral communications were each found to be central elements of both Integrated and Person-centred communications, there might be a temptation to suggest that all four explanations are equally well-grounded. However, it was found that Person-centred communications has a stronger relationship with transformational change than Integrated communications and equally it was found that Person-centred communications has a number of characteristics distinguishing it from Integrated communications. For example, it was found that the underlying assumptions behind the two approaches to communications differ along the extent to which communications is oriented towards organisational or personal goals and that organisational variables around devolvement of control differentiate the selection of one approach over another. This would suggest that the influence which each type of communications has on different levels of organisational change can be explained in different ways. By examining those factors which have been found to differentiate the two approaches to communicating for change and by referring to related literature, an explanation is suggested as to how each of the two communications approaches may support these different degrees of organisational change. This explanation is based on differentiating between compliance and internalised commitment to change.

It was noted in chapter 1.5.2.(ii) that the prevailing view held by the various writers and researchers on commitment is that compliance is not as strong as fully internalised commitment (eg Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997). Small scale change, according to writers such as Rajagopolan and Spreitzer (1996), does not require

314

anything more than compliance, while transformational change, which involves upheavals in mindset and ideology, requires considerably higher levels of internalised commitment The literature on changing to total quality in particular suggests that while quality assurance requires strict compliance to procedures, total quality requires a complete re-orientation of every individual to new concepts such as customer service and continuous improvement (eg Raynor, 1992, Westphal et al, 1997, Wright, 1996) Perhaps then, a communications approach which supports compliance (ie Integrated communications), will enable organisations to successfully introduce quality assurance measures, while a different communications approach which supports internalised commitment (ie Person-centred communications), is required to support transformational organisational change to total quality

One of the measures of organisational change used in this study was the 'index of total quality' This index, building on the five Guttman stages, comprises two additional indicators of total quality - the extent to which senior management prioritise quality and the extent to which commitment to quality is extended to the whole organisation This latter indicator also helps to explain the difference between Integrated and Person-centred communications in terms of compliance or commitment Through regression analysis, Person-centred communications was found to have a significant relationship with the index of total quality, supporting the concept that as scores for Person-centred communications increase, so too do scores for the commitment scale The higher the score on this commitment scale, the greater the extent to which commitment to quality extends beyond a restricted group of managers and out to every employee However, as a variable on its own, Integrated communications was not found to have a significant relationship with the 'index of total quality' although its relationship was significant, when coupled with Person-centred communications

It is hypothesised that the difference between the two communications approaches and their relative degrees of successful support of change can be attributed to a hypothetical point which marks that difference between compliance and internalised commitment to change This point will be called the 'Emotional Ownership Cut-Off Point', as illustrated below in Figure 12 1 Figure 12 1 builds on the earlier Figures 11 1 and 11 2 which had mapped out the relationship between the two approaches to communicating for change and the five Guttman stages, on the basis of analysis of variance findings

Figure 12.1 **An Emotional Cut-Off Point Differentiates Between Integrated And Person-centred Communications**
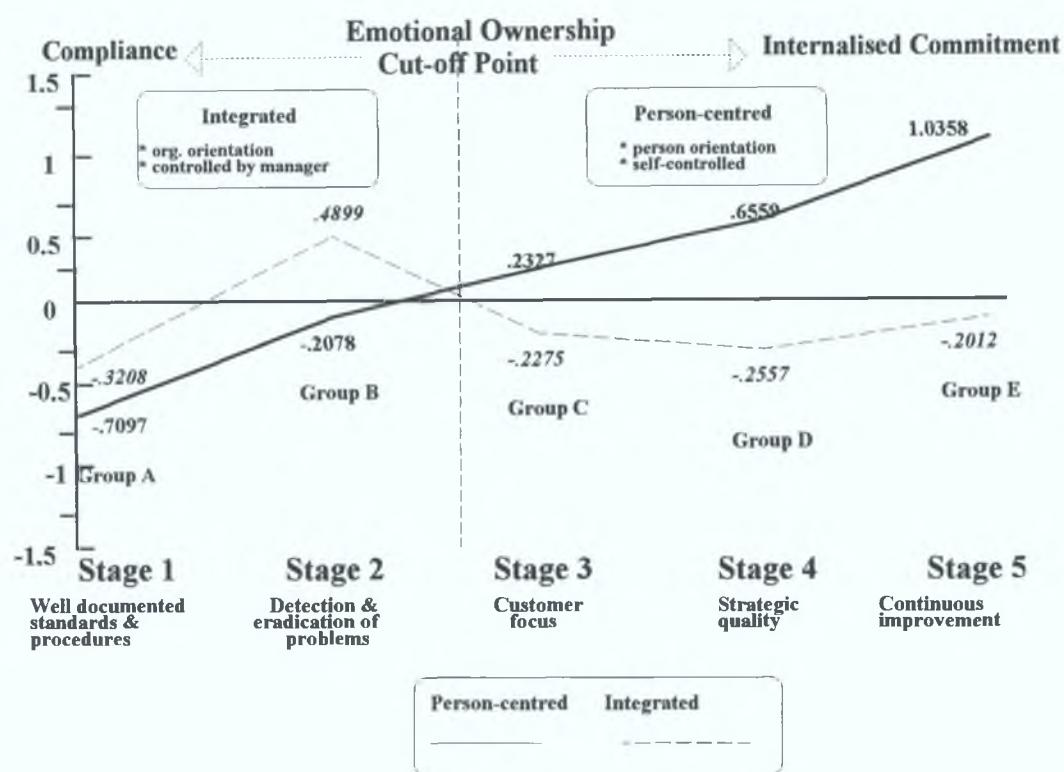
The analysis of variance findings in chapter 11 demonstrated that while Integrated communications is being used successfully by some organisations to achieve quality assurance, Person-centred communications appears to be needed to allow organisations to make the 'leap' over to total quality through the hypothetical 'Emotional Ownership' point. Regressing the five Guttman groups from each of the two communications factors (Table 11.9) further emphasised this point. It is suggested that managers can drive procedures and standards by communicating the need for change, ensuring information and knowledge is freely shared across the organisation, being clear about what is required and feeding back performance (Integrated communications). By doing so, they can achieve high levels of compliance with quality standards. However, it is equally suggested that the change in mindset required for commitment to total quality (relentless focus on what the customer needs, flexibility to meet those needs, continuous seeking of opportunities to improve service), cannot be driven by the managers. It has to be driven from within the employees themselves. They have to 'own' the concept of total quality. The managers' role in this instance is to demonstrate respect and trust in the individual employees and to focus on the emotional as well as rational concerns of their employees to empower them to take on the total quality challenge themselves (Person-centred communications).

316

To ascertain whether or not this might be the case, it is important to refer back to the literature to establish what features have already been found to be associated with compliance and with internalised commitment and whether these features also relate to the features identified as being associated with Integrated and Person-centred communications. It is suggested that there are two features which are related to the extent to which employees can pass through the 'Emotional Ownership' cut-off point. One feature is the extent to which employees feel they make a valued contribution and feel empowered to take the initiative themselves (eg Hartline and Ferrrell, 1996; Sashkin and Burke, 1990), and another feature is related to whether or not the relationship between managers and employees is one of mutual trust and respect (eg Meyer and Allen, 1997; Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997). Both features have been found by the present study to differentiate Integrated from Person-centred communications.

12.3.1 Feature 1 - Empowerment

The first possible explanation for the relationship between Integrated and Person-centred communications and the extent to which organisations can pass through the cut-off point to fully commit to transformational organisational change, can be located in the concept of empowerment.

Devolvement of control, or empowerment, is much more than involvement. Organisations can seek input from employees to many different degrees and shallow levels of involvement can, in fact, be quite common (eg Bowen and Lawler, 1992). In fact, the findings from this study have indicated that involvement is a feature of both Person-centred and Integrated communications. Empowerment, however, emerged in the present study as being a key differentiating factor between organisations selecting to use Person-centred communications from organisations selecting to use Integrated communications. It was identified that organisations using Integrated communications tended to keep the locus of control more firmly centralised towards management (ie retain power). On the other hand, it was found that organisations using Person-centred communications tended to devolve the locus of control out to employees and customers (ie empower employees and customers).

Empowerment enables employees to take control over decisions and gives them the power to influence decisions relating to other parts of the organisation (eg. Hanson, 1995 and Heath, 1994). The reason for the success of empowerment in transformational change is attributed to its ability to fulfil employees' psychological needs (eg. Cheney, 1995; Ghoshal, 1995, Sashkin and Burke 1990). It is suggested that empowered employees can feel better respected (Ghoshal, 1995), believe more in themselves (eg. Hartline and Ferrell, 1996) and see

themselves making a valued contribution to the organisation. Accordingly, they have bought in emotionally to the concept of change and want to take on greater responsibility of their own free will. They want to take initiative, rather than comply with centrally imposed guidelines.

Proponents of empowerment (eg Cheney, 1995; Lawler, 1996; Sashkin and Burke, 1990) argue that the workplace requires devolution of control to the front-line employee in order to respond to the rapidly changing needs of customers and the business environment. In the quality context in particular, organisations fail to transform from quality assurance to total quality organisations if employees' responsibilities are not matched with equal levels of empowerment (eg. Rubenstein, 1993; Wright, 1996). A key feature of total quality, for example, is the fact that every last individual is engaged in looking for ways of continuously improving and delighting the customer all the time. For example, Dodson (1991 : 35) suggests that; 'Total quality replaces bureaucracy with initiative'.

To exercise this initiative, employees need to be given the freedom to identify how they can make improvements and delight customers by making changes in their area. The locus of control in organisations with Integrated communications remains centralised with management, thus making it very difficult for employees to exercise that level of initiative necessary for total quality. In such a case, managers in these organisations would be responsible for monitoring quality, making decisions around what needs to be done and promoting the necessity of quality. They may be able to do so up to a point, but given that they have many other responsibilities, it may not be viable for them to maintain full control over all aspects of quality all the time.

It was shown that Integrated communications did not differentiate organisations which claimed to be customer focused from those which did not. This is the third stage of the five Guttman stages and the watershed point between compliance and internalised commitment. It is extremely difficult for managers to ensure that employees respond to every situation in a customer focused manner. This is a behavioural response which requires a customer focused mindset, rather than a series of guidelines or practices to which employees would comply. It is correct to say, however, that Integrated communications did differentiate organisations which claimed to have either strategic quality or continuous improvement in place from those which did not. It is argued that organisations which retain centralised management control, such as organisations with Integrated communications, might be able to push hard for results in one or other area but that it may be very difficult for these managers to actively control and push all three aspects of total quality in an integrated and consistent fashion at the same time. Without the requisite level of devolved responsibility for quality, it could become impossible to ensure that all aspects of the organisation adhere to a total quality philosophy.

This may explain why organisations with Integrated communications were found to be differentiated according to two of the individual total quality descriptions, but were not linked with the process of transformational change to becoming total quality organisations When looking at the process of change to total quality, the scores for Stage 2 were found to be high for organisations with Integrated communications, falling off dramatically for the final three stages Stage 2 comprises detection and eradication of problems, quality assurance measures over which managers can actively manage and control However, the next stage, customer focus, is an intangible dimension to total quality - an attitude rather than a series of rules and regulations - which is very difficult for one manager to control across every employee of the organisation While managers can request the type of behaviours specified in quality assurance, rules and regulations, they cannot effectively monitor every employee's attitudes to ensure that he/she responds to every situation from the perspective of customer service As a result, if organisations do not take a communications approach which is linked with empowering employees, they may be less likely to achieve organisational change beyond quality assurance (stage 2), and transform to become total quality organisations (stages 3,4 & 5)

The first explanation put forward, then, is that a key feature associated with Person-centred communications, empowerment of employees, enables employees to pass through the 'emotional ownership' cut-off point and to commit internally to transformational organisational change While the explanation is compelling, some recent studies have, in fact, uncovered an inconsistent relationship between empowerment and commitment Hartline and Ferrell's (1996) study of almost 2,400 hotel staff found that while empowerment was found to increase feelings of self-efficacy and self-worth, which in turn were the strongest antecedents to commitment customer service, it was also found to increase role-conflict, which has a negative impact on commitment Peccei and Rosenthal (1998), who surveyed over 700 staff in a retail chain found that, at best, empowerment had an indirect relationship with commitment to customer service However, these two studies relate to empowerment and commitment to customer service, not organisational change A review of the literature was unable to find similar studies in the organisational change arena and a comprehensive review of the research into antecedents of affective commitment (ie internalised commitment), by Meyer and Allen (1997) found that when employees are made to feel that they can make decisions and make important contributions (ie feel empowered), they are more likely to feel this strength of commitment to the workplace

12 3.2 Feature 2 - Personal Orientation

The other feature which may help explain the links between Integrated and Person-centred communications and the extent to which organisations pass through the emotional ownership

cut-off point, is the orientation towards either organisation or person. It is suggested that Integrated communications, focusing on the organisation's needs, might achieve compliance to necessary changes, but that Person-centred communications, focusing on the people's needs, might generate the necessary levels of trust and respect to 'free up' individuals to pass through the point of emotional ownership because they can see how they personally will benefit.

Figure 9.1 summarises the key features of each of Integrated and Person-centred communications and the features described in the literature as being necessary for compliance are similar to those illustrated for Integrated communications (eg Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Maitlis and Briner, 1994; Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997). For compliance, the literature advocates openness, clarity about what is expected, elimination of job ambiguity and clear and logical arguments regarding the need for change, so individuals can weigh up the rewards for complying against the perceived threats for not complying, all factors associated with Integrated communications. On the other hand, the features of internalised commitment identified by Meyer and Allen (1997), in their review of over 400 articles and studies on commitment, are strongly indicative of the features identified for Person-centred communications. Meyer and Allen stress supporting the individual, fairness and placing trust in the individual's judgement. These concepts are related to respect for the individual and the individual's concerns, key features of the personal orientation identified for organisations with Person-centred communications.

This link between personal orientation and internalised commitment can also be found in other parts of the literature. An argument being made in the literature is that to really understand employees' responses to change, managers need to start thinking of their employees as multidimensional people, with their own concerns and issues which have nothing to do with the workplace (eg Burnes, 1992; Ghoshal and Bartlett, 1998; Thomas and Griffin, 1989). Thomas and Griffin (1989), for example, argue that when planning communications, the manager has to take in the employees' whole social context, where employees are as much influenced by their family as their managers. They argue that managers who are interested in the employee as a multidimensional person will be more sensitive to possible family and social influences or concerns than task oriented managers, who would focus specifically on the situation at hand and not take into account any wider factors. Examples were given in the interviews where managers of organisations with Person-centred communications were willing to discuss personal and family aspects of change. By focusing on employees as people, rather than agents of change, the managers of organisations with Person-centred communications tended to engage with their employees in discussions around change which address the important factors for them, not the organisation. Because managers in organisations with Person-centred communications are encouraged to be genuinely interested in their employees as people, they

create a situation where employees can find a solution which works for them personally and to which they can 'buy-in' emotionally.

Points raised in the literature on resistance to change also support the contention that personal orientation is key to enabling employees to internalise commitment to change. The literature argues that employees will have both rational and irrational fears about change (Carr, 1994; Mariotti, 1998, Spiker, 1994) and when faced with change, will find that the 'personal compact' they had entered into when joining the organisation, is now up for reinterpretation (Strebel, 1996). The main features of resistance to change are based around loss of the known and personal loss with very personal concerns such as threatened status and power base, values being threatened and personal life plans being put at risk (eg. Cole and Pace, 1991; Fiorelli and Margolis, 1993; Scott and Jaffe, 1989). It is suggested in the literature that these concerns are unlikely to be alleviated by focusing on the logical business case for change, but that to help employees commit to change, managers need to focus on personal issues around the change. It was noted in this study that managers from the organisations with Person-centred communications focus on the benefits of change to the individual and focus on personal, emotional concerns about change as being valid issues to discuss in their own right. It is suggested that by taking this approach, employees in organisations such as these would know they can trust that their managers have their best interests at heart (ie, the concept of 'fairness' described by Meyer and Allen, 1997). Secure in this knowledge, employees can take ownership of the proposals for change. They are effectively 'freed up' (Sashkin and Burke, 1990), from personal fears and misgivings, to commit emotionally to necessary change. Jones (1998: 83) touches on this when he refers to the new interest in emotional intelligence in the literature. Arguing that the key difference between effective and average leaders is the extent to which they care about the people they are leading, he argues that 'leaders use their emotions to liberate the energy of others'.

12.3.3 Towards A Model Of Communicating For Organisational Change - Summary

By referring to related literature on compliance and commitment, empowerment, rhetoric and organisational type theory, it has been possible to trace a common thread of argument which may help explain how Integrated and Person-centred communications each support organisational change to varying degrees, supporting Hypothesis 5. It is suggested that an 'Emotional Ownership' cut-off point marks the difference between compliance to a degree of organisational change such as quality assurance, or internalised commitment to transformational organisational change such as total quality. Two features related to each of the approaches to communications - empowerment and orientation - have also been found in the literature to be linked either to compliance or internalised commitment. It is suggested that by

321

retaining central control and focusing on the benefits to the organisation, Integrated communications can achieve a degree of compliance, but by empowering employees to take their own initiative and by being focused on their personal needs, Person-centred communications enables the employees of the organisation to pass through the point of emotional ownership and internally commit to transformational change

This explanation is something quite different to the four hypotheses (5 (a), (b), (c) and (d)), which put forward involvement, openness, persuasion and integration of effort respectively as the reasons as to why communications can support organisational change It is suggested that given that the four practices have been found to be central to both Integrated and Person-centred communications, they explain evolutionary or incremental change, such as quality assurance, but they do not adequately explain the relationship between communications and transformational change

It cannot be assumed that Person-centred communications is in some way 'better' than Integrated communications because it has been found to have a stronger correlation with transformational change such as total quality It has been argued that change can range from minor incremental steps to full-scale transformational change (eg Burnes, 1992, Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1996), and that some types of change can be managed equally well with a level of compliance as with internalised commitment The challenge for the manager is to identify which level of commitment is actually required before determining which communications strategy best suits these requirements For example, the present study supports Horwitz and Neville's (1996) contention that not every organisation requires total flexibility and local accountability to be competitive They argue, for example, that Mc Donalds fast food chain is a classic example of an organisation whose competitive advantage is based on high volume, low cost, consistent service Employees in many instances are temporary Their consistent service is based on clarity of job description and strict adherence to procedures, not on local autonomy or flexibility Based on the organisational variables identified in this study, Person-centred communications would not be necessary or indeed appropriate for these employees The Integrated communications model would appear to fit their needs better than the Person-centred communications model The findings also support Lewis et al's (1982) research, where task oriented communications was found to be best suited to the military, where compliance to strict procedures was vital, while person-oriented communications was better suited to the church, where individual autonomy in decision making and personal commitment was more necessary Hypothesis 4(a) states that organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the level of change required While the findings are preliminary, they suggest that those organisations which select Integrated communications do not necessarily require change beyond quality assurance, while those selecting Person-centred communications

do require transformational change to total quality These findings would support Hypothesis 4(a)

This model of communicating for organisational change is based on the view in the literature that internalised commitment is stronger than compliance and that the strongest level of internalised commitment is based on deeper, intrinsic factors such as self-actualisation and will, which in turn relate to the extent to which people feel they are trusted and treated with respect as individuals (Cheney 1995, Meyer and Allen, 1997, Sashkin and Burke 1990) However, the evidence to support a direct link between commitment to change and actual change in behaviour is still inconclusive (eg McKendall and Marguhs, 1995), although Meyer and Allen (1997) have concluded from a review of all the research to date on commitment to change, that full internalised commitment (which they called 'affective' commitment), is the one type of commitment which has direct links with change Is it realistic, however, to suggest that commitment alone will be sufficient for employees to successfully change? The literature (eg Greenwood and Hinings, 1996), suggests it is not It is perhaps more viable to place the concept of commitment within the context of other enablers of change such as capacity for action and power dependencies, identified by Greenwood and Hinings (1996) Certainly, the preliminary findings on management strategies other than communications in this study have demonstrated that power dependencies (ie priority by leadership), also correlated with successful change as did some of the enablers for capacity for action (eg rewards, or the right organisational structures)

12.4 Summary

The anomalies which arise between the findings of the present study and guidelines for communicating for organisational change are discussed in this chapter It was noted that many of the communications practices advocated in the literature are actually not followed through in reality, supporting Hypothesis 2 In addition, by comparing and contrasting the practices advocated by the literature with the core principles of Person-centred and Integrated communications it was argued that the literature does not sufficiently differentiate between central and peripheral practices, supporting Hypothesis 3 Moreover, the literature is ignoring strong evidence (both in this research and through other research), that the selection of the most effective approach for communicating change is contingent upon organisational and change variables, supporting Hypothesis 4 It is argued that the literature on communicating for change needs to draw more explicit links back to relevant literature in order to become more meaningful

By failing to draw links to theoretical and research contributions in related areas, it becomes very difficult to advance a well-constructed explanation as to how or why communications may be linked with organisational change. This thesis has found varying degrees of association between Integrated and Person-centred communications and organisational change. In this chapter, the findings are interpreted in the light of related literature to put forward a model of communicating for organisational change and advance an explanation as to how Integrated and Person-centred communications can support varying levels of organisational change, supporting Hypothesis 5. However, the explanation put forward indicates that the hypothesised explanations (5(a), (b), (c) and (d)), might be adequate for explaining communications' role in incremental change, but are not sufficient to explain communications' role in supporting transformational change. It is suggested that organisations which put quality assurance standards in place, only require compliance by employees to those standards, while those organisations which wish to transform to become total quality organisations require internalised commitment to the changes necessary by all employees. It is hypothesised that a point of 'emotional ownership' differentiates between Integrated and Person-centred communications, whereby managers who are oriented to the organisation and retain control may be able to achieve a level of compliance (Integrated communications), but that managers who are oriented to their employees and who empower employees to take initiative, can facilitate internalised commitment to organisational change (Person-centred communications)

The model is tentative in nature, given that it is based on a preliminary analysis of quantitative data, supported by a small sample of interviews. The concepts advanced in this chapter require further exploration, but nevertheless point to similar interesting issues raised in other areas of management literature

SECTION SIX

CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER 13   CONCLUSIONS

13.1   Introduction

This study was carried out to better understand the relationship between internal organisational communications and organisational change. The findings from this study have enabled five key conclusions to be drawn, which both highlight limitations in the literature and point to a better understanding of the relationship between communications and change. These five conclusions, all important in themselves, relate to the Hypotheses set out in chapter 4. However, perhaps the most important contribution of the study is the new insights it provides which challenge assumptions regarding the very purpose of organisational communications in the context of organisational change.

13.2   Key Conclusions

This study set out to better understand the links between internal organisational communications and organisational change. A number of core principles of communicating for change have been identified by this study, which are central both to Integrated and Person-centred communications. However, the key contribution of this study is the new insights it provides which challenge the traditional view of the very purpose of communications in organisational change.

By identifying the link between the features of Person-centred communications and employees' internalised commitment to transformational change, this study has demonstrated that a humanist approach to communications could be as important, if not more important, than the traditional managerial approach. Managers who believe the primary purpose of communications to be to support a relationship of mutual trust and respect rather than to achieve managerial goals, can successfully utilise communications to support transformational organisational change.

This perspective requires a fundamental rethink for many on the very reason for communicating in an organisational change situation and perhaps a redefinition of what is 'successful communications'. Ghoshal and Bartlett (1998) have raised this issue, arguing that the new 'moral contract' between Individualized corporations and employees is based on creating value for employees rather than for the organisation's shareholders, as has Hamel (interviewed by Arkin 1998 : 50), who argues that in the future, people should be placed at the very heart of the corporate strategy 'to create the highest possible legacy for the greatest

number of people' Unless researchers are prepared, as this researcher had to be, to fundamentally re-evaluate why communications might take place in the organisational setting and to ask questions other than 'how can communications be used to achieve organisational change', this very important insight into communications in a change setting could be missed, leaving the more usual explanations such as management being prepared to be open and management involving employees as being key determinants of organisational change

In addition to this key contribution, a further five conclusions have been drawn from the study, which relate to the hypotheses put forward

(i)   The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well-grounded

(ii)   Those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature

(iii)   Communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change

(iv)   The selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables

(v)   The relationship between communications and organisational change may be explained by the extent to which 'emotional ownership' of change is supported through communications

13.2.1 Conclusion 1 :

The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well-grounded.

Hypothesis 1 is supported

While the primary focus of this thesis is on organisational communications' role in organisational change, to be able to assess that relationship, a method had to be found to conceptualise and measure change. A five staged incremental model of organisational change to total quality was put forward from a review of the quality literature. The model had to be tested, particularly given that a section of the literature on organisational change claims that organisational change cannot be described in neat, incremental and linear terms.

Hypothesis 1 states that the proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well-grounded. The model was successfully tested using the Guttman scale, indicating that organisations do achieve quality assurance standards before progressing to total quality and do so in the same sequence (supporting Hypotheses 1(a) and (b) and that the process of organisational change can be described in linear and incremental terms (supporting Hypothesis 1(c)).

Table 13.1   Hypothesis 1 is Supported

	Hypothesis 1	Support/ Reject?
	The proposed model of organisational change to total quality, incorporating five incremental stages, is well grounded	**Supported**
1a	Organisations achieve quality assurance standards before progressing to total quality	Supported
1b	Organisations progress through the proposed five stages of quality assurance and total quality in the same sequence	Supported
1c	The process of organisational change to total quality can be described in linear and incremental terms	Supported

13.2.2 Conclusion 2 :

Those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature.

Hypothesis 2 is supported

It was noted in the literature review that there is a tendency to issue long prescriptive lists of guidelines for communicating for change with little reference to the research which suggests that in practice, organisations are not prepared to follow all the guidelines prescribed.

Hypothesis 2 states that those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature

The population of Irish Q Mark organisations was selected on the basis that these organisations have embarked to a lesser or greater extent, on a process of change

The findings from this thesis substantiate Hypothesis 2 and previous research, by clearly demonstrating that while organisations will follow guidelines prescribed in the literature regarding usage of media and management (supporting Hypotheses 2(c) and (d)), the guidelines regarding emotive content, openness, and upwards and lateral information flows are inconsistently adhered to in reality (supporting Hypotheses 2 (a), (b), (f) and (g) respectively Interestingly, the sample of organisations was found to make use of two communications practices which, it was hypothesised, would not be generally used - peer influencers and integrating communications into everyday activity - rejecting Hypotheses 2(e) and (h) However, overall, the findings demonstrate areas of gaps between what is advocated and what actually happens It is concluded that the literature is quick to promote exhaustive lists of guidelines without being balanced by an assessment of what is or is not happening in reality Given that the very purpose of prescriptive literature is to provide meaningful guidelines for organisations to follow, this gap between what is advocated and what actually happens, points to a considerable weakness in the literature

Table 13.2   Hypothesis 2 is Supported

	Hypothesis 2	Support / Reject?
	Those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature	**Supported**
2a	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of articulating both the logical and emotive benefits of change	Supported
2b	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of unrestricted openness with information about the change programme	Supported
2c	Organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines of combining rich and lean media to support the change programme	Supported
2d	Organisations do tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving management an active role in the communicating for change process	Supported
2e	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of giving non-managerial peer influencers an active role in the communicating for change process	Rejected
2f	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of seeking employee involvement in the change process (upwards communications)	Supported
2g	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines of lateral sharing of information on the change process (lateral communications)	Supported
2h	Organisations do not tend to adhere to the guidelines advocating that communicating for change should remain within daily management activity	Rejected

13.2.3 Conclusion 3 :

Communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change.
Hypothesis 3 is supported.

It was also noted in the review of the literature, that by taking a broad brush-stroke approach to prescribing long lists of 'good' practices, there was little effort to differentiate between the less important and more important communications practices for the successful achievement of organisational change. Hypothesis 3 states that communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change.

By identifying the two communicating for change approaches, Integrated and Person-centred communications, it was possible to make distinctions between central and peripheral practices and principles for organisational change in a quality context. It was demonstrated that openness, communicating the benefits and updates on achievements, together with upwards and lateral information flows, were central to both, supporting in particular Hypotheses 3(a), (b), (c), (d), (i) and (j). It was also demonstrated that other practices consistently advocated in the literature including choice of media, communications roles and branding a communications

programme are of peripheral importance, rejecting Hypotheses 3(e), (f), (g), (h) and (k) Overall, however, by differentiating between those practices of central and peripheral importance, Hypothesis 3 is supported

By failing to differentiate between central and peripheral practices up to now, the literature could be accused of taking a simplistic perspective on communicating for change, which only serves to encourage organisations to expend resources unnecessarily into areas of less critical importance for organisational change

Table 13.3   Hypothesis 3 is Supported

	Hypothesis 3	Support / Reject?
	Communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change	**Supported**
3a	Content appealing to emotion is central to achieving organisational change	Supported
3b	Content appealing to reason is central to achieving organisational change	Supported
3c	Communicating progress against milestones is central to achieving organisational change	Supported
3d	Openness with information is central to achieving organisational change	Supported
3e	A combination of rich and lean media is central to achieving organisational change	Rejected
3f	Senior management playing an active, visible role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change	Rejected
3g	Middle management playing an active daily role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change	Rejected
3h	Peer influencers playing an active role in the communications process is central to achieving organisational change	Rejected
3i	Involving employees in decisions about change is central to achieving organisational change	Supported
3j	Lateral communications flows are central to achieving organisational change	Supported
3k	Communicating through everyday activity is central to achieving organisational change	Rejected

13.2.4 Conclusion 4 ·

The selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables.
Hypothesis 4 is supported

It was noted in the literature review, that the literature on communicating for change also tends to universally prescribe the same communications practices for all change situations These universal guidelines ignore well constructed arguments in other parts of the literature that there are many types of organisational change ranging from evolutionary to transformational change, requiring different responses and that it is simplistic to suggest that there is a universal 'ideal' organisational type to support change Hypothesis 4 states that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables

A series of findings in this thesis consistently contradict the assumption prevailing across many parts of the literature that communications principles universally apply in all situations Analysis of the practices of the total sample of organisations reveals that organisations are associated with different practices according to variables such as organisational size and structures, sector, country of ownership, presence of a union and employee age and educational profiles, supporting Hypotheses 4(b), (c), (d) (e) and (g) Furthermore, by identifying Integrated and Person-centred communications, it was demonstrated that either approach to communications tends to be selected according to the organisation's product or service offer and according to the extent to which control in the organisation is decentralised The only organisational characteristic not found to be associated with selection of communications approach was the extent to which organisations have recently undertaken a redundancy programme It is also suggested in the interpretation of the findings, that organisations which only wish to achieve an evolutionary level of change requiring compliance (such as quality assurance), select Integrated communications, while organisations requiring internalised commitment to transformational change (such as total quality), will opt for Person-centred communications (supporting Hypothesis 4(a)) Overall, it is concluded that Hypothesis 4 is supported

Table 13.4   Hypothesis 4 is Supported

	Hypothesis 4	Support / Reject?
	The selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables	**Supported**
4a	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the level of change required	Supported
4b	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the sector they are in	Supported
4c	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to their size and structures	Supported
4d	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to the profile of the majority of employees within those organisations	Supported
4e	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to whether or not the organisation is unionised	Supported
4f	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to whether or not a recent redundancy programme has taken place	Rejected
4g	Organisations select different approaches to communicating for change according to their country of ownership	Supported

13.2.5 Conclusion 5 :

The relationship between communications and organisational change may be explained by 'emotional ownership' of change

Hypothesis 5 is supported

In the review of the literature, it was noted that the literature on organisational communications generally makes little attempt to explain how or why communications might have a relationship with organisational change. Some parts of the literature make assertions about communications enhancing trust levels, integrating effort or helping employees to become involved, but there is no real insight provided by the literature as to how this relationship might be explained. Hypothesis 5 states that it is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change.

Based on what is written in the literature about this area, four sub hypotheses were put forward as possible explanations; increasing commitment through involvement, building trust through openness, persuading employees about the benefits and increasing integration of effort through lateral communications flows (Hypotheses 5 (a), (b), (c) and (d) respectively). While these practices were found to be present in both Integrated and Person-centred communications, they were not found to differentiate the two approaches, indicating that they may account for the relationship between communications and evolutionary organisational change, but do not

333

explain how communications can support transformational change. As such, the four hypotheses have been rejected.

However, an explanation on how communications can support transformational organisational change is proposed in this thesis, supporting Hypothesis 5. It is proposed that two types of communications, Integrated and Person-centred communications, are each respectively associated with compliance or internalised commitment to varying degrees of organisational change. It is argued that a point of 'emotional ownership' of the proposed changes differentiates between the two. Managers who are oriented to the organisations and retain control are able to achieve a level of compliance by being open with information, being clear on what is expected and involving employees in decisions (Integrated communications). On the other hand, managers who are oriented to the person and empower their employees to take initiative, are able to facilitate internalised commitment or emotional ownership of far-reaching change, by demonstrating interest in employees' emotional responses to change, supporting them and placing trust in their judgement (Person-centred communications).

Table 13.5   Hypothesis 5 is Supported

	Hypothesis 5	**Support / Reject?**
	It is possible to put forward an explanation regarding how communications supports organisational change	**Supported**
5a	Communications supports organisational change by increasing commitment to the change through involvement	Rejected
5b	Communications supports organisational change by building trust levels through openness	Rejected
5c	Communications supports organisational change by persuading employees about the benefits of change	Rejected
5d	Communications supports organisational change by increasing integration of effort through communications flows	Rejected

13.3   Limitations Of The Research

A number of key conclusions have been successfully drawn from this study. However, it is important to recognise at this juncture that, for a variety of practical reasons, there were limitations inherent in the research, which provide opportunities for further research for generalisability in the future. These limitations are discussed below.

The first limitation relates to the sample size. It might be suggested that while the sample of 116 organisations which took part in the quantitative phase of the research is statistically

robust, it nevertheless would have been preferable to have based this research on a larger sample size However, this sample represents some 62 per cent of the population of 187 organisations in Ireland who at the time fitted two key criteria They were organisations which were all undergoing a similar process of organisational change (changing to total quality), which is considered to be a positive and far-reaching change objective They also all had a minimum of 50 employees, at that time making up over 10 per cent of the total number of organisations in the country with 50 or more employees (European Commission, 1996) It is argued that in fulfilling these two criteria, this in fact is a very strong sample size

The follow-up interviews were also restricted to a total of ten organisations and it might be asked why more organisations were not approached to take part in this supplementary phase of research The researcher wanted to approach organisations which scored amongst the highest on each of Integrated and Person-centred communications in the main research phase, as it was believed that these organisations would offer the clearest insight into features associated with either communications approach The purpose of this follow-up phase of research was to explore in a preliminary way those features which arose through the quantitative findings Even with the numbers involved, consistent patterns arose through the interviews Now the features have been identified, it will be possible to examine these further for generalisability amongst a larger sample of Integrated and organisations with Person-centred communications

The make-up of the sample may also impact on the generalisability of the findings While the sample in this study reflected the population of organisations holding the Q Mark, it was heavily skewed towards the manufacturing sector (three quarters of the sample were manufacturing organisations) It would be important to examine the model again against a higher ratio of services organisations and given the growing importance of the third sector - the voluntary sector - it may be a valuable exercise to extend the research to include all three sectors It has also already been noted that the heavy weighting of the sample towards multisited organisations may impact on the reliability of some of the responses It was recognised that the most senior executive in each site will have an influence on the approach to communicating and the extent to which total quality is achieved in their site The responses from a Quality Manager or HR Manager in head office may not take these issues into account

For pragmatic reasons, the field work for this study was centred around the responses of Quality Managers or HR managers responsible for quality and did not include the responses of employees themselves This was to enable access to a large number of organisations, by minimising interruptions within each organisation Moreover, because the nature of the research was exploratory, detailed questionnaires covering a large number of questions were issued It was decided that while managers interested in the area would be prepared to complete

335

such necessarily comprehensive questionnaires, it would be difficult to encourage employees to invest the same amount of time. However, there is a growing level of evidence to question whether employees view communications in the same light as their managers. The Drury Communications and IPD Ireland (1997) survey, for example, which compared responses of managers and employees on the effectiveness of communications methods in place in their organisations showed significant differences in response, while Barton (1996) found that supervisors and managers seriously overestimated the extent to which their employees believe they have an opportunity to feed back. If the same questionnaires were completed by quotas of employees, would employees have responded in the same way? For example, would employees in those organisations which scored highly on Person-centred communications agree that the Person-centred style is, in fact, a reality in their organisation from their perspective? An obvious opportunity for research is to compare the responses of both managers and employees on their perceptions about the presence or absence of each of Person-centred and Integrated communications within their organisations, using a more focused questionnaire, now that key features of the two approaches have been identified.

Looking at the content of the questionnaire itself, one limitation of the questionnaire is the fact that it focused almost exclusively on communications strategies for change, with only a brief number of questions looking at leadership, structures and rewards. Even with the small number of questions included, rewards was found to be one of the variables which significantly predicted the scores for the Index of Total Quality. It was noted that between them, the two communications approaches and rewards only accounted for a small proportion of variance explained, suggesting that other factors must also be at play. Limiting the areas of research questions had been done consciously to provide sufficient scope to ask a large number of questions about communications itself, as this was the primary focus of the research. However, there is an opportunity to look in more detail in the future at the two communications dimensions vis a vis other management strategies in supporting organisational change.

The findings also point to limitations in the internal reliability of the statements used in Section D of the questionnaire. Because existing communications questionnaires were found to be inadequate for the needs of this study, a questionnaire was specifically constructed. However, an analysis of the inter-item reliability of the statements in Section D points to poor reliability for three clusters of statements. Once again, it is argued that having now identified the key features of Person-centred and Integrated communications through this preliminary analysis, it is now possible to reconstruct a more focused questionnaire around the two approaches to communicating and to carry out more rigorous reliability and validity tests to ensure the generalisability of the questionnaire.

Critical theorists would point to the fact that research takes place within one environment in any given time and inherent cultural or sociological assumptions may in fact influence the findings (Harvey, 1990). This research took place in Ireland at a time when the economy is experiencing an upswing after a very difficult period of trading. For example, 56 per cent of the sample organisations had redundancy schemes in place at some stage in the five years prior to the research. The employees remaining have seen that job security is no longer guaranteed (perhaps raising both uncertainties and an openness to embrace change), and meanwhile, the organisations can now afford the time and resources to think about communications. Has this particular snapshot of time an influence on the type of communications in use? It may be a valuable exercise to test the model for generalisability in other economies at a different cycles or different stages of development. In addition, the communications styles themselves may be inherently 'Irish', despite being consistently found in both indigenous and multinational organisations based in Ireland. Hofstede (1983) has identified, for example, that the cultures from which management come affect their management style. American managers, for example, have been found to score extremely highly on individualistic, competitive attributes, while Scandinavian managers are found to place higher emphasis on relationships, quality of life and caring for those who find the working environment difficult. Would Scandinavian managers tend more towards the Person-centred communications style as a result of their cultural background? The generalisability of the two communications approaches across different cultural backgrounds would be a further interesting area for research.

Other aspects of the cultural 'snapshot' may also impact the findings. Ireland currently enjoys a relatively young workforce. This is reflected in the make-up of the sample of this research study, where 57.4 per cent of the sample organisations had a majority of employees younger than 35 years. Gordon (1996) notes that younger workers are considered to be more adaptable, open to change and require more independence than their older peers. The communications approaches which have evolved in this country may be in response to the age profile. Their generalisability would need to be examined in cultures where the workforce is not so skewed to the younger age group. Education is also considered to be an important variable (eg French and Bell, 1990), and this study has already established that organisations with more highly educated workforces tended more towards a Person-centred communications style. As a whole, the Irish workforce is considered to be one of the more highly educated workforces in the world, where 80 per cent of second level students complete their Leaving Certificate and 45 per cent of school levers advance to third level (Department of Education, 1995), which may influence the extent to which Person-centred communications has been able to evolve as a successful management tool. The generalisability of the model would also need to be examined in the context of countries where workforces are less educated.

In summary, it was recognised from the start that this research would be preliminary and while important advances have been made, many of the findings and conclusions drawn need to be further tested for generalisability. The limitations of the existing research are considered to be minor and can be easily resolved by expanding the study in future iterations.

13.4   Areas For Further Research

Apart from testing the generalisability of the research by examining the limitations outlined above, the findings from this study also raise some important questions which provide opportunities for further research.

One of the issues raised from the study is that there appears to be little attempt by the literature on communicating for change to incorporate all that has been learnt in related areas such as organisational behaviour, theories on attitudes and motivation and change management. The new insights generated by this study were made by referring to writings by researchers outside the direct remit of organisational communications. Because this research was preliminary, it is clearly important that it is refined and explored in more depth. It is imperative that future research into this area continues to draw in broader knowledge in related areas, as it has important insights to offer into our understanding of the relationship between organisational communications and change.

For example, this study did not specifically set out to establish the nature of the relationship between communication and compliance and commitment. Now that it has emerged that features of Integrated communications appear to be similar to antecedents to compliance and features of Person-centred communications appear to be similar to antecedents to internalised commitment (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997), it would be very useful to examine these overlaps in more detail and establish whether there are other overlapping features which have not been identified from this study. In addition, given that there is still conflicting evidence regarding the relationship between commitment and actual changes in behaviour, it would be important to research not only the links between the two types of communication, commitment and reported organisational change, but also to look for relationships between the two types of communications, stated commitment by employees and actual observable changes in behaviour.

It would also be important to examine the relative importance of Integrated and Person-centred communications against other enablers of change. Important insights have been developed recently in the change management literature (eg Greenwood and Hinings, 1996; Klein and Speer, 1996), which discuss potential interactions between variable such as leadership, values,

skills and organisational structures as antecedents to organisational change This provides an important opportunity for research in order to gain a more complete understanding of where Integrated and Person-centred communications might interact with these other variables to create compliance or commitment to varying degrees of organisational change

In this study, organisational change was looked at in the context of total quality However, there are many other change programmes upon which organisations embark such as the introduction of technology, the introduction of performance management systems, restructuring and so on An obvious opportunity for further exploration is to establish whether the two communications approaches are found to correlate with organisations which successfully undertook types of change other than becoming total quality organisations Other aspects of change itself could also be examined to establish whether they appear to have a relationship with either communications model For example, the urgency with which the change has to be pushed through or the extent to which the change could rationally be perceived to be positive (eg new technologies), or negative (eg downsizing), may have an impact on the communications approach selected

In particular, the characteristics of both Integrated and Person-centred communications are similar to the characteristics of organisational communications in total quality organisations identified by Allen and Brady (1997) Their study has found that TQM organisations tend to have better upwards and lateral communications as well as higher quality of information exchange In addition, Buckley et al (1998) conclude from a study of Irish quality organisations, that quality initiatives enhance internal communications processes, implying that these communications processes are a feature or outcome of quality organisations rather than causal agents of change to total quality These studies pose the question as to whether the communications model identified in this thesis is just a feature of total quality, or whether it is actually an antecedent to successful achievement of change Extending the study to investigate other change situations will help resolve this question

It was argued earlier that not all organisations might necessarily want or need to use Person-centred communications to achieve internal commitment to transformational change McDonalds fast food outlets and the military were two examples selected as organisations which may be more appropriate for Integrated communications Another valuable area of further research would be to explore in more detail the organisational profile and varying degrees of organisational change which are more appropriate to either communications approach By establishing a more comprehensive set of contingency profiles, valuable information will be available for practitioners to determine which communications approach best suits their organisation's needs

13.5   Summary

This thesis attempted to better understand the relationship between internal organisational communications and organisational change. Five key conclusions have been drawn. Firstly, it is concluded the suggested model of organisational change to total quality incorporating five incremental stages is well-grounded. Secondly, that those organisations which have attained the Irish Q Mark do not adhere to all of the communicating for change practices advocated in the literature. Thirdly, that communicating for change practices can be differentiated between those of central or peripheral importance for organisational change, suggesting that the literature is incorrect in assuming that all practices are of equal importance. It is also concluded that the selection of communicating for change practices is contingent upon organisational and change variables. It is argued that the approach taken to communications is contingent on a variety of organisational variables and according to the depth of organisational change required. The final conclusion is that the relationship between communications and organisational change can be explained by the concept of 'emotional ownership' of change. This explanation is developed from the findings and by drawing links to relevant theoretical contributions across a broad range of related areas of literature.

However, the key contribution of the study is concluded to be the fact that by identifying the underlying differences between Integrated and Person-centred communications, it raises fundamental questions about the very purpose of communications in organisational change. It is argued that the humanist perspective taken in Person-centred communications - communications as a means of enhancing a relationship based on mutual trust and respect - could be as important, if not more important, than the traditional perspective which is to use communications to achieve managerial goals. Certainly, it has been found by this study to have a stronger link with transformational change than the traditional approach to communicating.

A discussion on the implications for further research highlights areas in which this study can be expanded. It was recognised from the start that this research would be preliminary and while the methodology, the findings and conclusions can be further tested for generalisability, it is concluded that important advances have been made in understanding the links between internal organisational communications and organisational change as a result of this study.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

341

ACAS, (1994) 'Talking Sense - New ACAS Guide to Employee Relations' in Industrial Relations Review and Report May 1994 pp 3-4

Adam, Everett (1991) 'Quality Circle Performance' in Journal of Management 17 (19) pp25-39

Ahire, Sanjay and Golhar, Damodar (1996) 'Quality Management in Large vs Small Firms' in Journal of Small Business Management 34 (2) pp1-14

Alexander, Philip (1989) 'The Soft Technologies of Quality' in Quality Progress 22(11) pp24-28

Alexander, Larry (1985) 'Successfully Implementing Strategic Decisions' in Long Range Planning 18(3) pp 91-97

Allen, Myria and Brady, Robert (1997) 'Total Quality Management, Organisational Commitment, Perceived Organisational Support and Interorganisational Communications' in Management Communication Quarterly 10(3) pp 316-341

Allen, Myria, Gotcher, Michael and Seibert, Joy (1993) 'A Decade of Organisational Communication Research Journal Articles 1980-1991' in Communications Yearbook 16 pp 252-330

Alvesson, M and Wilmott, Hugh (1992) Critical Management Studies London Sage

Anderson, Paul (1995) 'Ontology and Research Strategy - Paradigmatic Consequences To Social Inquiry' in Elfring, Tom, Siggard Jensen, Hans and Money, Arthur (eds) European Research Paradigms In Business Studies Copenhagen Hanelshøjskalens Forlag

Andersen, R J , Hughes, J A , Sharrock, W W (1986) Philosophy and The Human Sciences London Croom Helm

Argyris, Chris (1994) 'Good Communications That Blocks Learning' in Harvard Business Review 72(4) pp 77-85

Arkin, Anat (1998) 'Crash course' in People Management 4(21) pp 50-52

Armenakis, Achilles and Harris, Stanley (1993) 'Creating Readiness for Organisational Change' in Human Relations 46(6) pp 681-703

Armstrong, Terry (1993) 'Twenty-five Lessons from Twenty-five years of Consulting To Organisations and Communities' in Organisation Development Journal 11(3) pp 33-38

Arnott, Mike (1987) 'Effective Employee Communications' in Hart, Norman (ed) Effective Corporate Relations Applying Public Relations In Business London McGraw Hill

Babbie, Earl and Halley, Fred (1994) Adventures in Social Research Data Analysis Using SPSS Thousand Oaks Pine Forge Press

Bacharach, Samuel; Bamburger, Peter and Sonnenstuhl, William (1996) 'The Organisational Transformation Process : The Micropolitics of Dissonance Reduction and the Alignment of Logics of Action' in Administrative Science Quarterly 41(3) pp 477-506

Bahls, Jane (1992) 'Managing For Total Quality' in Public Relations Journal April '92 pp16-20

Bailey, Kenneth (1987) Methods of Social Research New York : The Free Press

Baird, John and Diebolt, Jerome (1976) 'Role Congruence, Communications, Superior-Subordinate Relations and Employee Satisfaction in Organisational Hierarchies' in Western Speech Communications vol 40 pp 260-267

Balley, Marvin; Bragear, Gary; Cormacl, April; Murray, Colleen and Paranteau, Cal (1993) 'Recipes For Disaster' in Quality Progress 26(1) pp55-58

Barker, James; Melville, Craig and Pacanowsky, Michael (1993) 'Self Directed Teams at Xel : Changes in Communication Practices During A Program of Cultural Transformation' in Journal of Applied Communications Research 21(4) pp 297-312

Barnes, James (1997) 'The Role of Internal Marketing : If The Staff Won't Buy It, Why Should The Customer?' in O'Driscoll, Aidan (ed) Marketing In Action. Learning From A Small Country Dublin : Mercury Publications

Bartlett, Christopher and Ghoshal, Sumantra (1996) 'Changing The Role of Top Management : Beyond Systems To People' in Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (eds) Fast Forward : The Best Ideas on Managing Business Change Boston : Harvard Business School Publishing

Barton, Robert (1996) 'La Vie En Rose Revisited : Contrasting Perceptions Of Informal Upward Feedback Among Managers and Subordinates' Management Communication Quarterly 9 (3) pp 338

Bayliss, Stuart (1996) 'Communication Behaviour : A Lever of Change' in Internal Communications Focus Nov 196 pp3-9

Beaumont, Phil (1995) 'Organisation Change; HRM and The Quality Route' Industrial Relations News 15(13) pp 16-20

Beckhard, Richard and Harris, Reuben (1987) Organisational Transitions Massachusetts : Addison-Wesley Publishing Company

Beddowes, Peter and Wilke, Edgar (1990) 'Triggers For Change' Leadership and Organisation Development Journal 11 (7) pp 28-31

Beer, Michel; Eisenstat, Russell and Spector, Bert (1990) 'Why Change Programmes Don't Produce Change' in Harvard Business Review Nov-Dec 1990 HBR Classic Reprint 90601

Bell, Chip (1996) 'Customers As Partners' in Executive Excellence 13(2) pp 5-6

Bennis, Warren (1997) 'Leaders of Leaders' in Executive Excellence 14(9) pp 3-4

Bennis, Warren and Nanus, Burt (1985) <u>Leaders   The Strategies For Taking Charge</u> New York   Harper and Row

Berzok, Robert (1997) 'Effective Internal Communication Needs Emotional Connectedness' in <u>Internal Communications Focus</u> (25) May 1997 pp 12-13

Blair, Rebecca, Roberts, Karlene and McKechnie, Pamela (1985) 'Vertical and Network Communication in Organisations   The Present and The Future' in McPhee, Robert and Tompkins, Philip (eds) <u>Organisational Communication   Traditional Themes and New Directions</u> Sage   Beverly Hills

Blake, Robert, Avis, Warren and Mouton, Jane (1966) <u>Corporate Darwinism</u> Houston   Gulf Publishing Company

Blake, Lenny (1992) 'Reduce Employees' Resistance To Change' in <u>Personnel Journal</u> 71(9) pp 72-77

Bland, Michael and Jackson, Peter (1990) <u>Effective Employee Communications</u> London   Kogan Page

Boaden, Ruth, Wilcox, Mark and Dale, Barrie (1993) 'Methodology For Research Into Total Quality Management   Integration and Development' <u>Paper presented to British Academy of Management,</u> Sept '93 Lancaster

Boaden, Ruth (1996) 'Is TQM Really Unique' in <u>Total Quality Management</u> 7(5) pp 553-570

Boje, David, Rosile, Grace Ann, Dennehy, Robert and Summers, Debra (1997) 'Restorying Re-engineering' in <u>Communication Research</u> 24(6) pp 631-638

Bonvillian, Gary (1996) 'Quality Driven Change in the 1990s' in <u>IIE Solutions</u> 28(4) pp 32-39

Bonvillian, Gary (1997) 'Managing The Messages of Change   Lessons from the Field' in <u>Industrial Management</u> 39(1) pp 20-25

Booth, Anthony (1988) <u>The Communications Audit   A Guide For Managers</u> London   Gower

Bouchard, Thomas (1976) 'Field Research Methods   Interviewing, Questionnaires, Participant Observation, Unobstructive Measures' in Dunette, Marvin (ed) <u>Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology</u> Chicago   Rand McNally

Bounds, Greg, Yorks, Lyle, Adams, Mel and Ranney, Gipsie (1994) <u>Beyond Total Quality Management   Toward The Emerging Paradigm</u> New York   McGraw-Hill

Bowen, David and Lawler, Edward (1992   a) 'Total Quality Oriented Human Resources Management' in <u>Organisational Dynamics</u> 20(4) pp29-42

Bowen, David and Lawler, Edward (1992   b) 'The Empowerment of Service Workers   What, Why, How and When' in <u>Sloan Management Review</u> 33 (3) pp 31-39

Bradburn, Norman (1983) 'Response Effects' in Rossi, Peter H, Wright, James D and Andersen, Andy B (eds) <u>Handbook of Survey Research</u> Florida   Academic Press

Brandon, Michael (1996) 'From Need To Know to Need To Know' in Communication World 13(8) pp 18-19

Brege, Staffan and Brandes, Ove (1993) 'The Double Turnaround of ASEA and ABB - Twenty Lessons' in Journal of Strategic Change 2 pp 185-206

Brown, Shona and Eisenhardt, Kathleen (1997) 'The Art of Continuous Change : Linking Complexity Theory and Time-paced Evolution in Relentlessly Shifting Organisations' in Administrative Science Quarterly 42 (Mar 1997), pp 1-34

Bryan, Jerry (1997) 'Effective Communication During A Transition' in Internal Communication Focus 27 July / August 1997 pp 18-21

Bryman, Alan and Cramer, Duncan (1994) Quantitative Data Analysis for Social Scientists Routledge : London

Buckley, Finian; Monks, Kathy and Sinnott, Anne (1998) 'Communication Enhancement : A Process Dividend for the Organisation and the HRM Department?' in Human Resource Management 37 (3 & 4) pp 221-234

Burke, Warner; Spencer, Janet; Clark, Lawrence and Coruzzi, Celeste (1991) 'Managers get a C in Managing Change' in Training and Development 45 (5) pp 87-91

Burnes, Bernard (1992) Managing Change. A Strategic Approach To Organisational Development and Renewal London : Pitman

Burns, Tom and Stalker, GM (1961) The Management of Innovation London : Tavistock Publications

Business Week (1997) 'A Tidal Wave of Temps' Business Week November 24, 1997 pp18-19, p41

Buzzell, Robert (1987) The PIMS Principles : Linking Strategy To Performance New York : Free Press

Caldwell, Raymond (1994) 'From A Closed To Open Communications Style' Internal Communications Focus Oct. 1994 pp 16-17

Callahan, Robert; Fleenor, Patrick and Knudson, Harry (1986) Understanding Organisational Behaviour : A Managerial Viewpoint Columbus : Charles E. Merrill

Capps, Randall (1993) 'Communicating Sudden Change In Tasks and Culture : The Inglis Montgomery Story' in IIEE Transactions in Professional Communication 36(1) pp 30-34

Carnall, C. (1991) Managing Change London : Routledge

Carr, Clay (1994) 'Seven Keys To Successful Change' in Training February 1994 pp 55-60

Caudron, Shari (1995) 'The Top 20 Ways To Motivate Employees' in Industry Week April 3, 1995 pp 12-18

Central Statistics Office (1997) Census of Industrial Production Dublin : Government Publications

Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (1996) Fast Forward : The Best Ideas On Managing Business Change Boston : Harvard Business School Publishing

Charan, Ram (1996) 'How Networks Reshape Organisations - For Results' in Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (eds) in Fast Forward : The Best Ideas on Managing Business Change Boston : Harvard Business School Publishing

Cheney, George and MacMillan, Jill (1990) 'Organisational Rhetoric and The Practice of Criticism' in Journal of Applied Communications Research 18(2) pp 93-114

Cheney, George (1995) 'Democracy In The Workplace : Theory and Practice From The Perspective of Communication' in Journal of Applied Communications Research 23(3) pp 167-200

Chiles, Angela and Zorn, Theodore (1995) 'Empowerment in Organisations : Employees' Perceptions of the Influences in Empowerment' in Journal of Applied Communications Research 23 (1) pp 1-25

Choi, Thomas and Liker, Jeffrey (1995) 'Bringing Japanese Continuous Improvement Approaches To US Manufacturing : The Roles of Process Orientation and Communications' in Decision Sciences 26(5) pp 589-620

Clampitt, Phillip and Downs, Cal (1993) 'Employee Perceptions of The Relationship Between Communications and Productivity' : A Field Study in Journal of Business Communication 30(1) pp 5-28

Cocheu, Ted (1989) 'Training for Quality Improvement' in Training and Development January 1989 pp56-62

Cocheu, Ted (1992) 'Training with Quality' in Training and Development May 1992 pp23-32

Cole, Roger and Pace, Larry (1991) 'Power to Change : The Case of TVA' in Training and Development 45 (8) pp 59-64

Collard, Ron and Sivyer, Gill (1990) 'Total Quality' in Personnel Management Factsheet 29

Conlon, Sean (1994) 'Quality and Competitive Advantage in Ireland' Paper presented at the ICM Quality Conference, Dublin, Sept. 1994

Cotton, John; Volrath, David; Froggatt, Kirk; Lengnick-Halt, Mark and Jennings, Kenneth (1988) 'Employee Participation. Diverse Forms and Different Outcomes' in Academy of Management Review 13(1) pp 8-22

Coughlan, Paul; Keating, Mary and Bergin, Marian (1997) 'Toward An Understanding Of Continuous Improvement In Managing Industry In Ireland' in International Journal of Technology Management 14(1) pp 139-145

Covin, Teresa and Kilman, Ralph (1990) 'Participant Perceptions of Positive and Negative Influences on Large Scale Change' in Group and Organisation Studies 15(2) pp 233-248

Covin, Teresa and Kilman, Ralph (1991) 'Profiling Large Scale Change Efforts' in Organisation Development Journal 9(2) pp 1-5

Cox, David (1991) Exploiting Change. By Gabb and By Gibb Burton on Trent : Tresises

Coyle, Michael (1993) 'Quality Interpersonal Communication - An Overview' in Manage 44(4) pp 4-5

Creswell, John (1994) Research Design. Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches Thousand Oaks : Sage

Crosby, Philip (1979) Quality Is Free. The Art of Making Quality Certain New York : McGraw Hill

Crosson, Des (1987) 'A Company Employee Communications Strategy' in Management Decision 25(3) pp 28-34

Cully, Mark (1998) 'The State We're In' in People Management 4(21) pp 69-72

Cunningham, Barton and Lischeron, Joe (1991) 'Improving Internal Communications : Issues Facing Managers' in Optimum 21(3) pp 53-70

Daft, Richard and Lengel, Robert (1986) 'Organisational Information Requirements; Media Richness and Structural design' in Management Science 32(5) pp 554-571

Dale, Barrie and Cooper, Cary (1992) Total Quality and Human Resources : An Executive Guide Oxford : Blackwell

Dale, Barrie and Smith, Mark (1997) 'Spectrum of Quality Management Implementation Grid : Development and Use' in Managing Science Quarterly 7(6) pp 307-311

D'Aprix, Roger (1996) Communicating For Change. Connecting The Workplace With The Marketplace San Francisco : Jossey Bass

D'Aprix, Roger (1997) 'Connecting with Change in the Workplace' in Internal Communications Focus 26 (June 1997) pp 14-18

Davenport, Jenny and Lipton, George (1993) Communications For Managers London : The Industrial Society

Dawson, Patrick (1994) 'Quality Management : Beyond The Japanese Model' in Asia Pacific Journal Of Quality Management 3(2) pp 55-63

Dawson, Sandra and Wedderburn, Dorothy (1980) 'Joan Woodward and The Development of Organisation Theory' in Woodward, Joan (ed) Industrial Organisation : Theory and Practice Oxford : Oxford University Press

Dawson-Shepherd, Andraea and Ryan, Locksley (1997) 'Inclusion or Marketing?' in Internal Communications Focus 31 Dec 97 / Jan 98 pp 7-10

DeGues, Arie (1997) The Living Company Boston : Harvard Business School Press

De Vaus, D.A. (1991) <u>Surveys in Social Research</u> London : UCL

Dean, Peter (1997) 'What We Know About The Newest Wildest Tool in the Communications Arsenal' in <u>Journal of Employee Communications Management</u> May / June 1997 pp 29-38

Deetz, Stanley (1994) 'Representational Practices and the Political Analysis of Corporation: Building A Communications Perspective in Organisational Studies' in Kovacic, Branislav (ed) <u>New Approaches To Organisational Communication</u> Albany : State University of New York Press

Denzin, Norman and Lincoln, Yvonna (1994) (eds) <u>Handbook of Qualitative Research</u> London : Sage

Dickinson, Jeana (1998) 'Non Technical Structures for Knowledge Management' in <u>Internal Communications Focus</u> Issue 32 February 1998 pp 3-6

DiFonzo, Nicholas and Bordia, Prashant (1998) 'A Tale of Two Corporations : Managing Uncertainty During Organisational Change' in <u>Human Resource Management</u> 37(3 & 4) pp 295-303

Dilman, Don (1983) 'Mail and Other Self Administered Questionnaires' in Rossi, Peter H; Wright, James D. and Andersen, Andy B. (eds) <u>Handbook of Survey Research</u> Florida : Academic Press

Dodson, Robert (1991) 'Speeding The Way To Total Quality' <u>Training and Development</u> June '91 pp35-43

Donkin, Richard (1998) 'Lessons in Leadership' in <u>Financial Times</u> Friday March 13, 1998. p9

Donlon, JP (1997) 'In Search of the New Change Leader' <u>Chief Executive</u> Vol 129 November 1997 pp 64-67

Doty, D. Harold and Glick, William (1994) 'Typologies as A Unique Form of Theory Building : Towards Improved Understanding and Modelling' in <u>Academy of Management Review</u> 19 (2) pp 230-251

Drucker, Peter (1996) 'The Coming Of The New Organisation' in Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (eds) <u>Fast Forward : The Best Ideas on Managing Business Change</u> Boston : Harvard Business School Publishing

Drury Communications And IPD Ireland (1997) <u>National Survey On Internal Communications</u> Dublin : Unpublished Survey

Dulworth, Michael; Landen Delmar and Usilaner, Brian (1990) 'Employee Involvement Systems in US Corporations : Right Objectives, Wrong Strategies' in <u>National Productivity Review</u> 9 (2) pp 141 - 156

Dulye, Linda (1993) 'Towards Better Two Way : Why Communications Process Improvement Represents The Right Response During Uncertain Times' in <u>IEE Transactions on Professional Communication</u> 36(1) pp 24-31

Dunphy, Dexter and Stace, Doug (1988) 'Transformational And Coercive Strategies For Planned Organisational Change : Beyond The OD Model' Organisation Studies 9 (3) pp 317-334

Economic Update, (1993) 'Five Steps To TQ' in Management Magazine March '93 p46

Economist, The (1992) 'The Cracks in Quality' April 18th, 1992 pp 69-7

Economist, The (1997) Economic Indicators April 26, 1997

Edge, John (1990a) 'Common and Special Problems' in Lock, Dennis and Smith, David (eds) Gower Handbook of Quality Management Aldershot : Gower

Edge, John (1990b) 'Quality Improvement : Lessons For Management' in Lock, Dennis and Smith, David (eds) Gower Handbook of Quality Management Aldershot : Gower

Edwards, Jack and Thomas, Marie (1993) 'The Organisational Survey Process : General Steps and Practical Considerations' in Rosenfeld, Paul; Edwards, Jack and Thomas, Marie (eds) Improving Organisational Surveys Newbury Park : Sage

Eisenberg, Eric and Witten, Marsha (1987) 'Reconsidering Openness in Organisational Communication' in Academy of Management Review 12 (3) pp 418-426

Eisenberg, Eric (1996) 'Hearing Voices. Speculations on The Future Of Our Disciplines' in Management Communications Quarterly 10(1) pp 124-130

Elliot, Ronald (1990) 'The Challenge of Managing Change' in Personnel Journal 69 (3) pp 40-49

Elmes, Michael and Costello, Melinda (1992) 'Mystification and Social Drama : The Hidden Side of Communications Skills Training' in Human Relations 45(5) pp 427-445

Engdahl, Richard (1993) 'Complexity and Richness : Inversely Related Information Structure Variables with Implications For Improved Communications and Research on Problem Formulation' in Organisation Development Journal 11(3) pp 19-25

Ernecq, Jocelyne (1992) 'Planned and Unplanned Organisational Change. Consequences and Implications' in Hosking, Dion and Andersen, Neil (eds) Organisational Change and Innovation Psychological Perspectives and Practices in Europe London : Routledge

European Commission (1996) Enterprises in Europe. Fourth Report Luxembourg : Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

European Union (1990) Nomenclature Générale des Activités Economiques dans les Communautés Européenes Brussels : EU

Evans, Desmond (1986) People, Communications and Organisations London : Pitman

Excellence Ireland (1999), Q Mark Register 1998-1999 Dublin : Excellence Ireland

Exterbille, Kaat (1996) 'TQM Can Be DOA Without A Proper Communications Plan' in Journal for Quailty and Participation 19(2) pp 32-35

Farace, Richard; Monge, Peter and Russell, Hamish (1977) Communicating And Organising London : Addison - Wesley Publishing Co.

Fenton-O'Creevy, Mark; Wood, Stephen and Callerot, Emmanuelle (1998) Employee Involvement Within European Multinationals Uxbridge : European Works Council Study Group

Ferketish, Jean and Hayden, John (1992) 'HRD and Quality : The Chicken or The Egg?' in Training and Development January 1992 pp 39-42

Field, Dave (1997) 'Value of Knowledge - An Engineering View' in Internal Communications Focus Issue 24 April 1997 pp5-9

Filipczak, Bob (1995) 'Obfuscation Resounding : Corporate Communications In America' in Training July 1995 pp 29-36

Fimbel, Nancie (1994) 'Communicating Realistically : Taking Account of Politics in Internal Business Communications' in Journal of Business Communications 31(1) pp 7-26

Financial Times, The (1998) 'Lack of Trusting Relationships' in Financial Times January 14, 1998 p28

Fink, Arlene (1995) How to Design Surveys Thousand Oaks : Sage Publications

Fiorelli, Joseph and Margolis, Howard (1993) 'Managing and Undertaking Large Systems Change : Guidelines for Executives and Change Agents' in Organisation Development Journal 11(3) pp1-13

Fisher, George (1992) 'Total Customer Satisfaction - The Ultimate Competitive Advantage' Paper presented to University College Dublin October 1992

Fitzgerald, Ian; Rainnie, Al and Stirling, John (1994) 'Out of Control : The Trade Unions And Total Quality Management' Paper Presented To The 1994 British Academy of Management Conference

Foehrenbach, Julie and Goldfarb, Steve (1990) 'Employee Communication in the 1990s. Greater Expectations' in IABC Communication World May-June 1990 pp 101-106

Foley, Kieran; Gunnigle, Patrick and Morley, Michael (1996) 'Personnel Management in Ireland ; A New Epoch?' in International Journal of Employment Studies 4(2) pp 1-24

Folz, Roy (1985) 'Communication In Contemporary Organisations' in Reuss, Carol and Silvis, Donn Inside Organisational Communication London : Longman

Fontana, Andrea and Frey, James (1994) 'Interviewing : The Art of Science' in Denzin, Norman and Lincoln, Yvonna (eds) Handbook of Qualitative Research London : Sage

Fowler, Floyd (1984) Survey Research Methods Beverley Hills : Sage Publications

Francis, Dave (1987) 50 Activities For Unblocking Organisational Communication Aldershot : Gower

Freeman, Cornelia (1994) 'Applying OD and TQM Strategies to Manage Change in Hospitals' Arena_ March '94 pp18-23

French, Wendell and Bell, Cecil (1990) Organisation Development. Behavioural Science Interventions for Organisation Improvement_ New Jersey : Prentice Hall

French, Wendell; Kast, Freemont and Rosenweig, James (1985) Understanding Human Behaviour in Organisations New York : Harper and Row

Frey, Lawrence (1996) 'Remembering And Re-Membering : A History of Theory And Research on Communication and Group Decision Making' in Hirokawa, Randy and Scott Poole, Marshall (eds) Communication and Group Decision Making Thousand Oaks : Sage

Gergen, Kenneth and Thatchenkery, Tojo (1996) 'Organisation Science as Social Construction : Postmodern Potentials' in Journal of Applied Behavioural Science 32 (4) pp 356-377

Ghazi, Polly and Jones, Judy (1997) 'The Future Of Work Revealed' in Independent on Sunday : Sunday Review September 28, 1997 pp 8-11

Ghoshal, Sumantra (1995) 'Using People As A Force For Change' in People Management October 19, 1995 pp 34-37

Ghoshal, Sumantra and Bartlett, Christopher (1996) 'Rebuilding Behavioural Context : A Blueprint for Corporate Renewal in Sloan Management Review 37(2) pp23-36

Ghoshal, Sumantra and Bartlett, Christopher (1998) The Individualized Corporation London : Heinemann

Gilbreath, Robert (1990) 'The Myths of Winning Over Resistors To Change' Supervisory Management 35(1) pp1-2

Ginnodo, William (1989) 'How To Build Employee Commitment' in National Productivity Review 8(3) pp 249-260

Glaser, Barney and Strauss, Anselm (1967) The Discovery Of Grounded Theory : Strategies For Qualitative Research London : Weidenfeld and Nicholson

Glauser, Michael (1984) 'Upward Information Flow in Organisation : Review and Conceptual Analysis' in Human Relations 37(8) pp 613-643

Golden, Brian (1997) 'Further Remarks on Retrospective Accounts in Organisation and Strategic Management Research' in Academy of Management Journal 40(5) pp 1243-1252

Goldhaber, Gerald (1986) Organisational Communications Iowa : William C Brown Publishers

Goodman, Jack and Wiener, Susan (1997) 'The Effective Intranet. Organise Around Where You Are Going, Not Where You've Been' in Strategic Communications Management (4) pp 12-16

Goodstein, Leonard and Burke, Warner (1991) 'Creating Successful Organisational Change' in Organisational Dynamics 19(4) pp 5-17

Gordon, Judith (1996) <u>Organisational Behaviour</u> New Jersey   Prentice Hall

Gorman, Robert and Overstreet-Miller, Pattie (1997) 'Why Change Efforts Fail To Connect With Employees' in <u>Strategic Communication Management</u> Aug / Sept 1997 pp 28-35

Government of Ireland (1996) <u>Delivering Better Government   The Strategic Management Initiative</u> Dublin   Government Publications

Grant, Robert, Shani, Rami and Krishnan, R (1994) 'TQM's Challenge to Management Through Theory and Practice' in <u>Sloan Management Review</u> 35(2) pp25-37

Grates, Gary (1994) 'The Subtlety and Power of Communications in Corporate Renewal Initiatives' in <u>Public Relations Quarterly</u> Spring 1994 pp 40-43

Greenwood, Royston and Hinings, C R (1996) 'Understanding Radical Organisational Change   Bringing Together The Old and the New Institutionalism' in <u>Academy of Management Review</u> 21(4) pp 1022-1054

Grice, Shayne and Humphries, Maria (1997) 'Critical Management Studies in Post-modernity   Oxymorons in Outerspace?' in <u>Journal of Organisational Change</u> 10(5) pp 412-425

Gronstedt, Anders (1996) 'Integrated Communications at America's Leading Total Quality Management Corporations' in <u>Public Relations Review</u> 22(1) pp 25-42

Grunig, James (1992) <u>Excellence in Public Relations and Communications Management</u> New Jersey   Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates

Guba, Egon and Lincoln, Yvonna (1994) 'Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research' in Denzin, Norman and Lincoln, Yvonna (eds) <u>Handbook of Qualitative Research</u> London   Sage

Guirdham, Maureen (1995) <u>Interpersonal Skills At Work</u> London   Prentice Hall

Gundogan, M , Groven, G and Kay, J (1996) 'Total Quality Management   A Way Towards Total Integration' in <u>Total Quality Management</u> 7(4) pp 379-384

Gunnigle, Patrick, Clifford, Noreen and Morley, Michael (1997) 'Employee Relations' in Gunnigle, Patrick, Morley, Michael, Clifford, Noreen and Turner, Thomas (eds) <u>Human Resource Management in Irish Organisations</u> Dublin   Oak Tree Press

Gunnigle, Patrick, Flood, Patrick, Morley, Michael and Turner, Thomas (1994) <u>Continuity and Change in Irish Employee Relations</u> Dublin   Oak Tree Press

Hacker, Kenneth, Goss, Blaine, Townley, Charles and Horton, Valerie (1998) 'Employee Attitudes Regarding Electronic Mail Policies   A Case Study' in <u>Management Communication Quarterly</u> 11 (3) pp 422-452

Hall, Leon (1991) 'Six Elements For Implementing and Managing Change' in <u>Leadership and Organisation Development Journal</u> 12 (2) pp 24-26

Hall, Richard (1992) <u>Organisations Structures Processes and Outcomes</u> N Jersey   Prentice Hall

Hallier, Jerry (1998) 'Managerial Communication and the Psychological Contract : The Case of Air Traffic Control' in Corporate Communications : An International Journal 3(1) pp 11-17

Handy, Charles (1986) The Future of Work Oxford : Basil Blackwell

Hanson, Randall; Porterfield, Rebecca and Ames, Kathleen (1995) 'Employee Empowerment At Risk : Effects of Recent NLRB Rulings' in Academy of Management Executive 9(2) pp 45-57

Harcourt, Jules; Richerson, Virginia and Wattier, Mark (1991) 'A National Study of Middle Managers' Assessment of Organisational Communication' in Journal of Business Communication 28 Autumn edition pp 348-365

Hartley, Peter (1993) Interpersonal Communications London : Routledge

Hartline, Michael and Ferrell, OC (1996) 'The Management of Customer Contact Service Employees. An Empirical Investigation' in Journal of Marketing 60 Oct. edition pp 52-70

Hartwig, Frederick and Dearing Brian (1979) Exploratory Data Analysis London : Sage

Harvey, Lee (1990) Critical Social Research London : Unwin Hyman

Haseley, Kenneth (1994) 'Raising Awareness Precedes Changing Attitudes' in Public Relations Journal Aug / Sept. edition pp 36-37

Hayes, Treasa (1996) 'Total Quality Management and Organisational Change' DCUBS Research Paper 1995-1996 No. 15

Head, Thomas (1994) Organisational Development in Ireland' in Organisation Development Journal 12 (2) pp 59-66

Heath, Robert (1994) Management of Corporate Communication. From Interpersonal Contacts To External Affairs New Jersey : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Hendricks, Kevin and Singhal, Vinod (1997) 'Does Implementing An Effective TQM Program Actually Improve Operating Performance? Empirical Evidence from Firms That Have Won Quality Awards' in Management Science 43 (9) pp 1258-1274

Hellriege, Don; Slocum, John and Woodman, Richard (1989) Organisational Behaviour St. Paul : West Publishing Co.

Helms, Marilyn and Haynes, Paula (1992) 'Are You Really Listening? The Benefit of Effective Intra-Organisational Listening' in Journal of Managerial Psychology 7(6) pp 17-21

Herbig, Paul; Palumbo, Fred and O'Hara, Bradley (1994) 'Total Quality and The Human Resource Potential' in TQM Magazine 6(2) pp33-36

Heron, Michael (1998) 'How Adults Will Keep Up With Change' in RSA Journal CXLV (5484) 1/4 pp 6-10

Herzberg, Frederick (1970) 'The Motivational Hygiene Theory' in Vroom, Victor and Deci, Edward (eds) Management and Motivation. Selected Readings Middlesex : Penguin

Herzog, John (1991) 'People : The Critical Factor in Managing Change' in Journal of Systems Management 42(3) pp 6-11

Higgins, Colman (1994) 'Old Games, New Words' in Management Magazine February 1994 pp14-17

Higginson, Thomas and Waxler, Robert (1994) 'Communication, Commitment and Corporate Culture : The Foundation for TQM and Re-engineering' in Industrial Management 36(6) pp4-7

Hill, Stephen (1990) 'Britain : The Dominant Ideology Thesis After A Decade' in Abercrombie, Nicholas; Hill, Stephen and Turner, Bryan (eds) Dominant Ideologies London : Unwin Hyman Ltd.

Hirokawa, Randy and Scott Poole, Marshall (1996) Communication and Group Decision Making Thousand Oaks : Sage

Hobson, Neville (1994) 'Linking Common Threads' in IABC Communication World 11(1) pp 12-14

Hobson, Neville (1995) 'E-Mail. The Communications Revolution? New Technology Tools For Employee Communication' in Internal Communications Focus Iss. 35 pp 16-18

Hodgetts, Richard; Luthans, Fred and Lee, Sang (1994) 'From Total Quality to Learning World Class' in Organisational Dynamics 22(3) pp5-18

Hofstede, Gerhardt (1983) 'Dimensions of National Cultures in Fifty Countries and Three Regions' in Deregowski, J and Dziurawiec, S. (eds) Expiscations In Cross Cultural Psychology : Selected Papers From The Sixth International Conference of the International Association For Cross Cultural psychology. The Netherlands : Swets and Zeithinger

Holzinger, Albert (1995) 'Bulletin Boards' Global Reach' in Nation's Business 83(2) pp 33-34

Horwitz, Frank and Neville, Mark (1996) 'Organisation Design For Service Excellence : A Review of the Literature' in Human Resource Management 35(4) pp 41-492

Hosking, Dion Marie and Andersen, Neil (1992) Organisational Change and Innovation : Psychological Perspectives and Practices in Europe London : Routlege

House, R. and Wigdor, L. (1967) 'Herzberg's Dual-Factor theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation : A Review of the Evidence and Criticism' in Personnel Psychology Winter 1967. pp 369-389

Huberman, Michael and Miles, Matthew (1994) 'Data Management and Analysis Methods' in Denzin, Norman and Lincoln, Yvonna (eds) Handbook of Qualitative Research London : Sage

Hutchins, David (1990) In Pursuit of Quality London: Pitman

Hyman, Jeff and Mason, Bob (1996) Managing Employment Involvement and Participation London : Sage Publications

IBEC and Drury Communications (1996) Effective Employee Communications A Practical Handbook on Communicating At Work In Ireland Dublin IBEC

Industrial Society, The (1994) Employee Communications Managing Best Practice London The Industrial Society

Institute of Personnel and Development (1997) Employment Relations into the 21st Century An IPD Position Paper London Institute of Personnel and Development

Institute of Project Management (1993) 'Changing the AIB Corporate Identity' Paper Presented at IPM Conference, May 6, 1993 Dublin

International Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences (1968) London Collier MacMillan

IQA (1995) The Quality Mark Pack Dublin Irish Quality Association

IQA (1996a) 'A New Blueprint for Irish Business Excellence Launched' in Quality News 17(4) p1 Dublin Irish Quality Association

IQA (1996b) 'The New Blueprint for Business Excellence in Ireland' in Quality News 17(4) p3 Dublin Irish Quality Association

IQA (1996c) 'EU Study Confirms Link Between Competitiveness and Quality' in Quality News 18(2) p1 Dublin Irish Quality Association

IQA (1997) 'Strong Consumer Vote for Quality' in Quality News 18(4) p1 Dublin Irish Quality Association

Irish Congress of Trade Unions (1995) Managing Change Review of Union Involvement in Company Restructuring ICTU Biennial Conference July 1995

Irish Department of Education (1995) Charting Our Education Future Dublin Government Publications

Ishikawa, Kaoru (1985) What Is Total Quality Control? The Japanese Way Englewood Cliffs Prentice Hall

Jackson, Ingrid (1998) 'Changing Communication To Manage Change' in Internal Communications Focus Issue 33 March 1998 pp 9-13

Jackson, Laurence (1991) 'Achieving Change in Business Culture' in Industrial and Commercial Training 23 (4) pp 9-16

James, Gareth (1998) 'The Leadership of Organisations' in RSA Journal 146 (5468) pp 81-85

Jeannes, Clive (1993) 'Milliken Industries Defining and Managing Quality Successfully' in Crossborder Summer 1993 pp19-20

Jefkins, Frank (1988) Public Relations Techniques London Heinemann Professional

Jelinek, Mariann, Litterer, Joseph, Miles, Raymond (1986) 'The Future of Organisation Design' in Jelinek, Mariann, Litterer, Joseph, Miles, Raymond (eds) Organisations By Design Theory and Practice Texas Business Publications Ltd

Jenks, Stephen (1981) 'Effective Settings for Making Organisations Humane and Productive' in Melter, H and Nord, Walter (eds) Making Organisations Humane and Productive A Handbook for Practitioners New York John Wiley and Sons

Jensen, Hans and Elfring, Tom (1995) 'Introduction' in Elfring, Tom, Jensen, Hans Siggard and Money, Arthur (eds) European Research Paradigms in Business Studies Copehagen Handelshøjskolens Forlag

Johnson, Richard (1993) 'TQM Leadership for the Quality Transformation' in Quality Progress 26(1) pp73-75

Johnson, David, Donohue, William, Atkin, Charles and Johnson, Sally (1994) 'Differences Between Formal and Informal Communications Channels' in Journal of Business Communication 31(2) pp 111-122

Jones, Gareth, Taylor Thompson, Helen and Cropper Hilary (1998) 'The Leadership Of Organisations' in RSA Journal CXLVI (5486) 3/4 pp 81-86

Jones, Sue (1985) 'Depth Interviewing' in Walker, Robert (ed) Applied Qualitative Research Aldershot Dartmouth

Joss, R and Kogan, M (1995) Advancing Quality Buckinghamshire Open University Press

Kakabadse, Andrew, Alderson, Siobhan and Gorman, Liam (1995) 'Irish Top Management - Competitiveness and Team Dynamics' in Leavy, Brian and Walsh, James (eds) Strategy and General Management An Irish Reader Dublin Oak Tree Press

Kalinosky, Ian (1990) 'The Total Quality System - Going Beyond ISO 9000' in Quality Progress 23(6) pp50-54

Karathanos, Patricia (1998) 'Leadership Vernacular as a Communication Device' in Corporate Communications An International Journal 3(2) pp 65-69

Katzell, R (1981) 'Attitudes and Motivation' in Meltzer, H and Nord, Walter (eds) Making Organisations Humane and Productive A Handbook for Practitioners New York John Wiley and Sons

Kelly, Aidan and Hourihan, Fintan (1997) 'Employee Participation' in Murphy, Thomas and Roche, William (eds) Irish Industrial Relations in Practice Dublin Oak Tree Press

Kemper, Gary (1992) 'Managing Corporate Communication in Turbulent Times' in IABC Communication World May/June edition pp 29-32

Kerr, Larry (1992) 'Achieving World Class Performance Step by Step' in Long Range Planning 25(1) pp 46-52

Kets de Vries, Manfred and Miller, Danny (1985) The Neurotic Organisation Diagnosing and Changing Counterproductive Styles of Management San Francisco Jossey Bass

Kidder, Louise (1981) Research Methods in Social Relations New York : Holt, Rinehart and Winston

Killigen, Lucy (1997) 'Internal Affairs - More and More Companies Are Responding To The Benefits Of Internal Communications Programmes' in Marketing Week April 3, 1997

Kilmann, Ralph (1984) Beyond The Quick Fix. Managing Five Tracks to Organisational Success London : Jossey Bass

Klein, Katherine and Speer Sorra, Joann (1996) 'The Challenge of Innovation Implementation' in Academy of Management Review 21(4) pp 1055-1080

Klein, Stuart (1994) 'Communications Strategies For Successful Organisational Change' in Industrial Management 36(1) pp 26-30

Klein, Stuart (1996) 'A Managerial Communications Strategy For Change' in Journal of Organisational Change Management 9(2) pp 32-46

Kline, Paul (1994) An Easy Guide To Factor Analysis London : Routledge

Kotter, John and Schlesinger, Leonard (1986) 'Choosing Strategies for Change' in Mayon-White Bill (ed) Planning and Managing Change London : Harper and Row

Kotter, John (1995) 'Leading Change : Why Transformation Efforts Fail' in Harvard Business Review March-April '95 pp 59-67

Kotter, John (1996) Leading Change Boston : Harvard School Press

Kovacic, Branislav (1994) New Approaches to Organisational Communication Albany : State University of New York Press

KPMG (1993) Change Management Highlights form A Survey of 250 Senior Company Executives London : KPMG

Krane, Kathleen; Jablin, Frederic and Putnam, Linda (1987) 'Communication Theory and Organisational Communication : Multiple Perspectives' in Jablin, Frederic; Putnam, Linda; Roberts, Karlene and Porter, Lyman (eds) Handbook of Organisational Communication Thousand Oaks : Sage

Kroll, Karen 'Intranets : The New Corporate Horn' in Industry Week 246 (17) pp 56-63

Kudray, Lisa and Kleiner, Brian (1997) 'Global Trends in Managing Change' in Industrial Management 39(3) pp 18-20

Labovitz, Seymour (1970) 'The Assignment Of Numbers To Rank Order Categories' in American Sociological Review Vol 35 pp 515-524

Landes, Les (1992) 'Down With Quality Program-itis' in Communication World 9(3) pp 29-32, 60

Larkin, T J and Larkin, Sandar (1994) Communicating Change Winning Employee Support For New Business Goals New York Mc Graw Hill

Larkin, T J and Larkin, Sandar (1996) 'Reaching And Changing Front-lme Employees' in Harvard Business Review May / June edition pp 85-109

Laurent, A (1983) 'The Cultural Diversity of Western Conceptions of Management' in International Studies of Management and Organisation 13 (2) pp 75-96

Lawler, Ed (1996) 'Far From The Fad-In Crowd' People Management 2(21) pp38-40

Lawler, Edward III, Mohrman, Susan and Ledford, Gerald (1992) Employee Involvement and Total Quality Management Practices and Results in Fortune 1,000 Companies San Francisco Jossey Bass Publications

Lawler, Edward III, Mohrman, Susan and Ledford, Gerald (1995) Creating High Performance Organisations Practices and Results Of Employee Involvement and Total Quality Management in Fortune 1,000 Companies San Francisco Jossey Bass Publications

Lawrence, Paul (1969) 'How To Deal With Resistance to Change' in Harvard Business Review 47(1) pp 4-12 and 166-176

Lawrence, Paul and Lorsch, Jay (1969) Organisation and Environment Managing Differentiation and Integration Illinois Richard Irwan Inc

Leavitt, Harold (1962) 'Unhuman Organisations' m Harvard Business Review 40 pp 90-98

Leavitt, Harold (1970) 'Applied Organisation Change in Industry Structural Technical and Human Approaches' in Vroom, Victor and Deci, Edward (eds) Management and Motivation Selected Readings Middlesex Penguin

Lee, Thomas (1997 a) 'Why Communication Fails' in Internal Communication Focus 26 (June 1997) pp3-6

Lee, Thomas (1997 b) 'The Twelve Dimensions of Strategic Internal Communication' in Strategic Communication Management Oct / Nov 1997 pp 28-33

Leigh, Andrew (1988) Effective Change Twenty Ways To Make It Happen London Institute Of Personnel Management

Leonard - Barton, Dorothy and Kraus, William (1986) 'Implementing New Technology' in Mayon-White, Bill (ed) Planning and Managing Change London Harper and Row

Lewin, Kurt (1951) Field Theory In Social Science New York Harper and Row

Lewis, Michael, Cummings, Wayland, Long, Larry (1982) 'Communications Activity as a Predictor of the Fit Between Worker Motivation and Worker Productivity' in Burgon, Michael (ed) Communications Year Book 5 New Brunswick Transaction Books

Lewis, Philip (1987) Organisational Communications The Essence of Effective Management New York Free Press

Liberatore, Ralph (1993) 'The Culture Factor and Quality' in Quality Progress 26 (12) pp 61-63

Lievegoed, B (1973) The Developing Organisation London : Tavistock

Likely, Fraser (1998) 'Are You Ready To Become a Democrat?' in Strategic Communication Management Issue 8 Feb/March, 1998 pp 10-11

Likert, Rensis (1967) The Human Organisation. Its Management and Value Kogakusha : Mc Graw Hill

Lin, Nan (1977) The Study of Human Communication Indiana : Bobbs Merrill Co. Inc

Linkemer, Bobbi (1991) 'Empowering Employees At The Red Cross' in Training and Development 45(8) pp 49-52

Linkow, Peter (1989) 'Is Your Culture Ready For Total Quality?' in Quality Progress 22(1) pp69-71

Lippitt, Ronald (1981) 'Humanising Planned Changes' in Meltzer, H and Nord, Walter (eds) Making Organisations Humane and Productive : A Handbook for Practitioners New York : J Wiley and Sons

Littlejohn, Stephen (1992) Theories of Human Communication Belmont : Wadsworth Publishing

Lorenz, Christopher (1993) 'Need To Keep The Change Machine Under Control' in Financial Times July 23, 1993 p.9

Lovelady, Louise (1984) 'The Process of Organisational Development. A Reformulated Model of the Change Process Part 1' in Personnel Review 13(2) pp 2-11

Lupton, Tom and Tanner, Ian (1987) Achieving Change : A Systematic Approach Aldershot : Gower

Luthans, Fred and Larsen, Janet (1986) 'How Managers Really Communicate' in Human Relations 39(2) pp 161-178

Madu, Christian and Kwei, Chu-hua (1993) 'Introducing Strategic Quality Management' in Long Range Planning 26(6) pp121-131

Maitlis, Sally and Briner, Rob (1994) 'Winning Over Hearts and Minds : The Nature of Attitude Change In Organisations' Paper presented to the British Academy of Management Conference Sept. '94 Lancaster

Malone, Thomas (1997) 'Is Empowerment Just A Fad? Control Decision Making and IT' in Sloan Management Review 38(2) pp 23-36

Marchington, Mick and Dale, Barrie (1993) 'Who Is Really Taking The Lead On Quality' in Personnel Management April 1993 pp30-33

Margulies, Newton and Wallace, John (1973) Organisational Change Techniques and Applications Illinois : Scott, Foresman and Co

Mariotti, John (1997) 'Putting Theory Into Practice' in Industry Week 246 (23) p 106

Mariotti, John (1998) 'The Challenge of Change' in Industry Week 247 (7) p. 140

Marsh, Catherine (1982) The Survey Method The Contribution of Surveys To Sociological Exploration Hempstead : George Allen and Unwin

Marsh, Arthur (1982) Employee Relations Policy and Decision Making Gower : London

Marshall, Verena and Cacioppe, Ron (1986) 'A Survey of Differences in Communication between Managers and Subordinates' in Leadership and Organisation Development Journal 7(5) pp 17-25

Maslow, A.H. (1970) 'A Theory of Human Motivation' in Vroom, Victor and Deci, Edward (eds) Management and Motivation : Selected Readings Middlesex : Penguin

Mayo, Andrew (1998) 'Memory Bankers' in People Management 4(2) pp 34-38

Mayon-White, William M. (1993) Issues in Longitudinal Research on Organisational Change British Academy of Management Conference Lancaster, Sept. 1993

McCabe, Darren and Wilkinson, Adrian (1997) 'The Rise and Fall of TQM :The Vision, Meaning and Operation of Change' in Industrial Relations Journal 29:1 pp 18-29

McCathrin, Zoe (1989) 'Beyond Employee Publications. Making The Personal Connection' Public Relations Journal July edition pp 14-20

McCormack, Shaun (1992) 'TQM ; Getting It Right The First Time' in Training and Development June 1992 pp43-46

McGrath, Paul and Geaney, Charles (1998) 'Managing Organisational Change' in Roche, William; Monks, Kathy and Walsh, Jim (eds) Human Resource Strategies. Policy and Practice In Irish Organisations Dubin : Oak Tree Press

McKendall, Marie and Margulis, Stephen (1995) 'People and Their Organisations : Rethinking The Assumptions' in Business Horizons 38(6) pp 21-28

McKinnon, Kathryn and Barrett, Gavin (1996) The Management Of Change : Executive Summary Of Results From The USA Survey PA Consulting Group : Sundridge Park

McLagan, Patricia and Nel, Christo (1996: a) 'Participation's Wellspring Is Information' in Journal for Quality and Participation 19(2) pp 28-31

McLagan, Patricia and Nel, Christo (1996: b) 'A New Leadership Style For Genuine Total Quality' in Journal for Quality and Participation 19(3) pp 14-16

McLaurin, Donald and Bell, Shareen (1991) 'Open Communications Lines Before Attempting Total Quality' in Quality Progress 24(6) pp 25-29

McPhee, Robert (1985) 'Formal Structure and Organisational Communication' in McPhee, Robert and Tompkins, Phillip (eds) Organisational Communication Traditional Themes And New Directions Beverley Hills Sage

Meyer, John and Allen, Natalie (1997) Commitment in the Workplace Theory Research and Application Thousand Oaks Sage

Miles, Matthew and Huberman, Michael (1994) Qualitative Data Analysis Thousand Oaks Sage

Miller, Vernon, Johnson, John and Grau, Jennifer (1994) 'Antecedents To Willingness To Participate In A Planned Organisational Change' in Journal of Applied Communications Research 22 pp 59-80

Miller, Gerald (1987) 'Persuasion' in Berger, Charles and Chaffee, Steven (eds) Handbook of Communication Science California Sage

Monks, Kathy, Buckley, Finian and Sinnott, Anne (1997) 'Human Resource Management In A Quality Context Some Irish Evidence' in Employee Relations 19 (3) pp 193-207

Morgan, Gareth (1993) Imagination San Francisco Sage Publications

Morton-Williams, Jean (1985) 'Making Qualitative Research Work Aspects of Administration' in Walker, Robert (ed) Applied Qualitative Research Aldershot Dartmouth

Moser, Claus and Kalton, Graham (1979) Survey Methods in Social Investigation Aldershot Dartmouth

Moss, Stanley (1989) 'Appraise Your Performance Appraisal Process' in Quality Progress 22(11) pp58-60

Moss Kanter, Rosabeth (1983 a) The Change Masters Corporate Entrepreneurs At Work London George Allen and Unwin

Moss Kanter, Rosabeth (1983 b) 'Change Masters and The Intricate Architecture of Corporate Culture Change' in Management Review Oct '83 pp 18-28

Moss Kanter, Rosabeth (1989) When Giants Learn To Dance London Simon and Schuster

Moss Kanter, Rosabeth (1996) 'The New Managerial Work' in Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (eds) Fast Forward The Best Ideas on Managing Change Boston Harvard Business School Publishing

Moss Kanter, Rosabeth (1997) Frontiers of Management Boston Harvard Business Review Book

Mumby, Dennis and Stohl, Cynthia (1996) 'Disciplining Organisational Communications Studies' in Management Communication Quarterly 10(1) pp 50-72

Murphy, John A (1993) Service Quality in Practice Dublin Gill and Macmillan Ltd

361

Murray, David (1998) 'Seven Development Themes For the 21st Century' in <u>Organisations And People</u> 5(1) pp 4-18

Nachmias, Chawa and Nachmias, David (1982) <u>Research Methods in The Social Sciences</u> London Edward Arnold

Natalle, Elizabeth, Papa, Michael, Graham, Elizabeth (1994) 'Feminist Philosophy and the Transformation of Organisational Communication' in Kovacic, Branislav (ed) <u>New Approaches To Organisational Communication</u> Albany State University of New York Press

Nelson, Terry and Coxhead, Helene (1997) 'Increasing The Probability of Re-engineering / Culture Change Success through Effective Internal Communications' in <u>Strategic Change</u> 6 pp 29-48

Newton, David (1990) 'Control Charts Shewart Charts' in Lock, Dennis and Smith, David (eds)<u> Gower Handbook of Quality Management</u> Aldershot Gower

Newton, Julia (1993) 'Obstructing and Facilitating Processes in Strategic Change A Research Approach' <u>Paper presented to British Academy of Management Conference</u> Sept '93, Lancaster

Nicoll, David (1994) 'Acknowledge and Use Your Grapevine' in <u>Management Decision</u> 32(6) pp 25-30

Noel, James and Dennehy, Robert (1991) 'Making HRD A Force in Strategic Organisational Change' in <u>Industrial and Commercial Training</u> 23 (2) pp 17-19

Nohria, Nitin and Berkley, James (1996) 'Whatever Happened To The Take-Charge Manager?' in Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (eds) <u>Fast Forward The Best Ideas On Managing Business Change</u> Boston Harvard Business School Publishing

Nonaka, Ikujiro and Takeuchi, Hirotake (1995) <u>The Knowledge Creating Company</u> Oxford The Oxford University Press

Orlikowski, Wanda and Hofman, Debra (1997) 'An Improvisational Model for Change Management The Case of Groupware Technologies' in <u>Sloan Management Review</u> 38(2) pp 23-36

Owen, Arthur (1982) 'How To Implement Strategy' in <u>Management Today</u> July 1982 pp 51-53

PA Consulting Group (1991) <u>The Total Quality Experience A Guide For The Continuing Journey</u> London PA Consulting

Parker, Sharon, Wall, Toby and Jackson, Paul (1997) 'That's Not My Job Developing Flexible Employee Work Orientations' in <u>Academy of Management</u> Journal 40(4) pp 899-929

Pascale, Richard (1990) <u>Managing On The Edge</u> London Viking

Pascale, Richard, Millemann, Mark and Gioja, Lindt (1997) 'Changing The Way We Change' in <u>Harvard Business Review</u> 75(6) pp 127-139

Pasmore, William (1994) Creating Strategic Change. Designing The Flexible, High Performing Organisation New York : John Wiley and Sons

Pasmore, William and Fagan, Mary (1992) 'Participation, Individual Development and Organisational Change : A Review and Synthesis' in Journal of Management 18(2) pp 375 - 397

Peccei, Riccardo and Rosenthal, Patrice (1997) 'The Antecedents of Employee Commitment To Customer Service : Evidence From A UK Service Context' in The International Journal of Human Resource Management 8(1) pp 66-86

Pelz, Donald (1952) 'Influence : A Key To Effective Leadership in the First Line Supervisor' in Personnel 29 pp 3-11

Peters, Helen (1996) 'Peer Coaching For Executives' in Training and Development 50(3) pp39-41

Peters, Tom and Waterman Robert (1986) 'A Bias For Action' in Mayon-White, Bill (ed) Planning and Managing Change London : Harper and Row

Peters, Tom (1988: a) 'Restoring American Competitiveness : Looking For New Models of Organisations' in Academy of Management Executive 2 pp 103-109

Peters, Tom (1988 : b) Thriving On Chaos London : Macmillan

Peters, Tom (1992) Liberation Management New York : Alfred A. Knopf

Pettigrew, Andrew (1990) 'Longitudinal Field Research on Change : Theory and Practice' in Organisation Science Vol 1 (3) pp 267-292

Petty, Richard and Cacioppe, John (1986) Communication and Persuasion. Central and Peripheral Routes and Attitude Change New York : Springer Verlag

Pincus, David (1986) 'Communication Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction and Job Performance' in Human Communication Research 12(3) pp 395-419

Plant, Roger (1987) Managing Change and Making It Stick Aldershot : Gower

Plant, Roger (1989) 'Practical Ideas For Managing Change And Making It Stick' in Industrial and Commercial Training 21(5) pp 15-17

Plewis, Ian (1985) Analysing Change : Measurement and Explanation Using Longitudinal Data Chichester : John Wiley and Sons

Pritchett, Price (1997) 'Overcome Resistance' in Executive Excellence 14(2) pp 13-14

Proctor, Jo (1994) 'You Haven't heard A Word I Said : Getting Managers To Listen' in IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication 37(1) pp 18-19

Pugh, DS (1986) 'Understanding and Managing Organisational Change' in Mayon-White, Bill (ed) Planning and Managing Change London : Harper and Row

Puitti, Joseph; Aryee, Samuel and Phwa, Joseph (1990) 'Communication Relationship Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment' in Group and Organisation Studies 15(1) pp 45-52

Quinn, James Brian (1980) 'Managing Strategic Change' in Sloan Management Review 21(4) pp 3-20

Quinn, James Brian (1992) Intelligent Enterprise New York : The Free Press

Quinn, James Brian (1998) 'Review of The Individulised Corporation' in Sloan Management Review Winter 1998 pp 97-98

Quirke, Bill (1995) Communicating Change Maidenhead : Mc Graw Hill

Rafe, Stephen (1994) 'Talking Green With Hostile Publics' in Public Relations Journal April edition pp 38-39

Rafe, Stephen (1994) 'Talking Green With Hostile Publics' in Public Relations Journal April '94 pp 38-39

Raffio, Thomas (1992) 'Quality and Delta Dental Plan of Massachusetts' Sloan Management Review 34(1) pp 101-111

Ragan Publishing (1996) 'Zona Study Reveals Intranet Users' Ragan.com/newsletter August 1996

Ragin, Charles (1994) Constructing Social Research California : Pine Forge Press

Rajagopalan, Nandini and Spreitzer, Gretchen (1996) 'Toward a Theory of Strategic Change : A Multi Lens Perspective and Integrative Framework', in Academy of Management Review 22(1) pp 48-79

Raynor, Michael (1992) 'Quality As A Strategic Weapon' in Business Strategy 13(5) pp 3-10

Recardo, Ronald (1994) 'Strategic Quality Management. Turning The Spotlight on Strategic As Well As Tactical Issues' in National Productivity Review 13(2) pp185-196

Redding, Charles (1985) 'Stumbling Towards Identity. The Emergence of Organisational Communication as A Field of Study' in McPhee, Robert and Tompkins, Phillipp (eds) Organisational Communication : Traditional Themes and New Directions Beverley Hills : Sage

Reinsch, Lamar (1996) 'Business Communication : Present, Past and Future' in Management Communication Quarterly 10(1) pp 27-49

Reynolds, Nina; Diamantopollos, Adamantios and Schlegelmilch, Bods (1993) 'Pretesting in Questionnaire Design : A Review of the Literature and Suggestions for Further Research' in Journal of the Market Research Society 35 (2) pp 171-182

Rice, Dan and Dreilinger, Craig (1991) 'After The Downsizing' in Training and Development 45(5) pp 41-42, 44

Richards, R.J (1987) <u>Philosophy and Sociology of Science : An Introduction</u> Oxford : Basil Blackwell

Richardson, Peter and Denton, Keith (1996) 'Communicating Change' in <u>Human Resource Management</u> 35(2) pp 203-216

Rippin, Ann (1994) 'Psychic Balm : TQM and Anxiety In Organisation' in <u>British Academy of Management News</u> (1) p 10

Robbins, Stephen (1986) <u>Organisational Behaviour : Concepts, Controversies and Applications</u> N. Jersey : Prentice Hall

Roberts, Donald (1991) 'I Don't Get No Respect' in <u>Organisation Development</u> Journal 9(1) pp 55-59

Robertson, Ivan and Cooper, Gary (1983) <u>Human Behaviour in Organisations</u> London : Pitman

Robertson, Ed (1997) 'Communication : Applying Its Ancient Definition To Today's Practical Problems' in <u>Journal of Employee Communication Management</u> Jan/Feb edition pp 45-51

Robertson, Maxine; Swan, Jacky and Newell, Sue (1996) 'The Role of Networks In The Diffusion of Technological Innovation' in <u>Journal of Management Studies</u> 33(3) pp 333-359

Roche, William and Geary, John (1997) 'Multinational Companies in Ireland : Adapting To Or Diverging From National Industrial Relations Practices and Traditions?' in <u>IBAR</u> Vol 18

Roche, William and Geary, John (1998) 'Collaborative Production And The Irish Boom : Work Organisation, Partnership And Direct Involvement In Irish Workplaces' <u>Working Paper 26, Centre For Employment Relations and Organisational Performance,</u> December 1998 Dublin : UCD

Roche, William and Gunnigle, Patrick (1995) 'Competition and The New Industrial Relations Agenda' in Leavy, Brian and Walsh, James (eds) <u>Strategy and General Management. An Irish Reader</u> Dublin : Oak Tree Press

Rodwell, John; Kienzle, René and Shadur, Mark (1998) 'The Relationships Among Work-Related Perceptions, Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance : The Integral Role of Communication' in <u>Human Resource Management</u> 37(3&4) pp 277-293

Rommel, Günter; Kempis, Rolf-Dieter and Kaas, Hans-Werner (1994) 'Does Quality Pay?' in <u>McKinsey Quarterly</u> 1994 No. 1 pp51-63

Rosenthal, Patrice; Hill, Stephen and Peccei, Riccardo (1997) 'Checking Out Service : Evaluating Excellence, HRM and TQM in Retailing' in <u>Work, Employment and Society</u> 11(3) pp 481-503

Rousseau, Denise (1995) <u>Psychological Contracts In Organisations</u> London : Sage Publications

Rousseau, Denise (1996) 'Changing The Deal While Keeping The People' in <u>Academy of Management Executive</u> 10(1) pp 50-59

Royal, Society For Encouragement of Arts (1995) RSA Inquiry : Tomorrow's Company London : RSA

Rubenstein, Sidney (1993) 'Democracy and Quality as An Integrated System' in Quality Progress 26(9) pp51-55

Ruddle, Helen and Mulvihill, Ray (1995) Reaching Out. Charitable Giving and Volunteering In The Republic Of Ireland Dublin : Policy Research Centre

Salmon, Merrilee (1992) 'Philosophy of The Social Sciences' in Salmon, Merilee; Earmann, John; Glymor, Clark; Lennox, James; Machamer, Peter; McGuire, J.E.; Norton, John; Salmon, Wesley and Schaffer, Kenneth (eds) Introduction To The Philosophy of Science Englewood Cliffs : Prentice Hall

Sarantakos, Satirios (1993) Social Research London : McMillan

Sashkin, Marshall (1984) 'Participative Management is an Ethical Imperative' in Organisational Dynamics 12 (1) pp 5-22

Sashkin, Marshall and Burke, Warner (1990) 'Organisation Development in the 1980s' in Massarik, Fred (ed) Advances in Organisation Development New Jersey : Ablex Publishing Co

Saunders, G. (1984) The Committed Organisation : How To Develop Companies To Compete Successfully in the 1990s Aldershot : Gower

Sayer, Andrew (1984) Method in Social Science. A Realistic Approach London : Hutchinson

Schaffer, Jim (1997) 'Reinventing Communication : A Road To Improving Organisational Performance' in Internal Communication Focus (25) May 1997 pp 2-7

Schaffer, Robert and Thomson, Harvey (1996) Successful Change Programmes Begin With Results' in Champy, James and Nohria, Nitin (eds) Fast Forward : The Best Ideas on Managing Business Change Boston : Harvard Business School Publishing

Schäffner, Christina (1996) 'Editorial' in Schäffner, Christina and Kelly-Holmes, Helen (eds) Discourse and Ideologies Clevedon : Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Schall, Maryan (1983) 'A Communication Rules Approach To Organisational Culture' in Administrative Science Quarterly 28 pp 557-581

Schein, Edgar (1980) Organisational Psychology New Jersey : Prentice Hall

Schein, Edgar (1985) Organisational Culture and Leadership : A Dynamic View San Francisco : Jossey Bass

Schein, Edgar (1996) 'Culture : The Missing Concept in Organisation Studies' in Administrative Science Quarterly 41(2) pp 229-240

Schonberger, Richard (1992) 'Total Quality Management Cuts A Broad Swaith - Through Manufacturing and Beyond' in Organisational Dynamics 20(4) pp16-29

Schuman, H and Johnson MP (1976) 'Attitudes and Behaviour' in Inkles, Alex (ed) Annual Review of Psychology California : Palo Alto Reviews

Schweiger, David and Denisi, Angelo (1991) 'Communication With Employees Following A Merger : A Longitudinal Field Experiment' in Academy of Management Journal 34(1) pp 110-135

Scott, Cynthia and Jaffe, D. (1989) Managing Organisational Change. A Guide For Managers London : Kogan Page

Scott Poole, Marshall (1994) 'Afterward' in Kovacic, Branislav (ed) New Approaches To Organisational Communication Albany : State University of New York Press

Segalla, Ellen (1989) 'All for Quality and Quality For All' Training and Development Sept ' 89 pp37-45

Senge, Peter (1991) The Fifth Discipline : The Art And Practice Of The Learning Organisation New York : Doubleday

Sharpe, ME (1996) 'The Human Side Of Strategic Change. Introducing A Multifaceted Approach' in International studies of Management and Organisations 26(1) pp 3-15

Sheatsley, Paul (1983) 'Questionnaire Construction and Item Writing' in Rossi, Peter H; Wright, James, D. and Andersen, Andy B. (eds) Handbook of Survey Research Florida : Academic Press

Siebold, David and Meyers, Renee (1996) 'Communication and Influence in Group Decision Making' in Hirokawa, Randy and Scott Poole, Marshall (eds) Communication and Group Decision Making Thousand Oaks : Sage

Sing Kwon Lam, Simon (1997) 'The Utilisation of Influence Tactics For The Implementation of Quality Improvement Policies' in Journal of Managerial Psychology 12 (1) pp 21-26

Sinickas, Angela (1994) 'Using Supervisors As Communicators' in Compensation And Benefits Management 10(1) pp 46-53

Sinnott, Anne (1994) Customer Service Strategy : Policy and Practice in Irish Organisations Universty College Galway. Unpublished Doctorate

Smeltzer, Larry (1991) 'An Analysis of Strategies For Announcing Organisation Wide Change' in Group and Organisation Studies 16(1) pp 5-24

Smeltzer, Larry and Zener, Mari (1995) 'Organisation Wide Change : Planning For An Effective Announcement' in Journal of General Management 20(3) pp 31-43

Smeltzer, Larry (1996) 'Communications Within The Managers' Context' in Management Communication Quarterly 10(1) pp 5-26

Smilansky, Jonathan (1993) 'Why TQM So Often Goes Wrong' in Crossborder Summer 1993 pp16-18

Smith, Alvie (1990) 'Bridging The Gap Between Employees and Management Co-operating To Achieve Corporate Goals' in Public Relations Journal Nov edition pp 20-21, 41

Smith, Alvie (1991) Innovative Employee Communication New Approaches to Improving Trust, Teamwork and Performance New Jersey Prentice Hall

Snape, Ed (1996) 'Cashing in On Quality Pay Incentives and The Quality Culture' in Human Resource Management Journal 6(4) pp5-18

Spiker, Barry (1994) 'Making Change Stick' in Industry Week 243(5) pp 45

Spiker, Barry and Lesser, Eric (1995 a) 'We Have Met The Enemy' in Journal of Busmess Strategy 16(2) pp 17-21

Spiker, Barry and Lesser, Eric (1995 b) 'Making Change Work' in IABC Communication World 12 (1) pp 23-26

Spring, Martin (1993) 'The Development and Use of Protocol For Case Studies in Manufacturing Strategy' Paper Presented at the British Academy of Management Conference Sept '93, Lancaster

Stainer, Alan and Stainer, Lorice (1997) 'Productivity and Performance Dimensions of Corporate Communications Strategy' in Corporate Communications An International Journal 2(2) pp 70-75

Stanton, Erwin (1993) 'Employee Participation A Critical Evaluation and Suggestions For Management Practice' in SAM Advanced Management Journal 58(4) pp 18-23

Stevens, J (1984) Auditing Organisational Communication The Development of An Instrument For Measuring Information Gathering Processes of Managers Florida Doctoral Thesis, Florida State University

Stewart, Thomas (1998) 'Grey Flannel Suit? Moi?' in Fortune 137(5) March 16, 1998 pp 44-49

Stewart, Tiffani (1999) 'The Status of Communication Today Organisational Change Dommates Internal Communication Activity' in Strategic Communication Management 3 (2) pp 22-25

Stohl, Cynthia (1995) Organisational Communication Connectedness In Action Thousand Oaks Sage

Stratton, Brad (1990) 'What Makes It Take? What Makes It Break?' in Quality Progress 23(4) pp14-18

Stratton, Donald (1990) 'Kaizen and Variabilties' in Quality Progress 23(4) pp 44-45

Stratton, Donald(1991) An Approach To Quality Improvement That Works Wisconsm ASQC Quality Press

Straus, Anslem and Corbin, Juliet (1994) 'Grounded Theory Methodology An Overview' in Denzin, Norman and Lincoln, Yvonna (eds) Handbook of Qualitative Research London Sage

Strebel, Paul (1996) 'Why Do Employees Resist Change?' in Harvard Business Review May-June 1996 pp 86-92

Supervision (1997) 'Coaching : The New Way To Manage Corporate Success' in Supervision 58(1) pp 3-4

Synopsis (1998) 'Talking Business - New Rules For Putting Communication To Work' in Strategic Communication Management August / September 1998

Terziovski, Milé; Sohal, Amrik and Samson, Danny (1996) 'Best Practice Implementation of Total Quality Management : Multiple Cross-Case Analysis of Manufacturing and Service Organisations' in Total Quality Management 7(5) pp 459-481

Thomas, Joe and Griffin, Ricky (1989) 'The Power of Social Information in the Workplace' in Organisational Dynamics 18(2) pp 63-73

Thompson, James (1967) Organisations In Action New York : McGraw Hill

Tourish, Dennis (1995) 'Managing To Communicate : A Strategic Framework For Communicating In Organisations' University of Ulster : Unpublished Paper

Tourish, Dennis (1997) 'Transforming Internal Corporate Communications : The Power of Symbolic Gestures and Barriers To Change' in Corporate Communications : An International Journal 2(3) pp 109-116

Trist, Eric (1970) 'The Professional Facilitation Of Planned Change in Organisations' in Vroom, Victor and Deci, Edward (eds) Management and Motivation : Selected Readings Middlesex : Penguin

Trotman, Alex (1996) 'Preparing For Change' in Executive Excellence 13(1) pp18-19

Turner, T.; D'Art, D. and Gunnigle, P. (1997) 'US Multinationals : Changing The Framework of Irish Industrial Relations?' in Industrial Relations Journal 28(2) pp 92-102

Tushman, Michael and O'Reilly, Charles (1996) 'Ambidextrous Organisations : Managing Evolutionary and Revolutionary Change' in California Management Review 38(4) pp 8-30

Ulrich, Dave (1998) 'Editor's Note' in Human Resource Management 37(3 & 4) pp 195-196

Vander Houwen, Boyd (1998) 'Less Talking, More Listening' in HR Magazine 42(8) pp 53-59

Vroom, Victor and Deci, Edward (1970) Management and Motivation. Selected Readings Middlesex : England

Walker, Robert (1985) Applied Qualitative Research Aldershot : Gower

Walker, Susan (1994) 'Buying into TQM. Research into Employee Attitudes To Total Quality Management' in International Communications Focus pp10-12

Walton, Richard (1986) 'From Control To Commitment In The Workplace' in Jelinek, Mariann; Litterer, Joseph; Miles, Raymond (eds) Organisations By Design : Theory and Practice Texas : Business Publications Ltd.

Ward, Kim and Willis, Hillman (1990) 'Managing Change in an Operations System' in Management Decision 28(7) pp 17-21

Weaver, Charles (1993) 'How To Use Process Improvement Teams' in Quality Progress 26(12) pp65-68

Webb, Keith (1995) An Introduction To Problems In The Philosophy Of Social Sciences London : Pinter

Webley, Paul and Cartwright, Jeff (1996) 'The Implicit Psychology of Total Quality Management' in Total Quality Management 7(5) pp 483-492

Weick, Karl (1989) 'Theory Construction As Disciplined Imagination' in Academy of Management Review 14(4) pp 516-531

Weick, Karl (1995) Sensemaking In Organisations Thousand Oaks : Sage

Welch, Nancy and Goldstein, Mark (1998) Communicating Change. Ideas From Contemporary Research San Francisco : IABC Research Foundation

Wenmoth, Bryan and Dobbin, David (1994) 'Experience With Implementing ISO 9000' in Asia Pacific Journal Of Quality Management 3(3) pp 9-27

Werr, Andres (1995) 'Approaches, Methods and Tools Of Change : A Literature Survey and Bibliography' in Economic and Industrial Democracy vol 16 pp 607-651

Wert-Gray, Stacia; Center, Candy; Brashers, Dale and Meyers, Renee (1991) 'Research Topics And Methodological Orientation In Organisational Communication : A Decade In Review' in Communications Studies 42(2) pp 141-154

West, Mary and Hughes, Jim (1986) 'Lessons From Experience' in Mayon-White, Bill (ed) Planning and Managing Change London : Harper and Row

Westphal, James; Gulati, Ranjay and Shortell, Stephen (1997) 'Customisation or Conformity? An Institutional and Network Perspective on the Content and Consequences of TQM Adoption' in Administrative Science Quarterly 42(June) pp366-394

Whalen, Joel (1996) I See What You Mean : Persuasive Business Communication Thousand Oaks : Sage

Whetten, David (1989) 'What Constitutes A Theoretical Contrbution?' in Academy of Management Review 14(4) pp 490-495

Whitworth, Brad (1990) 'Proof at Last - Attitudinal Survey Analysis Uncovers New Ways To Measure Effectiveness of Communications' in IABC Communication World December 1990 pp 28-31

Wilkinson, Adrian, Marchington, Mick and Goodman, John (1992) 'Total Quality Management and Employee Involvement' in Human Resource Management Journal 2(4) pp1-20

Wilkinson, Adrian, Redman, Tom and Snape, Ed (1994) 'What is Happening in Quality Management? , Findings From an IM Survey' in TQM Magazine 6(1) pp55-58

Wilkinson, T (1989) The Communications Challenge Personnel and PR Perspectives London The Institute of Personnel Management

Williams, Hank (1989) 'Learning To Manage Change' in Industrial and Commercial Training 21(3) pp 17-20

Wilmott, Hugh (1997) 'Rethinking Management and Managerial Work Capitalism, Control and Subjectivity' in Human Relations 50 (11) pp 1329-1359

Wood, Stephen and Albanese, Maria Teresa (1995) 'Can We Speak of A High Commitment Management On The Shop Floor?' in Journal of Management Studies 32(2) pp 215-247

Woodward, Joan (1965) Industrial Organisation Theory and Practice Oxford Oxford University Press

Woodward, Joan (1980) Industrial Organisation Theory and Practice Oxford Oxford University Press

Wright, Nevan (1996) 'Creating A Quality Culture' in Journal of General Management 21(3) pp19-29

Young, Phill (1996) 'The Coaching Paradigm Developing The Next Generation Of Excellent Managers' in Practising Manager 17(1) pp 50-52

Yukl, Gary (1981) Leadership in Organisation New Jersey Prentice Hall

Yukl, Gary and Falbe, Cecilia (1990) 'Influence Tactics and Objectives In Upward, Downward and Lateral Influence Attempts' in Journal of Applied Psychology 75(2) pp 132-140

Zanetti, Lisa (1997) 'Advancing Praxis Connecting Critical Theory With Practice in Public Administration' in American Review of Public Administration 27(2) pp 145-167

Zeithaml, Valarie, Parasuraman, A and Berry, Leonard (1990) Delivering Quality Service Balancing Customer Perceptions and Expectations New York Free Press

Zuwerink, Julia and Devine, Patrick (1996) 'Attitude Importance and Resistance to Persuasion It's Not Just The Thought That Counts' in Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 70(5) pp 931-944

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
Interview Topics For Preliminary Interviews

General Details

1   Size, organisational structures, break-down of staff types

2   How long is the quality initiative running?

3   How does the organisation define / measure its quality?

Planning and Implementing The Quality Initiative

4   Triggers

5   How was it introduced / launched?

6   What operational changes were / are required?

7   Structures and resources

8   Role of the leader / quality manager

9   Resistance? Describe and how addressed

10   Methods of motivation

11   Overview - what factors inhibited / contributed to success?

Communications

12   Who runs it? What links with quality team?

13   Communications objectives

14   Communications structures / tools for
     -     task, corporate, personal information
     -     persuasion, feedback, motivation

15   Specific communications programmes vs part of every day management

16   Use of existing communications structures

17   Management training in communications

18   Monitoring of communications

29   Role of union

20   Overview - what aspects of communications worked best / worst and why?

APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE TO ORGANISATIONS WHO HAVE BEEN AWARDED THE Q MARK

EMPLOYEE COMMUNICATIONS
AND HOW IT RELATES TO THE SUCCESS
OF IMPLEMENTING A QUALITY INITIATIVE

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

DUBLIN CITY UNIVERSITY

Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath

Rosheen Mc Guckian
Doctoral Student at Dublin City University Business School
(Any queries to supervisor, Dr. Kathy Monks, Ph: 01 7045397.)

**Please return in the enclosed Pre-stamped Envelope
by 9th June, 1995**

This questionnaire looks at communicating with employees and how it relates to the success of implementing a quality initiative

The questionnaire has been timed - it should take **no more than 11 minutes** to complete

1   All responses to this questionnaire will be strictly confidential

2   If you are not sure of the answer to a question, **please provide your best estimate** There are no right or wrong answers

3   The questionnaire is designed to look at **what actually happens** in your organisation Please fill in the box which best reflects what is happening, even if it may not reflect what you would like to see happen in your organisation

Note:

"quality initiative"   This term is used in this questionnaire to describe the programme your organisation has embarked on to introduce quality into the organisation It does not refer exclusively to Q Mark, but refers to all quality efforts of the organisation

"employees"   This term is used to refer to all staff other than management (middle or senior)

SECTION A - GENERAL INFORMATION.

1 **Name of Organisation** (optional) - _____

---

2 **Please describe the sector which best applies to your organisation.**

2 a Which sector best applies to your organisation ?

❏	Food products	❏	Printing, publishing and recording
❏	Low technology products	❏	Financial services
❏	High technology products	❏	Transport, storage and communication
❏	Other business activities (please describe)	❏	Wholesale and retail

_____

2.b Is your organisation involved in manufacturing ❏ or services ❏ ?

2.c Is your organisation in the public sector ❏ or the private sector ❏ ?

---

3 **Number of employees (both temporary and permanent), in your organisation**

---

4 **Please estimate what percentage of employees are male and what percentage are female.**

[ ] % Male   [ ] % Female

---

5 **What is the approximate age of most employees ?**

❏   Less than 35 years of age
❏   More than 35 years of age

---

6 **How would you categorise most of the employees in your organisation?**
(not including senior and middle management and administrative support)

❏   Professional staff
❏   Clerical staff
❏   Skilled / unskilled labour
❏   Other (please describe) _____

---

7 **What level of education would most of the employees in your organisation (other than management), have?**

❏   No educational qualification
❏   School Inter/Junior Certificate (or equivalent)
❏   School Leaving Certificate (or equivalent)
❏   Post-school qualification (eg certificate, diploma or degree)
❏   Other (please describe) _____

---

8 **Number of sites out of which your organisation operates.**

❏   1 site
❏   2-10 sites
❏   More than 10 sites

9. Is your organisation

- ❑ Irish-owned
- ❑ Subsidiary of foreign-owned organisation

---

10 How many layers of management are there in your organisation?

(eg operator → factory manager → CEO = 3 layers)

- ❑ 3 or fewer layers
- ❑ 4 or more layers
- ❑ Varies across functions from _____ to _____ layers *(please fill in numbers)*

---

11 Has your organisation carried out a redundancy programme (voluntary or non-voluntary) within the past five years?

- ❑ Yes
- ❑ No

11.a If so, what were the criteria by which people were made redundant?
(please place a ✓ in all the boxes which apply)

- ❑ First in, last out
- ❑ Only specific functions were involved
- ❑ Voluntary redundancy
- ❑ Other (please describe) _____
- ❑ Not applicable - no recent redundancy programmes

11.b If there has been a recent redundancy programme, what percentage of original employees remain?

- ❑ More than 90%
- ❑ 50 - 90%
- ❑ Fewer than 50%
- ❑ Not applicable - no recent redundancy programmes

---

12 Approximately what percentage of employees in your organisation are members of a union or staff association?

SECTION B - IMPLEMENTING THE Q MARK PROGRAMME

13   Approximately how many months were there between deciding to apply for the Q Mark and first being awarded the Q Mark?

14   How many attempts did your organisation make at attaining its first Q Mark?

15   In your opinion, did the organisation achieve the Q Mark award in the time anticipated?

- ❏   Took less time than generally anticipated
- ❏   Took around time generally anticipated
- ❏   Took more time than generally anticipated

16.   In your opinion, did any industrial relations action arise from your Q Mark initiative?

- ❏   No related IR action
- ❏   Some minor IR action, causing little distruption
- ❏   Some major IR action causing significant disruption

17   In your opinion, were employees generally satisfied with the way the Q Mark initiative was introduced and implemented in the organisation?

- ❏   Generally satisfied with implementation
- ❏   No opinion one way or another
- ❏   Generally dissatisfied with implementation

SECTION C - QUALITY IN YOUR ORGANISATION

18. Which of the following descriptions of quality apply to your organisation?
*Please place a ✓ in the boxes beside **all those statements** which apply*

I ☐ Quality involves detecting and eradicating problems

II ☐ The organisation has some informal control measures in place to prevent
problems occurring

III ☐ The organisation has put well documented control measures and standards in place to prevent
problems occurring

IV ☐ Everyone in the organisation focuses on the customer's needs

V ☐ Everyone in the organisation looks for new ways of improving work processes all the time

VI ☐ Quality is integrated into all aspects of the strategic business plan

VII ☐ Other (please describe) _____

---

19 In your opinion, what sort of priority is given to quality by senior management?

*Please place a ✓ in the box beside **the one statement** which most applies*

I ☐ Senior management sees little or no value in the concept of quality

II ☐ Senior management recognises that quality may be of value,
but is unwilling to invest time or money in it

III ☐ Senior management recognises that quality is important, but believes that it is only one of a number
of management concerns and could prove costly for the organisation

IV ☐ Senior management recognises that quality is important and places it high in the management
agenda, weighing up the value of quality against other pressing costs

V ☐ Senior management recognises that quality is essential, regardless of short term costs and places it as
its number one management priority

---

20 In your opinion, what type of commitment is there to quality across the whole organisation?
*Please place a ✓ in the box beside **the one statement** which most applies*

I ☐ No commitment to quality

II ☐ The quality department is the only department committed to the quality initiative

III ☐ Senior management is committed to the quality initiative, but has to direct management and
employees on what is required

IV ☐ Senior and middle management are both committed to the quality initiative, but have to direct
employees on what is required

V ☐ Most employees believe quality is important

VI ☐ Other (please describe) _____

21　**What type of organisational structures are in place to implement the quality initiative?**

*Please place a ✓ in the boxes beside **all those statements** which apply*

ı　❏ Functional hierarchies - very little cross-functional structures

ii　❏ Some temporary cross-functional teams -eg Q Circle on short project

iii　❏ Many permanent cross-functional structures in place

iv　❏ Structure is shaped as "chain" from supplier to customer with few management layers

v　❏ Other (please describe) _____

22　**In your opinion, to what extent are appraisal and rewards related to the quality initiative?**

ı　❏ Performance appraisals and reward schemes do not take the quality initiative into account in any way

ıı　❏ Individuals are appraised and rewarded on a number of criteria with performance on the quality initiative being one of the **less important** criteria

ııı　❏ Individuals are appraised and rewarded along a number of criteria with performance on the quality initiative being one of the **more important** criteria

ıv　❏ Employees are appraised by group, rather than as individuals - **the group performance** on the quality initiative being one of the important criteria

v　❏ Other (please describe) _____

SECTION D - COMMUNICATIONS WITH EMPLOYEES

23   What, in your opinion, are your organisation's main objectives for employee communications with regard to your organisation's quality initiative?
*(Please place a ✓ in the boxes beside **all those statements** which apply)*

I	❏	To ask employees for their input so management decisions can be taken	VII	❏	To celebrate progress
			VIII	❏	To motivate employees
II	❏	To provide operational information so employees know what is required	IX	❏	To reduce rumours and uncertainties
			X	❏	To direct employees on what needs to be done
III	❏	To build open and trusting relationships	XI	❏	Other
IV	❏	To share senior management's vision on quality			
V	❏	To co-ordinate different functions			
VI	❏	To show the organisation cares about employees during this period of change			

24   Which communications tools does your organisation use to implement the quality initiative?
*(Please place a ✓ in the boxes beside **all those tools** which apply)*

I	❏	Mass meetings with staff	XI	❏	Regular small group employee meetings
II	❏	Notices about quality on notice boards	XII	❏	Letters / memos to staff
III	❏	Management briefings to staff	XIII	❏	Dedicated quality "hotline"
IV	❏	Regular quality performance sheets	XIV	❏	Slogans on merchandising material
V	❏	Informal open door policy	XV	❏	Other (please describe)
VI	❏	Suggestion schemes			
VII	❏	Videos on quality			
VIII	❏	E-Mail			
IX	❏	Circulation of minutes of meetings			
X	❏	Newsletter / news-sheet			

1   Employees are viewed as one homogenous
     group, all generally requiring the same
     information about the quality initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

2   The organisation does not rely on meetings to
     communicate the quality initiative because they
     are difficult to control   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

3   Senior management relies on intermediaries (eg
     managers / shop stewards) to communicate with
     employees about the quality initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

4   Before management decisions are made about
     the quality initiative, employees are regularly
     asked for their input   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

5   Most information communicated to employees
     about the quality initiative is aimed at reducing
     concerns about the initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

6   Information compiled on quality in the organisation
     is restricted on a "need to know" basis   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ☑ ❑ strongly agree

7   Employees in one function would not be kept
     well informed about what other functions are
     doing with regard to the quality initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

8   Most communications about the quality initiative
     happens outside of day to day operations in
     specially developed "quality campaigns"   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

9   When meeting to talk about the quality initiative,
     employees are generally brought together in
     groups of less than 25 people   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

10   Quality is always discussed during regular
     operational meetings   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

11	The organisation regularly tries to find out what employees think about various aspects of the quality initiative	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
12	Many communication tools have been specially put in place to communicate the quality initiative (eg quality newsletter, Q-circles)	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
13	Senior management does not like to rely on "middle men" (eg managers / supervisors) to communicate about the quality initiative, as control of the message can be diluted	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
14	Those who carry influence with their peers are regularly given important roles in communicating the quality initiative	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
15	Employees' opinions are regularly sought on what has to be done in their specific area to achieve the organisation's quality objectives	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree

16	Information about the quality initiative is usually communicated to employees in large groups via mass meetings, newsletters etc	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
17	Management keeps employees informed about the quality initiative but does not require any feedback	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
18	On-line managers are responsible for regular communications about the quality initiative	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
19	The organisation communicates **all** successes and **all** failures with everyone	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
20	Management is more concerned with explaining what has to be done to achieve quality than why quality is important	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree

21	Only those directly involved in a particular quality project or initiative have access to data on that particular project	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
22	The communications channels for the quality initiative always reflect on-line reporting structures	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
23	Those in positions of authority are usually given the central role in communicating about quality	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
24	Senior management likes to talk directly to staff about quality, rather than relying on middle management to communicate the quality message	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree
25	Information communicated to each employee about the quality initiative focuses on issues directly relevant to the employee's team / department and not on the organisation as a whole	strongly disagree ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ ❏ strongly agree

26 Information flowing between management and
    employees about the quality initiative revolves
    much more around hard facts than " soft"
    personal issues   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

27 There is considerable sharing between functions
    of information about the quality initiative.   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

28 Most information about the quality initiative is
    delivered through prepared communications
    "tools" such as news-sheets, videos etc   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

29 Employees are often asked to input on quality
    issues which affect areas other than their own
    specific department/ team   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

30 Employees are regularly told of the positive
    impact of the quality initiative on their jobs (eg
    more interesting / job security etc)   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

---

31 Anyone in the organisation can check records to
    see how well any aspect of the quality initiative is
    working   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

32 Face-to-face meetings, briefings or informal
    discussions are the preferred means of
    communicating the quality initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

33 Information communicated to employees about
    the quality initiative covers company-wide
    objectives and performance   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

34 Communications about quality mostly flows up or
    down a management line and not across
    functions   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

---

35 Management regularly explains why it is
    important to carry out the quality initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

36 Middle managers are encouraged to "own" and
    be seen to be communicating the quality message
    to employees   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

37 Information about the quality initiative is usually
    communicated in one direction - from
    management to employees.   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

38 Management regularly uses logical business
    arguments (e g profitability / competitiveness) to
    persuade employees of the benefits of the quality
    initiative   strongly disagree ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ ❑ strongly agree

Please add any further comments you wish to make about employee communications in your organisation and how it relates to your quality initiative

--

Thank-you for taking the time to fill in and return this questionnaire

If you would like a summary copy of the results of the questionnaire please fill in the details below

Name _____

Organisation _____

Address _____

_____

Note the summary copy will comprise interim results of the questionnaire which will eventually be incorporated into the final doctoral thesis
The interim results should take about three months to analyse

APPENDIX C

Semi-Structured Discussion Guide
For Follow-Up Interviews

1. Change and Quality

Can you explain what changes were expected of people in your organisation from your quality programme?
Were you expecting any areas of resistance? What / why?

2. Change enablers (including communications)

List key factors which you think have helped people to make those changes

Can you rank these for me according to their influence on making quality happen in your organisation? Explain why most important etc

3 Communications Style

How use(d) communications to start the changes / continue to support the changes you were looking for?
    Why each approach?
    Which do you think were most effective / why?

Probe for mechanisms, ownership, upwards / downwards and lateral flows, involvement, cognitive/affective and examples

Select which box or boxes you think best matches your organisation Some of the comments in each box may not fit exactly
  - Why did you select that box?
  - Examples of similar experiences in your company?
  - Anything which doesn't ring true for your organisation? Why?
  - Anything in the other boxes which does ring true? Why?

Probe for high integrated and permissive orgs by pointing to the "other" box

4 How communications style developed

How do you think this style of communications developed over the years?

Probe for education, size of organisation, top management, union presence etc

Did your decision to go the quality route affect your communications style in any way?
Which do you think has had a bigger influence- Quality on your communications or communications on quality? Why?

Organisation A	Organisation B
There is little knowledge of what goes on in other areas of the company Ideas are withheld from each other There is little co-ordination There are few cross-functional structures in place Information is restricted to "need to know"	People are regularly asked for their ideas and what they think about any decision about quality Management would explain why decisions have been taken Information is freely available Management would be keen to ensure employees are comfortable with decisions being taken
Organisation C	**Organisation D**
There are many cross-functional structures in place There is regular information covering company-wide initiatives People are asked for input on areas outside their own department Ideas and suggestions are shared across areas / teams	People are kept informed, but feedback is not required Management explain what has to be done, not why Line authority is important in communications