SOCIAL WORKER PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: INPUT, IMPACTS, AND COMMITMENT
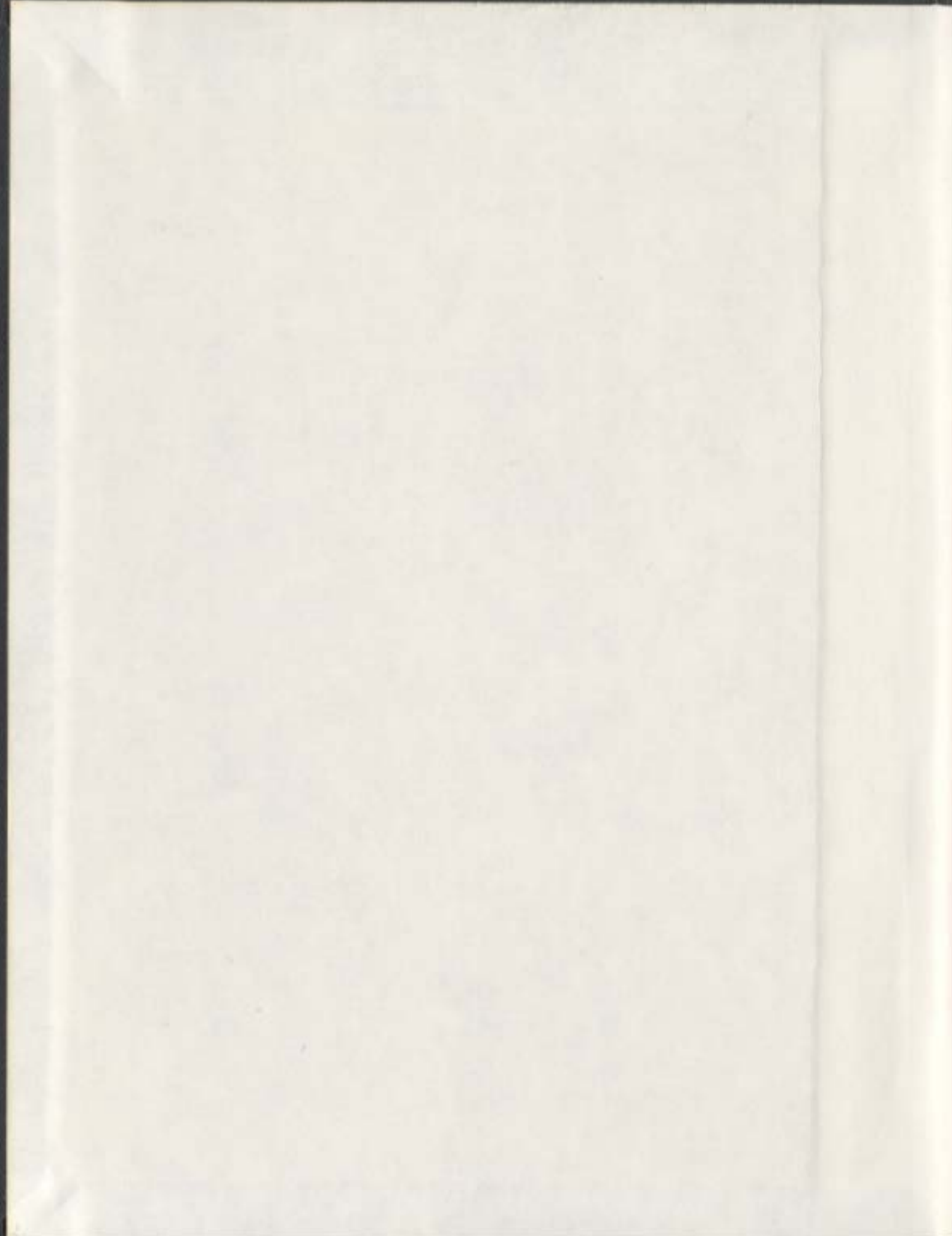
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NOTE TO USERS

Social Worker Participation in Organizational Change:
Input, Impacts, and Commitment

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this case study is to elicit the perceptions of social workers of the costs and benefits related to a pervasive and rapid organizational change process. The costs and benefits are analysed within the context of an expanded version of the Bolman and Deal (1991, 1997) model for organizational analysis within a case study design. The study employs a method of triangulation in its approach to analysis. The first part of the study includes an analysis of selected government and government related documents (7 documents), primarily leading up the organizational change processes and products. The second part of the study analyzes the participants' selected experiences of the change processes as conceptualized through the use of six (6) quantitative questionnaires related to commitment, leadership, intention to turnover (by employees), and organizational change experiences. The population under study includes all social workers (160) in a particular organization which had experienced the integration of key selected traditional social work programs (Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections) being integrated from a provincial government model to a community health board governed model. The third part of the study includes in-person interviews with selected participants (social workers) who had experienced the organizational change process and products (the move from the government governed model to the community board governed model).

The results of the study demonstrated that changes were needed to improve service delivery

mechanisms. The actual change process itself indicated that participants' commitment to the organization was less than adequate and that participants reported moderate to strong intentions to leave the organization. Front line leadership styles (in terms of transformational and transactional leadership) were also reported to be lacking at a time in which one would expect or hope for strong leadership qualities in all of its leaders. Finally, participants reported that they did not have the levels of input into organizational change processes and products that they would liked to have had.

The study employs an exploratory case study design methodology. However, it does provide beginning insights into the challenges to rapid and pervasive organizational change in human services organizations. The study makes a number of recommendations regarding how the processes may be improved, as well as the implications for social work research, education, and practice.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction and Context

This study was prompted by a number of social and economic factors on a provincial, national, and global level which suggested significant changes in social programs, services and approaches to providing support to individuals, groups and communities. In Canada, the implementation of the Canada Health and Social Transfer Regulations, 1996, as well as the development of several key provincial government supported documents which identified concerns with the design and delivery of programs and services in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador, with special emphasis on community relevance, were also factors in launching this study. The new Health and Social Transfer Act, as well as the decision to decentralize services and related decision making, ultimately contributed to a number of changes in the Province, including the integration of community health and social services.

The net product was envisioned as a unified and integrated service with more human resources devoted to direct client services. In addition, decision making responsibility was transferred to community health boards for overseeing health and social services in Newfoundland and Labrador, including Children's Protection Services, Community Living Services, and Youth Corrections Services. The structural, program, policy and practices changes associated with the new visions of both the Federal and Provincial Government, were so rapid and extraordinary in complexity and pervasiveness, that concerns arose and continued to arise as to the impacts of

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complexity and pervasiveness, that concerns arose and continued to arise as to the impacts of these organizational changes on social workers and clients.

Some examples of the complex and pervasive change in the interest of integration and decentralization are provided for clarity. Services such as Children's Protection, Youth Corrections, and Community Living Services that previously fell within the realm of social services have been integrated within health and social services, referred to in this province as Health and Community Services, which, in turn, is often referred to as community health. The rapid, dramatic, and externally motivated change process began in 1997, and, from a legislative point of view, proceeded in 1998. The notion of rapid and pervasive change is exemplified within the context of the organizational change process under study, which occurred over a twelve month period. However, the implementation of policies, procedures and structures converged in ongoing change processes. Throughout this document terms such as "organizational change", "organization change", and "human services change" will refer to the concept of "rapid and pervasive organizational change".

The change process is never ending for organizations, policies, programs and practices, including the staff and clients affected by such change. The purpose of this case study is, (1) to explore rapid and pervasive organizational change, and (2) to explore the perceptions of professional social workers regarding the organizational change process, their participation in it, and the impacts of change on these professionals, their work, and their clients. In order to better understand professional life "as lived" through organizational change, this study also compares

the experiences of social workers who were part of the organizational change process versus those social workers who joined the organization after its structures, polices, programs and practices had been implemented. Furthermore, conceptualization of this study vis a vis organizational change, as well as some of the conceptual frame for data analysis and interpretation, is derived from the perspective of an expanded version of the Bolman and Deal (1991, 1997) model for organizational analysis, developed by this researcher, to guide aspects of planning and analysis of this case study.

In pursuing the purpose of this study a document analysis, using content analysis methodology, was completed on selected government reports which provided the context for the move from a government governed model of service delivery to a community board governed model of service delivery. As well, quantitative questionnaires related to social workers' felt commitment to an organization, perceptions of leadership style, intent to turnover (by employees), and perceptions of organizational change experiences were implemented. Finally, six social workers who experienced both the former and the current organizations were interviewed, using a semi-structured interview process, to attain a deeper understanding of the meanings attached to the organizational change process.

The background for this study is the political-social environment of the province of Newfoundland and Labrador and the organizational context of dramatic and rapid change in health and social services. Specifically, social workers and other human service professionals have been subjected to rapid, extensive and externally motivated change in organizational

structure, policies and procedures that govern the provision of health and social services. The population under study includes social workers who were part of the transition to the community health board model and those social workers who worked within the community health board model only, thus, allowing for a comparative analysis of both groups within the organizational change context.

Restructuring, downsizing, re-engineering, and integration models of change are not unique to the Newfoundland context (Dibben, Wood, & Roper, 2004). On a national basis, the federal government has made deep cuts to social programs over two decades or more, with the latest deep cuts in the budget of 1995 (Lightman, 2003; Battle, 1998). The change in the formula for the transfer of federal funds to the provinces related to social programs was implemented by the introduction of the Canada Health and Social Transfer Regulation (CHST), which replaced the Canada Assistance Plan (CAP), and resulted in a net federal reduction of $6-7 billion dollars annually to the provinces (Lightman, 2003). While the integration and decentralization of community health and social services gives the illusion of more persons to support the delivery of needed services, in many cases, fewer trained persons appear to be available to deliver the needed services and case loads and wait lists have increased - often beyond recommended best practices for care.

The federal government maintains that the cause of a rising budget deficit was due to the high cost of social programs. The reality is that social programs have contributed only an estimated 6% of the national debt (Cameron & Finn, 1996). In response, the provinces have 'rationalized'

their budgets and related health and social programs with the net result being the inability to maintain the same level of social services. The neo-liberal ideology of reducing funding for social programs as well as downloading responsibility to the provinces has resulted in the country's citizens often struggling to receive an adequate level of services or even walking away from needed care because waits are too long.

The reduction in social programs in Canada is not unlike the challenges faced on a global basis as countries compete in the economic market (Shin, 2000). Changes in the structure and delivery mechanisms of programs appear to be a constant (Tompsett, 2001; Julian, 2001; Chiu & Wong, 1998). Major governmental structural changes, such as those which have taken place in Russia, are having a significant impact on social programs as that country struggles with organizational change. Other countries have experienced extensive changes to the approach of their social programs, with more emphasis being placed on 'contracting' out' services (Duncan, 2000). The outcome is often one where social policies are 'under attack' to maintain services within a context where services are often becoming less accessible. This retrenchment in programs and services is a global phenomenon which impacts most countries to a greater or lesser degree. So, while this research is a case study of one service region in one geographical location within the Province, any understanding derived from it may enable better understanding of processes and impacts of pervasive, rapid, and complex change in health and social services.

In the interest of conceptualizing organizational change that impacted the structure, process, policies, and procedures in as broad a context as possible, this study utilizes an organizational

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scheme for conceptualizing organizational behavior and change proposed by Bolman and Deal (1997). Not to be bound by the limitations of their model, the researcher expanded the model in a fashion that permits a wider vision of organizational dynamics and change processes in terms of organizational theory (Note to reader: See Figure 1 in Chapter II, page 18). The study also conceptualized a broader range of relevance that reflected the experiences of social workers who had experienced and continue to experience rapid change. It also conceptualized a broader range of relevance that reflects the reality of living with a substantive integration of services that were previously more separated, as well as the disruption of clarity of professional roles and functions. While the expansion of the Bolman and Deal model provides a heuristic for organizing and conceptualizing observations and analysis of change that are not bounded by commitment to any one theory, it is recognized that the social work profession would also be interested in translating some of the observations of problems, needs, and barriers associated with organizational change into some directions for solutions. As a result, the researcher integrated some organizational development theory into a conceptual theoretical frame that was concerned not only with data analysis but the application of these findings to conceptual-theoretical understandings that could also inform the formulation of potential solutions that are meaningful to social workers and their clients.

Research Questions and Objectives of This Study

The purpose of this case study may be translated into the following research questions guiding

this research: What is the input social workers had into organizational change experiences and

what are the impacts on social workers and their work in relation to rapid and pervasive

organizational change experiences? The researcher has clarified these broader questions by the

use of the following questions to guide the primarily quantitative survey research to the following

questions:

1. **What are social workers' perceptions of the input that they had into the organizational change process and its impacts on them and their work and services to their clients?**

2. **How have the social workers' experiences of the change process impacted their commitment to the organization?**

3. **How have the social workers' experiences of the change process impacted their perceptions of the leadership styles of supervisors?**

In achieving the purpose of this study, the researcher adopts a case study approach. Specifically,

an analysis of seven government documents leading up to the organizational change process is

completed, six instruments are used in the research design, as well as six semi-structured

interviews, in describing organizational change and responses to change.

Background and Rationale

The formula for the provision of transfer payments for social programs from the Canadian Federal Government was changed under the CHST Regulation of 1996, with the net result being that the provinces received less financial resources to deliver health and social services to its citizens (Armitage, 1996). Within this context, the provinces found themselves attempting to develop innovative ways to respond with less resources while trying to maintain the same level of services. In fact, the same level of services could not be maintained, with a net negative effect on the country's citizens (Armitage, 2003; Graham, Swift, and Delaney, 2003; Hick, 2006).

The reduction in transfer payments to the provinces resulted in the provinces seeking more economical ways and means to deliver services. One alternative used by a number of provinces was to establish community boards. In fact, there is some support in the literature for a community development model in which communities accept more responsibility for the health of its citizens (Wharf & McKenzie, 1998; Homan, 1999; Wharf & Clague; Ewalt, Freeman, & Poole, 1998). Embedded within these notions is the concept of prevention [primary, secondary, tertiary levels] (Morales & Sheafor, 1998). For example, the notion of health promotion illustrates that it is more economical to prevent children from becoming involved in the Child Protection and Youth Corrections systems. In addition, the change process (moving to a community board model) was framed as a process of that emphasized the importance of developing organizational structures which would facilitate interdisciplinary collaboration, resulting in improved and more efficient service delivery mechanisms to service users.

The shift was from a social services paradigm (where services were delivered directly by the provincial government) to a community health model (which espouses the notion of developing more context relevant services which are more closely aligned to community needs). However, some authors suggest that the result has been that services have not been coordinated, service provision has been less effective, and the organizations have had reduced accountability to the government (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). Within the realities of provinces dealing with less financial resources, the primary emphasis appears to have been reduced to the economic benefits of developing community health boards as opposed to emphasizing the assignment of resources sufficient for the prevention model. Subsequently, the desired prevention services are often not developed because resources are limited and existing resources become strained in attempting to do more with less.

There were several steps involved in the eventual move of critical social work service provision from a government department model of service delivery to a community board model of service delivery (see Table 1.1). The initial step in the development of a community board model for the delivery of health and social services commenced in Newfoundland and Labrador in 1994 and was officially referred to as the Regional Community Health Board. The community health section consisted of primarily nursing staff as well as specialists in nutrition, physiotherapy, addictions services, mental health services, and related professions. In 1997, the Department of Social Services was renamed the Department of Human Resources and Employment. Under this new name, the mandate of the Department placed a strong emphasis on clients in receipt of financial assistance and began to develop strategies to support clients to reintegrate into the

workforce. This refocusing was also congruent with the focus of the CHST regulation, which did not place restrictions on the development of workfare programs. The social work programs of Child Welfare, Youth Corrections, and Family and Rehabilitative Services continued to be part of this renamed provincial department of government. From April 1, 1997 to March 31, 1998, transition teams at both the provincial and regional levels were formed to facilitate the transition of primarily social work services (Child Welfare, Youth Corrections, and Family and Rehabilitative Services) from the provincial Department of Human Resources and Employment to the regional Health and Community Services Boards. From an organizational change perspective, the rapid transition of such a large part of the organization with many services was under very tight time frames, leading one to question the efficacy of such rapid change and the implication for its staff and the clients to whom it provides services (Bradley & Hendrick, 1996). The provincial government, however, was clear in its direction that the new Health and Community Services Board structures were to be integrated within the specified twelve month period.

In fact, the transition to a regional board model took place with most boards, within the specified time frame. It was recognized and acknowledged that the administrative structures and services would be transferred but that the service provision would not change at that time, with the notion that the types and delivery mechanisms for services would be reviewed at a later date.

Table 1.1

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE TIME LINES

DATE	ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE STEPS
1994	Community Health Board Model Established
1997	Provincial Department of Social Services Renamed Department of Human Resources and Employment
April 1, 1997 to March 31, 1998	Provincial and Regional Transition Teams Developed to Facilitate the Transition of Selected Services to Community Health Board Model
April 1, 1998	Regional Community Health Boards Renamed Health and Community Health Services Boards
April 1, 1998	Social Work Services of Child Welfare, Youth Corrections, and Family and Rehabilitative Services Transferred to Regional Health and Community Services Boards

The transition of services to a community board model officially took place on April 1, 1998. At that time service provision appears to have remained essentially the same with little to no visible change in service delivery mechanisms. One area in which change had taken place was in the introduction of the new Child, Youth and Family Services Act (1999), replacing the old Child Welfare Act (1972) (revised). The new Act includes an independent committee to review the Act on a regular basis. The purpose of this committee is to act as a 'watchdog' to ensure the purpose and spirit of the Act is carried out. The majority of the committee members are government representatives or government appointees, which brings into question the actual degree of 'community empowerment'.

Public perception, as reflected in the media, was that the regional community boards appeared to be struggling to maintain the present level of services. The redesigning of more relevant and responsive services and the developing of more collaborative and preventive services continued to be a 'change in the waiting'. The future direction and feasability of the community board model for delegating responsibility and authority in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador remains to be seen.

This study focuses on the dynamics and the impacts of organizational change and rapid organizational change in particular. Both the rationale for and impacts of change are often framed as organizational and client problems, needs, and responsibilities. In this study, the researcher is interested in the input that social workers had into rapid, pervasive and externally motivated change from a social service, government governed model to a regional community health board governed model. The researcher is also interested in the impact that the change had on the social workers and the clients of the organization. Part of this study is conceptualized within the context of the commitment of organizational members to the organization within their normative, affective, and continuance commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997) to the existing organization and the prior government operated organization. The component that examines the commitment of professional employees to the organization, in this case social workers, has been conceptualized within the context of the theoretical framework espoused in Chapter 2.

Leadership is another key component of organizational change processes. In consideration of the conceptual framework, this researcher was interested in studying if leadership "styles" of front

line management (supervisors) supported strong, balanced leadership in an environment where rapid and pervasive change has taken place. In this study social workers were asked to rate their immediate supervisor in terms of their "style" of leadership. The model applied in this study is one proposed by Bass and Avolio (2000) in their standardized measure of leadership style. Study participants responded to the questionnaire in relation to their current supervisor and were then asked to complete the questionnaire "as if" they were still employed in the former organization. A comparative analysis of both responses was undertaken.

Out of the three broad research questions within the context of the organizational theory articulated in Chapter 2, the following questions were derived in order to further guide data collection for this case study:

1. How was the plan for organizational change framed in leading up to the organizational change experience/process?

2. What are the impacts on social workers as professionals within the context of an organizational change experience?

3. Have client services been impacted after a rapid and pervasive organizational change experience?

4. What are the inputs that social workers had into an organizational change experience and what were their perceived impacts?

5. What is the commitment level of social workers to their organization, who have experienced a rapid and pervasive organizational change experience?

6.   How does their level of commitment to the current organization compare to their commitment to the former organization?

7.   What are the leadership styles of front line supervisors, as perceived by their subordinates, in an organization which has experienced rapid and pervasive change?

8.   How does the style of current supervisors compare with the leadership style of supervisors in the former organization?

9.   To what degree do social workers who have experienced and organizational change process, intend to leave the organization?

This researcher is using the 4th edition of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association text (1999) for this thesis.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Management and Organizational Theory in Context

The challenge for organizations and, particularly, leaders within organizations, especially within organizations experiencing change, is to consider the many different dynamics of the change process, including the different (theoretical) frames which were reviewed by this researcher as reflected below. Effective change within organizations does not happen simply by changing the structure (a content issue), as assumed by the structural bureaucratic frame. For change to be effective, individuals within organizations need to be able to cognitively understand the need for the change and be able to restructure the organizational structure within their own minds - a cognitive symbolic conceptualization (a process issue). Interactions between individuals, the organization, and the external environment which take into account the underlying assumptions of human interaction (the human resources frame) as well as the cognitive processes (the cognitive and symbolic frame) in which individuals engage in 'making sense' of the organization, can shed light on the dynamics of organizational change and effective organizational development.

Conceptualizations of how individuals create meaning for themselves in their own minds and how affect and meaning interact (psychodynamic frame) in the struggles for power and control (political power frame) within and between organizations also presents additional layers of

complexity with which to understand organizations and organizational change processes. Contextualizing the many different layers of complexity (or many different frames) presents challenges when considered in relation to the participatory action approach to understanding, developing and changing organizations in a way that is meaningful and beneficial to all stakeholders. An action Organizational Development (OD) approach emphasizes recognizing, accepting, and encouraging open dialogue in an atmosphere where individuals can challenge each other and the organization with the underlying assumption that genuine personal and organizational learning must takes place when we are challenged within ourselves. As well, without commitment to sustainable change and openness to continuous relevant change, it is difficult to comprehend how a product or service can remain relevant and valued (Whyte, 1991).

This study is guided by a synthesis of concepts of organizational change and resistance to effective organizational change in the interest of clients-customers, the service or product's relevance and quality, organizational needs, small group needs, individual needs, and community-political context needs. Needs are broadly conceptualized to include solutions to problems and the management of risks or impacts. While there are a number of different theoretical approaches to conceptualizing organizational change, this researcher's expanded model of Bolman and Deal (1997) was adapted due to its comprehensiveness and its ability to provide a framework for research and data analysis. The model is also able to guide observation and analysis through reflection on many layers of change, and to deal with interaction and complexity of organizational change.

The theoretical framework of Bolman and Deal is limited with regard to its four (4) frames. Thus, an additional three frames were added to the model in this research study to provide a more comprehensive theoretical framework to guide analysis, taking into account the complexities of rapid and pervasive organizational change.

In this study of organizational development and change, particularly rapid change, the researcher adapted the conceptual framework of Bolman and Deal (1997) and expanded on it to provide a more comprehensive framework for organizational theory, particularly at it relates to change. Organizational theory was conceptualized within the context of seven frames which were developed and analyzed on the following pages and summarized in Figure 2.1. The seven theoretical frames include: (1) structural and bureaucratic theories; (2) human resources theories; (3) political power theories; (4) psychodynamic theories; (5) action research theories; (6) leadership theories; and, (7) cognitive and symbolic theories. Embedded within this conceptual framework is the concept of empowerment as it relates to organizational development and change. The dynamic interaction of the resulting frames, as a way to view organizations, helped in developing a more in depth analysis and synthesis of organizational change processes, both subjective and objective.

The results of my research will provide further depth to the organizational literature in that it will demonstrate the importance of analyzing, not only structure, but also, content and process and outcomes. In this case study, the research will show that participants indicate that they had limited opportunities to have input into organizational change processes and that, input that

Figure 2.1

Conceptualization of Active Organizational Change

THEORETICAL FRAME	ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL	SMALL GROUP LEVEL	INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	SOCIAL CONTEXT
STRUCTURAL BUREAUCRATIC FRAME	changing org. structure to try to meet org. or client needs	changing specialization, tasks, skills req'd. for employees to do their work	individuals retrained to do new tasks	changing due to external env., albeit limited ability for substantial change
HUMAN RESOURCES FRAME	org. wants to 'take care of' its employees; need for adequate human resources	interpersonal communication and collaboration; working in teams	ensuring one's own needs are being met in context of the organization	org. responding to societal needs and to needs of employees
POLITICAL POWER FRAME	can involve who has power in org., how power changes, and how power, authority and control is distributed	can involve conflicts and conflict resolution within and between groups, within context of org. change	notions of charismatic leaders, leaders with more or less power; individuals may feel more or less power within change context	societal change takes place in response to need for more services/resources; redistribution of resources
PSYCHODYNAMIC FRAME	change may become dysfunctional when the org. responds in a neurotic way	teams may feel they have to protect themselves from the org. and/or the external environment	a neurotic leader may create an org. which suspects all actions of individuals, groups, or other organizations	a neurotic org. may implode or explode
ACTION LEARNING FRAME	org. values and encourages contribution of all employees; change incremental to transformational	teams can effect incremental or large scale change; people support what they help to create	employees and/or clients empowered; assumption is employees work for intrinsic reasons	org. and external change are 'normal'; need to continually reassess/reevaluate the organization
LEADERSHIP FRAME	need for charismatic leaders versus leaders play less important role in relation to the organization	team leaders work in small groups to develop concepts of 'teamness' to ensure effectiveness and efficiency and transformation	individual needs to be innovative, creative, charismatic, and visioning	leaders need to be able to understand environmental and societal changes within context of organization, new problems and opportunities
COGNITIVE-SYMBOLIC FRAME	org. can symbolically respond to change by developing a 'new' organization	symbolically, small groups can be empowered in orgs. through teams	individuals can be empowered by having more autonomy in their work	when services are devolving, the competition for more limited resources can become enhanced

was provided, was not valued, both a human resources and a structural bureaucratic frame

perspective. The research results will demonstrate that many study participants felt devalued and

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demoralized (political power frame) throughout the process and were negatively affected both professionally and personally. It will be demonstrated that the organizational change process also affected the commitment levels of study participants. Commitment levels will show that the levels are low overall and that study participants did not feel a strong sense of loyalty to the organization but felt committed to remain with the organization because there are no other opportunities for employment outside the organization, a recipe for disaster (cognitive symbolic frame). In addition, the research will show that many study participants reported that they were actively thinking about or seeking employment elsewhere.

Leadership styles (the leadership frame) of front line management will also provide insight into the need for a balanced style of leadership at the first line of management. The literature on transformational and transactional leadership indicates that a balance is ideal. The research will demonstrate that study participants report their immediate supervisors to be lacking in transformational leadership style, suggesting that their immediate supervisors are lacking in their vision and values of the organization. The research will also show that study participants report their immediate supervisors to be lacking in transactional leadership style, suggesting that their immediate supervisors are too controlling and are too focused on micro management issues, intervening only when things go wrong, and more concerned with efficiencies in the system.

The scholarship and research completed by this researcher will contribute to the theoretical framework below, which provides a more comprehensive means of analyzing organizational change processes in human services organizations.

Other worthwhile conceptual frameworks for the study of organizational change were considered, but, ultimately an expansion of the Bolman and Deal (1997) model was chosen because it respected the complexity of human service organizations. One of the conceptual frameworks considered was that of Kanter (1992), which is referred to as the "Big Three" model. The first part of the model takes into account the three possible *kinds of movement/change*; (1) environmental change (macro evolutionary change); (2) life cycle change (changes in the development of the organization in relation to size, structure, and so on); and, the political dimension (the struggle for power among individuals or groups). The second part of the model includes the *forms of change*; identity change (relationship between the organization and its environment), coordination change (related to the shape and structure of the environment), and control change (political power struggles). The third part of the model takes into account the *action roles in the change process*, including; change strategists (macro level visioning), change implementors (responsible for the micro dynamics of change), and, change recipients (those strongly affected by the change but without much power to have influence).

The Kanter model provides a conceptualization from the broad macro level considerations of change (e.g., the external environment) to the micro levels of change (e.g., processes for effective delivery of specific services to clients/customers). In consideration of each part of the change process in the Kanter model, different levels and ways of conceptualizing change can be discerned. For example, in the *forms of change*, 'identity changes' can include structural changes in response to the external environment. This form of change can also be conceptualized within the structural frame of the Bolman and Deal model, for example. As well, the *change strategist*

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in the 'action roles in the change process' can be conceptualized within the leadership frame of the researcher's expanded Bolman and Deal model. For each of the 'ways' of viewing change within the Kanter model, one can superimpose the expanded Bolman and Deal model to arrive at a more comprehensive frame for analyzing and understanding organizational change.

Structural and Bureaucratic Theories

Taylor's (1911) conceptualization of scientific management includes concepts such as precision, detail, analysis, as well as breaking tasks into their smallest components for analysis. Taylor's approach to management was very practical, due partly to the fact that he developed his experiments within a practice environment as an engineer in a steel factory. The emphasis was on task performance in the most effective and efficient manner possible. There was a recognition that employees responded to extrinsic rewards (i.e., money). However, the primary emphasis appears to be on the commodification of the workers for the betterment of the organization. Underlying Taylor's scientific management is Theory X (McGregor, 1966), where workers are viewed as not valuing work in and of itself, but only as a means to earn a living. Scientific management is also congruent with Weber's bureaucratic model (Weber, 1947), where employees work as specialists in organizations. Complex work is broken down into simpler tasks. From an historical perspective, Taylor's theory provides the reader with one model of management which recognized an important component to organizational development-attention to detail. However, it failed to sufficiently emphasize other realities such as the human relations factors as well as the use of power relations within and between organizations. The bureaucratic

model also plays an important part in our understanding of organizations from a historical developmental perspective, and contributes to our conceptualization of organizations as one of a a variety of perspectives.

The development of the bureaucratic model of organizations originated from the industrial revolution. The fundamental concept suggests that work will be better organized and controlled through some form of rational, logical, and physical structure that becomes reflected in the organization of work and the authority governing the work - a structural approach to organizational development. The context of the development of Western bureaucracy was associated with the creation of factories that housed workers and work. In its early beginnings, factory work had practically nonexistent rules and regulations - at least in the formal sense. According to Perrow (1986), the notion of working for twelve hours a day and seven days a week to make someone else rich was a totally new phenomenon and factory owners had to rely on thieves and paupers to do the work.

The term bureaucracy can have a number of different connotations. Today the term is used in its most general sense and is most often thought of in terms of organizations which develop, facilitate and deliver government services and programs. Downs' (1967) analysis suggests that bureaucracy can have three different meanings. The concept is often applied to specific institutions or classes of institutions. Downs goes on to interpret that a bureau is defined as having four primary characteristics which include:

1. a bureau is typically a large organization;

2. the workers in a bureau are mostly full-time workers;

3. personnel are hired and promoted based upon an assessment process in relation to how they perform with respect to performance expectations associated with their functions in the organization; and,

4. a major portion of the bureau's work is not evaluated by any external market.

The latter is significant in that the implication is that there are few consequences for poor performance. Some have even suggested that decision rules in bureaucracies are so political that even success may be defined as a failure (Marrow, 1972).

The second definition of bureaucracy (as espoused by Downs) refers specifically to methods of allocating resources within a large organization. The reference to resource allocation is typically referred to as bureaucratic decision-making in assigning and accounting for time, human, material and financial resources, and currently, technical or knowledge resources (Liebowitz & Beckman, 1998).

The third definition of bureau is somewhat ambiguous in that it refers to qualities of an organization which distinguish that organization from other organizations. In context this often refers to the large size of the organization, full-time membership, and economic dependence of the members, as well as hiring, promotion, and retention on a merit basis. In this third definition, 'bureau' can refer to 'for profit' organizations, as well as 'not for profit'. A bureaucracy is defined

as being "large" and of being an "institution" where decisions are made by the organization. This reification of organization, treating the organization as if it is an organism that has cognition and will, is reflective of the typical concept many would have of a bureaucracy being large, impersonal, and non-responsive to 'human' needs (Mintzberg, 1983). But, as Silverman (1970) challenges, it is not organizations that make decisions, it is people who have internalized collective symbols and meaning; it is as if the structure that makes up the organization exists as a cognitive construction in the mind of those who belong to the collective and who identify with the organization.

In the nineteenth century, the term bureaucracy referred to a type of political system. The connotation was rule by a bureau; the denotive meaning referred to persons in positions of decision authority who governed the work and the workers. The notion of bureaucracy was juxtaposed to a political system of some form of representative government. In the bureau, the positions at the top of the structural hierarchy were occupied by career officials.

Historically, before "bureaucracy" was associated with the connotation of intransigent, the model was associated with the intention to enable and maintain positive organizational change in terms of the rationalization of work (the factory or government service process), the organization and control of the workers, and the rationalization of authority based on knowledge and skill, in a time when nepotism ruled. Today, the application of bureaucratic notions have been somewhat reconstructed, especially for government and not-for-profit organizations, in terms of "rationalization of work and decisions" (Raphaelson, 1998), "re-engineering work" (Linden,

1994; Handfield, 1995; Stein, 1996), and managers assuming more "corporate responsibility" and executive functions (Linden, 1994) - new words for authority and bureaucrat.

Beetham (1996) presents three models of bureaucracy in a number of different contexts within social sciences. The models for understanding bureaucracy and its parameters include the sociology of organization perspective, the political economy perspective, and the public administration perspective. Within sociology of organization, the classic model of bureaucracy was developed by Max Weber (1947). This model continues to be the foundation on which the bureaucratic model and variations of the bureaucratic theme have been conceptualized. The Weberian bureaucratic model is characterized by a hierarchy. Within the hierarchy, the expectations, responsibilities, and functional layers in the organization are clearly defined. The classic bureaucracy is often characterized by continuity that is derived from mutual commitment that comes with full-time salaried employees. Holding office within a bureaucracy implies a work career within an organization and the possibility for advancement based on merit. Classic bureaucracy purports to organize work based on specialized functions, knowledge, and skills; these in turn are coordinated and governed according to a known prescribed set of rules, versus ad hoc situational decision making. Employees are not only supposed to be selected according to merit, they are also promoted according to merit. Training is provided or expected related to the expectations and responsibilities associated with a particular job function.

Of prime importance in the bureaucracy are the functions and expectations associated with those who provide leadership to the workforce and who administer the organization. Beetham's (1996)

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analysis of Weber's conceptualization viewed the administrative staff as offering continuity and stability to the organization which includes the higher levels of organizational structure, providing relatively consistent direction. Leadership and direction are considered to be dominant characteristics of both the position and the person occupying the position - consistent with the modern notion of executive director (public human services) and chief executive officer (corporations).

In our society's democratic system where the politicians are elected, the higher levels of the bureaucracy may be characterized as the cabinet which, in other organizations, might be titled the executive board or the board of directors. A governing body such as a cabinet employs the administrative staff, forming the next layer of the bureaucratic hierarchy. The essential characteristic of a bureaucrat, according to Beetham's (1996) analysis, is the exercise of authority associated with the responsibilities within a bureau. For the organization to function effectively, from a bureaucratic frame, a clear division of labor between administration and production or service, is important.

In critiquing bureaucracy, Gouldner (1954) conceptualized Weber's model as one in which obedience to administration and to regulations, within the bureaucracy, became an end in itself. Complex tasks are broken down into manageable and relatively repetitive sets of activities which are clearly defined. Weber defined his model as an 'ideal-type'. On the other hand, many analyses of the ideal type (or espoused theory) and the actual practices of organizations operating within a bureaucratic framework (theories in practice) have demonstrated a number of

deficiencies. Today, Weber might argue that the model did not work because bureaucrats did not develop to the ideal type that he envisioned. It is worthy to note however, that Weber's model developed in the relatively early stages of industrialization, where the notion of consistent or known 'structure' was considered to be critical to the effective functioning of the industry. While the focus of the bureaucracy resulted in employees being reified to parts of the 'machinery' to ensure the effective and efficient functioning of the organization, as a vision of effective collective action, it was only one vision and a rather narrow and bounded model.

Perrow (1970) provided a more positive view of bureaucracy. He acknowledged that most individuals would espouse to work in a non-bureaucratic environment but would want to routinize the area for which they would be responsible. Perrow espoused the necessity of bureaucratic rules and regulations. Rules and regulations are necessary in complex organizations to provide direction and to guide employees in their work. Most of the rules will apply to most cases; some cases will be the exception. The organization can develop the ability to deal with the exception by giving employees (managers) at higher levels in the organization the authority to provide needed services to the exceptional cases. Bureaucracies are capable of responding to the external environment to meet client or customer needs. Bureaucracies in government have responded nationally to the issue of child poverty in Canada, for example, by increasing the amount of the Child Tax Credit. The level of response is not adequate to eliminate child poverty at its present rate. However, it is capable of reducing the number of children living in poverty.

Beetham's (1996) second model for conceptualizing bureaucracy, the political economy framework, approached the study of "bureaucracy" from an economic point of view with due consideration to the distribution of power based on access to, and control of, resources. Balancing economic concerns with political concerns results in a focus on the financial arrangements and power and control in the allocation of resources, within the context of bureaucratic function and organizational effectiveness. As well, the economic frame places much faith in market forces governing organizational change and behavior; the belief is that market forces are "arrangements which coordinate the actions of large numbers of people automatically, and on a lateral basis, through the operation of the price mechanism, without infringing on their freedom or requiring inequalities of status" (Beetham, 1996; p. 20). Traditional bureaucratic hierarchies by contrast, "coordinate actions vertically, via a structure of consciously exercised authority and compulsion, in which people's status is, by definition, unequal" (Beetham, p. 21). What does not seem to be addressed in the invisible market forces theory is the inherent inequity and hierarchy associated with purchasing power and relative access to material and social products.

Within the political economy model, the definition of bureaucracy may include those types of hierarchies which appear to operate outside the market environment, as well as, those within the not for profit environment. Individuals in a bureaucratic-economic model are conceptualized as pursuing their own economic interests in a rational calculating manner. The paradox is that they require the collective cooperation of others to achieve their goals. This rational-economic frame can be generalized, as Blau (1986) has done, and be conceptualized as a social exchange that

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involves the interaction of interpersonal power and social and economic exchange (exchange theory). Within any system of exchange, incentives and sanctions are defined as keys to the effective functioning of an organization, as well as to its stability. In contrast, within a classic bureaucracy, Blau maintains that incentives and sanctions are difficult to develop and apply in the interpersonal sense. The classic bureaucracy has to depend upon more legalistic sanctions, based on formal rules and regulations, to control the work of the employees.

In the absence of external sanctions or controls, the not-for-profit bureaucracy will focus on its own internal operations for survival and growth. Ultimately it is the political milieu which controls the bureaucracy, albeit with limited success. Elected officials must balance concerns with demonstrating efficiency and effectiveness and continue to provide services that may be defined as optimal. The public may express little patience with minimal services.

The political economy model subscribes, at least in part, to the assumptions of Taylorism (1911) in that it is assumed that individuals in organizations have their own self interests in mind and are not motivated to work. The model further assumes that successful organizations apply sanctions to control the organization's employees. For governmental and not-for-profit bureaucracies, the political economy model is viewed as being inefficient. The ability of the bureaucracy to be controlled by political sanctions is limited by the power of the electorate and community moral suasion; that is, the limited ability of a society to exercise some control over public bureaucracies is through the ongoing threat of voting out the ruling government. Bureaucracies that have little external accountability, most likely, will be concerned with managing their own internal

operations as an end in itself, this includes an expansion to increase power for its own sake. Within this context, Perrow's (1970) analysis suggests that modern bureaucracies require sets of rules and regulations to ensure the smooth and effective functioning of the organization, as well as clear boundaries with respect to the service product. In the absence of clear rules, unless a strong set of informal rules are internalized by most employees, the risks would be disorganization and chaos as well as ineffective or inefficient services.

Under the third model of bureaucracy, the public administration model, bureaucracy is defined within the public sphere (Beetham, 1996). This model takes a broader view of bureaucracy in that any aspects of society which become a public concern are also a concern for bureaucratic organization and control (e.g., the protection of abused children, the care of an aging population), in the public interest. The public bureaucracy must be concerned with both internal matters (e.g., the currency of skills of public servants vis a vis new child protection legislation) and an outward view to providing a relatively transparent service to the public, with publically available policies, procedures, regulations, and standards of public service.

The modern public administration model extends the value base guiding the bureaucracy beyond the organizational boundaries, to clearly appreciate broader societal beliefs (e.g., dependent persons should be protected), attitudes (e.g., single mothers should be supported and not punished); and values (e.g., children are valued as persons with rights). A broader view within this definitional context highlights the societal values which may be taken into account in determining the quantity, quality, venue and pattern of delivery, as well as the availability of

services and programs that a governmental or non-governmental service has agreed to produce and deliver. In this context, public administration decisions are viewed as rational but bounded by more socio-political and political-economic concerns. Product and service delivery cannot be reduced simply to cost efficiency measures; some services are needed and demanded even if the technology, knowledge, skills, and competence of public services personnel do not converge to be efficient (e.g., dialysis is needed and access is needed; both the provision and the access may not support high efficiency). In the public bureaucracy, the ideal is to ensure public accountability through transparency; any decisions, content, or process could become public if the results become a matter of public interest. In simple terms, even if needed services are costly, inefficient and marginally effective, public transparency may still support such a service (e.g. teaching assistants to enable social inclusion of disabled children).

The public bureaucracy model, contextually similar to Bolman and Deal's notions of organizations governed by power transactions (1997), operating within the 'political' arena, engages in stakeholder transactions that give direction to change in programs and services, whenever it becomes politically expedient or politically correct to do so. (A dramatic example is evidenced by annual political and organizational commitments and proclamations such as the Year of Disabled Persons). While this public bureaucracy model allows for organized groups in society to become more influential by virtue of size and/or media presence, the model does not provide as ready a forum, or does not ensure advocacy for the unorganized and disenfranchised to be mobilized effectively in either their interest or the public interest (e.g., children are not independently represented in court when their lives are being decided upon by the state).

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Regardless of the bureaucratic model identified (i.e., sociology of organization, political

economy, public administration), each tends to be viewed as being very slow to change.

Organizational change tends to be evolutionary (Campbell, 2004). Some argue that public

organizations simply 'die' while others point out that organizations re-appear under a different

name (Rainey, 1997). Implementation of any changes under a bureaucratic model presents

challenges in relation to being able to create, sustain, and verify changes. Changing bureaucratic

thinking (e.g., balancing a promotion and prevention concern with a protection concern) and

behavior (e.g.. working as a multi-disciplinary team) is difficult, whether the planned changes are

small, logically disconnected and incremental, or whether the changes take place on a large scale

similar to the one examined in the current study (e.g., a major integration of health and social

services) (Rainey, 2003). The other issue, imported from the symbolic school, is: "Are changes

(using a bureaucratic model) substantive or largely symbolic?"

Change Processes

Blau and Meyer (1987) propose three models to conceptualize change processes within

bureaucracies. The first model, the adaptation model of organizational change, "treats

organizations as vulnerable to external forces and capable of accommodating them" (p. 116).

This adaptation model developed from several streams of thinking that questioned classical

management theory. The adaptation model recognizes that organizations adapt to their

environment-the notion originating, in part, from systems theory and cognitive theory. Systems

and cognitive theory suggest that organizations respond to external and internal systemic

activities, and that the collective consciousness of the organization decides what must change in thinking and actions to survive, produce relevant products, and deliver acceptable public services. Administrative structures are viewed as making complex decisions and accomplishing complex tasks, under conditions of uncertainty (Toffler, 1980; Terreberry, 1968). Some of the very complex tasks create a condition supporting limited or bounded rationality, in contrast to many postmodern concepts which define reality in relation to the discourse of the individual as the individual interprets experiences and defines multiple realities in a relatively plastic fashion.

A sub-theme within the adaption model presents the argument that environments differ in the degree of complexity and uncertainty they posed and concluded that organizational environments may be very unstable and relatively unpredictable. An example of this is when human service organizations move from the direct control of government departments to community board models of service delivery. Also explored within the adaptation model is the portrayal of organizations as being engaged in active struggles for power and control relative to one another and over their political, social, and material environments (Blau and Meyer, 1987). Power concepts of human relations and organizational behavior play an important descriptive-analytic function in this variation of the model. While there may appear to be variations on each of the streams of thinking that questioned classical management theory, there is a common underlying assumption that shifts in the environment may still result in orderly change within the organization; the notion here is that organizations are capable of adapting and changing in a reasonable and rational manner, even under conditions of complexity, uncertainty and duress.

The <u>selection model</u> of organizational change takes a diametrically opposed view from the adaptation model in that it assumes that organizations are relatively incapable of rapid, comprehensive and rationally coherent adaptation to changes in the environment. The selection model does not deny that organizations change, but such change is perceived to be gradual, more an adjustment than comprehensive, planned change.

The notion of changing in an incremental manner is viewed from the point of view that the 'original' organization no longer existing; as a result of the incremental change processes, the organization is transformed, as if by default. Organizations operating under the selection model of incremental adjustments may remain static or change in ways that may cause the organization to malfunction - especially when changes are disjointed (Jones & Gross, 1996) or relatively incoherent. The results can be the termination of the organization as it was or the organization being replaced by a new and different one - even if the name remains the same. Change to a new organization is viewed, in part, as if it was evolutionary change, versus organizational reform or re-engineering.

An example of this within the Newfoundland and Labrador context is the move of the social programs of child welfare, youth corrections, and community living services to a community board model. This was followed within months by integration of these social services with community health - one change evolving into another. The government bureaucracy argued that there is a need for significant changes within these programs, using the business metaphor, "a change in how we do business". Attempts have been made in the past to effect changes. It could

be argued that government has taken the view of the selection model where the difficulties of changing existing organizations are overcome by dismantling the old and constructing the new. This is not defined as comprehensive and rational change of the old, but as replacement of the old (as suggested by the selection model).

The third model of organizational change in relation to the environment is referred to as the institutional model. The assumptions of this model are that all organizations are a part of the public institutional system and consequently support some of the values and meanings ascribed to by a society. Based upon the application of selected values, a bureaucracy has the task of demonstrating that its application of values is relatively congruent with the values of society and, as a result, its actions are reasonable, rational, relevant to society and, therefore, legitimate. When an organization's application of values conflict with other institutions in society, a review is required of value orientations, congruence, and ability to verify. The institutional model is the least clearly developed of the three models, primarily associated with the fact that research and conceptual development have been limited.

Each of the three change models reflect variations in how the bureaucratic model may cope with change. The underlying assumption in each of the three change models reflects bureaucratic models as organizational structures which are not conducive to effective and efficient change.

In summary, the bureaucratic model had its intellectual origins in classical theory that has clear structural themes. The most well known in the Western world is Weber's topology of

bureaucracy. Weber assumed that the highly structured and integrated roles and functions in a

bureaucratic organization were, "specific, effectively-neutral, and collectively-oriented"

(Silverman, 1970, p. 74). The bureaucracy was viewed as a highly structured organization with

clearly defined roles and functions, with clear expectations of the interactive interface of each

person carrying out a function. The assumption was that if functions were coordinated, then

service or production would be effective and efficient. Weber did not take into account the rise

in the class of administrators who were becoming more powerful within these bureaucracies and

who, therefore, had an interest in maintaining organizations and functions which ensured that

they retained and strengthened their own power base, even if efficiency, effectiveness or adaptive

change opportunities were sacrificed.

Within the bureaucracy, the employee is seen as an economic creature who is interested in her/his

own primary needs, suggesting economic motivation. The model does not account for secondary

needs such as the human need for interpersonal relationships as being a motivator for coordinated

action among persons with different functions, or as a dynamic that supports effective

organizational change. A contrast would be reflected in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Model,

which is more consistent with a human relations perspective. The bureaucratic model has also

been criticized by the socio-technical system theorists. They argued that effective adaptation to

an environment is characterized by rapid social and technical change, requiring attention to social

and interpersonal factors in the organization. In effect, the theorists were interested in

understanding how the social psychology of persons and groups interacted with technical systems

and technical change (Emery and Trist, 1965) - the notion of considering not only content but,

also, process (i.e., dealing with the dynamics of organizational change). For example, in a study of a gypsum mine, Gouldner (1954) describes and analyzes attempts at changing an organization from a more informal mode of operating to a more highly bureaucratized mode. These attempts to more tightly bureaucratize the organization, in the absence of taking the human relations factors into account (which had been important traditionally in the less formal organization), resulted in many problems within the organization, not the least of which was reduced production and reduced employee satisfaction.

In the West, bureaucracies were the first organizational structures developed as a result of the boom in industrialization. Large, highly structured organizations, with highly coordinated and formally mandated functions, were a relatively new phenomenon and expectation. More effective and efficient means of delivering programs, services, and/or products became evident in the mass production of consumable goods (e.g., cloth, or military goods such as cartridges for guns) .

The support of a more wage-based economy, with more income security for some, lends some support to the structural and bureaucratic model, even with its faults. Clear hierarchical structures, clear definitions of functions, clear expectations with respect to the use of time, and clear expectations for production, were considered to be progressive measures. In assessing the bureaucracy model today in relation to conceptualizations of organizational change, there are a number of concerns that appear and which are discussed in detail following. Bureaucracies, as

hierarchical types of organizations with a high degree of structure are generally considered to be ineffective and inefficient.

Those who assume a human relations perspective and who are interested in conflict and blocks in organizational communication express the concern that clear communication, which is critical to both change and productivity, is difficult to consistently accomplish in a bureaucracy where the lines of communication are vertical rather than horizontal and are confounded by significant inequities in power (Argyris, 1999; Whyte, 1957). Some of the literature indicates that, where open communication is not present, employees will continue behaving in ways congruent with their beliefs about how the organization works, which may not be consistent with new directions expected by those in the higher levels of the hierarchy. In the worst cases, employees will cling to what they already know, even if it becomes ineffective related to performance expectations (Duck, 1993; Lipsky, 1980).

In consideration of a social, economic, political, resource and technical environment that is characterized by rapid change (Toffler, 1980; Aldrich, 1999), the slow change process attributed to structural-bureaucratic dynamics must be challenged by new conceptualizations of healthy and effective organizations (Pfieffer, 1997; Cohen & Sproull, 1996; Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1985; Moulton & Blake, 1984; Maslow, 1954). Some of the literature argues that bureaucracies establish structures and patterns that make effective and timely change unlikely.

The bureaucratic response to problems and risks is to restructure. Restructuring is often not sufficient to meet the competing needs of employees, the organization, the community, and society. Organizations ineffective in timely and adaptive changes may need to consider changing the organizational paradigm before more substantive, lasting, integrated and adaptive change is likely, especially where large scale change is needed for effective survival (Blau & Meyer, 1987). Adaptive, planned change may require a change from a relatively hierarchical to a more flat organization. A flatter organization promotes more direct and open communication to ensure more effective coordination and mutual support in production. This model is inconsistent with the assumption that effectiveness and efficiency are dependent on more formal definitions of function and boundaries of power and control - the bureaucracy model.

Bureaucracies are interpreted as functioning by analyzing problems and resolving issues by partializing them into small workable pieces, not dealing with the processes of more dynamic change. The net result may be that the bureaucracy does not effectively address the more complex and global dynamics of the organization and its environment as being timely, continuously adaptive and effective change (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1985; Duck, 1993; Aldrich, 1999). Even Kurt Lewin's (1949 - reprinted 1997) conceptualization of the "unfreezing" and "re-freezing" of human dynamics in organizations as they adapt to their environments, assumed more ready movement than in the more fixed structural bureaucracy, which presumably is difficult to unfreeze.

Bureaucracy, in relation to the concept of empowerment, tends to be disempowering in that decisions are made from a top-down perspective (Etzioni-Halevy, 1983; Blau, 1974). While some organizations may account for the input of employees at various levels, communicating employee needs and concerns may be problematic as their language and interpretations become distorted and sanitized as they are processed at each level of the vertical structure. Given the focus on concentrating and exercising power from the position of hierarchy, the structural-bureaucratic model is also disempowering in that it often displaces, or only pays lip service, to human relations concerns-its primary attention being to the effective and efficient production of goods, services, or political gain. In contrast, an empowering organization, according to Kermally (1996), is achieved by sharing information and creating autonomy through a more flat structure that permits teams to exercise control over functional areas of decision and output. In short, organizational employees would have more power and control over their work lives and production than one would expect to find in a traditional bureaucracy.

From the symbolic frame (Bolman & Deal, 1997), the bureaucratic-structural model may provide symbols which are incongruent with the reality of the organizational functioning from a structural as well as a service delivery perspective. The bureaucratic-structural model may define reality as adequate service provision, given the limited resources that are available to it. The symbolism in the message is that services are being provided adequately to service users in relation to a restricted reality (limited budgets) while the actual level of service provision is less than adequate.

In summary, within the bureaucratic-structural model, information sharing tends to be problematic, the structure tends to be relatively inflexible, and power and control is more concentrated in the hierarchy-the notion of dealing with content by changing the structure and not taking 'process' issues into account. The hierarchical structure contributes to top-down exercise of power and control over work functions, coordination, expectations, products, and the definition of organizational realities. Work functions are segregated into separate units and divisions with communication a continuous challenge. Power and decision making is vested in top management with front-line and lower management having little input. Leadership is at the top and is expected to provide the direction, mission, and values for the organization. The bureaucracy model is an inwardly focused approach which values effectiveness and efficiency in the organization with little emphasis on the value of human relations.

Organizational change, from the structural-bureaucratic perspective, is difficult to accomplish effectively, and is especially challenging under circumstances of rapid and pervasive change. Practice theory related to structural-bureaucratic change suggests that organizations can adapt through small incremental steps, at best. Its underlying assumptions are that the organizational structures and bureaucratic values are rather entrenched and include systemic resistance to change, as well as difficulty with adjusting to change. In responding to organizational change, the structural-bureaucratic frame has been analyzed as demonstrating significant limitations. The organization in this frame will likely experience significant levels of stress in responding to demands for desired change; the hypothesis is that the rigid and relatively inflexible structures, that at one time were effective, become a hindrance when adaptation is needed. Some have even

suggested that developmental changes (Mayer, 1985) are not likely to be attainable within the structural bureaucratic frame and that significant structural change implies the need for the extinction of the existing organization and the development of a relatively new organization. The metaphor often used is "major restructuring"-developing a 'new' human services organizational structure (for example, moving from a government governed model to a board governed model) while continuing to provide similar basic services. Under conditions of structural bureaucratic change, one may assess some of the impacts on individuals or sub-structures (units) by measuring their levels of commitment to the 'new' organizational structure in comparison to the old organizational structure; one indicator of success or failure in renewed commitment are changes in employees' intentions to leave the renewed organization.

In relation to this case study, the unit of study, defined as the 'organization', moved from a government governed model of service delivery to a community health board model of service delivery. The change to a 'new' organization is congruent with one of the possible change models in the structural bureaucratic frame. The programs of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections were moved to a community health board model. The current study analyzed the organizational change experience in relation to commitment to the new organization (community health model) as well as to the former organization (government governed model), intentions to leave the organization, input into the organizational change process and its subsequent impacts, as well as the role of leadership. The structural bureaucratic frame provides one way to analyze this organizational change process.

Human Resources Theories

Early approaches to the development of organizations within society placed a high degree of emphasis on interpersonal processes which were intended to give direction to the process of organized and collective actions and subsequent production requirements or expectations of the formal organization (e.g., the service provided by an agency mandated to protect children) or informal organization (e.g., the cooperative actions of professionals in responding to a community crisis such as a shooting in a school). The final products could be some form of material or informational commodity, or could be in the form of human services.

McGregor (1960) challenged some of the basic assumptions about the nature of human beings in general, but also in terms of organizational behaviour. He proposed two competing views of human nature, as well as the basic assumptions within each view or theory which he referred to as Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X assumes that people have an inherent dislike for work. Consequently, employees within organizations need to be controlled and coerced into performing their duties. The view also purports that the employees want to be controlled and directed in their work. The assumption is that employees are not motivated by the mission and goals of the organization. Employees' actions with respect to the organization are viewed as being largely based on a self-motivated interest in the organization in the sense that, if the organization and, subsequently, the employees in the organization, do not produce, the organization will close down. The closure of the organization is only a concern for the individual in the sense that the

ability to 'earn a living' may no longer exist. The motivating factor, according to Theory X, is that of self interest only.

Theory Y, on the other hand, assumes that people will put as much energy into work as they would put into play or rest. External controls are viewed as limiting the abilities of the individual who wants to perform. High performance results in high achievement, which results in an inner sense of accomplishment. Intrinsic rewards are more important to people (Lawlor III, 1973; McGregor, 1966). Given the proper organizational environment, employees will not only accept responsibility but will seek to be more responsible, creative, innovative, and self-motivated. If there is a good fit between the self-actualizing needs of the individual and the organization's capacity to meet individual needs, both the individual and the organization can benefit enormously.

An organizational leader, operating from a basic assumption of Theory X or Theory Y, can have a significant influence on how the organization performs, how it delivers its end product, and how it delivers its service to its service users. Operating from either Theory X or Theory Y may have a significant impact on the organization, its employees and the ultimate service users. It may be suggested that the greater the degree of 'fit' between the needs of the individual and those of the organization, the more positive the outcomes for both the individual and the organization.

Porter, Lawlor, and Hackman (1975) conceptualized the dynamic interaction between organizational and individual needs in terms of the contributions that each make to the other.

The organization is viewed as providing both *expectations* and *resources*. Organizational

expectations are embedded in its goals and objectives within the varying functions of the

organization as well as the coordination of the differing functions of the organizational

subsystems. In other words, the organization exists for a specific purpose or purposes; without

those explicit or implicit purposes, the organization can no longer continue to function or may

function for a limited period of time without a clear purpose. The organization would eventually

end up in a state of negative entropy (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997) and could ultimately no

longer continue to exist.

Strongly implied within the organizational context of the work environment is the concept of

'control', control of the activities of individuals within the organization. The concept of control

often has negative connotations and has been a source of debate within the social work literature

both historically and currently (Wakefield, 1998). Control mechanisms can include the employee

selection process, socialization and training, evaluation and reward systems, measurement and

control systems, as well as supervisory practices. The individual, assuming one adopts Theory Y

assumptions, may have great difficulty in expressing and having her/his needs met within the

organizational context where there is a high degree of control. Theory X assumptions would

expect that high degrees of control would be viewed as a positive and necessary component of

the work of the organization. There is always potential, therefore, for a conflict between the

individual and the organization regardless of whether Theory X or Theory Y is in use. High

degrees of control may be viewed as impeding ones desire to become fulfilled through ones

efforts in the work environment (Theory Y), while low degrees of control may result in the

organization operating ineffectively (people will only work if they are closely supervised, for example) and closing down, resulting in individuals losing their source of income (Theory X).

The second major contribution of the organization is in the form of *resources*. Resources can be concrete and explicit, or symbolic and implicit. Concrete resources of an explicit nature can include income while symbolic resources can include the opportunity to work in a pleasant atmosphere with colleagues who have similar interests. Resources within this context can be viewed as a very positive aspect of the organization for the individual. When an individual is considering an organization of which s/he is interested in becoming a part, s/he must weigh the value of the expectations, which have connotations of control, in relation to the resources, which have connotations of fulfilling one's higher order needs (Maslow, 1954; Argyris, 1985).

The individual also brings a potential contribution to the organization in the form of *needs and goals* as well as *skills and energies*. The individual's *needs and goals* are on a personal level and can include their need for achievement, their need for a career, their need for socialization within the organizational context, and their need for job security. As individual needs are met within an organizational context, these needs no longer become motivators. The thesis then, is that an individual then seeks higher order needs as sources of motivation.

Individual skills refer to competencies that an individual brings to the organization in terms of their specialized professional knowledge (e.g., social worker, engineer) as well as social and interactional skills. Energies can refer to the output that the individual generates within work

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activities. The individual who attains a higher level of satisfaction from work is motivated by this intrinsic reward and, subsequently, is reinforced to continue to provide a higher level of energy into organizational goals and objectives.

Implied within the notion of what the organization brings to the individual and what the individual brings to the organization is the concept of the 'fit' between individual and organizational needs being met, which McGregor refers to within the concept of 'integration', where conditions are such that organizational members can have their own needs met by directing their efforts towards the success of the organization (McGregor, 1960). This 'fit' is similar to the concept of 'interdependence', which Popple and Leighninger (1998) refer to in relation to the fact that the individual is adequately fulfilling her/his role and the appropriate social institutions are functioning smoothly or in the form of a psychological contract between the employee and the employer (Rousseau, 2000). If the needs of either are not being met, there is a lack of fit. Subsequently, there would have to be either movement to ensure a fit or the relationship would become conflictual in nature.

One would expect that the individual would seek out another organization in which to have her/his needs met if the current organization did not fulfill her/his needs. Implied within this scenario is the notion that the organization's needs, in relation to the individual's needs, are much greater, broader, more specific, and that there is more power inherent within the organization as opposed to the individual. If the needs of one are met but not the needs of the other, there would be, again, a lack of 'fit', and the notion of the termination of the relationship

could still be part of the outcome. On the other hand, if there is a fit between individual needs and organizational needs, the outcome for each will be positive and will further enhance the relationship between both the individual and the organization. If both needs are potentially met, there is still the requirement of negotiating the needs of each. For example, if the employee has a strong need for socialization and has good skills and competencies that s/he brings to the organization, there will not necessarily be a fit if the employee maximizes her/his social needs in the absence of meeting the organizational needs. The employee must complete her/his work duties. Even in this apparently natural 'fit', there is still potential conflict between maximizing individual fulfilment and organizational needs.

Argyris (1990) refers to the needs of individuals and those of the organization where each has to "give a little" in order for both to 'profit from each other' (p. 3). He further hypothesizes that, in order for the organization to attain output from individuals, three conditions are necessary. The first condition is that individuals must value themselves and be motivated to perform better and increase their level of competence within the organization. It is assumed within this condition that the individuals' values are congruent with those of the organization's values. Conflicting values may pose the greatest challenges for individuals and possibly the organization, particularly where individuals are perceived as being a critical part of the organization. The instance where individuals are considered a key part may be much more the exception than the rule.

The second condition in Argyris' (1990) analysis refers to the need for individuals to define their goals and integrate these personal goals into the organizational goals. A clear definition of goals

for individuals in the organizational goals is an integral part to a good fit between individuals and the organization.

The third condition refers to the impact of society and culture on individuals and the organization. Individuals and the organization are a subsystem of the greater system of the environment and society. The value base of individuals and the organization are influenced by societal values and norms. Organizations exist because society values their contribution or, at best, tolerates their existence because they do not violate societal norms. The underlying assumption is that there needs to be a 'fit', even if only a loose one, between the value base of the organization and society as well as a 'fit' between the individuals' values in relation to the organization and societal values.

The lack of 'fit' between individuals and the organization can be related to a number of factors within the organization and the environment, individuals and their environment, and within individuals and the organization. The organization may be experiencing challenges to providing the same level of services while being provided with less resources (e.g., staffing or overall budgets). Individuals may be experiencing personal family stress such as the care of an elderly disabled parent, a sick child, or marital breakdown. Individuals may experience what Boyd (1992) refers to as 'decremental deprivation' where the expectations of the organization remain the same while the conditions within the organization worsen. In each situation, there is a stress between one's capacity to maintain a 'fit' and the need or desire to reduce the stressor.

Implied within the human resources framework is the notion of the organization and the individual as organisms or systems and that there is relatively continuous interaction among all those organisms that are part of systemic relationships within an organization or between the organization and its physical-social environment. The patterns of interaction that are a major focus of attention include: mutuality (e.g., creating and producing together); reciprocity (e.g., acting in a coordinated fashion such that each person does a share); and conflict resolution (within the organization or between social systems). The concept of "mutual benefit" refers in part to the 'fit' between an individual's needs and the organizational needs with the assumption that the needs of the individual are subservient to the needs of the organization. The "mutual benefit" concept is congruent with Theory Y, as explicated by McGregor (1966), with the underlying assumption that an individual is motivated to work for intrinsic reasons such as creativity, self-actualization and belongingness-the notion of considering and dealing with 'process' issues within the dynamics of organizational change.

The view contrasts with the bureaucratic-structural framework, for example, where the needs of the organization are considered primary with the individual being reified as part of the organization (much like a mechanical component)-dealing with content issues only. Of significance is that bureaucracies typically try to control and suppress conflict as if it is a pathology whereas an organization operating from a human relations perspective defines conflict as a normal part of human relations and the task of the organization is to process the conflict in creative as opposed to destructive, ways (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975). Within a human relations context, it is critically important that the needs of the organization and the needs of the

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individual be not only taken into account, but be given a high order of consideration in attempting to create and maintain a fit between both the individual and the organization.

The human resources frame provides a mechanism or way of viewing change in relation to the human resources and/or human relation needs of the employees who make up the organization. Human relations theorists have supported the hypothesis that, in order to manage a 'successful' change process, it is important that the collective human needs be valued and considered in relation to how the process and product of organizational change will affect them. The belief is that, while an organization may metaphorically interpret change as "restructuring", at a fundamental level, it is human processes that change. For example, if an organization's assumption is Theory Y (McGregor, 1966), management would assume that the collective is interested in being the best employees that they can be. Conversely, if the organization's assumptions are congruent with Theory X, management would assume that employees are not motivated to change and/or be productive.

In more fully understanding change and human responses to change, one needs to take into account the needs of the collective-each individual in her/his work context, as well as understand the underlying assumptions of management juxtaposed to those they manage. Within this context, the leadership questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2000) helps to understand the role of leadership in this particular change process. From a human relations perspective, individual and collective resistance to change may be understood in relation to employees feeling powerless, not believing they were a genuine part of the change process, and not feeling valued within the

process, and possibly the products of the change process. Conversely, employees who have the opportunity to provide what they define as meaningful input, which is perceived as being genuinely taken into account in the change process, can be expected to adapt with less resistance and be more supportive of the change (i.e., the Devine Questionnaire).

Some theorists have suggested that employees' perceptions of inclusive and meaningful participation are related to re-commitment to the "new organization". OD theory suggests that while human relations processes take time to change, the negative consequences of change are more likely. Responses to change processes and products can be measured, in part, by the levels of employee commitment to one another, and to organizational leaders, within the metaphor of belonging to "the organization".

The human relations frame is expected to provide another layer of analysis of the organizational change process. In this case study, the integration of the services of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections took place within a short period of time (12 months). From a human relations perspective, the researcher is interested to analyze the input social worker had into the organizational change process, its impacts on them and on their clients, as well as the impacts on levels of commitment to the organization, their intentions to leave the organization and their perceptions of some of their leaders throughout the organizational change experience. The human relations frame is expected to provide another layer of analysis which may help to attain a deeper understanding of the organizational change process and its impacts on social workers and the perceived impacts on client services.

Political Power Theories

The political power frame, according to Bolman and Deal (1997), asserts that, "...in the face of enduring differences and scarce resources, conflict among members of a coalition is inevitable and power inevitably becomes a key resource" (p. 187). The literature presents a number of differing views of power and power distribution within society. Two of the views of power and power distribution are presented for analysis. The first view maintains that power is concentrated within the hands of the elite in society (Armitage, 1996). The elite have been identified by Porter in Armitage (1996) as groups consisting of economic, labour, and political and bureaucratic elites, as well as an ideological elite composed of media, higher learning, and clergy. The elite are believed to control most of the important decisions in society. The focus of the elite is on protecting their own interests in relation to anything material or symbolic that they consider to be of value. The focus is on the benefits they can derive, and the opportunities that they can control from the organization or society in general, in relation to organizational structures, missions, goals and interpersonal dynamics. Maintaining the power and control of the elite (those who are positioned to influence) within their particular domain (e.g., media) is a central theme in conceptualizations of power in organizations. The elite exercise a range of expansive influence within organizations at both the corporate and governmental levels, as well as at the community, national, and international levels. The elite exercise significant influence on social and other public policies, and on how these policies are developed, formulated, interpreted, and selectively and opportunistically implemented.

Another conceptualization of power and its distribution is referred to as the pluralistic model. The pluralist view asserts that there are many groups in society with competing interests and agendas and that the elite is only one sub-group of stakeholders in the exercise of power and control. While there may be competing values within the elite, they may present a common front with respect to public policy. But, in competition with the elite are a wide range of groups that through size, organization or public credibility, may exercise power in competition with those representing elite interests. Each group promoting competing values may try to influence the development, interpretation, and implementation of policies within community and organizations (Paulsen, & Hernes, 2003). One of the primary assumptions under the pluralistic model is that all voices have some opportunity to be heard (Popple & Leighninger, 1998), even if that is not an equal opportunity.

Inherent within the political model is the theory of conflict within and between organizations and among different stakeholder groups. Conflict theory assumes that there are inherent conflicts and contradictions built into society, organizations and persons, and the development and delivery of policies and programs within such organizations. Conflict is viewed as being a "natural" or expected part of organizational behaviour and interpersonal relationships. While conflict may not be resolved, and while there may be negative outcomes, pluralist thinkers encourage processes to resolve conflict, sometimes with a utilitarian assumption of the greatest good for the greatest number. Through the process of effective conflict resolution, the possible outcomes are viewed as being positive, with the assumption being that most viewpoints will be taken into account in arriving at a working consensus, if not an absolute consensus.

Both the elitist and the pluralistic views acknowledge and recognize that power exists. The key difference between each view is how power is distributed. The elitist view maintains a strong functionalist approach (Parsons, 1967), in that power is vested within a small powerful group within society and that the exercise of power and control function to create and maintain social order. The belief is that the elite and its structure is so powerful that, in the short run, most members of society, even those who come together with a common interest, are powerless to effect change. The belief is that, in the short run, societal structures are maintained even if there are changes in the turbulent environment surrounding the organization and government. When structural change takes place, it is likely to happen over time, be incremental, and still maintain the power, control and interests of the elite.

The pluralist view maintains that many different groups within society share and exchange power (Blau, 1987). The struggle for power among various groups is seen as having potentially positive outcomes where the best interests for the collective results from this struggle. The pluralist view may recognize the inequities of power between competing groups but does not analyse the relative impacts of elastic and unequal influence on, for example, policy development, formulation, interpretation, and implementation. The reality is that some groups may have much less power than other groups and may not have an obvious or influential a voice.

Inherent within the political frame are the concepts of the relatively powerful, the relatively powerless, and the struggles between both. There are a number of sub-concepts of power. Armitage (1996) views power as a means of social control, which he defines as: " a process

through which a group influences the behaviour of its members through conformity with its norms" (p. 96). There are a number of different types of power espoused by Armitage (1996), including:

- physical or coercive power-power by force or control such as that used by the military or the police. Physical or coercive power includes the notion that power has been lost by the "power-ful" and taken over by the "power-less"

- utilitarian power-implies a process of negotiating with a client or organization regarding services, policies, or organizational structures-the provision of goods and services such as social assistance cash payments. Such form of power includes, providing services which, as a latent goal, serves to prevent those without means to provide for themselves, from behaving in an illegal or criminal manner with the subsequent notion of potential societal chaos

- normative or social power-a symbolic type of power which can be given through self esteem or social symbols, such as identity confirmation or dis-confirmation, by a supervisor as a means of social control.

Power can have either positive or negative connotations. Coercive power suggests a negative connotation in that it is oppressive in nature. Utilitarian power and normative power imply a

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more egalitarian approach, or at least an exchange approach, where there can be negotiating or the giving and taking of power through symbolic gestures.

Power within organizations can manifest itself in an empowering or disempowering context. Bureaucratic types of organizations have traditionally been viewed as being disempowering. Jackall (1988) studied management groups within a number of bureaucratic organizations. In his analysis of bureaucracy, he stated that; "... it is also a system of power, privilege, and domination" (p. 10). His conceptualization of bureaucracy refers to both government and non-government organizations. The period of his study (1988) included a very turbulent time for many organizations with restructuring and downsizing being implemented. His analysis included the hypothesis that lower levels of management continually had to symbolically and concretely support their superiors. The implication in the analysis is that, in times of rapid change and uncertainty, the more powerful members of the organization increase their power. The focus of the less powerful in the organization is upon survival. The gap between the "power-ful" and the "power-less" may be widened in times of uncertainty. Managers' focus on determining the rules of survival.

The changing power structure within the organization may contribute to the less powerful diverting their focus from one of development and growth or, self-actualization, to one of survival (Jackall, 1988). In times of uncertainty and ambiguity, anxiety levels are likely raised and a spirit of cooperation may be displaced by a spirit of competition as insecurity motivates some to maintain their position (benefit) at the cost of others. Under conditions of personal

insecurity, motives may become personalized as contrasted with internalized, collective motives under conditions of more security. Under conditions of relative security, forums for cooperation may be developed such as quality circles and teamwork. While the manifest goal is one of cooperation, the latent goal is one of competition; the political-economic situation of an organization would influence the relative importance of cooperation in change or competition-based change in organizations. In a depersonalized and hierarchical power environment, teams may be 'used' by higher levels within the organization where innovative ideas or concepts may be usurped or "stolen" by the higher levels of management.

When the focus throughout the organization is upon survival (a lower level need), the organization's ability to grow and develop becomes limited. The continued existence of the organization may come into question in a competitive environment. The change in the power differential can result in the organization's existence terminating.

The whole notion of morality becomes very contextual within the dynamic of corrupt power. Managers' ways of behaving become highly situational and contextual. Unpredictability is the norm. The notion of corrupt power implies that the underlying values of the organization have been diminished or may be non-existent. Lacking values to guide organizational behaviour, individuals with less power may be at great risk of losing self determination and/or may be at risk of obliteration. Unpredictability increases stress and anxiety, which increases the risk of non-rational behaviour. The organization may be in great danger of entering a state of negative entropy (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997), and eventually ceasing to exist.

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Gaventa (1980) presents a similarly pessimistic view of power within organizations. He refers to the concept of 'patterns of prevalence' (p. 153), which refers to the notion that, over time, those in power continually assert their power in ways that give little or no opportunity for the powerless to attain any power. Subsequently, unilateral decisions appear to be passively accepted and without question; this may be also referred to as 'learned helplessness'. Gaventa (1980) states that, "Power serves to create power. Powerlessness serves to reinforce powerlessness. Power relationships, once established, are self sustaining" (p. 256). From the concept of powerlessness, Gaventa jumps to the notion of rebellion as a means of dealing with power or, more accurately stated, powerlessness. There is a sense that the only way to change being powerless is to overcome the power-ful and to take over power; a polarized view. In this conceptualization, who has the power shifts. However, the dynamic of the power-ful and the power-less remains unchanged.

In contrast to Gaventa (1980), is the concept of power as developed by Friere (1972). Friere developed the concept of consciousness raising or 'conscientization', which suggests the notion of educating those without power to understand those who have power. Consciousness raising, in this sense, implies the notion of taking a share of power rather than overtaking the powerful. The outcome is more likely to be one where the fundamental concept of power is changed with a genuine sharing of power in society.

Another view of power is explained by Popple and Leighninger (1998) in which they describe Arendt's view of power. Arendt views power as being put there by others. Power within this

context is given, not taken. Individuals, groups, or organizations have power only because it was given or bestowed upon them by the organization, the community, or society. Implicit within this view of power is that the collective can, at any time, decide to take back power from those on whom the power was bestowed. The view of power being given is a much more positive and optimistic view in that it is more tenuous, more fluid, more flexible, and can change if those who exercise it do not act in a manner which is congruent with the values or wishes of the collective. Such a transactional concept of power dynamics has a less oppressive connotation than a static and more hierarchical notion, supporting the prospect of change through resistance or collective action.

The typical bureaucratic interpretation is a hierarchical organizational structure with much of the power vested at the top. Bureaucracy can be inwardly focused on maintaining its organizational structure and functioning as opposed to being focused on the external environment or the client. Bureaucracies can become focused primarily on obtaining and strengthening their own positions of power. Etzioni-Halevy (1983) puts forth the thesis that bureaucracies and bureaucrats can become so powerful as to pose a threat to democracy. As well, bureaucracies are organizations which are often slow to change; arguably, one of the dynamic factors blocking change is a wish by various stakeholders in the hierarchy to maintain and even enhance their power. On face value, this dynamic is interpreted as the administration maintaining the structures of the organization. In the interest of creating and maintaining opportunities for power, the organizational-administrative focus may become primarily one of developing systems and

structures of the bureaucracy which maintains their power, rather than focusing on the client systems and/or the external environment.

The more complex the bureaucracy becomes over time, the greater the knowledge base of the decision makers; the consolidation of knowledge at the higher reaches of the hierarchy promotes a cycle of knowledge as power reinforcing the power of those who control knowledge. A reasonable hypothesis is that if knowledge is power, and if in complex organizations, knowledge to support major policy and program decisions is consolidated within the hierarchy, then the greater the power of the decision makers, the greater the risk that those who lead the bureaucratic organization will act in an undemocratic manner. Efforts to change the formal power structures, in the best interest of clients or in the best interest of client-centered change, could prove to be very difficult with high levels of control.

Power can exist formally and informally within organizations. "Formal power is a function of concepts such as formal authority, control of resources, or of contingencies managed" (Kanter et al., 1992). Informal power can exist within individuals or groups in organizations. Individuals may have power in the form of a knowledge base, in the form of coalitions that they have developed informally within the organization, or in their charismatic talents to become informal leaders. Political maneuvering within organizations can be explicit and visible (appearing to be formal) but can also be less visible and can occur in less formalized settings (operating in the background as informal). Kanter (1992) refers to two types of coalitions. The dominant coalition symbolizes leadership and formal power; informal coalitions may exercise residual, but

have significant power. Kanter (1992) suggests that, even in the most highly bureaucratized organizations where a high level of power is vested in the top of the hierarchy, there still exists a sense of negotiating and 'jockeying' for support, thus recognizing a human relations and interpersonal relations aspect to power dynamics as acted out in everyday life of organizations.

The position of Kanter differs from that purported by Gaventa (1980) in which he asserts that those with high levels of authority and control are assumed to continue to increase that level of authority and control with less and less opposition (i.e., the 'patterns of prevalence'). The alternate political frame argues that in organizations, even with a clear hierarchy, jockeying for power is fluid, dynamic, and constant. As well, even power within the hierarchy is not stable or fixed; problems can develop within the dominant coalition when change is resisted in ways that do not benefit the organization or its leaders. This analysis applies the concept of 'goal displacement' to power analysis (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997), where it is argued that the primary goal becomes one of maintaining power within the organization as opposed to the primary goal of serving clients (as in human service organizations) or developing innovative products (as in entrepreneurial organizations). Goal displacement would contribute to organizational fixity rather than effective change.

Within the current context of knowledge based input and output within organizations, power shifts (Toffler, 1990; Aryris & Schon, 1978) can take place both inside and outside the organization. Inside the organization power can shift when new technologies, new knowledge bases, or new approaches to service provision are developed or introduced, and groups at levels

other than the top of the organization (e.g., research and development) have expert knowledge to give direction to product innovation, that might require more substantive organizational change. From a socio-technical systems perspective (Emery and Trist, 1965; Fox, 1995), for the organization to be more effective, it may have to change its social system to be more congruent with the technical system. The implication is that the power of the executive in the organization may become diminished and have to be shared with those who have expert knowledge, if effective and integrated change is to be supported. Other social forces are beyond the control of the executive in organizations; their choice is to be aware of turbulence in the environment (Terrebery, 1968) and to lead the organization in the direction of adaptive change (e.g., to labour-market forces). Some of the measures of adaptive change have been framed as issues of gender equity as a means of empowering organizational employees, both female and male, in a fashion that recognizes their need for quality of life, while, at the same time, recognizing that valued employees make valuable employees (Haas, 1999).

In human services organizations, for example, large scale unemployment such as that which takes place when major industries close down, can cause a need for major shifts in service provision and adaptation to new and unanticipated service needs. Within the Newfoundland context, for example, the closure of the East Coast Fishery demanded that new programs and services be developed quickly and innovatively to meet the needs of the new client group. The focus of a major human services organization (Human Resources Development Canada) had to change very quickly to respond to new client needs for programs and services to help cope with rapid and dramatic change resulting in the closure of the East Coast Fishery. Significant changes

ranged from career training to family stability regarding out-migration. In addition, the lives of some families changed dramatically when spouses also lost employment and family and extended family moved to other provinces.

Power within organizations has also been viewed as being evolutionary in nature. As new organizations are developed, they go through a number of phases in their development. Kanter (1992) identified three phases of what she refers to as a dominant coalition in organizations. In the first phase, responsibility is directed towards legitimizing need and securing the necessary capital. The second phase involves the necessary technical and administrative skills necessary, while the third phase is administrative, where administrators' functions become more important within the organization. Within this context the power shift appears to move down through the organization (e.g., from a board of directors to the chief executive officer) as the organization and its programs become established. Thus, there is the notion that power shifts throughout the development of an organization and the power shifts may impact on how organizations adapt to organizational change processes.

Throughout the life cycle of organizations, resistance to change can have political motives when those with power perceive that they could lose power-a 'tectonic shift' in the distribution of power (Nadler & Nadler, 1998). Political conflict is likely in most organizations; stakeholder interests are often conflicting. Commitment to the organization, by those at the top or at the bottom, is made difficult as the organization faces heterogeneity in values, combined with sudden and unpredictable environmental shifts, and reductions in organizational performance.

Many organizations today may experience rapid change as they respond to environmental and technical changes. From a political and power perspective, the base of the power within the organization may shift quickly. This is particularly true within the knowledge organization, where knowledge is power and power is vested in an individual or individuals in the organization rather than the organizational leader. Knowledge as power within this context may not follow in a predictable or apparently logical pattern as the organization may respond quickly to environmental changes, as in the computer industry or HIV/AIDS services, for example. The organizational structure or organizational chart of innovative and knowledge organizations, whether on a formal or informal level, will not likely emulate the classical bureaucracy.

Power within organizations is often viewed negatively, particularly when presented in relation to those with power, using that power to meet their own needs and not the needs of the organization, its workers, and its clients. Power can be used to enhance the functioning of an organization and to help better meet the needs of its clients or customers. The traditional view of bureaucracy suggests that bureaucracies are more inwardly focused and often fail to adequately consider the needs of its customers or clients. Bureaucracies can function by being more outwardly focused; they may need to be more explicit in stating and implementing their values and goals. Power within organizations may exist because that power is bestowed or given, therefore, it can change if individuals or the collective decide change is needed and, subsequently, act to effect positive change (Newell, 1995) from a 'process' context. Conversely, power can be used to stifle effective change or lead to a change process which may be ineffective, using tactics to ensure the implementation of a change process is not carried out in a

manner in which it was intended to be carried out. Power could also be used to make changes such as cost controls or to limit the kinds and levels of services provided. It is the use, misuse, or abuse of power which negatively impacts on organizations and organizational change processes.

The political power frame offers another way to understand organizational change in relation to how individuals and groups in organizations effect change. This frame also provides a framework for understanding how those presumed to have little power may be affected by change when they have little genuine opportunity or ability to influence the change processes and products. In addition, the political power frame is important in helping one to understand how organizations respond to change. The collective (front line social workers, for example) may organize themselves into a group that can have an impact on ensuring that change takes place in a manner which is more responsive to consumers. For example, social workers (as a collective) could organize to advocate for increased services to families on child protection caseloads who require respite for single parents, as part of legislation which supports prevention services and as part of the move to a community health board model of service delivery. Also, the view of the collective on how leaders in organizations share power, may be important in terms of individual and collective commitment to change, the organization and the leaders. Those without power or who believe that they have very little power in organizational change processes may have lower levels of commitment to the organization and may have intentions to leave the organization, particularly if they perceive that they had little or no input, or conclude that the input they provided was not valued. The power relations frame is expected to provide another layer of analysis of the organizational change process in consideration of the integration of the programs

of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections to a Community Health board

model, as it relates to felt power (or lack thereof) by social workers and its effects on them and

the perceived effects on client services.

Psychodynamic Theories

Pscychodynamic theories have their origins in the work of Freud (1914, 1952) and the

developmental work of his followers, including Jung (1951, 1970), Fromm (1965), Adler (1927),

Sullivan (1953), as well as others. The theories are termed 'psychodynamic' because their

fundamental assumptions suggest that the expressions and actions of persons (individually and

collectively) may be understood and accounted for by developmental and experiential impacts on

intrapsychic phenomena - some of which are conscious and some of which impact in an

unconscious fashion (Payne, 1997). Psychodynamic concepts and propositions draw attention to

the interaction between intrapsychic phenomena and the behaviour of the individuals within their

environments; attempting to understand not only the *how* of organization life, but, also, the *why*

of organization life (Kets de Vries, 1995). Psychodynamic theory, from its Freudian origins, has

concentrated its work primarily on individuals, families and, to some extent, groups. Some

theorists, most notably Erich Fromm, commented on societal dynamics and the social condition

(e.g., The Sane Society, 1954). The literature on psychodynamic theory as it relates to

organizational development has been somewhat limited (Gabriel, 1999; Kets de Vries, 1991;

Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984; Levinson, 1972; Argyris, 1985; Steiner, 1969).

Kets de Vries and Miller(1984), for instance, present a comprehensive analysis of some of the dynamics of organizations as non-rational and how non-rational behaviour can have a significant impact on the development and functioning of organizations. Kets de Vries and Miller also present a view of organizations, leaders, and groups within organizations from the perspective of being abnormal or pathological, as well as more normal and healthy. They present what they refer to as 'neurotic styles' of organizational functioning. The neurotic is sometimes characterized as existing within the top leader(s) of the organization and permeating, in some fashion, throughout the organization. Five dysfunctional types of neurosis are identified and are briefly summarized.

- The *paranoid organization* is characterized by suspiciousness and distrust of others. It is overly concerned with hidden motives and meanings and is characterized as being cold, rational, and unemotional. The organization is characterized by a lack of trust and suspicion. It is susceptible to a loss of capacity to act spontaneously as it is preoccupied with patterns of relationship characterized by defensive routines.

- The *compulsive organization* tends to be perfectionist in nature, lacking in spontaneity and in power relations. This organization is inward oriented and is indecisive. It avoids making decisions for fear of making mistakes. Once a plan of action is decided upon, it is hard to change. Reliance on rules and regulations is excessive.

- The *dramatic organization* is characterized by self dramatization, excessive expression of emotions alternating between idealization and the devaluation of others, as well as a craving to be active and to generate activity and excitement. Actions often tend to be

based on hunches and overreactions to minor events. Individuals in this type of organization tend to be used and abused.

- The *depersonal organization* is characterized by feelings of guilt, worthlessness, helplessness, hopelessness, loss of interest, and motivation. This organization is overly pessimistic in its outlook, inhibited in its actions and indecisive.

- The *schizoid organization* is detached, indifferent to praise or criticism, and shows a lack of interest in the present or the future. Bewilderment and aggressiveness can also be characteristic of this type of organization.

Leaders in neurotic organizations use strategies, structures, and organizational cultures which result in the development of a particular type of organization. Creating a particular set of values on the basis of a neurosis may result in an organization which is characterized by a particular focus or direction in terms of its overall development, which may be destructive in nature. Developing stories and myths with the underlying notion that other individuals or organizations are 'out to get' the neurotic organization will create a particular atmosphere and a particular pattern of functioning within organizations which can be to the detriment of the organization and individuals within that particular organization.

'Shared fantasies', 'group mentality', and 'group think' are concepts that have been used to describe group processes, oftentimes in organizational contexts. A number of authors have studied the phenomena of organizational groups (Bion, 1959; Bales, 1970; Janis, 1982; Malcolm, 1973). Group mentality, according to Bion, refers to the notion of the members of the group

having thoughts, emotions, and desires which symbolically contribute as part of the group and through which the group's collective or shared preconscious impulses and desires are gratified. Group fantasies are characterized by wishes and expectations, rationally or irrationally based, which are given priority. Events, interpreted as accidents and as unplanned, but based on unconscious desires, are used to create symbolic meaning with other selected elements and chance combinations elaborated upon to add depth and integrity to the symbolism. The elaboration of wishes, desires, and symbolic meanings are acted out in cooperation as an interpersonal process; the process itself, independent of the imagery, becomes increasingly reinforcing (Bales, 1970). The shared fantasies combine to form a symbolic reality that is further defined in terms of the organization's culture or identity.

Bion (1959) discussed two particularly significant aspects of group behaviour. The first is the overt and specific task to be performed. The second aspect refers to the basic personal and collective dynamics that are seen as operating at a primitive level and are of a regressive nature. Under conditions of insecurity, the organization and its members, in the neurotic organization, create or sustain an atmosphere of distrust, suspicion, indifference and indecisiveness, as well as feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, which can result in organizations and their members selectively interpreting certain behaviours in a non-rational manner which reflect the organization's myths, legends, and other historical, contextual or experiential narratives.

Group behaviour, according to Bion (1959), can be grouped into three categories. The first category is the *fight/flight group* of organizations. Within this group it is assumed that there is an

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enemy 'out there' against which the organization must defend itself or must escape from the threat of other organizations. In such organizations, the approach is to try to manage anxiety in an environment that is seen as being extremely dangerous. People are not believed or trusted. Defensive routines include an outward focussed approach (externalization)-blaming others rather than engaging in self reflection. Perceptions may become very rigid and the group may avoid or attack goals. On the other hand, once goals are set, they may be defined or related to as if they are not subject to change or open discussion. The focus is often on means to an end or the organization's processes, instead of goals (goal displacement). The fight/flight approach is associated with a very insular management style, with a closed and rigid view of the world, which is difficult to change or develop. In this model, power is likely to be centralized in the leader.

The second group, *the dependency group*, is dependent on the omnipotent leader. This group's main need is that of idealization. Members want to become part of the all powerful leader and share in the power. The leader is seen as being incapable of making errors. Security of organizational members is based in part on a feeling of oneness with the leader(s) and a high level of related security. The dependency group is characterized by three phases. The first phase is leader dominated, where the organization is dominated by the very powerful or charismatic leader. He may surround himself with compliant managers who believe in his talents or goals. In the second phase, rigid policies and rules may be developed that replace the leader. The charismatic style turns to a bureaucratic one. The final phase may involve a takeover of the firm

by another organization. This can result in the executive group becoming passive and apathetic. They move through a maintenance mode of managing.

The third type of group is referred to as the *utopian group* which is characterized by a messianic wish or desire that everything will work out best for the future. There is a great sense of hope that an ideal person or group will deliver the organization or team from hatred, destructiveness, and despair. The concern is that there is so much emotional energy invested in the future that the present problems, as well as the lessons of the past, are often ignored. In such organizations, many diverse kinds of experimentation in the organization can take place such as parallel organizations, management by objectives, and Theory Z. These are seen as ideal structural environments which may not be congruent with a particular organization and its context.

Each of the three types or assumptions of group behaviour as identified by Bion (1959) are reflective of non-rational behaviour and closed and rigid thinking. In the fight/flight type of group, there is an assumption of a hostile environment and, subsequently, a constant level of anxiety regarding who might be 'out there' to cause destruction to the organization. Organizations which do not focus on the external environment can become insular and function in a manner which is unresponsive to its clients or customers. On the other hand, the extreme outward focus does not provide the organization with the ability to self reflect and respond in a balanced manner to external as well as internal issues. The dependency and utopian groups are somewhat similar in that there is a dependency on the omnipotent leader who will save the organization. There is often an excessive focus on unquestioned power vested in one

person/leader and a focus on the idealized future with little emphasis being placed on current issues or challenges. The focus on the omnipotent leader and her/his unquestioned power can result in an undemocratic, dictatorial leader who can focus the goals of the organization or goals and values which may be incongruent with its clients or customers and possibly with societal values. Within an organizational context, an analysis of the three assumptions can be useful as starting points for organizations to assess their functioning, as well as their goals and objectives in relation to the organization on a more balanced basis.

Interpersonal relationships within organizations, particularly as it relates to leadership, also have an influence on how a neurotic organization may function. Kets de Vries and Miller (1984) identify three major patterns of transference. Interpersonal relationships, particularly as it relates to leadership, may also influence how a neurotic organization may function. Three types of transference are articulated as a heuristic:

(1) *idealizing transference* - the leader is viewed as being perfect, without any flaws;

(2) *mirror transference* - the leader tends to be narcissistic and exploitive; and

(3) *persecutory transference* - the leader confirms his own sense of persecution by "justifiable" hostility and attacks against others who, in turn, are considered hostile.

The three types of transference in relation to leadership in organizations (idealized, mirror, persecutory) tend to be characterized as being without flaws, narcissistic, and/or to contain attitudes of hostility or envy. Each of the types of leadership can present problems for organizations in that the focus tends to be on an omnipotent individual as viewed by others in the

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organization or by the individual herself/himself. A persecutory style of leadership in organizations can lead to an oppressive environment where employees will lack motivation due to the oppressive environment in which they work. From an organizational development perspective, in relation to the human resources frame, each of these styles of leadership would be viewed as having a potentially strong, negative impact on the organizational culture and long-term development. Within the human relations frame, the positive interactions and communication between the individuals in the organization are critical to the organization functioning in a productive manner; the neurotic organization paradigm suggests that pathology must be healed (changed) and then more positive human relations can thrive (Argryris, 1990; Levinson, Molonari & Spohn, 1972).

On the other hand, from a structural bureaucratic perspective, the concern would be on how the leader develops and maintains organizational and service structure. There would be little concern for the leader's approach, style or pathology as the focus would be on how effectively the structure responds to organizational and client needs. In either frame (i.e., human relations or structural bureaucratic frame), a dynamic concept such as transference, in relation to leadership, is an area which requires consideration in how it impacts on the organization as a whole.

Change within organizations can present many challenges. Resistance to change is not uncommon. There are a number of defence mechanisms that are identified by Kets de Vries and

Miller (1984) in resisting change. They are briefly summarized below:

- In *repression*, feelings and thoughts are moved to an unconscious level. Therefore, individuals are often not consciously aware of strong negative feelings that act as inhibitors to change, even otherwise desirable change.

- *Regression* refers to adapting to earlier forms of behaviour in dealing with stressful, current situations where one may feel uncomfortable or insecure. Regressive thoughts, feelings, actions, and interpersonal relationship patterns promote security associated with earlier developmental experiences and earlier learning from previous experiences. Regression may contribute to resistence to change.

- *Projection* involves ascribing to another individual or group, an attitude that one possesses but that one also rejects consciously in oneself. It is exemplified in 'blaming the victim'. The conflict associated with ascribing to one's own unconscious (or less than fully conscious) beliefs, attitudes, values, and feelings, may be expressed as resistance by the person doing the projecting or by those receiving the projected thoughts and feelings.

- *Identification* refers to the notion that a person thinks, feels, or acts as s/he perceives a significant other (or collective others) to be. If a person or collective identifies with the forces of resistance as opposed to change, then identification will likely block or subvert change efforts.

- *Reaction formation* refers to a pair of contradictory concepts or attitudes of which one of the contradictory parts is rejected and the person emphasizes its diametric opposite. For example, an individual (or group) may unconsciously reject an organizational change

process and be overly compliant with the process at a conscious (and behavioural) level (its opposite).

- *Denial* is an attempt to deny the existence of events or realities in an organization. An example is where a person is demoted but continues to behave as if s/he is still in the original position within the organization. Denial, and the related defence of minimizing reality, are patterns that may set up powerful blocks to organizational change.

Individuals or groups within organizations may express resistance through any of these defence mechanisms; they most likely will be experienced by the organization in some combination. There is most often an unconscious dynamic (for the individual and the collective) that enables employees and the collective to interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions as being appropriate, justified, and integrated. Resistance may not be acknowledged or, if acknowledged, would be used to rationalize resistance to change as being justified. Alternately, change may be supported which is ineffective. Under conditions of significant defensive routines, organizational change processes that are intended to be of benefit may be interpreted as being demoralizing, demotivating, and depressing; alternately, for change agents, the resistance to needed change may be discouraging.

The change process in organizations involves a number of steps that Kets de Vries and Miller (1984) refer to as the 'working through process'. In the first phase, *shock*, the organization is in a state of disarray where normal functioning comes to a halt or becomes more ritualistic than real. The second phase, *disbelief*, involves the flight/fight and dependency function. The organization

tends to be reactive in its functioning and oriented towards past modes of operating. In the third

phase, *discarding,* there is an acceptance of the new organization or the new structure of the

organization. There is still some occasional tendency towards flight behaviour such as intentions

to leave the organization. Exploration of the change is tentative. In the fourth phase, *realization,*

the organization is reorganized and is taking a proactive approach to operating under new

interpersonal rules. In the latter stage, the organization becomes more futuristic in orientation.

While each of these developmental steps are logically constructed in an orderly manner,

consistent with developmental theory, in reality one would expect overlap within an

organizational unit and multiple expressions of transition among different organizational units.

Argyris (1999) presents a view of organizations within the psychodynamic frame which he

conceptualizes as *defensive routines*, which refer to:

> policies or practices that prevent organizations (and their agents) from experiencing
>
> embarrassment or threat *and* at the same time prevent them from identifying and reducing
>
> the causes of embarrassment or threat (Argyris, 1999, p. 438).

For example, an organization which develops a policy of decentralization may experience

problems in decentralizing due to defensive routines. In a decentralized model, authority is

delegated to a subordinate(s). The superior may feel uncomfortable about such authority being

delegated where the superior still feels responsible for the actions of the subordinate. However,

the new decentralization is viewed positively and the superior feels that his 'resistance' is

'undiscussable'. Subsequently, the superior may require the subordinate to 'run exceptional

cases by me', or to state that there should be 'no surprises'. This leads to the subordinate feeling

a lack of trust which is undiscussable. The superior also feels a lack of trust of the subordinate which is also undiscussable. The lack of trust can lead to the subordinate distancing herself/himself from the superior and abiding by policies to the letter but not abiding by the spirit of the policy. The issue continues to become undiscussable with increasing tension between both parties and may result in the superior tightening controls, procedures, and processes for the subordinate. It is the undiscussability of the issue(s) which create a 'dysfunction' within the organization. This dysfunction becomes part of the organizational culture and maintains an organizational culture which lacks trust, stability, and growth for the organization and its employees. In some instances, such a culture could lead to the termination of the organization.

Organizations or segments of organizations may get stuck in the change process; the process may influence the content of the change in relation to who gets what, when, how. The fight/flight culture could prevail where blame is placed on different sections of the organization. Individuals or groups may take on the role of the scapegoat, blaming themselves for minor mishaps and behaving in a passive and helpless manner. Successful change processes within organizations require organizational leaders to be aware of non-rational behaviour as a symptom of resistance. Having an integral understanding of the change process and the steps involved in this process can help leaders to facilitate the change process by respecting and working through the underlying thoughts and emotions of individuals and collectives which are not always rational, in relation to the change process.

The application of the psychodynamic frame to organizations and organizational development and change presents a complex view of organizations and how the actions of individuals and the collective may be interpreted. Research in this area of organizational analysis and development has been somewhat limited. However, the concepts associated with psychodynamic theory provides some insight into possible interpretations of seemingly non-rational actions. Within this context, perceptions, feelings, and actions that resist change or otherwise constitute reactions to change may represent expected defensive routines and these apparently irrational personal and interpersonal processes may be both functional and reduce effectiveness. The application of psychodynamic theory, concepts, and models provides a framework for looking at, assessing, and developing hypotheses about how the individual and the collective within the organization manage planned change such as structural change or organizational development. This frame presents another way of analysing change and of providing some possible explanations for non-rational expression and activity by individuals and collectives, including management and leaders. Extrapolating to issues of organizational commitment and intentions to leave the organization, one would analyze non-rational expression, especially at cognitive and affective levels, that supports resistance as well as adaptation to change.

In this case study the psychodynamic frame is expected to provide another way of analyzing organizational change processes and products. The integration of the programs of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections took place within a limited time frame (12 months). The pace of the organizational change process was rapid and pervasive. Resistance to change may be interpreted as being non-rational by organizational leaders, for example, while defensive

routines may be re-interpreted as a way for social workers to cope with change which may be adaptive where there are high levels of uncertainty in a rapidly changing organizational environment.

Action Learning Approach

Action learning, action research, participatory research, "action science", community-based action research, and participatory action research are terms which may be used to describe organizational change processes designed to help guide informed action and creative learning as opposed to reactive change. For the purposes of the current study, the terms action research and action learning will be used to describe the key elements of the change process within this frame. Currently in, action research "some of the people in the organization or community under study participate actively with the professional researcher through the research process from the initial design to the final presentation of results and discussion of their action implications" (Whyte, 1991, p. 20). Participatory research is, first and foremost, applied research - the collection and organization of knowledge to give direction to change.

Action research evolved out of three classic conceptualizations, according to Whyte (1991). *Social research methodology* is the first stream. In this view the social researcher seeks to discover basic scientific facts and/or relationships. However, s/he does not become directly involved in linking the research to social action or does not attempt to implement a particular piece of research.

The second stream *is participation in decision making by lower-ranking organizational members.* In the 1970s there was a growing interest by management in worker participation in an improved quality of work life (QWL). This program focused on the human needs and interpersonal relationship aspect of work within organizations. Similar models have been adopted in third world countries where local inhabitants are involved in land usage (Korpela, Montealegre, & Poulymenakou, 2003). After the September 11, 2001, incidents in the USA, there was a call for increased citizen participation in public organizational change (Vigoda-Gadot, 2003). Some authors define participation as one of the core characteristics of good governance (Rondinelli & Cheema, 2003). Assumptions included the working hypothesis that, if an individual experiences a higher quality of life in the workplace and in her/his community, s/he will become a more productive individual, as well as experience a higher quality of life overall.

The third stream is referred to as the *socio-technical framework.* The underlying thinking behind this framework is: "that the workplace is not simply a social system, understanding behavior at work depends on integration of social and technological factors" (Whyte, 1991, p. 11). This perspective suggests that there are interactive impacts of the technological system of an organization on the social system and vice versa. There is an interdependence of one on the other and that it is best to manage this interdependence in a conscious and planful way than by default. Understanding how individuals adapt to changing technologies within the work environment can assist researchers in understanding how the best fit can be developed between the individual and her/his technological environment or to the collective and their technological environment. The concern with the interface between techno-systems and social systems, to be congruent, must not

only pay attention to the organization's concern with production but also to the personal, interpersonal and collective needs of members of the organization.

The various action research strategies that inform action learning approaches to organizational change are reflective of a convergence of the applied research theme (evidence based change), the participation theme (people support what they help create), and the socio-technical systems theme (enabling technical systems change and social systems change to be mutually supporting). Action learning, also being evaluation oriented, helps the change agent focus on multiple outcomes that are assumed to be interactive - outcomes for workers, management and clients (consumers).

Action learning may also be conceptualized in terms of three main research strategies (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996). The first type is referred to as *technical action research*. This type of research focuses primarily upon effectiveness and efficiencies within educational, professional, and managerial types of practices; the facilitator in this model is usually an outside expert. The second model is referred to as the *practical model*. Efficiency and effectiveness are also important with the added dimension of self reflection by practitioners (Lopes & Theisohn, 2003; Robinson & Schroeder, 2004). The facilitator's role is one of encouraging participation and self reflection in a cooperative milieu. The third model is referred to as the *emancipatory model*-this includes components of the technical and practical models. As well, this model seeks transformation and change within the individual and the larger systems and sub-systems of the organization. This latter approach to action research aims to empower individuals and to help

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surface and construct grounded theory to support effective change and to overcome resistance

(Glasser & Strauss, 1967); the emphasis is on complex problems being analyzed and solved in a

cooperative group effort. All individuals in such groups may be considered to be equal from the

perspective of offering valuable insights into problems, needs and effective directions for change,

at both a process and product level.

Each type of action research can be used with any organization, with the first type being an

incremental approach where minor symptoms can be addressed, the second and third types being

more reflective of assessing the organization's values, mission, and goals and organizational

development processes.

Action learning may be approached from a number of perspectives as previously outlined.

However, there are some common themes that are fundamental to the process of action research

as indicated by Stringer (1996). These include processes that:

> (1) are rigorously empirical and reflective (or interpretative); (2) engage people who have
>
> traditionally been called "subjects" as active participants in the research process; and, (3)
>
> result in some practical outcome related to the lives or work of the participants.(p. xvi).

From these three common themes, one can clearly see that the process is, first and foremost,

active, in that individuals who would normally be considered as subjects in research are viewed

as more active participants in the research enterprise under action research and action learning.

The subjects very much become participants in the process of the research and development,

particularly in the change process where the results of action research are used to inform and sustain planned change.

Another underlying thesis in the action research approach is related to the belief that study and observation must differentiate between a person's, group's, or organization's *espoused theory* of problem, need, and action (what persons purport to believe is true) from *theories in use* (inferred from the action of persons and organizations) that may differ from stated beliefs, attitudes, and values (Argyris, 1999, 1990). The implication is that serious incongruence between espoused theories of action and theories of action in use may account for some blocks or resistence to effective change.

As well, Argyris put forward the notions of single loop and double loop learning. From an action research and organizational change perspective, people state what they accept, believe in, and support. There are often inconsistencies or discrepancies between espoused theories and theories-in-use, as well as a lack of awareness of these discrepancies. Consequently, one may continue to make errors in judgement. Attempts may be made to try to correct the errors. However, without being able to conscientiously identify and relearn how the problem is defined, one may continue to make the same errors using different strategies because the underlying assumptions or theories-in-use deal with symptoms of the problem and fail to deal with the underlying problem. The inability to redefine the problem is referred to as single-loop learning or first order change. Double-loop learning involves learning to reflect on reflection-in-action, as

well as to make the theories-in-use that form it, explicit. It can be referred to as thinking outside the box or thinking from a different point of view or different paradigm.

Problems within an organizational context are often related to the notion of a win-lose situation, of suppressing feelings, as well as being rational in approach. In double-loop learning, everyone participates in defining the problem or the purpose of the organization. Expression of feelings is encouraged. Double-loop learning involves explicitly reviewing the values of the organization. It provides an atmosphere for discussing all possible alternatives. Argyris (1985) suggests that, even when people are made aware of the limitations and possible negative consequences of single-loop learning, they may continue to behave in a non-productive way, particularly when situations become difficult and anxiety provoking. Organizational analysis and facilitation of effective change may require an outside consultant to help an organization to change to a double-loop learning process. As part of the change milieu, the promotion of more open double-loop learning provides one possible framework for effecting change in that the process seeks to assist organizational members to openly question assumptions and values, to express feelings, and to think, analyze, and brainstorm in a safe atmosphere of mutual respect. The assumption appears to be that increased openness and security and decreased defensiveness and insecurity may be promoted.

Action research came to be viewed as part of organizational diagnosis and active promotion of effective change in the 1940's (Lewin, 1997; Whyte, 1957). More ostensible participatory oriented research came to be viewed as a more democratic and cooperation building method of

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change management in the 1960s. An emphasis was on meaningful participation that had the prospect of being evident in the organizational change processes and outcomes.

The concept of change in relation to the action research frame in organizations may be conceptualized within the learning organization frame (Senge, 1990). The learning organization seeks personal growth for the employees of an organization in an ongoing and meaningful manner. The learner assumes responsibility for her/his own learning. Experiential, self-directed learning is the norm in the learning organization, where the manager acts primarily as a facilitator for individual and collective growth and development. Learning, in a learning organization, is an active process of learning through participation, reflection, and creation that supports effective continuous change (Gilley et. al, 2001). Learning organization concepts incorporate systems and cognitive theory notions in the interest of integrating observations and responses to external and internal environments of the organization, as well as adapting to the challenges of continuous change. From a human services perspective, organizational members must be able to actively and consciously adapt to an ever changing environment, where change is an ongoing process of continually seeking better ways and means to provide services to clients as well as to improve organizational functioning.

Transformative learning occurs in the learning organization when prior patterns of thinking are less effective and new ways of thinking and being are created, resulting in a new "self concept" to guide the transformation from current to future symbols and action. In the transformation to new cognitive constructs and actions, the organization re-creates itself. The process of

reconstructing organizational "self concept" is continuous and ongoing, and is integrated with renewed motivation and internalized collective feeling. Learning is achieved individually as well as collectively - the organization may be viewed as a learning system, where learning and change are part of every day life (Senge, 1990). In concretizing the theory, Senge (1990) identifies what he refers to as five disciplines necessary in a learning organization. The five disciplines may be summarized briefly as follows:

1.   *Systems thinking* - there is a set of causal relationships, often complex, which can be described and which can lead to awareness and learning. The causal relationships may not be linear; one needs to be able to consider many different and non-conventional ways of viewing, thinking about, and understanding challenges within the external and internal environment of the organization.

2.   *Mental models* - beliefs and assumptions that people have that can prevent learning, if not challenged, or support learning. Within this discipline organizational members are challenged to think about how their assumptions may prevent them from considering alternatives that could support creative change while being contextually appropriate.

3.   *Personal mastery* - process of continuous learning and being open to new challenges and tension in moving through change. Traditional models tend to consider organizational change as an event; in the learning organization there is an ongoing tension in individuals, between individuals, and in the organization, as continuous change is consciously processed. Healthy tension is considered part of the lived experience in organizational life.

4. *Shared vision* - the ability of leaders to enable a common purpose and to support motivation for continuous individual and collective learning. A culture of active and conscious learning is part of the individual and collective experience.

5. *Team building* - developing teams to support creative and contextually relevant results. Team development is viewed as supporting collective learning in action while, respecting and encouraging individual differences within the process. (Kezar, 2005)

The learning organization is also a model of organizational development which may attempt to integrate micro to macro level changes; while disjointed incrementalism may be acknowledged, the emphasis is on using learning oriented developmental processes to consciously support effective transformational changes. The learning organization is not just a model for organizational change, it is a way of thinking and being for organizations which integrates modern and post modern frames.

The concept of 'communities-of-practice', in the action research literature, is another concept related to organizational change; it reflects a more informal approach to learning through dialogue, engaging in discussion, and experiential learning - a process intended to bring out and develop innovation and creativity within people (Hendry, 1996). Communities-of-practice also "...perform the function of forming and transmitting culture, practice, and ideas (Hendry, 1996, p. 629). As in action research, the focus is on experiential learning. Innovative and creative ideas are formed, developed, and implemented as part of the 'live' organization - an experiential systems approach to development and change. As part of the change experience, this process of

development connotes the notion of cognitive restructuring, where, through the process of innovative and creative ideas, and the development of these ideas within the organizational setting, individuals within organizations restructure their cognitive processes as part of the change process. The assumption appears to be that the collective will change their cognitive process at or about the same time, resulting in a cooperative change process as opposed to the notions that different individuals will cognitively conceptualize a changed reality at different times, which implies resistance to change. This cognitive restructuring is reflective of the cognitive and symbolic frame as discussed later in this text. It is through a creative and innovative approach and subsequent cognitive restructuring that, ultimately, the culture within the organization changes, albeit by an incremental process that takes place over a long period of time.

Implied within the communities-of-practice change management process are connotations of postmodernism where the narratives of the members of the community or of the organization are all considered. There is a recognition of the transmission of culture and ideas through complex and creative dialogue. From a postmodern perspective, the narratives of each individual reflect their own unique reality, their own individual stories. It is through the process of exploring the many different realities that the many possible organizational change processes may be explored (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996). Unique individual realities consider the postmodern approach which assumes the validity of each individual reality. From an organizational change perspective, the postmodern approach is challenged by the paradox of the value of the reality of each individual juxtaposed to a collective reality. The reality of each individual is of equal value in terms of

being heard. The organizational change process, therefore, can present itself with significant challenges where the collective realities differ from the individual realities and how the individual stories converge into a collective shared story of the new reality.

The processes associated with action research and action learning, participatory action research (and post-modern dialogue on change), also imply evaluation of opportunities and change. There is also the implication that rational, thoughtful, and participatory based change will not only inform effective change processes but will also give direction to evaluating the quality of needs, problems, opportunities, and related personal, group, and organizational changes.

Action research and action learning, from an organizational development perspective, finds its roots in the work of Kenneth Benne, Leland Bradford, and Ronald Lippitt who used the action frame in the 1940s. T-groups were employed to create cohesion, reduce defenses and resistence, and promote organizational change that respected the human element, not only in terms of needs and problems, but also in terms of respecting feelings as useful information in supporting more effective organizational change (training groups). This approach, from an organizational development perspective, is also consistent with Silverman's "Theory of Organizations" (1970) in that the organization is in continuous flux and has stability and continuity in the sense of collective definitions of the organizational reality that is held by the membership of the organization and those who interface with the organization. The works of these various authors appear to converge in applying systemic and interactional notions to conscious and active

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intervention in the interest of organizational development. Organizational development claims to enable sustained change and more continuous change with the least destabilization.

The action approach, as organizational development, is interwoven with the concept of organizational change as action learning is, in fact, a change model by using real life experiences and experiments to improve organizational functioning. Action learning can be considered to take an incremental approach in that specific aspects of organizational functioning are assessed and changes are proposed and implemented. However, it is planned change that is conscious, deliberate, and collaborative. Change may also be transformative by re-creating the organization's "self concept" and related sets of actions (Senge, 1990). By the involvement of all 'actors', as Silverman (1970) uses the term, in defining and changing organizations, this creates unity and focus for all members whether as employees or researchers who are involved in the change process - an empowerment paradigm (Solomon, 1976).

The action approach emphasizes group process - small and larger groups. It is the working through of the group process which is critical to developing a shared plan for change which will also be sustainable. Group processes may help ensure a consensus on the change model(s) as a shared vision. The approach is conducive to outcome measurement. Communication lines tend to be much clearer than in the bureaucracy model. However, a facilitator will be responsible for ensuring that the dynamics of the change are taken into account. The focus is often on the change itself. The approach is amenable to being able to strategically plan, as well as to strategically intervene in organizations.

The issue of trust is much less of a concern in the action learning model as all participants are expected to be actively involved in the change process. It is a model which is participatory, more democratic, and less hierarchical. Subsequently, participants have a more equal voice, even though their impacts may not be equal. Action study approaches may exhibit qualities similar to disjointed incrementalism (Jones, 1996) in that a proposed action is developed, planned, implemented, and evaluated as to its effectiveness before the next step is taken. While it is recognized that the environment may be too complex to take into account all possible alternatives and their potential outcomes; it may be considered ones best approximation of the best possible plan. What is expected is that those persons involved in the action learning process become more innovative, energetic, and creative as their experience with the process unfolds. The process attempts to be non-hierarchical, in contrast to the bureaucratic model which emphasizes expert-driven and management-driven organizational study; actors in an action learning process are expected to become empowered by this process. The structure is more horizontal and less likely to be vertical. The action model assumes that work functions are interdependent and, as a result, all actors involved in the organizational study and change process have a close to equal "say" in the analysis and planning of different aspects of the work functions within the organization.

In action learning, information is processed through the group development process - the team in the learning organization. The distribution of power within the group process, while important, tends to be less of an issue. However, while there is a facilitator who may have some power, the power is distributed much more evenly in the group dynamics, and decision making

tends to be based more on a working consensus, rather than decision by senior management dictate. The strength of action learning is its potential to focus on developing and implementing plans for action which are directed towards, and intended to improve, the functioning of the organization as a whole.

Action learning may be limited in its tendency to use an incremental approach to planning in that this approach will identify an issue and develop and implement action plans on an incremental basis without a full assessment of the whole system, the notion of disjointed incrementalism (Lindblom, 1959; Choo, 1998; Jones & Gross, 1996). From an emancipatory approach to planned change, action learning is capable of assessing systemic problems within organizations and, from that perspective, can develop action plans which focus on dealing with the larger systemic problems.

Action learning is conceptualized within an empowerment paradigm for change and effective action - accounting for and valuing both process and content (Gutierrez, 1990; Lee, 1994; Senge, 1990; Solomon, 1976) . For example, the shift from the very term 'subject' to 'participant' clearly reflects the empowerment model (Solomon, 1976). Participants are very active members in the research process and the organizational change process; they are considered to have knowledge of the particular area under study. As key informants, they are expected to have a voice that is equal to other members of the group. Within this context, the literature reflects some authors' concerns with action learning as to whether or not it is truly or sufficiently scientific. From a modern approach researchers may have great difficulty with action learning. From a qualitative

perspective, action learning will be in more familiar territory, and in some sense, will have a

larger audience in that the 'non-researcher' is more readily able to value the approach when s/he

can see the results. Action learning, from an emancipatory approach, is also valued from a

postmodern perspective in that the approach lends itself to surface multiple narratives of

individual member's perceptions of problems, needs and potential solutions - all giving direction

to organizational change.

Action learning is another frame which can help in analysing and understanding organizational

change and change processes. By analysing the different stages, processes, and related collective

activities that are involved in the change process, one can begin to attain insight into why some

change processes and products are successful and some are not successful when processes are not

followed through appropriately. Action theory suggests that some level of change is an ongoing

and living human and organizational process, subject to alteration and variation as organizational

experience demonstrates the effectiveness or lack thereof of the change process. The action

perspective encourages a holistic approach that includes review of and reflection on, the values

that support individual and collective action within the organization's mandate or purpose. In the

participatory paradigm, the change processes are designed to enable all organizational members

to have an opportunity to provide input as equals or near equals - an implied justice and anti-

oppression philosophy.

Action learning attempts to act as an empowerment process, without assuming that each

individual or collective is equally powerful; the notion is that each has sufficient power to have

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voice in the process. Commitment is measured against intended new directions being actualized in congruent actions by relevant individuals and collectives. For example, by analysing the level of perceived input and related impact that social workers had on an organizational change process and their perceptions of the genuineness of the process, one would expect to gain some insight into why certain change processes were acted upon effectively and other expected outcomes were resisted. The action perspective would also sensitize the organizational analyst to unintended positive and negative consequences evident in actions.

For the purposes of this study, action research and action learning may be helpful as another layer of analysis of the integration of the programs of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections to a community health governed model of service delivery. Participation by social workers in the organizational change process is expected to be analyzed in relation to their perceived inputs into selected aspects of the organizational change process, levels of commitment, intentions to leave the organization and perceived abilities of their leaders to manage change.

Leadership Theories

Leadership theories conceptualize organizational performance and change from a number of perspectives that imply the importance of individual and collective leadership in enabling organizations to move effectively in suitable directions (Maycunich Guilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003). In its broadest sense, leadership theories address individuals who are defined as

"possessing" power, vision, and an ability to effectively communicate and get along with others as well as those who have the legal authority to get work done as part of her/his position within an organization and to get others to do the organization's business. The literature on leadership does not provide a working consensus on how leaders should act and function, although some formulations of leadership effectiveness may be more prescriptive than others (e.g., Hershey & Blanchard, 1993). When one considers the various approaches to leadership and attempts a synthesis, the indications are that there are many qualities of effective leadership (e.g., imparting a vision and motivating people) but there is no one 'correct' prescription as a way to lead (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Guest, Hersey, & Blanchard, 1977; Hersey, 1984; Bass, 1990; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Conger, 1999). Bolman and Deal (1991) completed a review of the literature on leadership and found that the only characteristics universal to effective leaders are their ability: "...to establish a vision, to set standards for performance, and to create a focus and direction for organizational efforts"(p. 411). Other common leadership characteristics identified by Bolman and Deal (1997) include:

- the ability to communicate a vision effectively;

- commitment or passion;

- deep caring for the organization; and

- the ability to inspire trust and build relationships.

- the ability to get employees and/or others to do what needs to be done in the organizational context.

Other traits which would make a good leader have been identified in a review of the recent literature (1990 - 2003) on leadership (Zaccaro, Kemp & Bader, in Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg, 2004). The term *leader traits* is defined by the authors as, "a relatively stable and coherent integration of personal characteristics that foster a consistent pattern of leadership performance across a variety of group and organizational situations." (Zaccaro, Kemp & Bader, in Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg, 2004). The more classic literature often used the word *styles* as opposed to *traits*. The authors identified five key traits of leaders which include the following:

- *Cognitive abilities* - leader effectiveness and intelligence are generally strongly associated

- *Personality* - leaders demonstrate characteristics such as "neuroticism" - or emotional stability, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Some studies, however, did not find openness to be a consistent trait

- *Motivation* - includes the need for power or dominance, achievement, affiliation, and need for responsibility. Another emerging concept in the literature is motivation to lead

- *Social appraisal skills* - also referred to as social intelligence (the ability to understand the feelings, thoughts, and behaviors of people) are critical to effective leadership.

- *Problem solving skills* - the ability to solve problems as well as the ability to integrated tacit knowledge.

Overall, although further research is needed, the research indicates that leader traits differ from non-leaders, and that the differences reflect factors that contribute to leader effectiveness. The research does not, however, specifically address issues of leader traits in relation to organizational change.

Within a non-rational context, a leader may be viewed from the perspective of a messiah, as one who will save or guide the organization (Kets deVries & Miller, 1984). A leader may also be seen as being a charismatic type of individual, or who is able to 'get along with' people in the organization. Leadership may also be viewed more as a performing art in which the assumption is that the leader has an inherent ability to perform spontaneously and creatively (Vaill, 1989).

Chandler (1977) presents an historical overview of the development of management (and leadership) in industrialized America. His analysis suggests that the development of top management or executives in organizations evolved out of the growth and development of organizations, oftentimes through mergers. Organizations became so large that there was a need for a different organizational structure, particularly at the middle management and top executive level. Top executives in newly formed, large organizations had to become more strategic, vision and future-oriented in their thinking, rather than dealing with the day-to-day functions of the organization, suggesting that, at least in part, it is the organizational structure which determines the leadership style. To this researcher, the answer would more likely be that the impacts of structure and leadership style are interactive.

The view that the type of leadership which develops or emerges in organizations is dependent on the structure of the organization itself is a position which is also espoused by Hall (1987). Hall states that organizations, particularly highly structured organizations, determine both the patterns of formal and informal interpersonal systems and suggests that leadership plays a limited role in such organizations. The suggestion is that for organizations which are not highly structured,

leadership may play a more critical function. Hall suggests that, in established organizations, when leadership changes, the impact the new leadership can have on the organization is limited. Within this context, leadership is viewed as playing less of a role in how organizations develop and function, than previously believed; the argument is that organizations, in all their complexity, are impacted by many factors, both within the organization and the external environment, that are more potent than are leadership qualities in determining organizational behaviour.

While the structural approach to organizations and organizational leadership is concerned with ensuring the most effective and efficient means of production or delivery of services, the human resources style of leadership places more emphasis on the interactions of people within organizations and the importance of having key leadership skills including being able to interact and get along with individuals in organizations, particularly in times of turbulent and radical change. Simply being visible in the organization is important, as exemplified in the notion of 'management by walking around' (Peters & Waterman, 1982). The human resources leader attempts to create an atmosphere where people feel comfortable in expressing their views and opinions and are presumably empowered in this style of leadership. The general notion is that the leader must balance the needs of the individual employees (workers) with the needs of the organization to adapt to an ever-changing socio-political and socio-economic environment.

The situational leadership model (Hersey, 1984; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993) is conceptualized within four frames consisting of *relationship behaviour* (on the vertical axis) and *task behaviour* (on the horizontal axis). Within this model, the leadership style may range from simply

delegating work to employees to "telling" or being very controlling by directing and monitoring employee's specific duties. The human relations leader fits somewhere in between the two ends of the continuum, between 'delegating' and 'telling', where the interactions and communication between employees is of critical importance.

Another model, the managerial grid, which was developed by Blake and Mouton (1964), conceptualizes leadership styles in relation to *concerns for people* and *concerns for production*. The human relations leader is primarily concerned for people with the underlying assumption that by addressing the needs of people participating in the enterprise, production needs of the organization will also be addressed. These approaches that balance human elements and production concerns are congruent with McGregor's Theory Y (1966), which suggests people intrinsically want to work and be productive in the organization.

The situational leadership model and the managerial grid, while different, present ways of viewing organizations and leadership consistent with a human relations approach. The 'telling' frame (the more structural-bureaucratic orientation) (Hersey, 1984) suggests a one-way communication, however, within a directive context, there is a need for two-way communication to ensure that the direction given is understood by the individual who is to complete the task.

Each leadership model, (the situational model, the managerial grid and the bureaucratic model) presents a somewhat simplified view of the complexity of organizations, particularly in times of organizational change. They pay little attention to the political nature in which organizations can

operate; power approaches to leadership (e.g., charismatic leaders) are more consistent with a

political orientation. There is also a lack of recognition of non-rational behaviour (Kets deVries

& Miller, 1984) in relation to leadership dynamics. Leaders who contribute to, and function

within, a non-rational context may reinforce neurotic or "dysfunctional" patterns of relationship

and production and may exhibit approaches to managing which may create problems for the

organization, its employees and their socio-political environment.

Contrary to the unheroic leadership style in the structural frame, the political or power leadership

style views the leader as being the omnipotent, charismatic, visionary individual who has the

ability to capture the attention of her/his audience, to persuade, entice, convince, and cajole

people into buying into her/his vision of the organization. In an analysis by Gordon (1985), he

presents Lee Iacocca as a powerful and visionary leader. Iacocca assumed leadership of the

Chrysler organization when it was close to bankruptcy. He was successful in obtaining a

landmark decision in that he obtained approval from the government of the USA for government

guaranteed loans to the Chrysler Corporation. The underlying analysis in Gordon's book is

related to power and its application: "power, ...and its application by one of its most competent

users in many years are what this book is all about" (p. xii). Iacocca talks not only of symbols,

but also of the values underlying them, as well as being able to communicate with and to have

employees commit to the organization. Iacocca was successful in communicating his message

clearly and consistently to government, the employees, and to the general public. In addition to

his power, Iacocca was also strategic in his approach to government. He estimated that if the

requested loan guarantees of $1.5 billion dollars were not approved, the same amount would

have to be paid to laid off workers in the form of welfare payments, as well as an estimated five hundred million dollars in lost revenues through taxation. The approach of this leader included not only a vision, but strategic approaches to promoting and sustaining change.

Implicit within the concept of leadership is the notion of power. People in leadership positions have power. The power may come from the position itself or may come in the form of personal power. The use of personal power in a coercive manner is viewed as not being part of leadership as defined by Burns (1978). Burns' conceptualization of leadership is related to the notion of reciprocity or the interdependence of the leader and her/his followers. Burns' definition takes into account the notion that people in organizations have particular motives and values and that they operate in competition and conflict in trying to attain their goals, whether as leaders or followers. Within this context, Burns refers to two types of leadership: (1) transactional leadership, and (2) transformational leadership. Transactional leadership is defined in relation to lower order needs such as satisfying certain basic needs including food or drink, as well as lower order values such as honesty, fairness, and responsibility. The lower order values are essential in order for leadership to be truly transformational, particularly in relation to leadership behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996).

Transformational leadership has been reviewed by Marshall Sashkin (2004). He identifies behavioral dimensions of leadership by various authors which include:

- *communication leadership* - having good communication skills such as active listening and providing clear feedback, as well as focusing others on key ideas.

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- *credible leadership* - creating a sense by the leader that s/he can be trusted by congruent actions.

- *caring leadership* - continuously demonstrating respect and concern for others, regardless of the leader's feelings about their actions.

- *creative leadership* - ability to take risks while ensuring that those involved are at less risk.

- *confident leadership* - confidence in oneself and being able to transform followers into self confident leaders.

- *follower-centered leadership* - the ability to influence people to act based on intrinsic motivation to get the organization's business accomplished rather than motivation based on fear.

- *visionary leadership* - the ability to have a vision for the future and to act to actualize the vision.

- *leadership and culture* - the ability of a leader to develop a sense of culture in the organization and to re-create organizational culture through the transformation of beliefs, attitudes, values, and congruent actions.

The assumption appears to be that any person in a leadership position, or who assumes leadership, would demonstrate many of the traits and behaviors associated with effective leadership. The classical term would likely be "styles" of effective leadership.

Transformational leadership is more concerned with end-values which are higher-order values such as justice, equality, and liberty. In essence, Burns' conceptualization refers to leadership

with moral imperatives as opposed to Bass' (1985) conceptualization suggesting that transformational leadership may not be moral (e.g., Adolph Hitler as a transformational leader). However, a transformational leader conceives organizational change, for example, as being responsible, with employees being viewed as assets. The emphasis is on collective purpose and change. Burns emphasizes the hierarchy of needs, the importance of structure, and the stages of moral development. One of the roles of leaders is to help followers in their personal and professional development, as well as helping them to have their needs met in each of the three areas. The transformational leader focuses on the higher-order values in relation to the needs of individuals within organizations and in relation to the vision and mission of the organization itself; there is a need for congruency between both. The needs of the organization and individual needs are critical, with the overriding needs being those of the organization; if the organization fails to exist, the individual will not have her/his needs met. The greater needs of the organization in relation to the individual is similar to the concept of communitarianism - where the needs of the community and the needs of the individual conflict, the needs of the community are predominant (Turner & Turner, 1995), another version of utilitarianism.

Transformational leadership is referred to as a particular *style*. However, while the term *style* is not well defined, transformational leadership *style* refers to being able to espouse higher end values such as justice, equality, and liberty. It also includes more specific behavioral qualities being able to instill pride in employees, to build employee self respect, and to display the traits of power and confidence. The transformational leader also demonstrates consideration of moral and ethical aspects in relation to decision making and action, and is enthusiastic about the future and

opportunities for accomplishment. S/he is able to balance critical thinking with creative thinking and action. The transformational leader is viewed as focusing on employee strengths and coaching movement in the direction of transformation. In summary, the transformational leader is able to translate higher end values, mission, and vision for the organization into everyday work life with her/his employees; s/he is able to walk the talk.

Underlying the concept of transformational leadership is the assumption that, for organizations to succeed, people need to be supported and to be motivated. There is a need for a collective, congruent motivation of all individuals in the organization. Leaders also need to understand the concept of power within this model in relation to power bases both inside and outside the organization. The analysis and subsequent use of power is guided by the higher-order values. These values guide the conduct of individuals and leaders within organizations. There is an understanding of the complexity of organizations, that the organization is so complex that all factors impacting on the organization both internally and externally, are incapable of being fully known and, even if known, definitely never fully understood.

Considering organizational change processes in relation to leadership, Dunphy and Stace (1988) conceptualize planned organizational change as having four possible strategies ranging from transformational to coercive. *Participative evolutionary* change involves incremental shifts in the organization when the organization is stable; employee involvement is high. A *dictatorial transformational* change style is used when major changes take place in the organization and decisions are made by higher levels in the organization in the absence of employee input or

involvement. Radical change is needed. The participative evolutionary model is empowering to employees while the dictatorial transformational model is disempowering to employees. The authors suggest that there may be advantages to using different approaches depending on the organizational environment in which the change is taking place. However, these models (participative evolutionary model and the dictatorial transformational model) fail to take into account the cognitive symbolic frame; employees who do not understand or accept the changed environment will behave in a manner which is incongruent with the new reality, potentially causing significant organizational problems. Also, within the psychodynamic frame, the model does not account for non-rational behaviour and how to deal with individuals, groups, or the organization itself behaving non-rationally.

Transformational leadership has some symbolic elements where organizations are viewed as being guided by beliefs, attitudes, and values in and of themselves. From a modern perspective, transformational leadership may be an ideal that is difficult to measure, and even if measurable, may be rare (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

From this researcher's perspective, to effect change in complex organizations operating within a socio-political environment of uncertainty, multiple paradigms of leadership with overlapping qualities may best serve the organization and its members. Among the leadership conceptualizations that should give direction to change and progress are: human resources, political power and cognitive and symbolic paradigms. Understanding resistance to change or neurotic and non-rational bases for change would benefit from a psychodynamic vision.

The leadership frame is helpful in understanding change, particularly in relation to the different types or *styles* (traits or behaviors) of leadership (Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire) and its impacts on individuals, collectives and the organization (transformational and transactional leaders, for example). Transformational leaders should be able to espouse and model the higher end values (such as justice, equality, and liberty) of the new organization as it moves in the change process. Transactional leaders should be seen as fair, responsible and putting value on detail. Understanding the critical need for transformational leaders, particularly in dealing with organizational change, can be helpful in analysing the process, the product and responses to change in that, if there is a lack of vision for the organization, employees may feel a lack of direction which can impede a successful change process. Leadership (both transformational and transactional) may play a key role in how organizational change takes place. Analysing leadership patterns in change processes, and responses to them, as well as felt confidence in leaders during and after the planned change process, may provide insight in understanding the relative failure or success of planned change as well as the re-commitment, or lack thereof, to the transformed organization.

In this study, the leadership frame is expected to provide another layer of analysis of the change process which resulted in the integration of the programs of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections. The researcher is interested to analyze if transformational and transactional styles of leadership are functioning well in the community health board model and if there is a change in the style of leadership in comparison to the former organization. In addition, there may be links between leadership style and levels of commitment, intentions to

leave the organization as well as perceived inputs into and impacts on selected organizational

change processes and products .

Cognitive and Symbolic Theories

Organizations are conceptualized and developed in relation to people's thinking (minds) and

cognitive constructions; their subsequent actions are reflections of their thinking about the

organization; their actions in relation to the organization also helps mold their thinking about the

organization, as well as how individuals identify with organizations (Pfeiffer, 1997; Sims, Gioia,

& Associates, 1986; Whetten & Godfrey, 1998). It is people's thoughts and cognitive processes,

both conscious and unconscious, as well as their subsequent actions, which contribute to the

creation and maintenance of organizations and organizational functioning (Toch & Grant, 2005;

Grant, Keeney, & Oswick, 1998, & Silverman, 1970). The concept of the thinking organization

as articulated by Sims, Gioia & Associates (1986) present the view of organizations and people

as being intertwined or interdependent; one cannot think of organizations in the absence of

individuals.

It is also recognized that organizations exist within the external environment. The thoughts and

actions of individuals within the organization's environment help define the organization, as well

as help maintain or change the organization's structure or functioning. The notion of cognitive

processes being significant in determining organizational identity and actions is predicated on the

belief that the subjective definitions of reality applied by individuals and groups and applied to

organizations determine, at least in part, how organizations function. By attempting to understand the logically constructed reasons for actions within organizations, we can develop more insight into the cognitive processes which precede individual and collective action - action which is undertaken as a result of a common purpose embedded in organizational definitions of reality. The implication is an underlying assumption of shared values, attitudes, beliefs, and a common purpose within organizational culture as reflected in beliefs, attitudes and values that are related to working definitions of reality when common language (symbols) is applied (Easterby-Smith, Arujo & Burgoyne, 1999). The shared meanings within an organizational culture are further challenged in a diversity framework as it relates to international cross-cultural management of organizations, particularly within the for profit sector (Earley & Singh, 2000). Within the human services organizations, it is also important to understand the symbols which create meaning for individuals, groups, and communities where diversity issues and shared meanings become much more critical to understand.

The rational approach to organizational functioning and organizational development focuses on concrete outcome measurements such as observable facts and data, and measurable performance appraisals. From a cognitive perspective, organizational functioning (and people functioning within organizations) suggests that the most significant aspects of organizational reality in day-to-day life are subjective, tenuous, uncertain, fluid, and may be contradictory.

Seeking one right answer to organizational problems or needs may not always be the only approach to either understanding or changing organizations and their members. The closer

reality in organizations is that they are complex; individual members are limited in their capacities to manage and cope with the many complexities of large organizational structures, not the least of which is organizational change (Argyris, 1990). Given a range of problems and needs and given an even wider range of meanings and interpretations assigned to those problems and needs, there may be a number of different possible solutions to a problem. Even when there is a lack of an apparent solution, one might undertake a change process that "constructs" solutions collectively, sometimes even through the use of paradoxical thinking to bring out tensions within an organizational change process (Nutt & Backoff, 1997). Within this context, organizational effectiveness implies being able to work with uncertainty and paradox in an atmosphere which encourages and enhances creative problem solving (Vaill, 1989), and applying the notions of the thinking organization to maximize the knowledge and abilities of the collective in the organization (Sparrow, 1998).

Respecting cognitive complexity in organizations and in members of organizations, Morgan (1993) proposes the use of metaphors within an organizational context to help organizational members reframe or redefine organizational problems or organizational challenges. Morgan argues that the purposeful use of metaphors can re-frame organizational problems. However, the reframing of problems and needs should take place in the application of shared meanings (working consensus) of the metaphors, including metaphors of change (e.g., "a new way of doing business"). Lack of shared meanings within the organization adds to confusion and will result in the change process not "taking hold" or not being applied with consistency.

The paradox in Morgan's analysis is that, on the one hand, he argues that each individual develops her/his own interpretation of a socially constructed reality while, at the same time, suggesting that the individual reality must become a collective reality, at some level, in order for change to take place. He does not deal with the paradox of how one defines what a shared reality is or how to determine when a shared reality exists. He does not address the issue of "espoused definitions of reality" versus metaphors as "applied" in action or organizational practice; for example, in health, the care metaphor is used but many practices are not caring and not careful. Morgan also suggests that sustainable change can only take place when there is a collective vision of the required change, similar to Argyris and Schon's (1974) double loop learning model, which suggests that the change must involve an internal cognitive restructuring of the organizational context. Other authors may refer to change in the culture of the organization which involves the organization's core values, for example (Patterson, 2003).

Some cognitively oriented theories of organization respect the importance of affective processes (individual and group) and their interaction with beliefs, attitudes, values, and expectations that influence the individual's response to the organization and the organization's response to its social, economic, political and material environment. Affect and its role in the organizational processes, including change, have often been given little consideration under conditions where organizations are seen as being impersonal and rational (Miller, Friesen, & Mintzberg, 1984). Other authors argue that a more dynamic dimension of individual and collective life must take into account the complexities of individual and collective interaction.

Sims, Gioia & Associates (1986) argue that people are not impersonal, dispassionate machines making decisions; interaction among individuals can, and often does present itself with lack of consensus, as well as related conflict, tension, and anxiety. Members of an organization express affect as strong feelings and emotions associated with specific problems and needs. These intense expressions of emotion are often related to the individual's subjective definitions of reality of how they perceive things should be within the organization versus the direction in which the organization appears to be going. How one feels about issues plays a role in the subsequent actions related to those feelings, as well as the amount and degree of freedom one perceives oneself as being able to exercise (Patton & Griffin, 1978). In short, affect influences one's definitions of subjective reality; awareness of the potential impact of affect on individuals within organizations is important for leaders as well as for individuals. Being consciously aware of the potential impact of affect and the role that it plays in organizations can help the leader or organizational member to attain a deeper understanding of the rational, non-rational, conscious, or pre-conscious processes, and to take emotions and feelings into account in the organization's change processes (Dunphy & Stace, 1988).

The symbolic frame, as articulated by Bolman and Deal (1997), is related to cognitive theory. The symbolic frame places its emphasis on the meanings of underlying thoughts within and among people who create, maintain and change organizations. The same organizational events (large, such as change in CEO and small, such as a staff picnic) can have different meanings for different people. Organizational events and processes are ambiguous and uncertain. Uncertainty and ambiguity, within traditional rational organizational concepts, are seen as problems to be

solved through rational means; within the symbolic frame, reduction of conflict and ambiguity is part of a continuous and ongoing natural process; as part of organizational definition, maintenance and change, individuals use symbols to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity, and to create relative stability within given time frames. While many events lack rational meaning, more common symbols and at least a working consensus on their meanings, give organizations and their members a sense of meaning and order that comes with shared common language and understanding of their organizations.

Beliefs, attitudes, values, common meanings, expectations, and related affect interact with ritual behaviour and expressions to form part of organizational culture. Rituals include both process and product, process in the form of how things get done (e.g,. how a child abuse investigation unfolds) and product in the form of outcomes of the ritualized form of getting things done (e.g., the content and form of a court assessment for sex abuse protection). On the other hand, rituals can serve an inhibitive function when they become imbedded and fail to be modified in direct relation to the need for the organization to change in response to realities of the external environment (Trice, 1985). A ritual that serves the function of helping to ensure that all individuals in an organization behave in a certain manner, such as not questioning authority, may often work well such as in a crisis and emergent situation but may often avoid needed challenges in other situations (e.g., where management supervision thwarts best clinical practices). An organization may need to change to become more innovative in order to better meet the demands of its external environment or to respond to the changing needs of its customers or clients; failing

to change by holding on to old rituals may result in the organization being unresponsive to their client or customer needs.

Changing symbols and related meanings (e.g., a caring organization) or at least changing the interpretations of historically preferred symbols (e.g., efficiency) can be effective in helping organizations process change and maintain gains with little regression to the old ways of thinking and doing. The use of strong and consistent symbols with some working consensus of meaning can help facilitate the change process. Effectiveness implies that it is not only the symbols that have changed (e.g., espoused new theory) but also the practices associated with the symbols have been changed to fit. An example is provided of a local hospital within Newfoundland and Labrador, which had been impacted by a change process where services were centralized. The hospital, which had traditionally provided services to prenatal and neonatal patients, was being closed with the services being centralized to another hospital. The hospital had a strong religious tradition and was built and developed under the direction and guidance of a particular religious organization. The administrator, who was also affiliated with the same religious organization and was a member of a religious congregation, facilitated a ceremony where a box was made to resemble a casket. The 'casket' was used as a central part of the ceremony to symbolize the death of the prenatal and neonatal clinic in the hospital. This symbolism provided a strong message for the staff that the service had died and allowed the staff to openly grieve the loss.

Symbols and meanings do not operate in isolation, they are strung together as narratives. Some authors refer to the notion of "organizational storytelling" as a means of giving meaning to

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organizational life (Millar & Heath, 2004). Organizational "stories and fairy tales" help to address problems of morale, security, socialization, legitimacy, and communication (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 259). Stories of historical charismatic leaders may be part of the organizational culture. Lee Iacocca (Gordon, 1985), for example, is still remembered as the leader who 'saved' the Chrysler Corporation. Staff meetings provide another example of a ritual where meanings, definitions of reality and organizational narratives are shared both in a formal and an informal sense. Functions may vary from creating common shared meanings, coherent collective action, and member security, to justifying organizational behaviour. The informal process that takes place before, during, and after the formal meeting may reinforce beliefs, attitudes, and values, for example. The formal forum provides an opportunity for organizational members to informally create and exchange personal narratives that may function to cement working relationships (for example) or organizational narratives that may support organizational change (e.g., an informal story about how a new policy helped protect a child who may not have been protected under an old policy). The informal forum may function to diffuse strong feelings associated with beliefs, attitudes, and insecurities associated with organizational change. It can be empowering for individuals to be able to provide their informal thoughts and input before any change actually takes place. The staff meeting ritual (as one example) is part of the organizational process and allows an opportunity for members to influence decision making as well as to legitimatize and give meaning to organizational life.

Some of the current literature views organizations as part of a culture (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000). The concept of culture within organizations has been presented in some of the

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historical literature as analyzed by Bolman and Deal (1997). Schien (1992) defines culture in organizations as:

> A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaption and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 12)

Within his definition, Schien acknowledges the cognitive and symbolic processes of cultures and the notion that culture is something that is developed within the evolution of organizations. The culture is developed within the context of rituals, ceremonies, stories, myths, and fairy tales. The definition also implies the notion of how decisions are validated in what has "proven" to work in the past, as defined by the collective cognitive meanings within the organization.

Miller, Friensen, & Mintzberg (1984) discuss the concept of structural change which is part of large scale change and incremental change which can be conceptualized as part of the notion of cognitive restructuring. The authors studied change in relation to the aspects of both models - incremental and developmental change. They quote findings which argue that organizations should avoid dramatic, large scale, structural change. Some of the findings suggested that incremental change is more economical and less disruptive. It avoids the issue of dealing with change in the values and goals of the organization in a complex way, particularly in cognitive restructuring - how people change their thinking about, and understanding of, organizations

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which change on a large scale basis. By dealing with change on an incremental basis, it is much more focused and has to give less consideration to larger, more complex issues within the organization such as the mission, goals and values of the organization. Incremental change may be easier to develop and implement due to the fact that it is less complex and elaborate. Arguably, multiple small scale change is also associated with less insecurity for organizational members.

On the other hand, Miller, Friensen, & Mintzberg (1984) argument for dramatic change is related to the underlying assumption that change in one part of the organization will have an impact on other parts of the organization. By making changes incrementally, it may cause disruption, disharmony, and dysfunction in other parts of the organization. The findings in the study by Miller, Friensen, & Mintzberg (1984) indicate that successful firms had a higher percentage of extreme or dramatic structural changes than unsuccessful firms. Successful firms appear to be more likely to alternate between greater change in structure and stability. It appears that the successful firms, which may be stronger in and of themselves, are more able to adapt to large scale structural change and deal with the many complex issues surrounding the change process including the change in mission, values, and goals. In contrast, one may hypothesize that incremental change in successful firms may cause increased tension within organizations as a change in one part of the organization may cause another part of the organization to experience conflict with its values, mission, and goals - issues of conflict in the cognitive restructuring taking place in employees' minds.

Change may be resisted because of "...conservatism, cognitive limitations, dysfunctional ideologies, inappropriate information systems, and the inability to deviate from inappropriate programs and procedures" (Miller, Friesen, & Mintzberg, 1984, p. 249). Miller, Friensen, & Mintzberg (1984) present a model for *organization adaptation*. They suggest that challenges to organizational adaptation are related to the myths, ideologies, and goals in organizations, past success of procedures and strategies, vested interests of political coalitions, and program and goal expectations. In other words, organizational culture evolves from rituals, myths and stories (Suresh et al, 1988); cognitive understandings and processes are developed and create order within the minds of individuals in organizations. Organizational change involves the establishment and development of new rituals, myths, and stories.

Cognitive processing for individuals involves having to make the shift to adopt the new order within the organization in which the old stories, rituals, and myths remain part of the cognitive processes in people's minds even when the change process is needed. Subsequently, organizational change takes place at a slow rate and is often non-linear; this may not be responsive to organizational needs. Major stimuli are often needed in order for change to take place. Individuals will cling to the old, non-adaptive, cognitive processes until there is a high level of incongruence between their own subjective interpretation of organizational reality and the reality of the changed environment. Change will involve periods of turmoil both in the organization and in the cognitive restructuring in people's minds. Change, as it relates to cognitive theory suggests that, in order for change to be effective, there must be a recognition of

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the change needed by individuals in the organization; otherwise, individuals will continue to use their cognitive processes in relation to the old structure, not the new reality.

Conceptualizing organizations and organizational change within the context of the cognitive and symbolic frame suggests that organizations are created and exist within people's minds - a subjective view of reality. Individuals' limited cognitive abilities do not allow them to fully understand the high degree of complexity of organizational culture. Consequently, individuals use symbols, myths, stories, and rituals to create order in their minds in order to help them define their subjective reality of the organization - process issues. Considering organizational change within this context suggests that organizations and organizational leaders may need to attain a comprehensive understanding of the various rituals, symbols, and myths which are used to define organizational reality. Effective change may take place when a new reality is created by the development of new rituals, stories, and symbols, which help to create a collective understanding of the organizational culture and help the organization to effectively implement the structural or content aspects of change.

Analysing change in organizations within the cognitive symbolic frame can be helpful in terms of understanding the subjective perceptions and related feelings of those involved in the change process. While the metaphors of structural change are more concrete and visible, if change does not happen within the minds of individuals within the organization, the likelihood of successful, genuine, and sustained change is significantly diminished. Even substantive structural change may be purely symbolic, rather than substantive; for example, moving from a government

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governed model to a community board governed model may change little in the client's experience of service, relative change, or improvement of service delivery by social workers. Paradoxically, even when the symbols (such as "client centred") associated with service do not change, substantive change may be experienced by the social workers or the clients (e.g., with the application of TQM). Symbolic change may be abstract, such as a change in formal name, but change in services may be informally defined as more concrete. In both instances, however, the employee's subjective understanding requires a change in her/his conceptualization of the change process, product, and adjusting to them. One hypothesis is that the absence of change at the subjective level of perception and related affect suggests that employees may continue to behave as if the change does not exist, and behave in ways which are more congruent with a lack of change at worst, or resistance to change at best. Should the collective have lower levels of commitment to the organization, for example, this could be an indicator that the change, from the cognitive symbolic frame, has not really taken place. Making symbolic cognitive change meaningful in action presents a significant challenge for the organizational change process.

In analyzing the cognitive symbolic frame, social workers who perceive that the input they had into selected aspects of the organizational change process was important and 'heard', may define the organizational change process as more meaningful and identify with the current organization. Identification with the current organization may be operationalized by strong levels of commitment, particularly when compared to the former organization, as well as low levels of intentions to leave the organization.

Summary and Conclusion

Industrialization in the Western world was characterized by the rapid development of organizations and large organizational structures in the early developments of the industrial revolution. The early organizational structures are often viewed today as being small, relative to the large multinational corporations that exist in today's society. The approach to new organizational forms was primarily a structural one in which the bureaucratic model was proposed as an 'ideal type' (Weber, 1947), with the 'ideal type' including the requirement of specialist functions to deal with complexity. Taylor's scientific management was also similar to Weber's model in that Taylor believed that the way to deal with complexity was to break it down into its smallest parts, rather than dealing with the complexity. Individuals in the organization were considered to require constant supervision and direction, not unlike McGregor's Theory X (McGregor, 1960).

The bureaucratic model is limited in its ability to deal with the dynamics of the change process, which is much more complex, tenuous, and transactional. It is also limited in its ability to consider the internal cognitive processes which need to take place in people's minds to understand and work within an organization where change has taken place.

Within both frames (structural bureaucratic and human relations,) there is a recognition that organizations function in the external environment. The human relations frame places much more emphasis on the external environment. The structural bureaucratic frame is much more

inwardly focused, but is cognizant of the fact that one must operate in the external environment. The structural bureaucratic frame utilizes more rigid rules and regulations to ensure consistency of coordinated actions and outcomes.

The human resources frame conceptualizes individuals as working primarily in a cooperative manner, recognizing that conflicts may arise, particularly when change processes are eminent. Conversely, the political frame views organizations in their struggles for power and control within and between individuals in organizations, between individuals and the organization, as well as between individuals, the organization and the external environment. Resources are always limited; subsequently, there is an ongoing struggle for these limited resources.

The political power frame, then, presents a differing view of how individuals in organizations function when compared to the human resources frame. In both frames, the notion of interactions between individuals is important in that organizations exist and function within the context of individuals and the interactions between individuals, whether those interactions are framed in a cooperative, competitive, power exchange, or conflictual context. Within an organizational change environment, organizations may need to be aware of conflicts and possibly higher levels of conflict, and to be able to manage power relations in a manner which is in the best or interests of competing individuals and groups within the organization to help ensure primarily positive outcomes for all involved in the process.

The manner in which individuals function and interact within an organizational context is also important in relation to two additional streams of thinking: (1) psychodynamic theory; and (2) cognitive and symbolic theories. Within the psychodynamic frame, one is concerned with the movement and interactions within people's minds that get played out in interpersonal and intergroup relationships as individuals and collectives express emotions, beliefs, attitudes, values and actions. The manner in which people conceptualize within their conscious and pre-conscious minds, their own psychic processes and content, as well as their conceptualization of organizational change, is important in relation to how each subsequently functions within the organization in relationship to one another. Individuals may develop "dysfunctional" or neurotic thinking which influences their subsequent approaches to the social, political, and physical environment; these influences often have significant negative effects on the organization. Kets deVries and Miller (1984) present an analysis of "dysfunctional" types of leadership in organizations and how these dysfunctional 'types' can have a significant influence on how organizations function.

Within an organizational change paradigm, effective change can only take place when there is a shared or collective cognitive restructuring of the change process, the notion of double loop learning. Each individual's reality is unique in and of itself. The challenge within the organizational context is how to develop a collective, shared consciousness where meanings become shared. Cognitive processes are very complex. The shared consciousness, however, is always ambiguous, tenuous and limited in relation to how each individual understands the concept of this shared consciousness and shared meaning. In organizational change processes,

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the concern may be the disconnect between structural and symbolic changes and the change processes which take place within people's minds, for example. Organizations may need to place greater attention to awareness of and supporting employees in their struggle to adjust to the changed or new organization.

In conceptualizing organizational change, the action learning approach focuses on the human and technological aspects of work and their interaction. Within the context of the structural bureaucratic frame, action learning promotes more horizontal than vertical sources of information to guide planned change. Action learning has been identified with the empowerment model in the sense that it attempts to reduce the power inequities within the hierarchical structures that may exist within organizations and to recognize the value of the feelings, experiences, and observations of those with relatively less power of position. The action learning approach assumes systemic dynamics in the organization; it takes into account the interactions of individuals, sub-groups, organizations, and the external environment, all in context. The action model supports a change process that is planned, conscious, deliberate, and collaborative - thus active. Consistent with human relations thinking, the action learning approach assumes that individuals are intrinsically open to change and develop; while the approach is limited in its considerations of the psychodynamic, cognitive and symbolic frames, it is sensitive to any intrapsychic or interpersonal dynamics that support threat and insecurity and thus, establish resistance to change.

Each of the seven frames identified, collectively, offer a more complex strategy for analysing organizations, organizational change and responses to organizational change processes than would any singular model for observing and analysing changes processes, products and related adaptation by individuals and collectives. Respecting the interaction of each of the frames provides the possibility of a much higher level of complexity in analysing human services organizations, which may be more complex than "production" businesses. The advantage of this adaptation of an expanded Bolman and Deal model is that it provides a format for observing and analysing change and associated responses to change. This proposed model, that respects complexity, provides for the possibility of analysing many aspects of change in relation to multiple instruments to study variables associated with organizational change and responses to change.

Organizations and their leaders are often presented with challenges to change which may originate from within the organization or from the external environment. Traditionally, organizations have been reactive to change and have primarily used the structural bureaucratic frame to deal with change. The structural bureaucratic frame assumes that, by changing the structure, organizational problems will be solved (content issue). It fails to account for the many other possible dynamics which may be also taking place, such as the impact on employees (the human resources frame), the importance of all organizational members to cognitively restructure within their minds (cognitive symbolic frame), the realities of the changed organization and, subsequently, the members' need to understand and work in congruence with the new realities (process issue).

Understanding that people may behave in non-rational ways as they try to create meaning for themselves (psychodynamic frame) within an organizational change context and that a struggle for power (political power frame) may interact with this dynamic, is important for change agents to help them to effectively process and understand resistance to change. The added layer of complexity in relation to the action learning approach, while challenging, can create an environment where open dialogue is encouraged and all stakeholders are empowered in a process which values their input, and supports effecting sustainable change which is relevant and valued.

The study was guided by a framework and related concepts of organizational change dynamics and needs which provided for the analysis and synthesis of organizations and organizational change processes which valued and accounted for the needs of customers-clients, organizations, and community (local and global).

Within the context of the conceptual framework of Bolman and Deal (1991, 1997), this researcher studied one organizational change process using the case study methodology. The first step in the process of analysis was to review selected governmental documents which lead to the organizational change. Seven government documents were analyzed for common themes leading up to the change process. The second step in the organizational change process included a mailed survey which provided information on selected aspects of the organization after the move to the new organizational model, as well as reflections on selected aspects of the organization before the change process took place. Finally, individual, in-person interviews were conducted, the purpose of which was to attain a deeper understanding of the organizational

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change process and products. This triangulation process provided the researcher with a more comprehensive understanding of selected aspects of the overall organizational change process. Figure #1 (p. 127) provides a graphical depiction of the methods used. Chapter III provides details of the plan of analysis.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN, METHOD, AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to:

- describe the case study approach for this research;

- provide an overview of approved procedures for sampling, survey data collection, data analysis, and the protection of human subjects;

- elucidate general methods for sampling, survey data collection, analysis of reports associated with the integration of health and community services, instruments employed to collect quantitative data, and data analysis;

- discuss the quantitative survey design to answer the research questions and to achieve the stated research objectives; and,

- describe the content analysis approach for the individual, semi-structured interviews, and document analysis.

- describe the more phenomenological approach to individual interviews in relation to outcomes of the quantitative survey.

Within this study, organizational change, and rapid organizational change in particular (both internally and externally motivated change), were analyzed within a conceptual framework which

expanded on the Bolman and Deal (1991 and 1997) model. This modified framework provided the researcher with an ability to apply a broad analytical framework from which to examine organizational behaviour, as opposed to being limited by one particular frame or way of conceptualizing organizational change processes and products. Within this modified framework, change was examined from a variety of interlocking perspectives, including the structure of organizational activity; symbols that guide thinking and action; non-rational cognitive, emotional, and social processes; human relationships and the organization of human resources, understanding individual and collective power; as well as the interaction of leadership dynamics and the change process.

It is this researcher's position that the advantage of this broad conceptual framework is that it sensitizes the professional to many different avenues for respecting the complexity of organizational change dynamics versus reducing change to a limited, albeit more manageable, conceptual standpoint. In addition, the broader and more complex understanding provided the change agent with an opportunity to identify more points of observation, judgement and action from which to initiate, effect and maintain organizational change efforts. From a professional values and ethics perspective, the hope was that the purposes, processes, and products of the planned change enterprise (the notion of collective activity) would have integrity and effective results. This researcher believes that effectiveness of results for human services and programs must be judged against: the best interest of the clients; support of a healthy, effective, and professional practice - confirming work environment (organizational culture); and feasibility for the organization within its socio-political and legislative context.

As well, this conceptualization of interlocking and converging dynamics of organizational behaviour and change respects complexity. The conceptualization also provides a framework to explore ways of accounting for change (effective and ineffective) or barriers to change and acknowledges multi-causality and interaction among factors that contribute to change dynamics. From a postmodern perspective, this study respects diverse knowledges and multiple standpoints while recognizing the likelihood that they all interact.

Method of Study

It is this researcher's view that the case study methodology is appropriate for this research, in particular, because it provides an effective means to understand the contextual conditions of the phenomenon under study and to respect complexity. This particular case study research is primarily a holistic single unit case design with elements of embedded case study design (Yin, 2003), the embedded case study design referring to subunits of analysis (e.g., the different program areas in which study participants are employed). The study is exploratory in nature, describing, analysing, and understanding the perceptions of social workers with regard to organizational change processes, as well as their perceptions of their impacts on that change process. The *case*, in this research, refers to an organization (Health and Community Services Board) which experienced rapid, pervasive, and externally motivated change. The goal is to expand and generalize theories (analytical generalizations) and understanding of organizational life as lived (Yin, 2003).

The research is primarily a holistic single unit case design with elements of the embedded case study design (Yin, 2003). The subunits (embedded design paradigm) explored, for example, include program areas such as Community Living Services (formerly Family and Rehabilitative Services), Child Welfare Services, and Youth Corrections Services. Another example of subunits is social workers who experienced the organizational change process and those social workers who did not experience the organizational change process but still lived with the product of change. The holistic synthesis of the study is conceptualized in analysing the various subunits as a whole to arrive at a broader interpretation and conceptualization of the change process from the perspective of the whole organization. The study is exploratory in nature - describing, analysing, and understanding the perceptions of social workers with regard to organizational change processes, as well as their perceptions of the impacts on them (the social workers) in relation to the change process.

In this particular study, the *case* is defined within the boundaries of being one community board which was developed when the major services and programs traditionally delivered by social workers, moved from a provincial government governed model to a community board governed model. The *case* under study includes a board which has the largest urban component within the province of Newfoundland and Labrador, as well as being the largest of the five community boards. The study includes all social workers who were employed within the major program areas (Child Welfare Services, Community Living Services, Youth Corrections Services).

Historically, from a research perspective, case studies may have been viewed as being less than ideal (Yin, 2003). Also, there has been a concern of the lack of rigor in the case study method of research. Possibly the greatest concern with the case study method is that it is considered to be not generalizable as it refers to only one case. However, this is not dissimilar to quantitative methods where an experiment is the single case. In case study research, case studies are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes (Yin, 2003). The investigator's goal in theoretical research, then, is to expand and generalize theories which are often referred to as analytical generalizations as opposed to statistical generalizations (Yin, 2003). Case studies are also of value in that they may be able to refine theory and suggest complexities requiring further investigation. Also of value, particularly in human services organizations and programs, is that they provide a forum for reflecting on the human experience and its impact on individuals and families, as well as on the employees in the organization under study. "The purpose of the case study is not to represent the world but to represent the case" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 245). Therefore, any analysis using descriptors or inferences as well as content analysis, is completed regarding the case only. The value of the *case* is that it emphasizes life as lived. The case study methodology is limited in that it is applicable to the case only and is not highly generalizable to other organizational change processes.

Data collection consisted of an analysis of seven government documents related to the organizational change process, a survey method in which six questionnaires were completed by the study participants, as well as semi structured interviews with six social workers who worked in the program areas identified (three social workers from the Child Welfare Services program

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area, two social workers from the Community Living Services program area, and one social worker from the Youth Corrections Services program area). The six social workers interviewed are those who experienced both the current and the former organization. The interviews were audio taped and later dicta typed for analysis.

The interview process included the hiring of an MSW student, acting as a coordinator, who had worked in the provincial Department of Social Services and Health and Community Services in the past but who was, at that time, employed with another provincial government department. The coordinator initiated contact with prospective interviewees who had been employed with both the former Department of Social Services and the Health and Community Services Board. The interviewees had to be employed with the former organization for at least one year (Morrow, 1988). The interviewees selected by the coordinator had much experience working in both the current and the former organization. The coordinator was a well known social worker in the community and was considered by the researcher to be a well respected and reputable social worker in the professional community. Interviewees were not identified to the researcher until consent was provided by the interviewees. In the text of this document, the interviewees are identified in the female gender due to the fact that the majority of employees/participants are female. The use of the term "she", as a generic term, will also help to protect the identity of the interviewees.

The interview process employed strategies of phenomenological interviewing; the study of the lived experiences of the interviewees in the organization. The purpose of this process is, "to

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describe the meaning of a concept or phenomenon that several individuals share" (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). The interviews focused on the interviewees' experiences of the organization in relation to the preliminary findings of the quantitative survey results and were asked to relate their experiences and their perceptions of the experiences of their professional colleagues of the organizational change process. The process was intended to help the researcher gain clarity and more depth to his findings. Upon completion of the interviews, common understandings and themes were drawn from the interviews as well as any areas in which there was not convergence of the experiences of the participants.

Focus groups were considered as this method may be a valuable way in which to attain rich data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Mertens, 1998; Kruger, 1994). However, the focus group approach was rejected due, in part, to the fact that there is a sense in this small community that social workers may not feel that they could be open to candidly expressing their opinions in a group setting due to the fact that organizational leaders may become aware of their views. With the move to the Health and Community Board model, interviewees indicated that there have been a number of social workers who have been "disciplined" as well as others who have been "terminated" from their employment. Thus, concern for ones employment a threatening work environment may be a valid concern for social workers in the organization. Individual interviews were considered to be an approach to enable open and candid reflection on life as lived in the organization.

As well, selected ($\underline{N}$ = 7) government reports leading up to the planned organizational change, were analyzed, using the content analysis approach. It is recognized that there may be more documents (internal and external) which may have added to the richness of the data. However, the documents selected are considered, from the experience and knowledge of this researcher (a former management employee with over 23 years of experience with the organization), to be critical documents related to the organizational change process. Content analysis is employed through an analysis of text in terms of the frequencies of the occurrences of selected theme words or phrases as the focus on analysis. Repeated themes often develop which help to underline and explain the main messages to be communicated or which are embedded in the text (Bryan, 2001). The analysis of the data consisted of two phases: (1) the study of subunits (quantitative and qualitative) or the emerging concepts or themes; and, (2) an analysis of the convergence of data from each subunit, to allow for a more complex and comprehensive analysis of selected aspects of the organizational change process.

The process of using multiple sources of data gathering is called triangulation. Triangulation is a process which is often used in organizational research (Reissman, 1994). In its simplest terms, triangulation involves reconciling information collected from different sources such as historical documents, interviews, surveys, and file information (Mertens, 1998). Some authors do not support the notion of triangulation, stating that it contradicts the acceptance of multiple realities (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Other authors support the process of triangulation in descriptive or exploratory studies since it does not make strong assertions or causal explanations (Yin, 2003). It is important for researchers in these circumstances to explore rival explanations which may

account for convergence or lack of convergence from multiple sources. The triangulation process supports the notion of being open to more complex and comprehensive approaches to understanding the phenomenon or unit of study. Triangulation, as an approach to analysis, fits well with the case study methodology which uses multiple sources of information gathering. The focus is on the *case* as the unit of analysis (Health and Community Services Board). The analysis of the *case* includes document analysis, quantitative analysis and individual interviews; they are considered for congruencies of themes and an attempt is made to reduce the data to a synthesis of understanding.

Sampling Decisions

The researcher was interested in completing research in a human services organization which has experienced significant organizational change processes. The researcher surveyed social workers who had experienced significant change within an organization. Within the Newfoundland and Labrador context, the researcher selected a Health and Community Services Board that had been the 'recipient' of three social work programs from the provincial government as part of an organizational change process. The province (of Newfoundland and Labrador) has been divided into five regional boards. The researcher selected one board as the *case* under study, and employed the largest group of social workers. This region included urban and rural social workers. The transfer of the social workers and the three programs (Child Welfare, Community Living, and, Youth Corrections) took place April 1, 1998. The population under study, in this organizational case study, was all social workers in the three program areas.

A pre-test was completed by ten social workers who were employed with another Health and Community Services Board in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. The purpose of the pre-test was to test for any lack of clarity in the instructions, the "user friendliness" of the document overall, whether the survey was too lengthy, and if the instruments were clear to the participants. The pre-test included the original six instruments which are included in this survey. Feedback included identification of areas that were unclear (for example, some of the socio-demographic information, as well as suggesting ways to clarify the introductory comments on some of the instruments. Feedback was integrated into the survey instrument which was subsequently mailed to study participants.

The population under study included all 160 front line social workers in three program areas (Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections). The study was approved by the Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR) at Memorial University of Newfoundland. Study participants completed a Consent Form (Consent to Participate in Research) (Appendix C). The survey questionnaire was mailed in January, 2003. Sixty (60) participants responded to the mail out questionnaire for a response rate of 37.5%. More socio-demographic data was gathered regarding the total population. Results indicated that the population was very similar to the sample of respondents which are presented in Chapter 4. Thirty-five (35) of the study participants who responded to the questionnaire had experienced the organizational change activity, the move from a government governed model to a community health board model. While many of the social workers in the selected population worked in an

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urban environment, the population also included social workers who worked in both suburban and rural geographical areas.

In this research, the researcher was interested in surveying the perceptions of, and the impacts on, (1) social workers who had experienced the culture of the former organization and who were employed with the former organization for a period of time sufficient to have attained some understanding of, and commitment to, the former organization, as well as (2) social workers who had experienced the current organization only. It is difficult to definitively measure the period of time it takes for an employee to attain a sense of commitment to an organization. The researcher's decision was to select only those employees who had been employed in the former organization for a period of one year or more. The procedural decision is consistent with evidence in the literature which suggests that it takes up to one year for new employees to be socialized into the organization (Bauer & Green, 1998; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990; Phillips, 1987).

Procedures and Selection of Instruments

Selection of Participants and Procedures

The study participants for the research included the population of all social workers who worked in the program areas of Child Welfare, Youth Corrections, and Community Living. The researcher was interested in studying the perceptions of those participants who had experienced

the organizational change process and, as well, to explore the experiences of those participants who were employed with the Health and Community Services Board but who had not lived through the organizational change process.

The Newfoundland and Labrador Association of Social Workers (NLASW) was approached by this researcher to support this study; prospective study participants were contacted as members of the professional association. The Association maintains a data base from which to draw the list of qualified social workers. The request to participate (Appendix B) and consent forms (Appendix C) were sent directly to the homes of prospective participants making it clear that they were being surveyed as professional social workers.

Each mailed questionnaire included a number assigned to each participant which permitted the matching of sets of questionnaires that were returned and allowed a research assistant to complete follow-up requests to those who had not returned their questionnaires.

An incentive was included to enhance the rate of return of the questionnaire. From the list of all respondents who completed the questionnaire, there was an inducement. An inducement of $250.00 was provided to one respondent. The respondent was selected by a random draw. A cut-off date for the return of questionnaires was set at 14 days after the mail out date. A follow-up letter was sent by day fourteen to participants who were delayed in returning questionnaires (Appendix G). After an additional fourteen days, a complete package of instruments and instructions was again sent to those participants who had not returned their original survey

instrument (Yammarino, Skinner, & Childers, 1991) (Appendix H). Each package included a self addressed, stamped envelope. This part of the research methodology consisted of a quantitative survey design which included questionnaires using six instruments (Appendices J - O); are described in detail in the validity and reliability section of this chapter.

Selection of Instruments

Decisions regarding the use of the instruments for this study were made after careful consideration of available instruments in relation to the study's needs, particularly in relation to the research questions posed. A detailed review of many different instruments was completed. One text in particular contained a considerable list of possible instruments for use (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr; 1981). This researcher was interested in instruments which would help analyse organizational change processes including impacts after the organizational change had taken place. In order to be able to analyse impacts of change processes and change, the researcher assessed the necessity to be able to measure aspects of the organizational environment and behaviour, both before the organizational change process and after the change had taken place, while recognizing that some form of organizational change is an ongoing process. As well, this researcher was interested in the role of leadership as one component of organizational change processes. Subsequently, a number of standardized instruments were selected. As well, this researcher developed his own questionnaire as there were no instruments developed which asked questions related to the researcher's area of interest.

Table 3.1
Instruments employed in mail out survey

Instrument	Measurement	Reliability
Commitment Questionnaire,	Employee commitment to organization	
	(Affective)	.85
	(Normative)	.70
	(Continuance)	.73
(Meyer & Allen, 1997)	(affective, continuance, normative components)	
Turnover	Employee intentions to leave organization (Seashore, Lawlor, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982)	.83
Devine Questionnaire (2002)	Selected (4) aspects of organizational change experiences (new questionnaire)	
	Impacts	.69
	Inputs	.72
	Work responsibilities	.61
	Client services	.90
Leadership (2) (Bass, 2000)	Ideal leadership styles (for current and former organization)	.63 - .92

Commitment Questionnaire

The Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer & Allen, 1997) was designed to measure three

components of commitment of employees to the organization. The questionnaire was considered

to be applicable in this study as it measures three facets of commitment to the organization

(affective, normative and continuance). The adapted version of the instrument measured only

two components of commitment (affective and normative). The continuance component of

commitment was not applicable as the adapted version measured the commitment of study

participants who had been employed in the former organization only. The instrument also

allowed the researcher to analyse and compare the levels of commitment of those who experienced both organizations (the former and the current organization). In addition, the instrument fits well in relation to the conceptual framework for observing and analysing change - the expanded Bolman and Deal (1997) model. Commitment was analyzed in relation to the human resources frame (emotional attachment to the organization), the political power frame (strength of loyalty to the organization), and the structural bureaucratic frames (commitment to the organization which was experiencing a major restructuring process and product).

Commitment, in the Meyer and Allen Scale does not, however, take into account one's commitment as a professional or one's commitment to the profession with which one is associated (Morrow, 1988). For example, some social workers may not feel committed to the organization but may feel committed to working with clients as they may believe that it is their ethical responsibility to provide the best possible service to clients, despite an organization which they view as not being responsive to client needs (Blau, 1988).

The Meyer and Allen Scale has been used extensively in the past. In a 1996 article regarding construct validity, the researchers referenced over 40 samples from previous research. Employees were from Canada and the United States of America and included professionals such as nurses, police officers, as well as MBA students, volunteers of community boards and clerical, managerial, and administrative employees. The sample sizes varied from 60 to 2301 study participants. Thus, the Scale is quite appropriate and applicable to this study.

Intention to Turnover Instrument

The Intention to Turnover instrument (Seashore, Lawlor, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982), while used as a measure only in relation to the current organization, provided the researcher with an indication of how dissatisfied organizational employees were with the current organization. It was also possible to associate items related to the continuance aspect of the Commitment Scale, to the Intention to Turnover instrument, as employees who do not feel highly committed to the organization are believed to be more likely to leave the organization (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky, 2001). The Intention to Turnover aspect of the analysis was also analyzed in relation to specific questions in the Devine Questionnaire related to employees who perceived that they did not have genuine input into the change process.

The Intention to Turnover Scale (Seashore, Lawlor, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982) assessed the intent of employees to leave the organization, suggesting that employees are satisfied or not satisfied with their work environment. For example, if employees report a strong intention level to leave the organization, this may suggest that the organizational change process has met with very limited success. The results of the instrument administered may be analyzed in relation to the revised Bolman and Deal (1997) conceptual framework, in relation to one or several of the frames identified, discussed, and analyzed in Chapter 2.

Devine Questionnaire on Organizational Change Experiences

The Devine Questionnaire on Organizational Change Experiences (2002) was developed by this researcher as no standardized instruments were found which specifically addressed some variables associated with the organizational change process in which the researcher was interested. For example, the researcher was interested in exploring issues of the perceived impacts of pervasive organizational change on client services (for example, whether services were effective, accessible, relevant, comprehensive, and client centered). There was also interest in determining if there was opportunity and ability for employees to provide input into aspects of the change process with respect to the integration of social services within a community board governed model.

This instrument asked a series of questions related to employees' experiences with the organizational change process and perceptions regarding current organizational functioning, sometimes in comparison with organizational functioning before the change. The main concepts informing the items designed for this instrument relate to social worker input into the change process, the perceived limitations of input into the change process, and the impacts in terms of perceptions of current organizational functioning and professional responsibilities in the workplace environment, as well as impacts personally and professionally, and impacts on clients and client services. Some items in the instrument were formulated based on concepts associated with the purpose, process and product or aftermath of organizational change - in this case rapid and pervasive transformation.

While the newly developed instrument is of unknown reliability and validity, the items have face validity, and the items were used to derive a summary score for each item, by using a Likert type measure (1 - 7). The instrument was designed for this study; the items provided the researcher with beginning insight into the impacts of selected aspects of the organizational change process. In addition, the analysis of the items in the Devine Questionnaire, in relation to the conceptual framework, provided for a more in depth analysis of experiences of selected aspects of the change process. Analysis was conceptualized within the political power frame (for example, employees felt that they did not have meaningful input), the structural bureaucratic frame (for example, the change process was viewed as a change in structure only with little changing in terms of daily case management behaviour), and the cognitive symbolic frame (for example, change to a language of community relevance without the community board model providing improved services).

Finally, the Devine Questionnaire on Organizational Change Experiences (2002) focused on significant dimensions of the organizational change process in relation to participation in the change activity and impact of the input of front line social workers on the organizational change process, organizational support, work responsibilities, and how these responsibilities may have changed (Appendix A). The Devine instrument items were utilized, along with the results of other instruments, to arrive at a synthesis of findings/conclusions, in relation to the revised Bolman and Deal (1997) conceptual framework, particularly related to how social workers perceive their input and subsequent impacts on organizational change processes.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1995; 2000) was selected due to the critical role leaders and leadership often plays in the process and successful outcome of organizational change. As well, the conceptual framework specifically identifies leadership as one of the frames for the observation and analysis of organizational change. The Multi Factorial Leadership Questionnaire was completed in two time frames by those employees in the organization who experienced both the former and the current organization($\underline{M}$ = 2.25; $\underline{M}$ = 2.11). The results of applying the leadership questionnaire helped the researcher to analyse the leadership styles of front line management and to analyse the results within the context of the interface of leadership and change. Part of the intent was to ensure that the style of front line leaders was considered within the context of perceptions of the change process and product by those "led". By comparing the perceptions of those who experienced both organizations (the former and the current organization), this analysis of data provided insight into how management behaviour and leadership style in the change process was perceived. The change in the profession of the leaders (supervisors) from the former to the current organization was not determined in the study.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1995; 2000) has been used extensively and measures leadership "style" and behaviour from the transformational to the transactional type of leader. The questionnaire was administered two times. Only employees who were employed with the former organization completed the questionnaire the second time. They were directed to complete the second questionnaire 'as if' they were employed with the former organization. For

the leadership frame of the conceptual framework, the analysis of social workers' perceptions of leadership provided the researcher with an ability to understand leadership within an organizational change context, as well as the impacts of change on leadership at the front line management level. The focus in this study was on the lived experience of professional social workers with specific leaders, not a synthesis of their experience with leadership as a collective.

Content Analysis

Content analysis was completed on seven documents related to the organizational change process. Six of the documents are government documents leading up to the actual organization change or move to the community health board governed model. The seventh document was an evaluation completed by an outside agency contracted to evaluate the organizational change process. The content analysis of the six documents revealed common themes related to the vision and the proposed or expected process of the organizational change process. The analysis of the seventh document utilized some interim evaluation data.

A content analysis approach to research may be both quantitative and qualitative in nature (Bryman, 2001). While there are varying definitions in the literature, the following was selected as being congruent with the thinking in this study: "Content analysis is any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages" (Holsti, 1969, p. 14) - associated with the theme of inquiry. Quantification is operationalized by predetermining (usually) the words or phrases that the researcher will have developed in the

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analysis of documents or texts, in most cases (Krippendorf, 1980). The frequencies of the occurrences of selected words and/or phrases is the focus of analysis. Qualitative analysis is operationalized when the researcher is analysing the data for themes and patterns of association among observations, in the documents or texts. Themes may be identified in a systematic study of the paragraph as the unit of analysis (Weber, 1990). The qualitative approach is often referred to as ethnographic content analysis (Bryman, 2001). This researcher employed a content analysis approach from an ethnographic perspective. Ethnographic content analysis refers, in part, to "...the role of the investigator in the construction of the meaning of and in texts" (Bryman, 2001, p. 180), sometimes referred to as qualitative content analysis.

Six social workers who had experienced the organizational change process were interviewed - three social workers from the program area of Child, Youth and Family Service; two social workers from the program area of Community Living Services, and one social worker from the program area of Youth Corrections. In-person interviews were conducted in a semi-structured format. The outcomes of the mail out survey were used to guide the interview process. The interview process and subsequent analysis provided the researcher with information that further supported the results of the quantitative survey and the document analysis. The analysis of the in-person interviews included searching for common themes and patterns of relationships in the documents from the interview process.

The ethnographic approach of analysis studied the text for themes related to the organizational change process and its impacts. This (ethnographic) approach suggests seeking out latent

meanings in the text, seeking out underlying themes (Royse, 1999). The ethnographic approach is expected to provide richer and more comprehensive information, which will assist understanding this organizational change process more in-depth.

Validity and Reliability of Instruments

The issue of validity and reliability is one which is important to consider in a case study design. This study employs the method of triangulation. The second part of the study included a mail out survey which included several instruments. Most of the instruments are standardized and have validity and reliability established. However, the Devine Questionnaire is new and, therefore, is limited in terms of validity and reliability. Each of the instruments are discussed below. The mail out questionnaire included six instruments, namely: (1) Meyer and Allen Questionnaire (1997), (2) Meyer and Allen Questionnaire - Adapted (2002), (3) Intention to Turnover Scale (1982), (4) Devine Questionnaire on Organizational Change Experiences (2002), (5) Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (2000) [for all participants], and (6) Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (2000) [for participants who experienced to former organization only] (Appendix J - O). The instruments were identified as separate from each other. Within the mail out document, there was a flow from one questionnaire to the next, to make it easier for participants to follow.

Each of the instruments used in the study are described in the following text.

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Commitment Questionnaire

The Commitment Scale measures commitment to the organization overall as opposed to commitment to various individuals or groups within organizations. Commitment is defined as follows:

> ...affective, continuance, and normative commitment are psychological states that characterize the person's relationship with the entity in question, and have implications for the decisions to remain involved with it. (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 93)

Within this conceptualization, *affective commitment* refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and personalized involvement in the organization; *continuance commitment* is related to an awareness of the personal and social costs associated with leaving the organization, while *normative commitment* refers to the feeling of obligation to continue employment, somewhat of an indicator of loyalty or lack of alternatives (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Commitment is viewed as a "psychological state."

The connotations of employee perceptions are important to the actualization of the commitment concept. Employees who perceive the organization to be supportive of them have been found to have a stronger sense of commitment, regardless of whether the support actually exists or not (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The scale measures types of employee commitment (continuance, affective, and normative) to the organization.

Meyer and Allen (1997), in providing a summary of the concept of organizational commitment, suggest that employees with strong *affective commitment* tend to be more valuable as employees versus those with weak affective commitment. The concept falls within the semantic field (Sartori, 1984) of loyalty to, and interest in, supporting the organization. Similar effects on loyalty and supportive interest are reported overall by Meyer and Allen (1997) with respect to *normative commitment,* but these effects are weaker than those with *affective commitment.* Therefore, one would hope that those employees with strong affective and normative commitment would also have strong levels of continuance commitment to the organization. It would be concerning, from an organizational perspective, if employees had weak affective and normative levels of commitment and strong levels of continuance commitment; the implication being that employees stay with the organization because there are limited options for other employment, not because they value the organization.

The Commitment instrument is a 7-point likert scale whereby study participants can agree-disagree on the scale, with the rating of one (1) indicating very strong disagreement to a rating of seven (7) indicating very strong agreement. Demographic and antecedent variables have been used in previous studies on commitment including personal characteristics such as age, years in the occupation, and employment status (i.e., full-time versus part-time), although the role of demographics has not proved to be strong (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997). There was no information available on the overall level of commitment from past studies. Therefore, one cannot generalize or compare the levels of commitment in this study to overall levels of commitment from other studies.

The implication from the Meyer and Allen (1997) Scale is that employees with strong

continuance commitment and weak levels of affective and normative commitment, can be poor

performers and exhibit more "dysfunctional" behaviours (e.g., taking an exceptional

interpretation to legislation regarding the protection of children in child welfare matters). The

"dysfunctional behaviours" may be related to the fact that they do not feel a sense of loyalty to

the organization (affective commitment); they do not have a sense of loyalty to the organization

(normative commitment); but, they feel a need to stay with the organization because they have

little or no options to find employment elsewhere (continuance commitment). In an

organizational change environment where the change is rapid in particular, employees who feel

'trapped' in that they cannot escape the change, may view any or all organizational behaviour as

suspect, even when management actions may not have a surreptitious goal. The negative and

suspicious views of the organization (within the psychodynamic frame), combined with

continuance, can have the effect of further destabilizing an organization which is often in an

unstable state in relation to change.

Reliability estimates for the Meyer and Allen (1997) scale have been quite high, as indicated in

Table 3.1. Internal consistencies for the three scales have been estimated by using coefficient

alpha. "Median reliabilities for the affective, continuance, and, normative commitment scales,

respectively, are .85, .79, and .73" (p. 120). Temporal stability refers to the test-retest reliability,

which tends to be lower when commitment is measured early in employees' careers (Meyer &

Allen, 1997; Lam, 1998; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Thus, selecting employees who worked for at

least one year with the former organization, are supported in terms of the cut off for study

participants who are to complete the adapted version of the Commitment Questionnaire in this study. Construct validity for the three components of commitment are supported in the literature (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Commitment Questionnaire - Adapted

The adapted version of this scale measures affective and normative commitment only. The nine questions omitted refer to continuance commitment and are not relevant as the research relates to social workers who are now with a 'new' organization. It is expected that the validity and reliability of the adapted version of the questionnaire are not impacted as each of the components relate to separate components of commitment. The adapted version omits the continuance component as participants may find it difficult to consider continuing to work with an organization which no longer exists.

The Commitment scale for this research was adapted by the researcher to allow for those employees who worked for the former organization to give their perceptions of both the former organization and the present organization. The 14 questions in the Adapted Commitment Questionnaire are the same as 14 of the 23 questions in the original Meyer and Allen scale - the difference is that the 14 questions relate to the former organization only and measure affective and normative commitment only. The remaining nine questions are related to continuance commitment and would not be relevant or applicable as these questions are related to the personal and social costs associated with leaving the (former) organization.

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The Commitment scale helped to inform organizational change in terms of analyzing levels of employee commitment to the current and the former organization as it relates to the conceptual framework. The commitment of the employees who worked for the former organization was compared by applying the results from the scale and its adapted format. In addition, the commitment levels of the social workers who also worked in the former organization were compared to social workers who worked in the current organization only.

Additional layers of complexity in the analysis were attained by considering results within the context of dimensions in the conceptual framework guiding observations and judgements regarding organizational change. The structural bureaucratic frame is expected to inform the analysis of impact on employees in relation to organizational change in the structure from a government governed model to a community board governed model. From the human resources frame, changes in levels of commitment may indicate that the organization's employees were impacted by the change process four years after the organizational change process. Some logical possibilities are that their commitment levels could be higher or lower when comparing the 'before' and 'after' levels of commitment, relative to the onset of the pervasive change process. While leadership is analyzed within a separate instrument, the implication is also embedded within the commitment scale that leadership in change is critical to 'successful' change; one would expect to see equal or higher levels of commitment if leadership styles are associated with effective and successful change.

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The Commitment instrument (and the adapted Commitment instrument) is also helpful in that it can provide evidence that employees with low levels of commitment may exhibit lack of trust or suspicion related to the psychodynamic frame of the revised Bolman and Deal (1997) conceptual framework for understanding organizational behaviour. Lower levels of commitment may also provide direction in relation to the political power frame in that employees with low levels of commitment may have felt disempowered within the change process; their self empowerment may be reflected in this intention to leave the organization. The items in the Devine Questionnaire will also help to permit deeper analysis of commitment in relation to perceptions of input and impact, related to the change process, for example.

Intention to Turnover Scale

This scale indicates employees' satisfaction, or lack thereof, with the organization in relation to their considering leaving the organization. Turnover can be costly in terms of hiring and training new staff, as well as contributing to the low morale of employees who stay (Price, 1977). Turnover can also be costly when employees stay with the organization only because they have no other employment options. Staying with the organization under these circumstances is viewed as contributing to personal and organizational "dysfunction" (e.g., clock watching) (Dalton, Todor, & Krackhardt, 1982). One study of turnover (Hinrichs, 1980) indicated that older employees are less likely to leave the organization and, conversely, younger employees are less likely to stay with the organization. Intentions of employees to leave the organization are important factors to consider for organizations, particularly as a starting point to explore the

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reasons for employee dissatisfaction, with a view to improving the work environment and work conditions, as necessary.

Asking questions regarding an employee's intention to leave (or not leave) the organization can overlap with the concept of job satisfaction, with the intention to leave resulting from a lack of workplace satisfaction and/or job satisfaction, which can also be related to commitment to the organization. Issues such as changing roles and responsibilities may also be related to the macro level issues of organizational change. In this study "Intention to Turnover" was one of the dependent variables and is juxtaposed to the independent variable of response to organizational change. The assumption is that employees' perceptions about organizational change and its impacts on them and their work influence their intent to leave the organization. In turn, their intent to leave the organization may be interactive with the dynamics of commitment. The assumption is that the process and product of organizational change impacts commitment and intentions to turnover.

The Intention to Turnover instrument is expected to provide the researcher with information which, when combined with other dimensions of information, may enable an analysis related to a number of organizational behaviour frames within the conceptual framework. For example, employees who indicate a low level of intention to leave the organization, may suggest that, from the human resources frame, they feel reasonably satisfied with their work or with the organization. Continued intention to stay with an organization, after rapid and pervasive restructuring, could also indicate, from the cognitive/symbolic frame, that social workers have

made a successful transition to the 'new' organization and/or that the restructuring (as process and product) did not support an outcome that increased turnover. Within the political power frame, it may also be inferred that employees, who do not intend to leave the organization, believe that their relative power and control and competition over scarce resources as well as their work and organizational life have changed little as a result of the restructuring. Satisfaction with leaders and leadership style, as measured in this study, was associated with either intention to stay or to leave. In summary, the analysis of the Leadership instrument in conjunction with the Intent to Turnover instrument may further assist the researcher in his analysis within the conceptual framework.

Devine Questionnaire on Organizational Change Experiences

The instrument developed by this researcher is a Likert type scale using a seven category rating scale which is appropriate for this type of research (Peterson, 2000). Two of the questions (1 & 2) sought the opinions of study participants with regard to the impact that the integration of health and social services had on employees both professionally (as a professional practitioner) and personally (with regard to impacts on her/his personal life). Seven questions (3 - 10) related to employees' input into management decision making with respect to major organizational changes. These changes addressed both the opportunity to provide input and obstacles to providing the input they wanted to provide. One question (11) related to how services might impact clients. Two questions (12 & 13) related to changes in work responsibilities. These questions address both the degree of change in responsibilities to date and anticipated changes in

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responsibilities in the foreseeable future. One question (14) related to the respondent's perception of the degree of control s/he had over her/his present work environment compared to the work environment of the former organization.

Organizational support for employees is another important concept in helping to enable more successful change. Organizational support was defined in question (15) as visible or concrete support such as supporting an employee to attend continuing education seminars. For the current organization, one measure of continuing or increased support to employees (as compared to the former organization), particularly in organizational change processes and products, may be to provide concrete support (such as time and funding for professional development) to professional staff, who are part of the focus of this study.

Another question (16) sought the employees' perceptions of interdisciplinary collaboration. This concept was considered a critical component to the integration of social work with other disciplines. The question was also contextually relevant in that the integration of health and social services had, as one of its goals, the establishment of interdisciplinary approaches to service delivery.

Each of the next three questions (17 - 19) sought employees' perceptions of the number, availability, and contextual relevance of services. The integration of Health and Social Services was espoused to make services more accessible and available to clients, as well as be able to provide more contextually relevant services.

The Devine Questionnaire asked questions related to a number of aspects of the employees' perceptions of the organizational change experience. The conceptual framework helped guide the analysis of the responses to items in the instrument in a number of ways. For example, where employees perceived that the change process was a foregone conclusion, the political power frame helped inform the analysis in that organizations who disempower employees may be left with a workforce which is disillusioned and may have reduced commitment to the organization (Meyer and Allen Questionnaire). Changes which are viewed as being purely symbolic with no genuine or substantive change, from the cognitive/symbolic frame, may be associated with employees lack of commitment, with some intending to leave the organization (Intention To Turnover Scale). Similarly, from the perspective of the structural/bureaucratic frame, change of structure (from a government governed model to a community board governed model) in the absence of positive impacts on employees and client services, suggested no effective change at all, or change which has an overall negative impact on the organization, its employees and its clients. Embedded in the various perceptions of change is the notion of leadership, specifically that a person or persons had to lead the change process with change products in mind. If employees are 'disillusioned' about various aspects of change, there is an implied lack of leadership throughout the organization, which is also addressed to some extent in the Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire. The layering of the various instruments in conjunction with the conceptual framework provided for an in-depth analysis of the change process.

The Devine Questionnaire is not a standardized instrument. It is a new instrument developed by this researcher specifically to address questions related to the organizational change process

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under study. Four concepts were identified in the questionnaire and the reliability (internal) for each of the concepts was tested using SPSS, with the results indicating that reliability was high. It is important to also note that the questions in the Devine Questionnaire address only selected aspects of the organizational change process and do not deal in depth with the selected aspects of the change process.

Not withstanding the above, content validity is reflected in the face validity of the two questions on the impacts of integration; the limitations here are that only two types of behavior are surveyed. With respect to input in the transition process, there were six questions whose face validity is reflected in the literature on meaningful participation in organizations. Statistical reliability for five supports the notion that these behavioral items are sufficient to argue in favor of content validity. The five questions on work responsibilities, appeared to have face validity but only two were reliable indicators of impacts directly associated with integration. The three questions related to impacts on client services appeared to have face validity, but only two proved to be reliable indicators of impacts associated with integration; these reflect a small sample of potential behaviors with content validity. The remainder of the items (7) on the Devine Questionnaire were not found to be reliable and, as a result, their content validity is a moot point.

Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ[a]) (for all participants) and

Mullti-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ[b]) (for participants who experienced the

former organization only).

The MLQ[a] was selected as it provided the researcher with insight into front line leadership

within a human services organization which had undergone an organizational change process and

which continues to experience ongoing change. The instrument was presented two times in the

survey. The first copy of the instrument (MLQ[a]) was completed by all respondents in relation

to leadership in the present, integrated organization. The second copy (MLQ[b])was completed

only by those social workers who worked for at least one year with the former organization.

These participants were asked to complete the instrument in relation to their experience of

leadership in the former organization and as if they were still working in that environment. The

instrument provided insight into the present leadership as well as the perception of change in

leadership style after the radical change.

The aforementioned leadership questionnaire has been used extensively. The authors of the

questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2000) indicate that 3,786 respondents in 14 independent samples,

including foreign firms, completed the current version of the questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X).

Both construct validity and reliability of the instrument are supported.

> Reliabilities for each of the 6 leadership factor scales ranged from .63 to .92. Estimates
>
> of internal consistency were above .70 for all scales except for active management-by-
>
> exception (Bass & Avolio, 2000, p. 40).

The MLQ Form 5X has been used in almost 200 research programs, doctoral dissertations and masters theses. Research supports positive correlations between all components of transformational leadership and indicators of objective measures of performance (e.g., a manager who spends time teaching and coaching employees) (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Transformational leadership is highly correlated with organizational effectiveness (Avolio & Bass, 1991). In addition, Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996) found that women were somewhat more transformational in their leadership style than their male counterparts.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measures six factors related to transformational leadership. These factors include the following:

1. *Charismatic/Inspirational* - provides followers with a clear sense of purpose that is energizing; a role model for ethical conduct which builds identification with the leader and his/her articulated vision.

2. *Intellectual Stimulation* - gets followers to question the tried and true ways of solving problems; encourages them to question the methods they use and to improve upon them.

3. *Individualized Consideration* - focuses on understanding the needs of each follower and works continuously to get them to develop to their full potential.

4. *Contingent Reward* - clarifies what is expected from followers and what they will receive if they meet expected levels of performance.

5.   *Active Management-by-exception* - focuses on monitoring task execution for any

problems that might arise and correcting those problems to maintain current

performance levels.

6.   *Passive Avoidant* - tends to react only after problems have become serious to take

corrective action. Oftentimes will avoid making decisions at all. "(Bass &

Avolio, 2000, p. 29)

This questionnaire provided the researcher with a broad conceptualization of organizational

leadership (in this case, frontline leadership only), particularly how leadership is viewed in a

human service organization which has undergone an organizational change process, and which

continues to cope with the impacts of change processes and products.

This study analyzed leadership at the lower level of management only (i.e., front line supervisors

to front line social workers). The results from the leadership questionnaires may provide insight

into the impact of organizational change on groups of employees who had experienced the

organizational change process compared to those who had not experienced the organizational

change process. Within the broader context of the conceptual framework, the leadership

questionnaire may guide the analysis of leadership and how it might be ascribed with support for

employees and clients in the organizational change process. Leaders need to be aware of the

importance of the notion of cognitive restructuring (within a 'change' process) and the time

employees need to not only "let go" of the former organization as well as to adapt at a cognitive

level, the new organization, its mission, values and mandate. Providing transformational

leadership which can effectively espouse and live the mission, values, and mandate of the new organization can help make the cognitive shift more accepting and effective.

Each of the instruments described in this section, were selected due to their relevance to a particular organizational change process under study. Interrelations among aspects of the instruments also support a more comprehensive analysis of the data collected within the context of the modified Bolman and Deal (1997) conceptual framework. The qualitative analysis of this part of the research (in-person interviews with selected participants) also adds to a deeper understanding of steps leading up to the change process itself.

Steps in Data Analysis

The plan of analysis is the case study approach. Within this context, the findings are generalizable to the case under study only and are not generalizable to other organizational change processes, either provincially, nationally, or globally. The focus of the analysis is to analyze, describe, and compare selected aspects of organizational change as perceived by social workers in a human services organization which had experienced the change. The analysis was completed in the ways outlined below.

1.   Inferential Statistics:

      A.   Means tests, Pearson's r, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests are used to analyse commitment levels as well as to assess the relationships between

employee demographics (tenure with the organization, gender, professional education), commitment levels of those employed with the former organization and those employed with the current organization only, leadership styles as perceived by employees who experienced both the current and the former organizations and those who experienced only the current organization, and, intention of selected groups of employees to leave the organization.

B. Pearson's r, t-tests, reliability tests and analysis of variance tests were used to analyze items in the Devine Questionnaire to assess the relationship between demographics (tenure with the organization, gender, education), professional and personal impacts on change, perceptions of input into the change process, perceptions of impacts on client services, work responsibilities, and organizational support.

C. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were used to measure the effects of tenure, program area of employment, and gender on levels of commitment to the organization, intent to turnover, and perceptions of front line leadership.

D. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were used to analyze items in the Devine Questionnaire to assess the relationship between demographics (tenure with the organization, gender, education), professional and personal impacts on client services, work responsibilities, and organizational support.

3. Content Analysis:

A. Content analysis of interviews with six social workers using ethnographic approach to analyze content of interviews.

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B.   Analysis of documents, using content analysis approach, leading up to change to a community board governed model.

Figure 3.1
Conceptual Framework Model
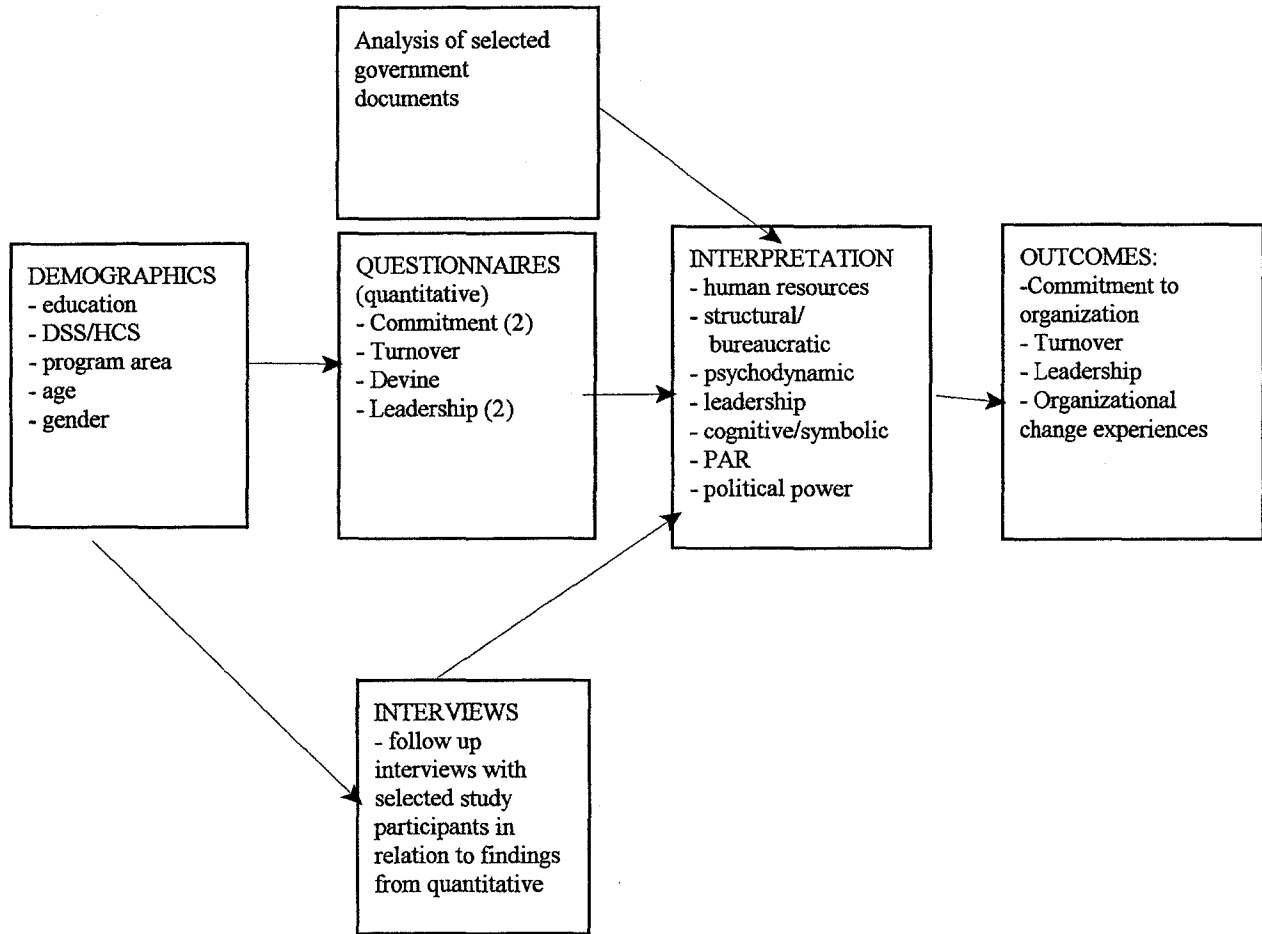
Figure 1. Proposed Relationships among study variables

Note: Commitment = commitment of study participants to the organization (both current and former).

Turnover = study participants' intentions to leave the current organization.

Leadership = ideal leadership styles of front line organizational leaders (in relation to both current and former organizations).

Devine Questionnaire = questions related to selected aspects of organizational change experiences.

CHAPTER IV

Content Analysis

Introduction

The move of traditional social work delivered services from a government governed model to a

community health governed model took place within the context of a number of changes in

approaches to social programs provincially, nationally, and globally over this past two decades or

more (Dibben, Wood, and Roper, 2004; Lightman, 2003; Battle, 1998, Rowe, 1997). In addition,

at the provincial level, there were several key provincial government documents (seven of which

are identified and analyzed below) which identified concerns with the delivery of programs and

services in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. It appears that two parallel processes

were taking place. The funding arrangement with the federal government (from CAP to CHST)

was changing, resulting in many provincial reviews, with the result that the province was

receiving less revenues. Moreover, there was a realization that the delivery of programs and

services was inefficient and required a more stream lined approach to provide more efficient

services as is identified in relation to the documents under analysis. Ultimately, there was an

integration of health and social services within community health boards; this mandate was to

oversee and deliver health and community services in the province of Newfoundland and

Labrador. The documents identified below were among a number of key documents which

indicated the need to develop and deliver services which would be more integrated (in terms of

working across programs and services and between various professionals) to provide better (more effective, more efficient, more accessible, and more responsive) services to clients.

Seven (7) government related documents are analyzed using a content analysis approach. The documents analyzed included the following:

1. Classroom Issues Committee: Executive Summary - Report To The Social Policy Committee Of The Provincial Cabinet (January, 1995).

2. "Select Committee on Children's Issues: Listening and Acting: A Plan for Child, Youth and Community Empowerment". St. John's, Newfoundland. Published Under the Authority of the Speaker of the House of Assembly Honourable Lloyd G. Snow (June, 1996).

3. Volume 1: "What the People Said" Report of the Strategic Social Plan Public Dialogue, Newfoundland and Labrador (Social Policy Advisory Committee, 1997)

4. Volume 11: "Investing in People and Communities - A Framework for Social Development" - Report of the Social Policy Advisory Committee. (March 11, 1997).

5. Executive Summary: Towards the 21st Century: "Report on the Review of the Child Welfare Act and Program with Proposals for Future Directions". (July 28, 1997).

6. People, Partners and Prosperity: A Strategic Social Plan for Newfoundland and Labrador. Government of Newfoundland and Labrador (1998).

7. A Retrospective of the Health and Community Services Integration Initiative: Transition Phase. Institute for Human Resources Development (May 12, 1998).

This researcher is using the paragraph as the unit of analysis (Weber, 1990). Themes were

identified in each paragraph of the selected documents. Each theme was then typed and a count

of consistent themes was completed (Bryman, 2001; Royse, 1999; Krippendorf, 1980; Holsti,

1969). The result is an ordered list of the nine most frequently cited themes in each document.

The nine themes identified in the documents are listed in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1

List of significant themes emerging from documents leading up to organizational change process
and products

- ▶ participation and empowerment - being involved in the change process in a way that is

  meaningful to the participants

- ▶ impacts - on people, programs and services

- ▶ change - within and outside of organizations, programs and services

- ▶ prevention and early intervention - in the lives of citizens to help alleviate or prevent

  problems from occurring

- ▶ collaboration - especially with other professionals and groups and/or organizations

  including other government departments at various levels and community organizations

- ▶ strengths - individual and collective, as well as a strengths based perspective

- ▶ poverty - as an underlying issue in many social programs and policies

- ▶ volunteerism/third sector - in community

- ▶ leadership - in government and non-government organizations

The nine themes are presented in this text in order of their frequency. For example, the concept of participation was identified most frequently in the documents and is presented first. The use of numbers in identifying the frequency rates does not suggest reliability but indicates which concepts were identified in relation to other concepts. The scope of the analysis included findings from all documents, findings related to the documents over time (from the time of the earliest report to the latest report analyzed), a review of three key documents in the group of documents to be analyzed and a review of the evaluation document related to the change process, the transition year (April, 1997 to end-March, 1998) as completed by an outside agency contracted by government. A comprehensive analysis was completed of the first six (6) documents initially. The seventh document is an evaluation of the change process after the fact. Therefore, it was analyzed separately.

Analysis

Considering the first six (6) documents, the conceptual theme of participation and empowerment was most frequently referenced and discussed. The general theme reflected the importance of people, government, its employees, and community having a voice in change and the development of policies, programs and services. The notion of participation as an empowering method of making policies and programs more relevant to those clients or consumers for which it was intended to serve, was viewed as being critically important. Also embedded within the participation concept was the sense that participation could help to ensure that services and

programs could be more effective and efficient-providing the best possible services to clients and to community in a cost efficient manner.

The concept of impacts on people, programs and services was the second most frequent concept identified and discussed overall. Concerns were expressed, particularly in the consultation by the Social Strategic Plan(SSP) Committee, with regard to impacts on employees such as social workers, and the service delivery demands. There were also issues related to impacts on programs and services within the government and community structures at those points in time (in the mid to late 1990s). There was a strong sense of limitations with regard to the ability of agencies to provide adequate services and the impacts on both the service providers as well as the service recipients. Moving programs and services to a community health board model and creating a more integrated, community based service delivery system was viewed as being a more effective and efficient means to improve services overall. The reality has been that the struggle to provide adequate services continues to be a struggle. For example, a recent news item (June 20, 2005) related a case in the Supreme Court of Newfoundland and Labrador court hearing, where a mother severely abused her children physically (broken ribs and a broken leg) and psychologically (by making the children sleep on the bedroom floor in the winter with the window open and snow blowing into the bedroom), which suggests that some areas of programs and services are less than adequate in a community health board model (The Telegram, October 27, 2005).

The concept of change in human services organizations is not new. The concept of change was the third most frequently cited concept overall in all the documents analyzed. Discussions included the need for change in organizations which were viewed as being ineffective and inefficient. Change was assessed as being needed to improve programs and services whether from within or from without. Changes, while often not defined or not well defined, were viewed as being both overdue and essential to better meet the needs of people and for program monies to be spent more 'wisely' (e.g.; less duplication of services). Changes were also identified as being subject to challenges with regard to limited funding, for example, as well as the unique geography of the province which is very rural by nature. The underlying theme appeared to be that change was inevitable and that, while change was overdue, it was important to effect change that would have the most positive impacts for the province's citizens, whether that change be in the way government departments delivered services or by changing to a community health board model of service delivery.

While changes were identified as being greatly needed, the 'new vision' was not espoused clearly. Overall, the documents identified that the system(s) at that time were not working and a different way needed to be developed to provide services which would more adequately meet the needs of the community. The 'new vision' did include the notion that services needed to be more relevant and accessible to community and that the model at that time was not working. Community appeared to be defined more as local community, however, local was not defined. Some documents, such as the social strategic framework (Government of NL, 1998) discussed the need for a comprehensive social strategic plan as well as completing policy impact analysis

and developing a social audit where the impacts of social policies on people and communities could be measured. These and other recommended concepts provided a broad vision for possible changes that might be effective. However, the documents were not specific on how changes should come about and what specifically needed to be changed. There was an underlying theme of the need for pervasive changes.

Prevention and early intervention were highlighted consistently throughout all documents. The critical importance of prevention and early intervention appear to have been unquestioned in the identified documents. The importance of prevention appeared to have been validated by the subsequent inclusion of prevention within the new Child Welfare legislation (1999). It was clear that the concepts of prevention and early intervention were ones that were valued and validated in the documents. However, the concept of prevention and early intervention must be clearly defined in order to be effectively implemented. It appears, that prevention, to date, has been given limited priority, at best.

Although collaboration was the fifth most frequently discussed concept in the documents overall, it was a consistent concept. Various documents used the concepts of collaboration and partnerships in relation to collaboration between professionals, between different government departments, between government departments and community based agencies and between agencies (governmental and non-governmental) and the community in general. The notion of all players in community, working together to provide programs and services to its people, was a consistent message in all documents. It was identified that there was a need to work together as

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opposed to working in isolation, which had been more the tradition between organizations. The documents suggested that programs and services were being duplicated, resulting in inefficient service delivery and that there was a need for programs and services to work more closely and/or to be integrated, with a view to providing more effective and efficient programs and services. The concept of collaboration also included the notion of different professionals working more closely to better meet the needs of common clients.

The concept of strengths in the analysis of documents referred to strengths that individuals, families, and communities have that help build and support the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. It is both individual and collective strength. Documents referred to the fact that people are very resilient and will continue to fight, sometimes against great odds. It was suggested that the strengths and weaknesses of people and communities need to be identified as ways to build better communities. The notion of building on supporting our children is a critical part of this strengths based approach. The concept suggests an approach to service provision, at least in part, where client strengths and abilities are given more recognition as opposed to the illness or deficit model.

Poverty was also a reoccurring theme. It was identified that poverty is an issue in many social programs such as social assistance and the low minimum wage rates. There was the recognition that poverty affects all aspects of the life of individuals, families, and communities. Poverty and health are interrelated, as well as poverty and education. Lack of education and educational opportunities often means that employment opportunities are limited, which limits

income. Childhood poverty and its multiple impacts were also identified. Broad recommendations were made suggesting that poverty, as an underlying issue, needed to be addressed.

Related to the issue of poverty, the province of Newfoundland and Labrador has the highest rate of child poverty in the country, at 21.9% in 2002 (Campaign 2000), according to the Campaign 2000 report card. One may suggest that there is reason for optimism as the child poverty rate was 25.1% in 1998. The provincial trends appear to be similar to the national trends. However, when one considers that the province of Newfoundland and Labrador is one of the fastest growing provinces on the economic side (The Daily, 2003), the figures do not give the level of optimism that one might expect. While the province led in economic growth (GDP) in 2003 in Canada, there is not a parallel decrease in child poverty.

The concept of volunteerism (also referred to as the third sector) suggested that it is a vital component in community. The volunteer sector was identified as being very active in community. This group was identified as having valuable skills and knowledge critical to building community and to being involved in any organizational change processes to give direction to government and community boards. However, volunteers expressed concern that they were already overburdened. They also expressed the concern that restructuring could mean that more responsibilities may be placed on them. It was recommended that government support the third sector in community, in part, by supporting them through possibilities for paid employment opportunities in community. Volunteerism is an important component of

community support. However, it is important to ensure that the concept of volunteerism is valued by organizations and that the expectations from volunteers are realistic and not viewed as a means to further off load the responsibilities of the province to volunteers.

It is interesting to note that the concept of leadership was not a high priority theme in the documents analyzed, especially when one considers that importance of leadership as discussed and analyzed as part if the conceptual framework in Chapter 2. In the Social Strategic Plan document, it was clear that government would control the organizational change process but that the Social Strategic Advisory Committee would 'lead' the change. While this concept was not explicitly stated often in the documents, it is suggested by this researcher that it was assumed that government would lead any change process, whether directly by government or by an intermediary committee structure, to be determined and controlled by government. The lack of discussion of leadership in an environment of rapid and pervasive change may suggest that there is an underlying assumption that government would lead (and control) the organizational change process.

Shifts in Emphasis

The two earliest reports in the analysis; the Classrooms Issues Report (1995) and the Select Committee on Children's Issues Report (1996), indicated that the concepts of empowerment and participation were the most frequently identified concepts in the document analysis process. There was a strong emphasis on the need for community as well as professionals and bureaucrats

to have a say in how policies were to be developed. There was the underlying notion that policies had traditionally been developed in the absence of input from those who were directed to deliver services to community. In both reports there was an underlying theme that services to children had been inadequate at best and that, not only were some children falling through the cracks; in fact many of the children in the province were receiving inadequate and/or inappropriate services. The underlying theme was a concern to ensure programs and services that were to be developed should be relevant and meeting the needs of its clients as well as the need for key groups to have a say in policy and program development.

Related to the concept of empowerment, the second most frequently identified conceptual theme (in relation to the two earliest reports identified above) was the impacts on people, services and programs. While the themes of problems, risks, and needs were not dominant in the documents, there was the notion that services were not adequately meeting the needs of the citizens of this province, that there was a significant incongruence between policies that had been developed and the service needs of the population which it was intended to serve. Moreover, the notion of change was given high priority in these two earlier reports. Related to the above concepts of empowerment and impacts, was the implication that (1) there was a need for very significant changes in how policies, programs and services were redeveloped and delivered and, (2) that the changes needed to take place in an environment where all stakeholders would have the ability to have input and, subsequently, impact on the redevelopment of policies, programs and services.

Prevention and early intervention were also considered to be a high priority in the first two reports. The fact that prevention and early intervention were repeated throughout the documents, suggests that this direction was fundamental from the point of view of developing services to prevent problems from occurring and to provide a better quality of life for the province's children. Related to the concepts of prevention and early intervention also was the belief that related approaches could result in cost savings. Prevention and early intervention were also believed to be related to quality of life issues, not the least of which was preventing problems and risks from becoming overwhelming.

In later reports the concepts of impacts on people, policies and programs, as well as concepts of change, prevention and early intervention were given different priorities (than in the order stated here) so that the concepts of empowerment, for example, became a lower priority. It is interesting that this shift took place as documents were developed over time. The whole concept of empowerment is related to people having input into decision making with regard to developing policies and programs being developed. The fact that the empowerment concept was given a lower priority over time suggests that the bureaucratic expert model might be taking a stronger role as subsequent documents were developed. While having community involved in the process might be valuable, the traditional model, which may be strongly embedded in the bureaucratic structure, continued to be a powerful player in the process as it evolved.

The conceptual theme of collaboration moved in priority in different documents depending on the report, but it is the concept which was highlighted most often in the government document on

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the Social Strategic Plan (SSP). While the concept is in the same semantic field as empowerment, it appeared to have a somewhat different focus in the SSP document. The SSP document appeared to suggest that community had a very definite responsibility but the government had the 'final say'. The government document's underlying theme appeared to be that of community responsibility, possibly through volunteerism by building community capacity through volunteers, often referred to as the third sector . There was also the same concern that the government may have developed community boards to off load its responsibility to the community, for programs and services.

The 'Classrooms Issues Report' and the 'Select Committee on Children's Issues Report' were the two earliest reports documented. These reports were often viewed as landmark reports that started the change from a government governed model to a community health governed model of services. The concepts of participation, empowerment, collaboration and change were the main concepts in these two reports. A close third was prevention and early intervention-this concept was consistent throughout the documents as important to programs and services. The strong emphasis on empowerment and change suggests that the researchers were clear that the province felt disempowered by the existing programs and services and were clear in their need to have a voice in a change which was espoused to be needed in the province.

The provincial government's Social Strategic Plan (SSP) is consistent in relation to the five previous reports studied in that the concepts of collaboration, participation and empowerment, impacts on people, programs and services, and prevention and early intervention were

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highlighted as being important. The SSP document accepted by government suggests a variation in the concept of empowerment, with a focus on community working in collaboration with government, implying the potential for government downloading of responsibility on community. Related to the concept of empowerment was the stipulation that a committee of government would lead the change. The committee was government controlled, making one wonder if meaningful power was given to community. However, to validate government's commitment, at least in part, it also clearly stated that it was accountable for the SSP. Therefore, if the plans failed, one would expect that government would take responsibility for its failure.

Analysis of Evaluation Document

The evaluation document entitled: "A Retrospective of the Health and Community Services Integration Initiative: Transition Phase"(May 12, 1998), was completed by an independent company, The Institute for Human Resource Development. The evaluation provided the opportunity for selected employees to be involved in giving feedback on the process, including its strengths and its limitations. The evaluation also consisted of a review of 'relevant documents' related to the work of the committees. One notable limitation to the study was that it involved only those who were active members of the various committees related to the transition process. Consistent with the literature, those who are more involved in the change process are more likely to be more committed to the change (Hendry, 1996; Solomon, 1976). Thus, there is the possibility of a bias in favor of the process experienced by the sample participants chosen.

The evaluation does not appear to have included employees who were not involved in committee work but who received the final product.

In consideration of the above limitations and concerns, an analysis of the document provided this researcher with interesting results. The main concepts are summarized in Table 4.2 below.

The concept of change was referenced most frequently. Change was related to the transition year in which the traditional provincial Department of Human Resources and Employment services of

Table 4.2

List of significant themes emerging from evaluation document related to integration process

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- ▸   change - related to challenges for employees to accept change over 12 month period

- ▸   communication - reference is made to need for clear and open communication and that much effort had to be put into dispelling notion of change as a foregone conclusion

- ▸   collaboration - the value of different professionals working together was viewed as primarily a positive experience

- ▸   structure - the transition year was focused on changing the administrative and financial structure to effect the integration

- ▸   participation and empowerment - employees overall did not feel valued or empowered in the process. Much energy was put into dispelling the thinking that the change was a foregone conclusion.

Child Welfare, Youth Corrections and Family and Rehabilitative Services (today referred to as Community Living Services) were moved to the various health and community services boards across the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. The year under study - 1997-1998 - was the 12 month period in which the above noted services were changed to the community board model. The change during this time was related more to moving the employees and administrative functions to the boards than to a complete integration to the model where work was to be interdisciplinary and services were to be more relevant to local client needs. Discussions of change were related to the administrative and structural aspects of change. The concept of change was also related to the challenges to accept and support the change, given that there was some concern that this process was a 'foregone conclusion'. Change provided both challenges and opportunities for employees and, in some cases, clients represented in the process, with challenges being very significant at times.

The second most frequent concept referenced in the document is that of communication. The document referred to the need for clear, open and coordinated communication within, between and across the various committee structures which had been set up. Communication to employees in both organizations was also identified as being particularly important. There were areas in which information was not provided on a timely basis and caused stress and uncertainty for employees. In a change environment, communication was critical in order to keep everyone who was involved in the process, informed and updated on the progress of the changes that were taking place. The document indicated that, when information was not readily shared, it aroused uncertainty and, one could interpret, suspicion. The researchers recommended a need for a clear

communications strategy, should the organization undertake such a large scale change process in the future. Change itself creates a degree of uncertainty. Sharing information on a timely basis and in an open and transparent manner is critical and time consuming.

Collaboration was the third most frequent concept identified in the evaluation document. Collaboration was identified as an important part of the process of the transition. The transition process itself provided the opportunity for different professionals to work together in a collaborative manner. Employees expressed the view that working together to develop ways of making the integration process work effectively in a community health board model, provided the opportunity to identify and share issues of concern; whether these issues were common or different for each profession. This process was identified as being valuable in helping social workers and nurses, for example, attain a better understanding of each others' profession. The need for continued and increased collaboration was seen as being important to the development of interdisciplinary teams. The evaluation did not address the issue of the 'how' of working collaboratively, was to be operationalized.

The concept of structure was the fourth most frequently identified concept. Structure refers to the formal structure of the change process - committee structures and composition, as well as the structure of aspects of the 'new' organization, for example. Given that the focus of the transition process was more concerned about administrative and personnel issues, it is not surprising that structure was emphasized. However, the very fact that structure is such an important element speaks to a change process which was concerned with a very limited aspect of the larger change

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goals once physical integration had taken place. Embedding change that is reflected in a new integrated model of service delivery, working in an interdisciplinary manner, and providing client services which are more relevant to client needs will take much longer than the twelve month integration process.

Interestingly, the concept of participation and empowerment was the fifth most frequent concept identified. As indicated previously, this concept was rated first overall, in the six documents identified above. When considering employees and limited consumer/client input or representation, this concept is important to the process. The authors identified that time had to be spent with employees to dispel the notion that the whole process was a foregone conclusion. In a number of identified instances, committee members did not feel empowered or valued in the change process. It is concerning that the documents leading up to the organizational change process, espoused participation and empowerment as being very highly valued. However, when the change took place, participation and empowerment were not highly valued, as experienced by those who were involved in the reflective evaluation process. Adding to this concern is the fact that only those employees who were supposedly highly involved in the change process (members on various committees) were involved in the evaluation. In fact, the participatory aspect involved using human relations to ensure the main objective of implementing structural change. The language of empowerment was more symbolic and disempowering - the notion of 'real' change was an elusive concept.

Summary and Conclusion

In summary, some of the key concepts in the first six documents include; (1) participation and empowerment, (2) impact, (3) change, (4) prevention and early intervention, and, (5) collaboration. These concepts are critical to an organizational change process, particularly in relation to the importance of people working together to bring about effective positive change. It is interesting to note that the concept of participation and empowerment changed over time in the various reports. In particular, the Social Strategic Plan (SSP), the later document, discussed participation and empowerment in relation to the community taking responsibility for services and programs; specifically with the expectation of increased involvement by the third sector or volunteerism. It is particularly interesting to note also that the concept of leadership was not rated highly in any of the documents. This is concerning from the perspective of the process of organizational change. Many authors (Maycunich Guilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003; Conger et al; 1999; Bolman & Deal, 1997; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Bass, 1990; Hersey, 1984; Guest, Hersey, & Blanchard, 1977; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974) have identified the central place and the critical importance of leading change. Subsequently, if there is not strong leadership then change will not be effective. The impact on organizational change where key documents do not emphasize the necessity of strong leadership is concerning. The leadership questionnaire completed by study participants in the quantitative part of this research helps to analyze the impacts of leadership in organizational change processes.

The evaluation report (the seventh document) was analyzed separately. Change was the concept most frequently identified. Interestingly, communication and collaboration were the second and third most frequent concepts referenced. Communication was identified with regard to the need for clear, open and coordinated communication both within and across various committee structures; as well, the need for collaboration between all groups within the change process. Participation and empowerment was the fifth most frequent concept identified. While readers may agree that communication is critical, the first six document reports did not emphasize the need to pay close attention to communication. Collaboration is referenced mostly with regard to various service deliverers and professionals working more closely togther. Organizational change processes can be very turbulent and structurally and personally challenging. Open and clear communication as a high priority was not included in the documents leading to organizational change; the evaluation document highlights the fact that the transition to the health and community board model was lacking with regard to open and clear communication.

The emerging data from this analysis suggests that there are key concepts espoused to be critical to the organizational change process under study. Social workers can play a key role in identifying the key concepts in planned organizational change as well as critiquing and questioning the changing key concepts in planned change. In addition, in moving through the organizational change process, social workers can be in a key position to confront any change processes which are not congruent with the espoused concepts; the final results, hopefully, to be change which is more inclusive and empowering for social workers and in the best interests of the client population and society in general.

With regard to the emerging concepts identified above and their espoused importance, the quantitative part of this study analyzes particular aspects of change and the perceptions of social workers' ability to participate in and have an impact on change as well as their commitment to the organization and their perceptions of the leadership in the organization.

CHAPTER V

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS IN CASE STUDY DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter will provide the results of the quantitative survey which was mailed to all study participants in the population under study. The analysis and results are presented for each of the instruments in the survey. In addition, the later part of the chapter presents the results of the in-person interviews with six study participants in relation to the preliminary results of the quantitative analysis and subsequent results.

The survey instrument was mailed on January 7, 2003 and two follow-up reminder letters were sent at later dates (each being approximately two weeks apart). A total of 160 potential respondents were identified in the population under study. Sixty valid survey instruments were returned, at a rate of 37.5%.

Based on the low return rate of 37.5%, this researcher approached the professional association to obtain basic demographic information from their data base in relation to the total population. At the time of securing the information on the basic demographics of the population under study, the data base of the professional association had been updated. There was a small difference in the information available on the population: the total population numbers were reduced to 150.

This could be because of fewer employees in the program areas of employment. However, the population was basically the same as those under study when the survey instrument was mailed.

Table 5.1 gives the comparison of the demographics in relation to tenure, gender, education and program area of employment. Differences were minimal in most areas analyzed with most discrepancies less than 5%. The biggest difference was in the category of education where there was a 7% difference in study participants in both the BSW and MSW study participants (i.e., higher percentage of MSWs in the sample).

Table 5.1

Comparison of characteristics of population with those who completed questionnaires (tenure, gender, education and program area of employment)

Characteristics	Population*	Sample	Difference
Tenure			
Less than 4 years	30.0%	25.0%	5.0%
4 - 7 years	23.2	23.2	0.0
8 - 15 years	31.5	35.0	3.5
16 - 25 years	10.4	13.3	2.9
26 years +	4.9	1.7	3.2
Blank	0.0	1.7	1.7
Gender			
Female	89.3%	92.7%	3.4%
Male	10.7	8.3	2.4
Education			
BSW	92.0%	85.0%	7.0%
MSW	8.0	15.0	7.0
Program area of employment			
Child welfare	65.3%	70.0%	4.7%
Comm. Living	23.2	23.2	0.0
Youth Corrections	11.3	6.7	4.6

* Expressed in percentages. Original population was 160 social workers; demographic information available was on 150 social workers only.

Therefore, the characteristics of the respondents closely reflect those of the total population ($\underline{N}$ = 160).

Socio-demographic information on the sample is summarized in Table 5.2 below. Over 58% of the study participants had been employed with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment *and* the Health and Community Services Board, while just over 41% had been employed with the Health and Community Services Board only. The majority of the study participants were between the ages of 30 to 39 years (51.7%), over 21% were between the ages of 40 to 49 years. Over 91% of study participants were female and 85% of all study participants had completed the Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) degree; 15% had completed the Master of Social Work (MSW) degree. Over 66% of the study participants were classified as full-time permanent employees while 25% were classified as full-time temporary employees. While over 31% of study participants had worked in their caseloads over 60 months, the second largest group had worked in the same caseload for less than 11 months (26.7%). Over 35% of employees had worked with government and the board between 8 to15 years and 25% had worked for less than 4 years.

Fully 70% of study participants worked in the Child Welfare Program area while over 23% worked in the Community Living Program area and just over 6% worked in the Youth Corrections Program area.

Table 5.2

Socio-demographic characteristics of study participants

Study Participant Characteristics	N	%
Gender: male	5	8.3
female	55	92.7
Age: 20 - 29 years	10	16.7
30 - 39 years	31	51.7
40 - 49 years	13	21.7
50 + years	6	10.0
Marital Status: single	9	15.0
married	45	75.0
divorced	2	3.3
other (clu)	3	5.0
widowed	1	1.7
Tenure: - 4 years	15	25.0
4 - 7 years	14	23.3
8 - 15 years	21	35.0
16 - 25 years	8	13.3
26 + years	1	1.7
blank	1	1.7
Education: BSW	51	85.0
MSW	9	15.0
Program Area: Child Welfare	42	70.0
Community Living	14	23.3
Youth Corrections	4	6.7
Practice location: rural	3	5.0
suburban	2	3.3
urban	54	90.0
Work history: health and community services only	25	41.7
health and community services and Govt. (DSS)	35	58.3
Employment status:		
full time temporary	15	25.0
full time permanent	40	66.7
part time temporary (50%)	5	8.3

The sample size was 60 (37.5%) out of a population sample of 160. A greater response rate

could have provided a more accurate depiction of the population under study and may have

produced different results if a larger number of the total sample had responded to the survey.

However, the information obtained on the non-respondents strongly indicates that the sample is representative of the population.

ANALYSIS OF COMMITMENT SCALE

The Commitment Scale measures the commitment of employees to the organization. Employees who feel support in the organization will have higher levels of commitment. The results will indicate the levels of commitment of the sample (60) with the present organization as well as provide a comparison of commitment of those participants who experienced both the former organization and the current organization.

The Commitment Questionnaire consists of three components of commitment; affective (attachment to the organization), normative (feelings of obligation to stay with the organization) and continuance (awareness of personal and social costs to leave the organization). This is a standardized questionnaire (Meyer, 1997). There was variation in the means (on a seven point Likert scale) for the three components, affective (M = 3.33, SD = 0.93), normative, (M = 2.44, SD = 1.07) and continuance (M = 4.44, SD = 0.96) commitment.

On the affective component of the commitment scale, the average rating (M = 3.33) was below the mid point score of 4 on the scale, and 73.3% responded in the negative with regard to various statements related to the affective components of commitment. On the normative component of the commitment scale, the average rating (M = 2.44) was also negative and 93.3% reported less

than moderate levels of feelings of obligation to continue employment out of a sense of loyalty or as having limited employment alternatives. On the continuance component of the commitment scale, the average rating ($\underline{M}$ = 4.44) was higher than the mid point score of 4 with 65% of the study participants reporting in the range of agreement to strong agreement that there were many personal and social costs associated with leaving the organization. In other words, while they had low levels of attachment and loyalty to the organization, they were not considering leaving the organization because there were limited options elsewhere and there was too much uncertainty 'out there'.

Analysis of Variance

Previous studies in relation to the commitment instrument did not find consistently strong differences with demographic variables, although education was found to be a strong antecedent variable compared to other variables (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitct, & Topolnytsky, 2002). This researcher was also interested to see if the study participants differed by (1) tenure, (2) gender, (3) age, (4) education, and (5) whether study participants worked only with Health and Community Services versus those who also work with the former Department of Social Services and the program area of employment for participants, on the three variables of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment). This researcher wondered if there would be a difference in the length of time one worked in the organization, and as one aged/matured, might not males differ from females; might not those with higher education levels (MSWs) feel less 'tied' to the organization and, thus feel differently about their commitment, and, as Child Welfare

has traditionally been considered to be the most stressful area of work, might not study

participants respond differently, depending on the program area in which they worked?

Results indicated that there were no significant effects of gender, tenure, age, education program

area of employment (affective, normative and continuance commitment). Only the variable of

whether participants were employed only with the current organization or whether study

participants had also been employed with the former organization (Department of Social

Services) was significant: $F(25,34) = 1.88$, $p = .044$, indicating that work history impacted on

how attached study participants felt to the organization (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3

Analysis of variance for three components of commitment in relation to work with HCS only or
DSS/HCS (N = 60)

	DSS (n = 25)	DSS/HCS (n = 34)				
	M (SD)	M (SD)	Mean square	df	F	p
Affective commitment	3.58 (0.95)	3.16 (0.89)	.292	25	1.88	.044
Normative commitment	2.50 (1.12)	2.39 (1.05)	.267	19	1.14	.349
Continuance commitment	4.42 (1.02)	4.45 (0.93)	.292	33	1.60	.110

NOTE: Likert Scale from 1-7 used, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Correlational Analysis

This researcher also tested the correlations between the three components of commitment; affective, normative and continuance. The literature indicates that there is a strong positive association between affective and normative commitment but a weak association between continuance commitment and normative and affective commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitct, & Topolnytsky, 2002). The findings indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between normative and affective commitment (r = .505; p = .000), while there is no significant correlation between affective commitment and continuance commitment (r = -.107; p = .441); as well, there is no significant correlation between normative commitment and continuance commitment (r = .096; p = .465). The effect size for the relationship between normative and affective commitment is large: r^2 = .255 (Cohen, 1988; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005).

These results suggest that employees who feel emotionally attached to the organization will also feel obliged to continue to work with the organization. Participants expressed somewhat low levels of affective commitment (M = 3.33; SD = 0.93), low levels of normative commitment (M = 2.44; SD = 1.07) and relatively moderate levels of continuance commitment (M = 4.44; SD = 0.96). The implication is that employees do not feel a strong sense of obligation, attachment, or loyalty to the organization but feel a strong need to stay with the organization because it may be too costly, on a personal level, to leave. The results suggest that the organization has employees who are not highly committed to the organization but have no other job options; a formula for low morale as well as low productivity. From an organizational development perspective this

could be a concern for the organizational functioning overall and, in particular, in relation to the delivery of human services.

The researcher was also interested to determine if there were relationships between antecedent variables. The literature indicates that those employees who believed that their skills were not easily transferrable to another organization had higher continuance commitment levels. Correlations between continuance commitment, age, and tenure were positive but weak in a meta analysis of other studies (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitct, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Program area of employment was not an area identified in relation to antecedent variables. Within the context of rapid and pervasive organizational change, this researcher was interested in determining if program area of employment and the reality of whether employees had worked for the former organization, had an impact on ones level of commitment. Pearson's r was applied to determine the correlations among each of the three components of commitment (affective, normative and continuance) in relation to tenure, gender, whether one worked only with Health and Community Services versus if one also worked with the former Department of Social Services, the program area on which one worked, education, and age.

One correlation was statistically significant. For the continuous commitment component, there was a significant negative correlation with age only ($r = -.325$; $p = .011$) (Table 5.4), suggesting that the older one becomes the less they are likely to leave the organization.

Table 5.4

Correlations for affective, normative and continuance commitment in relation to tenure, gender, HCS/DSS, program area, education and age (n = 60)

	Tenure	Gender	HCS/DSS	Program Area	Ed.	Age
	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)
Affective	-.101 (.506)	.097 (.462)	-.225 (.084)	.092 (.485)	.083 (.527)	.058 (.658)
Normative	.038 (.775)	.132 (.315)	-.049 (.709)	.034 (.789)	-.092 (.484)	-.100 (.448)
Continuance	.023 (.864)	.020 (.877)	.014 (.913)	.243 (.061)	-.251 (.053)	-.325 (.011)

Older social workers stay with the organization because they want to, not because they have to stay. The effect size was small ($r^2 = .11$).

Hierarchical Regression

Hierarchical regression was used for the dependent variables of affective, normative and continuance commitment to the predictor variables of age, gender, tenure, education, whether study participants worked for Health and Community Services only versus if they worked also with the former Department of Social Services, and the program area in which study participants worked. The basic demographic variables were entered first; age, then gender, then tenure, then education (Model 1). The variable related to history with the organization was entered next (whether one was employed with Health and Community Services only or if one was also employed with the former Department of Social Services) (Model 2), and finally, the program

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area in which one worked was entered (Model 3). This would indicate the overall prediction as well as the added contribution of the last two factors.

Three hierarchical regression models, as described above, were tested for each of normative, affective and continuance commitment components. For affective and normative commitment, none of the three models was found to be significant (all R^2s were less than .181). For continuance commitment the model was found to be significant. The variable of age was significant (F = 7.68; p = .008) and accounted for 11.9% of the observed variance for continuance commitment (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5

Hierarchical regression on continuance commitment in relation to age, gender, tenure, education and whether one was employed with both organizations or only one organization(N = 60)

	R^2	Adjusted R^2	R^2 change	F value	p
Continuance					
Model 1 predictors:					
Age	.119	.103	.119	7.68	.008
Gender	.120	.088	.001	3.81	.028
Tenure	.124	.076	.004	2.59	.062
Education	.201	.141	.887	3.38	.015
Model 2 included:					
DSS/HCS vs HCS only	.201	.126	.001	2.67	.032
Model 3 included:					
Program area of work	.248	.161	.046	2.85	.018

However, the models testing the contribution of the additional predictors were not significant.

This indicates that age only contributed to variations in the levels of commitment and that, overall, model 1 predictor variables were not significant. Model 2 and Model 3 predictor

variables were also not related to levels of continuance commitment. Neither personal characteristics nor organizational factors had an impact on levels of continuance commitment.

Summary

Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and personalized involvement in the organization. Normative commitment refers to feelings of obligation to continue employment with the organization, somewhat an indicator of loyalty. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the personal and social costs associated with leaving the organization. The means for affective and normative components of commitment in this study were below the mid point score of 4 ($M = 3.33$, $\underline{SD} = .93$; $M = 2.44$, $\underline{SD} = 1.07$ respectively), while the continuance component of commitment was higher than the mid point score of 4 ($M = 4.44$, $\underline{SD} = 0.96$). These results suggest that the majority of study participants, on the one hand do not feel emotionally attached to the organization (affective commitment) and do not feel an obligation to stay with the organization (normative commitment), and, on the other hand, feel that it would be personally to costly to seek other employment whether due to lack of options or lack of pay.

There is a positive correlation between the components of affective and normative commitment but not between affective and continuance commitment or between normative commitment and continuance commitment. Further, in relation to program area of employment, education and age, significant correlations were found only for continuance component of commitment with

age, suggesting that older employees are more committed to the organization than younger employees.

Hierarchical regression analysis again demonstrated associations in relation to age, which helped to explain the variance of the continuance commitment. None of the other factors contributed significantly to the prediction.

These results have significant implications for the organization, for its employees and, particularly, for its clients in relation to service delivery in human services. The continuance component of commitment showed the only significant results. It may be that employees lack attachment, involvement, and loyalty to the organization, on the one hand, and continue to be employed with the organization, on the other hand, because the social costs to themselves (the employees) are too high. While there were limited differences in socio-demographic and organizational factors, one may conclude that the lack of organizational commitment is a universal issue. The experience of organizational change may have been generally a negative experience for all social workers in this study. The reality of lower levels of affective and normative commitment and higher levels of continuance commitment may be a formula for low morale and less than adequate services being provided to clients.

COMMITMENT RELATED TO FORMER ORGANIZATION

Thirty-five of the study participants who responded to the Commitment Questionnaire were employed with the former provincial government Department of Social Services/Human Resources. These participants were asked to answer the adapted questionnaire (affective and normative components of the commitment questionnaire only) as if they were still employed with the former organization. The intention of this questionnaire was to ascertain if the levels of commitment to the new organization were significantly different from the levels of commitment to the previous organization. The continuance component of the commitment questionnaire was not included as the questions were not applicable due to the fact that the former organization no longer existed and study participants could not realistically respond to questions related to continuing to work with the organization.

This retrospective Commitment Questionnaire may produce a biased response as study participants may have looked back more positively on the former organization than it was in reality (nostalgia).

Findings indicated variations in the means for affective ($\underline{M}$ = 4.21, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.46) and normative ($\underline{M}$ = 3.86, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.05) commitment. For normative commitment, the mean was below the mid point score (of 4) while, for affective commitment, the mean was above the mid point score. For affective commitment, 44.1% scored below the mid point score of 4, while 73.5% of participants scored below the mid point score (of 4) for normative commitment. Most study participants

reported slightly positive feelings on affective commitment; feeling part of the organization, having some sense of emotional attachment and feeling obligations to the organization. As well, study participants reported slightly negative feelings with regard to a sense of loyalty to the organization.

Analysis of Variance

This researcher was also interested to see if the study participants differed by (1) gender, (2) education, (3) tenure, (4) age, (5) and program area of employment, with respect to the two variables of retrospective commitment (affective and normative commitment). Results of the tests indicated that the variables had no effect on participants' commitment (affective or normative). Analysis of variance tests were also run on the variables of tenure, age, and program area of employment in relation to affective and normative commitment. No significant differences were reported. Thus, the above noted variables did not have a significant impact on commitment.

Correlational Analysis

There is a significant positive correlation between affective and normative commitment ($r = .751$; $p = .000$) which is large ($r^2 = .564$). These findings indicate that study participants felt a strong sense of obligation to the organization and were emotionally attached to the organization as well. It is interesting that, almost four years after the dismantling of the former organization,

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employees still could reflect back on that experience with a sense of identity and commitment to the former organization.

The correlations between the two components of commitment (affective and normative) in relation to gender, education, tenure, age and program area of employment, and age indicated that there was no statistically significant relationships. However, there were close to significant correlations between the variables of affective commitment and age ($r = .317$; $p = .068$), suggesting that this may be an area of interest for other studies.

Hierarchical Regression

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to determine the predictors of the dependent variables of affective and normative commitment in relation to the predictor variables of age, gender, tenure, education, and program area of employment. The independent variables of basic demographics were entered first: age, gender, tenure and education. The variable of program area of employment was entered last. The variable of history of employment with DSS/HCS was not entered because the retrospective group was related to the former organization only.

There were no significant effects on the dependent variable for affective or normative commitment.

Summary

Affective commitment refers to an employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and personalized involvement in an organization. Normative commitment refers to feelings of obligation to continue employment with the organization, somewhat an indication of loyalty. The means for the retrospective group was slightly above the mid point score (M = 4.21) and the score for normative commitment was slightly below the mid point range (M = 3.86). Analysis of variance in relation to the variables of gender, education, tenure, age and program area of employment showed no significant differences. Correlational analysis indicated no significant differences between affective and normative commitment.

Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that there were no associations between affective or normative commitment and the independent variables age, gender, tenure, education and program area of work.

COMMITMENT RELATED TO STUDY PARTICIPANTS WHO EXPERIENCED BOTH THE FORMER AND CURRENT ORGANIZATIONS

This researcher was also interested in how study participants (n = 35) who had experienced the change process, were committed both the current organization in which they are employed and how they were committed to the former organization. In other words, did commitment levels

remain the same for both organizations? Continuance commitment was not measured for the

former organization as this component relates only to the current organization.

Summary statistics are given in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6

Means and standard deviations related to commitment to former and current organization (both groups (n = 35)

	Current Organization M (SD)	Former Organization M (SD)	t	p
Affective Commitment	3.33 (0.93)	3.99 (1.17)	3.49	.001
Normative Commitment	2.44 (1.07)	3.22 (1.15)	3.87	.000

A t-test (paired sample) was conducted comparing affective commitment and normative

commitment in the current and former organizations. Both analyses were completed in relation

to those study participants who experienced both the current and former organization only.

Results for affective commitment were significant (t = 3.49; df= 33; p = .000), with a large effect

size (r² = .269) (Gravetter and Wallnau, 2005). The results indicated that there were significant

differences in levels of affective commitment to the current organization as compared to the

former organization. Study participants reported significantly stronger emotional attachment and

identification with the former organization. Results for normative commitment also were

significant (t = 3.87; df = 33; p = .001), with a large effect size (r² = 312.). Study participants

reported a greater sense of loyalty to the former organization as compared to the current organization. No other significant differences were found.

Summary

Affective and normative commitment levels were significantly different when participants rated their current and former organizations. Study participants rated their sense of loyalty and emotional attachment to the former organization significantly higher than the current organization. The difference is important in that the questionnaire was administered almost four years after the change process had occurred. The lower levels of commitment to the current organization may be of concern for organizational leaders when front line professional social workers report low levels of commitment to the organization. The organization has continued to experience organizational changes with a major integration of several health and community related services boards being amalgamated. One may anticipate that organizational commitment may not improve with the current organizational change process where the view of social workers may be 'more of the same negative experiences'.

INTENTION TO TURNOVER SCALE

Three (3) questions on this instrument measured the considerations individuals have actually given to leaving the organization (Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982). With regard to the question concerning 'actively looking for a new job within the next year', 41.2% indicated in

the "maybe" to "very likely" category. The second question was related to whether study

participants 'often think about quitting'. A full 45.7% indicated in the "sometimes" to "often"

category that they think about quitting their work. Over 36% of study participants indicated in

the "maybe" to "for sure" category that they 'would probably look for a new job within the next

year'.

Correlational Analysis

This researcher was also interested in determining if there was a correlation between the concept

of turnover and the variables of tenure, gender, age, education, whether employees worked only

with Health and Community Services only versus if they also worked with the former Department

of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment and the program area in which employees

worked. No significant correlations were discovered (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7

Correlations for turnover in relation to tenure, gender, HCS/DSS, program area, education and
age (n = 60)

	Tenure	Gender	HCS/ DSS	Program Area	Ed.	Age
	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)	r (p)
Turnover	-.025 (.852)	-.049 (.708)	.186 (.155)	-.019 (.887)	-.078 (.553)	.132 (.315)

Finally, hierarchical regression analysis indicated that no independent variable revealed any

significant influence on the dependent variable of turnover.

Summary

Of participants, from 36.8% ("probably look for a new job in next year") to 45.7% ("thinking about quitting") have had thoughts about leaving the organization. There were no significant differences with regard to turnover in relation to demographic characteristics.

Social workers have skills to aid in more inclusive change processes. Organizations may need to be educated in relation to the valuable contributions it can make to organizational change processes in the interests of the organization, society, its clients, and its employees. Organizations that do not pay attention to social work practitioner contributions may end up with social workers who move to other organizations where they feel more valued.

DEVINE QUESTIONNAIRE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE EXPERIENCES

The Devine Questionnaire (2002) was developed by this researcher (See Appendix L). The questionnaire consists of 19 questions related to four aspects of the organizational change process: (1) impacts, (2) inputs, (3) work responsibilities, and (4) client services. The questionnaire was answered only by social workers who had been employed for at least one year with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment. A brief synopsis of the items is provided below (Table 5.8).

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Each of the questions in the Devine Questionnaire consists of a 7 point Likert scale (1 = very

negative response to selected aspects of the organizational change process; 7 = very positive

response to selected aspects of the organizational change process). The questionnaire consisted

of 19 items in four categories (impacts, inputs, work responsibilities, and client services).

Table 5.8

Summary of items related to devine questionnaire (n = 35)

Item	Question Number	M	SD
Overall		3.41	0.49
Impacts:			
Professional impact	D1	3.37	1.21
Personal impact	D2	3.20	1.16
Input:			
Input opportunity	D3	2.51	1.17
Input obstacles	D4	2.54	1.20
Change process a foregone conclusion	D5(1)/*	2.06	1.37
Discussion opportunities	D6	3.29	1.20
Priority by superiors	D7	3.54	1.20
Feedback from supervisors	D8	3.34	1.26
Input taken into account	D9	2.54	1.22
Move was more administrative functions	D10*	4.37	1.91
Client impacts not considered	D11*	5.23	1.40
Work responsibilities:			
Work responsibilities changed	D12	3.63	1.90
Work responsibilities to change	D13	3.86	1.60
Work environment control now(compared to prev.)	D14*	3.00	1.24
Support from organization	D15*	2.40	1.46
More interactions with other professionals	D16*	2.83	1.89
Impact on client services:			
Change in number of services	D17	3.09	1.46
Service availability	D18	3.14	1.46
Services not relevant	D19*	4.57	1.12

(1) reverse order question.
* Question omitted from the analysis due to being not reliable
Scale from 1 - 7

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Reliability was estimated based on the relationships of the questions within each of the four categories. Six of the 19 questions were dropped from the analysis as the analysis determined that they were not consistent relative to other questions in the category: questions 5 - 10 - 11 - 13 - 14 - 19. The scales for each item was then divided into three equal categories as follows: low (1 to 2.3), moderate (2.4 to 4.7) and high (4.8 to 7); exact terms may vary depending on the specific area of inquiry.

Reliability Coefficients, Means, Frequencies and Analysis of Variance Results

Impacts

The first two questions were related to the *impact on the respondents both personally (D1) and professionally (D2)*. There is a high correlation between the two items, indicated by α; .693. In both cases just over 25% of social workers reported negative impacts on themselves while just over 11% reported positive impacts (Table 5.9 below).

ANOVA tests indicated that there were no significant differences in impacts professionally or personally in relation to gender, education, tenure, age or program area of employment.

Inputs

Six questions on this scale were related to the *input* (D3, D4, D6, D7, D8, D9) that social workers believed they had into the organizational change process and the impacts this input had on the change process. Reliability analysis indicated that one question was not reliable and was

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dropped from this analysis: D5, related to: input not a priority because it was a foregone

conclusion. With this item dropped, the reliability was high ($\alpha = .722$).

Table 5.9

Frequency table for professional and personal impacts on social workers (n = 35)

	(1 - 2.3)	(2.4 - 4.7)	(4.8 - 7)
Impacts	Negative impact	somewhat negative to no impact	Positive impact
(D1) Professional	25.7%	57.2%	17.1%
(D2) Personal	28.6	60.0	11.4
Inputs	Minimal input	Moderate input	Maximum input
(D3) opportunity	51.4	42.9	5.7
(D4) obstacles	54.3	37.1	8.6
(D6) opportunity to meet	28.6	57.1	14.3
(D7) priority by superiors	22.9	54.2	22.9
(D8) information back	22.9	62.8	14.3
(D9) information not taken into account	54.3	40.0	5.7
Work responsibilities	Minimal change	Moderate change	Maximum change
(D12) responsibilities changed	45.7	14.3	40.0
(D13) responsibilities expected to change	20.0	37.1	42.3
Client services	Inadequate	Moderate	Increased
(D 17)	37.1	51.4	11.4
(D18)	37.1	48.6	14.3

With regard to the *opportunity* (D3) to have input, 51.4% of study participants reported having

minimal opportunity to have input and a further 42.9% reported having only moderate

opportunity to have input (Table 5.9). There were no significant differences with regard to

gender, education, tenure, age or program area of employment.

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Obstacles (D4) to being able to have input (i.e., workload demands, time for meetings) was a consideration in relation to the organizational change process. Over 54% of study participants reported minimal ability to have input due to many obstacles related to work while a further 37.1% reported moderate ability to have input due to other work related obstacles (Table 5.9). In relation to gender, education, tenure, age and program area of employment, ANOVA tests indicated that there were no significant differences.

Over 28.6% of study participants perceived that they had minimal *opportunity to meet* (D6) to discuss the organizational change process while 57.1% believed that they had moderate opportunity to meet (Table 5.9).

Over 22% of study participants reported that input into the organizational change process was given minimal to no *priority by superiors* (D7) while 54.2% reported moderately that input into the change process was a priority for their superiors (Table 5.9).

With regard to the question asking if study participants had gotten *information back regarding the input* (D8) that they provided, 22.9% reported that they had gotten minimal (little to no information back) feedback while 62.8% reported that they had gotten moderate (some) information back on their input (Table 5.9).

Finally, 54.3% of study participants reported strongly in the negative that the *information they had provided had been taken into account minimally* (D9) (minimal or not at all) while 40%

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reported only moderately that the information they had provided had been taken into account (Table 5.9). With regard to gender, education, age and program area of employment and tenure, there were no significant differences. However, with regard to tenure, there were close to significant differences (F (3, 35) = 4.17, p = .014), suggesting that length of time working may have had an impact on social workers' perceptions of whether or not their input had been taken into account.

Overall, there were no significant differences in relation to gender, education, age and program area of employment and tenure.

Study participants, overall, reported that they had minimal to moderate ability to have input and that the input provided was not valued. Communicating a sincere desire to want input, giving opportunities for input and ensuring that input from all involved in the organizational change process is critical to ensure successful and healthy change is critical for both the organization and its employees.

Work Responsibilities

Reliability estimates for the five questions categorized under work responsibilities were adequate (α = .611) with three questions removed (D14, D15, D16). The study participants' responses to the question with regard to whether *work responsibilities have changed* (D12) since the integration with Health and Community Services indicated that 45.7% thought that their work

responsibilities had changed only minimally while 40% reported that there had been very much change in their work responsibilities (Table 5.9). In considering the future (D13), 20% of study participants expected little to minimal change in work responsibilities while 42.3% expected to have much change in their work responsibilities (Table 5.9). For work responsibilities changing since the integration with Health and Community Services, study participants appear to be split in their perceptions. Almost half (45.7%) believed that little had changed and almost half (40%) believed that their responsibilities had changed significantly. Looking towards the future an increasing number expect moderate to maximum change in their responsibilities, suggesting that more change is expected in the organization, which may be of concern for the social workers, given their responses to many of the above questions in relation to how they perceive the recent organizational change process that they experienced.

Client Services

Reliability coefficients for client services were high (α = .902) with one question removed (D19). Over 37% of the study participants reported strongly that they believed that the organization had *less than adequate services since the integration* (D17) of Health and Community Services while 51.5% reported that the services were primarily adequate. Over 21% of study participants reported that services were more adequate since the move to Health and Community Services. There were no significant differences with regard to gender, education, tenure, age or program area of employment.

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Over 37.1% of all ($\underline{n}$ = 35) study participants reported less *services available for clients* (D18) since the integration to Health and Community Services while 14.3% reported more services available since the integration to Health and Community Services. With regard to gender, education, tenure, age and program area of employment, there were no significant differences.

Summary

Overall the questions indicated negative responses to the organizational change process. Seven questions were related to input into the organizational change process. Reliability tests indicated a high degree of reliability with six of the questions. Generally, negative responses to the items were reported, suggesting that study participants believed that they had limited input into the change process. Study participants also believed that they were limited in their opportunities to have input and that they were not supported as much as they would have liked to have been supported in having input. In addition, study participants believed that, when input was provided, there was not feedback on whether or not the input was considered.

Social workers also perceived that there has been little change in their responsibilities since the organizational change process and just over half expected that their responsibilities would change in a limited way in the future. The vast majority of study participants indicated that either client services were inadequate (37%) or minimally adequate (51.5%) and 37.1% reported that services were less available to clients since the move to the health and community services board model.

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The limitations of The Devine Questionnaire is that it is not standardized. It is a new instrument developed by this researcher specifically to address questions related to the organizational change process under study. In addition, the questions in the Devine Questionnaire address only selected aspects of the organizational change process and does not deal in depth with the selected aspects of the change process.

MULTIFACTORIAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Change, and, in particular, successful change in organizations, requires strong and visionary leadership (Maycunich, Guilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003; Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 2000). In this study the researcher was interested in the style of leadership at the front line management level. Three overall styles or traits of leadership are defined in the questionnaire. Transformational leadership is concerned more with end-values which include higher order values such as justice, equality, and liberty; can communicate a compelling vision for the future, and motivate followers by activating their higher order needs. Transactional leadership, on the other hand, is more concerned with clarifying expectations, responsibilities, and providing rewards for employees' efforts. The third style of leadership, which is really non-leadership, is referred to as laissez faire leadership, in which the leader avoids leading and avoids decision making. In addition, the leadership questionnaire contains a series of questions related to the concepts of satisfaction (2 questions) (as perceived by the employee), effectiveness (4 questions) (in relation to representing the employee and effective as a leader) and extra effort (3 questions) (for example, a leader who motivates the employee in her/his work) in relation to leadership

styles or traits. Study participants ($\underline{N}$ = 60) were asked to complete the Multifactoral Leadership Questionnaire. This questionnaire assessed the style of leadership of immediate supervisors as perceived by the study participants (social workers).

In addition, only those study participants ($\underline{n}$ = 35) who had experienced the organizational change process were also asked to complete the questionnaire a second time as if they were still employed with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources. The analysis regarding leadership in the former organization is presented in the section proceeding the analysis of leadership in the current organization.

The scale, as presented in this research, is dissimilar to the scale on the original Mulitfactoral Leadership Questionnaire. In transferring the questions and the scales to smoothly integrate all six instruments in the mail out survey, the scale was inadvertently changed from a five point scale (0 to 4 with a narrative scale of "not at all" to "frequently, if not always") to a four point scale (1-4 with a narrative of "not at all" to "frequently, if not always"). Subsequently, this change was communicated to the authors who permitted me to use the modified instrument with changes notes (See copy of correspondence in Appendix H).

The change in the scale (from 1-4 to 0-4) can be mapped on a scale of 1-4 into a five point scale using the following formula: $Y = MLQ(.75) + 1$. Thus, the five points on the adjusted scale are as follows: 1, 1.75, 2.50, 3.24, and 4.

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This section of analysis is in reference to the present front line leadership within the Health and Community Services Board model.

Means

Benchmarks for each of the identified leadership styles have been developed by the author of the MLQ and are provided in Table 5.10 (Most, in Bass and Avolio, 2004). Equivalent scores with the four point scale are also provided in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

Benchmarks for different types of multifactoral leadership (N = 60)

MLQ - SCALES (0 - 4)	MLQ - SCALES - ADJUSTED (1 - 4)
All transformational scales > 3.0 to <3.75	All transformational scales >3.25 <3.81
Contingent reward (Transactional) 2 - 3	Contingent reward (Transactional) 2.5 - 3.25
Management by exception (active) (Transactional) 1 - 2	Management by exception (active) (Transactional) 1.75 - 2.5
Management by exception (passive) (Transactional) 0 - 1	Management by exception (passive) (Transactional) 1 - 1.75
Laissez faire 0 - 1	Laissez faire 1 - 1.75

Table 5.10 provides data on the ideal score range as well as the actual scores for each of the components of leadership. In the ideal situation with regard to this Multifactoral Leadership

Questionnaire (MLQ), good management will have characteristics of both the transformational and the transactional leadership style; the key is to have both in balance. For a leader to be defined as transformational, s/he must attain the ideal score on all five components of transformational leadership as outlined in Table 5.11 (Most, in Bass and Avolio, 2004). In this study, the participants did not rate their immediate supervisors as transformational on any of the five components of leadership. Each of the five components were rated below the ideal score range, which suggests that immediate supervisors lacked in their demonstrated pride of participants' work, in building respect, in instilling a sense of purpose for the work, in inspiring participants in their work, in encouraging critical analysis of the work and in teaching and coaching participants.

Table 5.11

Means for each component of transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership (N = 60)

	Ideal Score	Actual Score
Transformational Leadership:		
Idealized Influence (attr.)	>3.25 <3.81	2.54 (1)
Idealized Influence (beh.)	>3.25 <3.81	2.35
Inspirational Motivation	>3.25 <3.81	2.50
Intellectual Stimulation	>3.25 <3.81	2.56
Individualized Consideration	>3.25 <3.81	2.38
Transactional Leadership:		
Contingent Reward	2.50 - 3.25	2.41
Management-by-exception (active)	1.75 - 2.50	1.84
Management-by-exception (passive)	1.00 - 1.75	1.90
Laissez Faire Leadership:		
Overall	1 - 1.75	1.83(1).

NOTE: (1) *Likert Scale as follows:*

1	*2*	*3*	*4*
Not at all		*sometimes*	*frequently, if not always*

The results suggest that immediate supervisors need to focus more on the higher order needs of its subordinates with a view to instilling a stronger sense of pride in its employees and their work.

Transactional leadership consists of three components: (1) contingent reward, (2) management-by-exception (active) and, (3) management-by-exception (passive). In this study, participants rated their immediate supervisors lower than the ideal on all the "contingent reward" component and higher than the ideal score on the "management-by-exception (passive)" component. Leaders were rated within the ideal score range on the "management-by-exception (active) component. With regard to the component of "contingent reward" immediate supervisors lacked in their support (assistance) to the study participants, were not clear on performance objectives, and did not express satisfaction when expectations were met. For the "management-by-exception" (passive) component immediate supervisors were involved in issues before they became a problem, sought to fix problems before they became a crisis and were reported as taking action before things went wrong. While the actions of supervisors appears to be positive, the higher scores indicate that supervisors may have been involved in issues too quickly, possibly not allowing the study participants the level of autonomy that they may have wanted, and focusing on micro level issues while not attending to more critical issues as suggested in the transformational management style as discussed above.

For the component of "management-by-exception" (active), study participants reported their supervisors within the ideal score range. Supervisors focused on irregularities, exceptions,

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mistakes, and failure to meed set standards, suggesting that appropriate focus was placed on these issues. However, in relation to the other two components of transactional leadership, front line leadership was lacking.

The laissez faire leadership style also scored higher than the ideal in this study. Laissez faire leadership is non-leadership. A laissez faire leader discourages employees from taking initiative and does not deal with issues or problems; s/he withdraws from the situation (Bass, 1985). From an organizational perspective the concern is that issues as simple as daily matter-of-fact management issues or issues which may be life threatening may not be dealt with. The result of such (lack of) leadership may be very dissatisfied employees and clients who do not get essential services.

Correlational Analysis

This researcher was also interested to test if there was any correlation between styles or traits of leadership in relation to other variables including the concepts of satisfaction, effectiveness, and extra effort, which are included in the leadership questionnaire. In addition, other independent variables were tested and included; age, tenure, education, program area of employment, as well as for those employees who worked with the former provincial department of Social Services and Health and Community Services Board model. The findings indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between transformational leadership and education, satisfaction,

extra effort and effectiveness (Table 5.12). As the transformational leadership style moves closer to the ideal score, the ratings of effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort also increase.

In addition, there were significant negative correlations between laissez faire leadership and satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness (Table 5.12). These results suggest that employees who view their leaders as having stronger laissez faire leadership qualities; that is, being non-leaders, also view them as not being effective, not putting in extra effort into managing and being unsatisfactory as leaders.

There was not a significant correlation between transactional leadership and the variables of age, tenure, education, program area of employment, as well as for those employees who worked with the former provincial department of Social Services and Health and Community Services Board model.

Table 5.12

Correlations between transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership styles and satisfaction, extra effort, efectiveness and education (N = 60)

	satisfaction	extra effort	effectiveness	education
	r	r	r	r
Transformational leadership	.865(c)*	.791(c)*	.833(c)*	.334(b)*
Laissez faire leadership	-.736(c)*	-.537 (c)*	-.739(c)*	-.018
Transactional leadership	-.043	.006	.111	.073

* $p < .05$
(a) effect size is small (>.10)
(b) effect size is medium (>.30)
(c) effect size is large (>.50)

Summary

In summary, study participants did not rate their immediate supervisors as transformational in their leadership style, on any of the five components of leadership. There were significant positive correlations with the variables of effectiveness, extra effort, satisfaction; an indication of positive considerations towards their supervisors within the transformational milieu, despite rating them less transformational in their styles or traits. In addition, there was a positive correlation between education and transformational leadership, suggesting that the higher educated study participants rated their supervisors more positively as transformational leaders than their BSW counterparts.

Supervisors lacked in their ability to discuss and promote beliefs and values, ethics, purpose and mission. Supervisors were also lacking in their ability to coach and to help individuals develop their own strengths. In addition, supervisors were also reported to place too much emphasis on micro management types of issues. Study participants also reported their supervisors as discouraging initiative and avoiding decision making.

Organizational leaders need to pay attention to leadership in the organizations in which they are employed. They need to be aware of the styles or traits of leadership and the impacts that leadership, or lack thereof, may have on organizational change processes and to ensure appropriate leadership is in place. Leaders need to not only be able to carry out the daily

management functions of the organization, but they need to also be able to instill a sense of purpose and mission for the organization and the organization's ideals.

MULTIFACTORIAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE - DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SERVICES RETROSPECTIVE GROUP

The following analysis provides the results from a sub-sample (n = 29) of the total sample (N = 60) of study participants. There were a total of thirty-five (35) study participants who had worked with the previous organization (provincial Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment). Six (6) of the eligible study participants did not complete this questionnaire, possibly due to the length of the total survey package. Study participants were asked to complete the Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) *as if* they were still working with that organization and *as if* they had their last supervisor before leaving that organization. This process, then, asked the study participants to reflect back on the supervisor they had experienced four year previous to completing this questionnaire and when they worked with the 'old' organization.

The retrospective Multifactoral Leadership Questionnaires may have provided a biased response as study participants may have looked back more positively on the former organization than it was in reality (nostalgia).

Means

Benchmarks and the adjusted scores for each of the identified leadership styles or traits were

presented above and are presented here again for ease of reference and clarity in completing the

analysis. The ideal management style is to have a balance of transformational and transactional

leadership styles or traits. The definition of a transformational leader is to score within the ideal

range for each of the five transformational leadership components as outlined in Table 5.13

(Most, in Bass and Avolio, 2004). In this reflective questionnaire, study participants rated their

immediate supervisor in the former organization lower than the ideal score on the

transformational

Table 5.13

Means for each component of transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership (n = 29) and for current organization (n = 60)

	Ideal Score	Mean Actual Score (Former org.)	Mean Actual Score (Current org.)
Transformational Leadership:			
Idealized Influence (attr.)	>3.25 <3.81	2.64 (1)	2.54
Idealized Influence (beh.)	>3.25 <3.81	2.54	2.35
Inspirational Motivation	>3.25 <3.81	2.46	2.50
Intellectual Stimulation	>3.25 <3.81	2.56	2.56
Individualized Consideration	>3.25 <3.81	2.53	2.38
Transactional Leadership:			
Contingent Reward	2.50 - 3.25	2.58	2.41
Management-by-exception (active)	1.75 - 2.50	1.89	1.84
Management-by-exception (passive)	1.00 - 1.75	1.85	1.90
Laissez Faire Leadership:			
Overall	1.00 - 1.75	1.91(1).	1.83

NOTE: (1) *Likert Scale as follows:*

1	*2*	*3*	*4*
Not at all	*sometimes*		*frequently, if not always*

transformational leadership style. However, when compared to the current organization, participants rated their supervisors in the former organization higher on three of the five components, the same on one component, and lower on one component of the transformational leadership style. In addition, on the transactional leadership style, study participants rated their immediate supervisors within the ideal score on two of the three components and higher than the ideal score on one component of transactional leadership. In the current organization, participants rated their supervisors as being within the ideal score range on only one component of transactional leadership. In two of the three components of transactional leadership, participants rated their supervisors higher in the former organization. In the former organization, supervisors were rated ideal in that they paid attention to irregularities and mistakes and were clear on expectations within the work environment. However, supervisors were also reported to be more focused on mistakes than on positive work that is completed. Study participants also rated their immediate supervisors above the ideal scores on laissez faire leadership (and lower than in the current organization), suggesting that management too often discouraged employees from taking initiative while the supervisor did not deal with issues but withdrew from or avoided issues.

The results from this survey suggest that leaders (immediate supervisors) were overly concerned with micro level management such as strongly emphasizing efficiencies in the system and clarifying responsibilities and expectations. In addition, immediate supervisors were reported as avoiding issues and withdrawing from issues which came up. Interestingly, participants rated

their immediate supervisors more positively overall in the former organization in relation to the three leadership styles or traits.

Correlational Analysis

This researcher was also interested in whether there were any correlations between styles of leadership in relation to the following variables of (1) satisfaction, (2) effectiveness, (3) extra effort, which were concepts included in the MLQ. In addition, this researcher was also interested in whether there were any correlations between age, tenure, education, gender and, program area of employment.

The findings indicate that transformational leadership style correlated significantly with satisfaction (r = .793; p = .000), effectiveness (r = .646; p = .000) and extra effort (r = .836; p = .000) (Table 5.14). These results are interesting in that, even though supervisors were rated lower than the ideal score on all five components of the transformational leadership style, there were positive correlations with the three variables of satisfaction, effectiveness, and extra effort. The suggestion is that, although leaders were lower than the ideal score they were still rated in a positive manner is some aspects of their work.

The laissez faire style of leadership (non-leadership) indicated a significant negative correlation with the variable of satisfaction. The stronger rating of non-leadership (1.91) was correlated with dissatisfaction by the study participants.

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Table 5.14

Correlational indicators for transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership styles in relation to education, satisfaction, effectiveness and extra effort ($n = 35$)

Leadership styles	Satisfaction r	Effectiveness r	Extra effort r	Education r
Transformational leadership	.793(c)*	.646(c)*	.836 (c)*	-.150
Transactional leadership	-.041	.251	.153	.153
laissez faire leadership	-.545(c)*	-.288	-.251	.417 (b)**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$
(a) effect size is small (>.10)
(b) effect size is medium (>.30)
(c) effect size is large (>.50)

The transactional leadership style produced no correlations.

Summary

Results indicate that study participants rated their former immediate supervisors as lower than the ideal on all five components of transformational leadership. However, supervisors were rated within the ideal range for two components of the transactional style of leadership, suggesting that a balanced emphasis was placed on issues such as performance targets, and clarifying expectations. As well, there was too much emphasis on finding and tracking mistakes made by employees. Participants, overall, rated their supervisors higher in the former organization compared to the current organization.

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Study participants also rated their supervisors as behaving too much in a laissez faire style, where decision making and dealing with issues would be avoided.

There were significant positive correlations between transformational leadership and the concepts of satisfaction, effectiveness and extra effort, suggesting that, even though study participants viewed their supervisors as less than the ideal on the transformational leadership style, they were still able to express satisfaction overall with their work.

Correlations showed significant negative correlations between laissez faire leadership and the variable of satisfaction, suggesting that supervisors defined as being non-leaders can instill a sense of dissatisfaction within the employees

Social work practitioners need to pay attention to leadership in the organizations in which they are employed. They need to be aware of the styles or traits of leadership and the impacts that leadership, or lack thereof, has on organizational change processes, such as transformational, transactional and laissez faire style leaders and to ensure appropriate leadership is in place; a place where more social workers need to seek positions in order to lead positive change in human services organizations.

The quantitative findings overall, present interesting data in relation to selected aspects of organizational change processes. A discussion of the findings is presented in Chapter 6.

INTERVIEW ANALYSIS

The third part of this research project included individual interviews with six social workers who were still employed with the Health and Community Services Board and who had been employed with the former Department of Social Services (also known as Human Resources and Employment) for at least one year prior to the integration process. As discussed in Chapter 3, it takes up to one year for employees to become connected to, and to identify with, the organization (Bauer & Green, 1998; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990; Phillips, 1987). The six participants in the interview process worked in one of the three program areas (Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections). While several options were available regarding the number and program areas from which to select participants, this researcher decided to select participants proportionately in relation to the proportion of those who responded to the mail out survey. In the mail out survey there were 42 participants from Child Welfare, 14 participants from Community Living, and four participants from Youth Corrections. For the six participants in the interview process, there were three from the Child Welfare program area, two from the Community Living program area and one from the Youth Corrections program area. All interviewees had several (13 to 28 years) years of work experience with both the former and current organizations. As indicated in Chapter 3, the term "she" is used as a generic term, to help protect the identity of the interviewees.

In order to help ensure that potential participants freely agreed to the interviews, this researcher hired a Masters of Social Work (MSW) student to make contact with the participants and to

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schedule the interviews. The student assistant followed the script as outlined in Appendix E. This researcher was not given the name of the participant until she agreed to the in-person interview. Interviews were held in the office of the researcher or at the home of the interviewees, at their discretion. Each interviewee read and signed the Consent Form (Appendix D). The interviews were audio taped. An individual was hired to complete the transcription. The transcriber was known by the researcher to be a competent individual with whom he had worked in the past while employed with the provincial Department of Social Services. The transcriber completed an oath of confidentiality (Appendix F). Code names for the interviewees were used in the transcribed information. Audio tapes were erased after the transcription had been completed and reviewed.

The interview process for each participant ranged from a period of one hour to one hour and fifteen minutes. The researcher explained his research process, including the analysis of documents and the mail out survey. He then presented the findings of his mail out survey as preliminary results as presented in the previous section of this chapter. He asked each interviewee to related her experiences as well as her perceptions of her colleagues, in relation to the preliminary findings of the mail out survey, as well as their comments, thoughts and feedback. The researcher stated that the findings and their experiences may not necessarily be the same as that of the researcher, to help ensure participants felt free to express experiences and thoughts which may or may not agree with the findings, and to provide feedback which may not converge. The process of the interviews included explaining to interviewees the preliminary results of his analysis of the quantitative data.

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Commitment and Change

The first area of discussion was related to the Commitment Questionnaire for the current organization and, secondly, in relation to the reflective group (the group of employees who had also been employed with the former Department of Social Services) regarding commitment to the former organization. All participants concurred with the findings. In some instances participants thought the results might have been higher. For example, in relation to continuance (related to the current organization) one participant stated: "Yeah. I would of thought it may be a little higher than 65%."

Others expanded on their thoughts and provided insight into commitment. One participant talked about the lack of options to find other employment with comparable salaries and benefits. She stated that, if the salary and benefits were similar, one might find a lot more social worker working at places like Tim Horton's or Wal Mart, a strong sense of lack of options to work elsewhere and that employees felt that there was a lack of options for other employment opportunities. Another participant reflected on the fact that social workers appeared to be in denial that the integration process has taken place and that they would be returning to work in a government department structure: "I mean, I think people held out hope for a long time that we wouldn't be staying with Health and Community Services." The notion of denial suggests that it took some employees a long time to re-think their reality of working in a different organization and the process of 'letting go' was one that they experienced either alone or within their particular work unit.

With regard to the continuance (component of) commitment, one participant stated that, in her program area, there were many social workers who had many years of work experience in working with government and the community health board and, although not happy with the changes, were not considering leaving the organization: "Because, most of the crowd that I worked with, none of them are talking about, you know, wanting to apply elsewhere outside the organization." Most participants were able to identify with the continuance component of commitment in relation to investment in the organization in terms of pensions and benefits: "Certainly, that those who have been around longer are considering you know, where do I go from here, you know, if I do leave. But pension is a big thing, you know. Some job security." The costs of leaving, if other employment was available, were simply too high. Most interviewees concurred that there was less than adequate commitment to the organization, almost five years after the integration process.

With regard to the variables of *age* and if *one worked with only Health and Community Services or also worked with the provincial Department of Social Services*, participants concurred with the findings. Participants were clear that the change process was difficult for some of their colleagues, probably more so than for themselves. With regard to the integration, one participant stated: "Then we went to Health and Community Services who had their own element of social work and trying to fit in over there and to fit into their way of doing things." The notion implied here is that the change required social workers who moved to Health and Community Services, to accept the method of operation of that organization as opposed to both parties working on integrating both organizations; a potential formula for low morale and negative responses to the

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organizational change process overall. Another participant expressed the frustrations of the change process: "As people who have been around for like 15 to 20 years who probably, you know, is beating their heads against the wall, like, just one too many times." The same participant expressed similar thoughts with regard to *age*: "Like the older you are, the more you become immune maybe." The second comment supports the finding that older participants were more strongly committed to continuing to work with Health and Community Services than younger employees.

There were strong and consistent comments related to the fact that when one is employed with an organization for a long period of time, there is much investment in the organization in terms of benefits such as pensions and health benefits (employees who moved to Health and Community Services continued to pay into the public service pension plan). The notion of investing in the organization in terms of pension payments, for example, reflect the higher continuance commitment levels as indicated in the quantitative analysis. The continuance commitment levels, when considered in concert with less than adequate levels of affective and normative commitment may be concerning for the organization as employees stay, not because they have a strong sense of loyalty to the organization but because they want to maintain their security and benefits for themselves and their families.

With regard to the findings of the reflective group regarding commitment to the organization, there was primarily convergence for the participants, with divergence on some of the findings. The reflective group included participants who completed the Commitment Questionnaire a

second time "as if" they were still working for the former organization (provincial Department of Social Services). One participant stated: "I enjoyed being with government, right; much more than I enjoy or than I do working with Health and Community Services." The issue of less flexibility or opportunity to use professional judgment and an apparent lack of tolerance for mistakes came out quite clearly in several of the interviews. As one participant stated: "....probably two years ago several people got suspended, one terminated, and in the past, you know, six months, there was another worker suspended. You rarely heard about that when you were with government....I mean nurses can make mistakes and give wrong medications. Doctors can make mistakes on the operating table, but they don't get fired." Another participant reflected on feelings that employees who were moving to Health and Community Services in relation to being "taken over" by the current organization: "And maybe...and maybe they were so hurt by being swallowed up by this organization and by the coming on of nurses and by the local talk at that time that we were going to lose our identity because the nurses were going to take over the role of admin and this kind of thing. And maybe, on the ground, is what made people less committed to the organization". The same participant, a veteran with over two decades of social work practice experience, reflected positively on the comradery in the former organization as opposed to the current organization: "What is going on now, I think is more compartmentalized by groups of individuals that will stick together and support each other".

The notion of more positive regard for the former organization was interpreted by one participant as hanging on to the way things were, not accepting the move to the health board model: "And I think that for a really long time people did expect that we would go back with government."

One participant was more positive about the change and did not agree that other participants reflected more positively on the former organization. As stated: "Maybe so, but I don't think it is necessarily because of the organization; might be fonder because they look back and they were thinner, younger. I don't know...I think things are better now...pay is better..." . There was recognition that all was not negative and that improvements have been made both in salary as well as in some of the computerized systems introduced into the workplace. The overriding responses, however, reflected a strong sense of identity with and commitment to the former organization, over five years after the organizational change process and products.

Intention to Turnover and Change

The Intention to Turnover Questionnaire asked questions about participants' intentions to leave the organization to work elsewhere. Interview participants concurred with the findings; some suggested that some areas were rated lower than they would have expected. For example, one participant thought that the program area of Child Welfare may have been higher than the other program areas. The same participant wondered if participants wanted to get out of a particular program area but not necessarily out of the organization of Health and Community Services. However, the findings did not support the interest in getting out of one particular program area. One participant acknowledged that people may have been considering leaving the organization, but that most did not act on their feelings: "I know people were pretty discontented. 'I'm not sure that there were many people did much about it." In addition, some participants related that colleagues often did consider and apply for positions in the same program areas as well as in

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other program areas, but still within the organization of Health and Community Services. For example, participants indicated that social workers had applied for positions outside of the Child Welfare Program area.

One participant, in responding to the question regarding thoughts of quitting, stated: "I'm surprised that the quitting is not higher". Another participant stated her position quite frankly: "Yeah. Lots of us think about quitting.". Still another participant reflected the thoughts and feelings of colleagues in her unit, many of whom were social workers who had been employed with both organizations for long periods of time: "I think, certainly overall, I think they fit. But I think in Youth Corrections and in other sections where staff have been there a longer term, they are probably looking at pensions, security, less change in terms of jobs." One participant summed up by saying: "Most Friday afternoons there are places you would rather be, rather be a Greeter at Wal Mart."; a strong indication that the work can be quite challenging at times and that, if similar employment opportunities were available elsewhere, employees might change employers.

Perceptions of Input and Change Process: Devine Questionnaire

The Devine Questionnaire measured four concepts which were presented to the participants separately. The first concept was related to *professional and personal impacts*. Most concurred with the findings. One participant reflected the negative impacts for herself: "Yeah. I mean I felt, you know, negative about it all for a long while. And I feel that it was, it did affect most of us

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negatively." However, one participant stated that she was not negatively impacted by the organizational change process herself. The overall response is consistent with the survey results in that just over one quarter of the participants were negatively affected by the organizational change process (either professionally or personally) while about one half experienced little to no negative impacts and less than one quarter expressed positive experiences. Another participant, upon reflection of the percentage that was positive about the change, expressed her thoughts that the positive responses were from social workers may have been related to the perception that: "The organization looks sharp, proactive, reactive, and good things can happen down the road this way". One participant talked about the difference in the current organization: "I didn't mind with a government worker...so, you got smaller and, maybe, ruling with an iron fist, right." Another participant reflected on the ripple effect of how some management had to apply for their positions, in competition with nurses, and were not successful: "It didn't affect them (front line) directly but it did in some ways. You had one of these management people who are not happy, nobody was happy." Although the focus of this study was related primarily to front line social workers, participants were affected by other factors such as management who were displaced in the organizational change process. Participants related to the results indicating negative impacts (professionally and personally) as being consistent with their views of the organizational change process and reflected some of the concerns of social workers such as being "taken over" by other professionals in Health and Community Services.

One participant clearly reflected a common sentiment of those moving to the Health and Community Services model, that there was a 'master plan' already in place. The issue is one

which appears to never have been clearly addressed by organizational leaders: "That was outlined but we all knew from the beginning that, you know, the rumor mill, or the discussion of this is where were are going to end up at some point. We are going to be under the one roof, well, different roofs but held the different professions under the one roof. And, what would that mean for us as social workers?" Employees had been hearing that there was going to be a move to the Board model and that there was a plan. While organizational leaders had clearly indicated that the final product was unknown and leaders put structures in place to allow for and encourage input into the process, the notion that there was a predetermined plan continued to exist in the minds of employees. Almost five years after the integration (when the survey was mailed) employees felt that their suspicions had been validated; that there had been a 'master plan' by organizational leaders to effect the organizational change to a community board model.

The concept of *input* that employees had into the organizational change process was another concept in the Devine Questionnaire. Participants concurred with the findings. For some the reality of workload demands was an impediment to providing input: "You were so busy. Because, you know, if you whether moved organization or not, your work did not change, the work we did." Another stated: "There might be opportunities for input but people are just, you know, screaming out because it is sort of information overload, you know." Another participant stated: "And the obstacles are there and the obstacles are real....the reality for many of them is that they can't juggle". Some participants were insightful regarding the challenges of organizational change as well as the need to be part of the process: "I think a lot of people, if you are not involved in the process, you don't understand all the factors that have to be taken into the

whole change process." Strong feelings were expressed by one participant regarding not getting feedback on input provided: "So they are goin' to put on their thinking caps (social workers) and give some thought to this and go into this and say, "boys, here's what needs to happen.', and the first response when it doesn't happen, 'fuck these guys!', I'm not goin' at that any more..". As well, the same participant stated: "And I would view it as a waste of time that they didn't listen to me". There appeared to be general agreement that input was problematic in terms of; first, the employees workload demands; secondly, in terms of the lack of value regarding input that was provided when employees gave input but felt that their input was not taken into account. The result for employees was that, when input was provided, it was not taken into account and employees saw their input into organizational change processes and products as a 'waste of time'.

Still another participant reflected the view that, while it was clearly stated that opportunities for input would be provided and listened to, input was not valued: "Because I think a lot of that came from this is what was said, you are going to be part of the process, we want to hear your input, you know, try to make this positive but it didn't. It didn't come across that way in the end." Another participant reflected informal comments from colleagues during the year of transition: "And I remember hearing a lot of staff saying, what is the difference, say what we like it is not going to happen? They are not really listening. They are going to do what they like anyway." Two participants reflected on being supported by their supervisors but thought that they may have felt just as powerless as the social workers themselves. As one participant stated: "And, you know, I think your managers or supervisors were supportive and listened to you but I

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think we probably kind of felt they were supportive but there was nothing they could do in whatever we said wasn't really goin' to get listened to." Employees generally believed their input was not valued and believed that they were powerless to do anything about it.

As well, it was expressed that the supervisors were also not aware of the outcomes of the organizational change process: "And even the managers didn't really know where they were going to end up to." The underlying theme appears to be that, while there may have been structures in place to allow for input, factors which may impede employees' ability to provide input had not been taken into account and, when participants provided input, there was a sense that the input was not taken into account. While structures had been put in place, other realities of the work of employees was not accounted for with regard to limitations to being able to have input. There was also a belief that there was a 'master plan' by some, that was being carried out, a sense of distrust with both the process and the designers of the change process who may not have been visible or known, a suspicion regarding the 'real' agenda. Ultimately, during the in-person interviews, participants believed that there was, indeed, a predetermined plan for the organizational change outcomes. The results were that the organizational change process was viewed negatively by many social workers and created a sense of disillusionment and lack of confidence in the process. Social workers were invited and encouraged to engage in the process of change. However, regardless of the intent of organizational leaders, the reality for social workers was that they believed, and the outcomes confirmed, for them, that the change was a foregone conclusion. The results of selected aspects of this study help to confirm the outcomes in relation to front line social workers; there was less than adequate commitment to the

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organization, employees were considering leaving the organization, and employees did not feel valued overall throughout the whole organizational change process.

Work responsibilities was the third concept identified in the Devine Questionnaire. The participant responses provided more insight into some aspects of this concept. In the mail out survey, participants were divided regarding the degree to which work responsibilities had changed since the move to Health and Community Services. Some participants indicated very little changes while other indicated much change, with the reasons for the very different responses being unclear. Interview participants indicated that, in some areas of work, there were significant changes which would impact some employees more than in other areas. The introduction of the new Child Youth and Family Services Act as well as the Youth Criminal Justice Act were two changes that were clearly identified during the in-person interviews. While the Child, Youth and Family Services Act was proclaimed in late 1999, the changes resulting from this legislation were significant for those involved in the legal aspects of the work. The discussions with interview participants provided insight into what appeared to be a disconnect in the responses in the mail out survey. The reality was that some participants experienced much change, such as becoming familiar with new legislation, while, for others, there was little change in their work responsibilities.

Another area in which there were significant changes was the Community Living program area. There were decreases in the services which social workers could provide themselves. A number of services were no longer able to be provided by the organization but had to be provided by a

provincial government department which made for disjointed service provision and some delays in clients getting services. In addition, in one area of the Community Living Program, services or increased services to clients were provided only in cases that were deemed to be essential and any requests were required to go through a committee, resulting in few requests being approved for some time. In addition, the traditional practice of hiring summer students (as happened in the government governed model) to help with the work, was discontinued. As well, others identified a computerized program in Child Welfare as having an impact (the Child Management Registration System) in that some participants reported that they had to spend considerable time working with this computerized system, which took them away from work with their clients. One participant thought the role of the Child Advocates Office (which often investigated child welfare complaints or issues) had a significant impact on the workload in that child welfare cases were being scrutinized more closely. The implication was that cases were sometimes made active, due only to the pressure of the Advocate's Office, and covering off cases "just in case something came up". Also, around 2003 there was a problem in child welfare where referrals were not being responded to and there were many referrals that were in arrears. The result was that 13 social workers had to be moved from other program areas in order to deal with the child protection backlog. The reality was that some social workers did experience much change while, for others, there was little change in their work; thus explaining the reasons for the divergence in how work responsibilities had changed.

Client services was the fourth concept in the Devine Questionnaire. There was convergence in the responses to this concept. Lack of services was a theme that was consistent for participants,

whether as employees of the provincial government or as employees of Health and Community Services. A number of participants reflected on the fact that more services are provided in-house and are more visible than before the integration, creating a perception of more services being available. One participant stated: "Now you have people coming in getting their babies weighed, needles being given and all that." Another stated: "I really don't see that there were, are more services. I really, really don't. I think we just meshed everything that we had before." "In January you always had your restrictions." For one participant, she indicated that client services had been less adequate due to a computerized system which took much time from social workers maintaining contact with clients. In one program area, services were provided for new cases or increased in active cases only in emergency situations, which clearly meant less services available. The documents leading up to the organizational change process were framed within the context of the Health and Community Services board model being better able to provide more services, more relevant services, as well as more timely services. In some respects services were more integrated in terms of being under one roof and, thus, more accessible for some people. However, it appears that the number of services for clients did not increase and some appear to have decreased.

Leadership and Change

The Leadership Questionnaire completed was related to styles of leadership in organizations. This questionnaire was also completed a second time as a reflective questionnaire related to leadership in the former organization. Interview participants concurred with the findings. For

current supervisors, one participant reflected the notion of more competing demands on supervisors; "There seemed to be more issues competing for supervisors', you know, brain space or head space now than they were then...where there is more craziness and, I don't know...there is less time for reflection maybe." As well, the notion that front line supervisors are entangled in the day-to-day issues and experiencing similar issues that front line social workers are experiencing, was also expressed; "Ah. Front line managers are at the lower end and I don't think they felt they had a lot of power in what was going on or what they could be doing about or even a real good understanding of the organization's structure and all that kind of thing." Front line supervisors are the lowest level of management. From the perspective of the social workers interviewed, they appear to sense that their supervisors often felt just as powerless as the social workers themselves.

One participant stated that supervisors were more focused on administrative matters and were not focused on the higher order ideals of the organization: "A lot of our program management people are more paper oriented, goal oriented, you got to do this, you got to do that and unfortunately, the reinforcement quite often for doing it is negative input". In addition, one participant reflected the negative side of supervision: "I have had supervisors, yes, you do get positive feedback, but I had ones, you know, since Health and Community Services since I went there but, you know, you only hear the negative stuff and you don't hear much of the positive." Another statement reflected on management that appears to be overly involved in day-to-day decision making of social workers: "You can't any longer make your best informed decision, and get aboard your car and go do it. Because you will be second guessed all the time...and some of our best

workers...our quite seasoned workers...they no longer make those decisions". The overall sense of front line management, as expressed by participants, was that supervisors were more involved in the day-to-day activities of running the administrative aspects of the organization, were not aware of the larger vision for the organization, and lacked in their support of the social workers. There appeared to be a strong focus on supervisors being more involved in decision making in relation to the caseloads of social workers, more from an administrative and management perspective, with less focus on the clinical and support aspects of the role of the supervisor.

There was a positive correlation between leadership and education in the analysis completed. Interview participants concurred with this finding: "Yes, yes, I see that in people in my office who are working on or have their MSW. That is where their head is at, you know." One participant also reflected that working on and completing an MSW degree allows for one to reflect more on the big picture, thus giving one a different, broader perspective. The underlying notion is that more education helps one to become more aware of the higher order values that are important to organizational life. With less emphasis on the clinical aspects of supervision, the BSW social workers miss this needed support in their work while MSWs may have less of a need with their special knowledge in the clinical aspects of their work.

In relation to the reflective group, one participant wondered if the supervisor's higher ratings in the former organization was due to their stronger loyalty (commitment questionnaire) to the former organization. As one participant stated: "It is more relaxed, it sounds like you felt safer there (in provincial government department) and you kind of knew the layout of the land." As

well, participants also reflected on positive aspects of the former organization, while also acknowledging that it was less than perfect.

When asked if the participants had any additional comments to add, two participants reflected on their commitment to the profession and their clients as opposed to his commitment to the organization. They indicated a clear and strong commitment to the profession and to clients. As one participant stated: "So, it is allegiance to what you are doing and not to the actual organization from a point of view of any organization that is defined by a number of...". It is important to distinguish between commitment to ones profession and ones commitment to the organization (Morrow, 1988; Blau, 1988), as discussed in Chapter 3. In the in-person interviews, there was often the underlying theme of concern, interest in, and commitment to the clients in the whole organizational change process. From an organizational change perspective, leaders may need to ensure that there is a focus on improving the lives of clients as part of the process and its potential and actual impacts on clients if, indeed, that is its goal.

One participant reflected on her experience in integrating into Health and Community Services. For her, she felt that it took about five years for her to begin to accept the current organization: "I think after five years, I think that is when I saw myself changing. And I just stopped, you know, stopped hoping, you know, that it was going to go back to the way it was." Another participant also reflected similar sentiments: "And I think, even after several years after, we still had somewhat negative feelings obviously about that and how it transpired and where this was going and loyalty issues there. I certainly see, years later, I think it has improved to some degree for

some." The experience of these participants is reflective of one letting go of a relationship and that of a change in thinking and being. The process is reflective of both the cognitive symbolic frame in the conceptual framework as well as the human relations frame where relationships between people are central. The process of leaving the provincial department appears to have required more opportunity for people to grieve the process. In fact the provincial department did have a provincial conference in the province at the time of the official transition from a government department to the board model, which was interpreted as a positive and worthwhile experience, at least from the experience of this researcher and from comments from his colleagues at that time. There was an acceptance or more of a resignation that, for social worker employees, their reality was that there was no returning to the former organization, regardless of how much they wished otherwise.

Conclusion

In this study, a mail out survey was mailed to the population of social workers who were employed in the program areas of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections. The survey was provided to participants in January, 2003. Upon completion of the quantitative analysis, this researcher conducted in-person interviews with six social workers who were employed with the current organization, Health and Community Services, and who had been employed with the former provincial Department of Social Services. The in-person interviews focused on the preliminary results of the quantitative analysis completed. Interviewees were

asked to provide their comments and feedback on the preliminary results, in relation to their own experiences and those of the program area in which they worked.

The results of the interviews provided support and evidence for the quantitative findings and provided more insight and understanding of the experiences of the social workers who had worked in the former organization, as well as for social workers who had worked for the current organization only. Study participants reported less than adequate levels of commitment to the organization, while recognizing that there were limited options to work elsewhere as well as the fact that there was often much invested in the organization in relation to pension and related benefits. Interestingly, some participants distinguished between and discussed commitment to the organization and commitment to the profession, an important factor for a profession such as social work. Many social workers have considered leaving the organization. However, it appears that few have actually acted on these feelings.

Participants reflected on the organizational change process itself in relation to the Devine Questionnaire. Their experiences, and that of their colleagues was one where they felt they had little opportunity to have input, for many reasons, and that their input did not appear to be valued. They expressed the notion that the change process was a foregone conclusion. Some program areas experienced significant changes in their work responsibilities, such as changes in legislation, while other areas of work (sometimes within the same program area) experienced little changes - thus accounting for the polar responses to the question regarding work responsibilities. As well, participants thought, for the most part, that client services had not

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increased but had been reduced; despite the appearance of better services by the fact that different professionals were working under the one roof and that multiple services were being provide there (i.e., Well Baby Clinics, baby needles, and so on).

Participants also concurred with findings that leadership styles or traits were not balanced in terms of transformational and transactional leadership. Participants reported that supervisors (front line management) were very much focused on getting immediate tasks completed. The focus for supervisors appeared to lack balance between the need to complete administrative tasks and the need for clinical, client focused services to clients and client centered support to social workers. As well, participants expressed the view that supervisors were often as uninformed of organizational changes as were the social workers themselves.

Overall, the interview process confirmed the findings of the quantitative analysis. The participants in the in-person interviews provided insight and a greater depth of understanding of their lived experiences and the lived experiences of their colleagues throughout the organizational change experience. Of interest also was the thoughts of one participants who expressed her feelings of finally letting go of the hope that they would move back to the provincial government governed model; the process, for her and her team, taking almost five years. This acceptance of change product is an important issue for organizational change leaders to consider in any change process. The interviews also reflected the importance of communicating clearly, and often, the plan of organizational change and the process (the process and the product), as well as providing opportunities for employees to have input. Providing

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opportunities for input may need to be considered in the context of employees who are already overworked and find it challenging to take time to provide input. Reflection on processes and products may need to happen not only before and after organizational change processes, but on a continuous basis, even after the formal organizational change process has been completed. In addition, evaluation of the organizational change process and products, including ongoing evaluation is an important component to help ensure more informed and more focused client programs and services.

CHAPTER VI

Discussion

The current chapter of this thesis will provide the reader with insight into the significance of the research completed as it relates to the rapid and pervasive organizational change experience under study. The first part of the chapter focuses on the qualitative part of the research which includes the analysis of seven (7) government documents related to the change process and products and the key findings in this part of the research. The second part of the chapter focuses on the quantitative findings and their significance. The findings are relevant and important in understanding selected aspects of the organizational change process and its impacts on social workers and clients. The quantitative findings discuss the relevance and importance of commitment, turnover, inputs and impacts, as well as leadership. The chapter also integrates the results of the in-person interviews and how the results of this part of the research added value to my understandings of the organizational change experiences. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings in this case study.

Qualitative Research Results in Summary

The rapid and pervasive organizational change process, from a government governed model to a community health board governed model in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador, took place within the context of provincial, national, and international impetus for such integrative

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change models. The organizational change process was espoused as making services more effective and efficient as well as relevant to community.

The research completed in this case study includes an analysis of seven (7) government and government related documents leading up to the change; a quantitative mail out survey seeking the perceptions of study participants with regard to selected aspects and impacts of the organizational change process; and in-person interviews to seek more in depth understandings of selected aspects and impacts of organizational change processes and outcomes. The study questions considered the commitment levels of study participants, their intentions to leave the organization, the leadership styles (or traits) of their immediate supervisors, the input they had into the organizational change process and its subsequent impacts, as well as the impacts on client services. The revised Bolman and Deal (1997) model, as the conceptual framework, is employed as an analytical tool under conditions of organizational change.

The outcomes in this case study suggest that social workers' experiences of the organizational change process was not positive and that the impacts related to selected aspects studied were less than desirable for the majority of social workers in the organization. The results of this study provide opportunities for organizations to consider more effective and efficient ways to effect organizational change processes in the interest of its employees and its clients. A summary of the broad hypotheses posited in Chapter 1 are provided at the end of this chapter with a brief descriptor of each of the findings.

With regard to the seven (7) documents analyzed, leading up to the organizational change process, the theme of participation and empowerment was most frequently referenced and discussed in earlier (chronological order) documents but received less attention in documents that were produced closer to the time of the organizational change process itself. The notion of citizens having a voice in the change process and/or in the development of policies, programs, and services received less attention. It appears that the bureaucratic model applied by bureaucrats within the system, leading the organization change process, took control. The change process also reflected a greater emphasis on structural and administrative change, rather than an emphasis on making programs, policies, and services more relevant to clients. The documents also discussed the importance of stakeholders having input into and, subsequently, having an impact on programs and services.

As the quantitative analysis above and the discussion below indicates, the inputs, as perceived by social workers, were less than adequate. The emphasis appears to be more on efficiencies in the administrative aspects of the organization and of programs and services. While concern was expressed regarding the impacts on social workers and related programs and client services, the subsequent quantitative analysis (discussed below) indicates that the perception of social workers was that there were negative impacts, personally, and professionally. As well, social workers indicated that client programs and services were negatively impacted.

The concept of organizational change was a common thread throughout all the documents and there was a sense that the need for change was overdue, as well as the fact that services were not

only lacking in effectiveness and efficiency, but that there was duplication of services. The

vision was that moving programs and services to a community health board model would lessen

duplication of services and would allow for programs and services to be more relevant to client

population needs. In fact, from the perspective of social workers, there was a perception that

client programs and services did not improve (see discussion below related to this issue).

The concepts of prevention and early intervention were significant themes throughout each of the

documents. The concepts were validated in the new child welfare legislation; the Child, Youth

and Family Services Act (1999). Discussions included the fact that preventative service would

be more cost efficient. In fact, in the short to medium term, the impact of preventative services

may take some time to show cost savings. In addition, the improved quality of life issues may be

less apparent when compared to being able to demonstrate cost savings, for example. The

challenge for organizations is to also focus on long term goals at it relates to prevention and early

intervention services, realizing that costs will likely increase for a period of time before costs

begin to decrease.

The reality of poverty also emerged as an underlying issue for clients. However, the issue of how

to deal with poverty was never adequately addressed in any of the documents. While poverty and

how to deal with poverty as an underlying issue in many program areas is a very complex matter

and may not have been able to be thoroughly addressed in the documents, it remains a critical

issue for many clients. Identifying the need to address the underlying issue of poverty is a good

first step. However, failing to deal with poverty in a concrete and active way may result in

programs and services being delivered which may be much less effective and efficient.

In addition, the concepts of collaboration, participation, and input changed somewhat in some of

the documents, in terms of priority. For example, in the social strategic plan, the concept of

voluntarism was more related to community responsibility which suggests why some social

workers feared that the move to a community health board model was simply a means to off load

programs and services to the community. The perception is one of an outcome where needed

services were reduced.

Also, the concept of leadership was not given priority in the documents analyzed. This is

interesting considering the organizational literature as discussed in the conceptual framework

(Chapter 2), which suggests that there is a need for strong leadership in times of turbulence and

rapid and pervasive change. As suggested above, the bureaucratic, expert model appeared to

have taken charge of the organizational change process, without consideration of how the

leadership role might be implemented most effectively.

The last document analyzed was the evaluation of the transitional change process after the

process had been completed. The document appears to be biassed as only those who were

involved directly in the change process itself, were part of the evaluation. Despite this apparent

bias, there were significant concerns with regard to communication, for example, which was

identified as the second most frequent theme. There was an emphasis on the need for clear,

open, and coordinated communication within and across various committee structures. The document also identified the positive aspect of the opportunity for different professionals to work together in a collaborative manner in moving to the community health board model, a positive outcome of the organizational change process.

The concept of participation and empowerment was also a theme that emerged in the evaluation document. The authors indicated that employees felt that the whole process was a foregone conclusion and that time had been spent in helping dispel this notion. As well, committee members reported that they did not feel valued in the change process. This is also reiterated in the quantitative analysis provided below.

Finally, considering the fact that concerns were expressed in the evaluation document by employees who appeared to be highly involved in the change process, one cannot help but reflect on how disempowered and devalued social workers who were not involved in the process may have felt. The quantitative analysis (see discussion below) reinforces the sense of not being valued throughout the organizational change process. The sense of not feeling valued or heard in the organizational change process was also identified in the in-person interviews with participants. The themes identified and discussed above are important ones to consider in the quantitative analysis below as well as in the context of the in-person interviews.

Quantitative Research in Summary

Content analysis of the seven government and government related documents discussed above, included the first part of the research completed in this case study. In January, 2003, a mail out survey was forwarded to the population of social workers in this case study. The survey consisted of several instruments related to social workers' commitment to the organization (current and former organization), their intentions to leave the organization, the leadership (or traits) of their immediate supervisors (in current and former organizations), their perceived inputs into organizational change processes and impacts, as well as the impacts on client services. Subsequent to completing the analysis of the mail out survey, in-person interviews were completed with selected social workers with the expectation of gaining more insight into the organizational change processes and products.

The Bolman and Deal (1991, 1997) model adopted for organizational change experiences was expanded by this researcher and provided the conceptual framework for this study. The expanded framework provides an analytical model which helps interpret and explain the complexity of organizational dynamics of change as well as put the results in context. In this study the revised Bolman and Deal model has been applied to the analysis of an experience of organizational change in human services organizations. The instruments adopted in the mailed questionnaire provided the researcher with data related to selected aspects of the organizational change process under study as it relates to the experiences of front line social workers, comparing those who experienced the organizational change process (the move of services from a provincial

government governed model to a community health board model) with those who experienced the resulting organization only.

Commitment And Change

The current study examines whether employees who had experienced the organizational change process would have high commitment levels related to empirically based components of commitment to the organization (affective, normative and continuance components) and if levels of commitment would vary in relation to selected characteristics of the study participants. Overall, study participants reported moderately negative responses in relation to affective and normative components of commitment, indicating a lack of emotional attachment to, identification with, and feelings of obligation to continue employment with the agency. Study participants also reported strong needs to continue their employment with the organization because there were high personal and social costs associated with leaving the organization (for example, pension and health benefits). Strong continuance commitment, in this case, is predominantly related to the employees' lack of options or alternatives to find other employment, and is not related to positive values associated with the employee and her/his connection or commitment to the organization. From the human resources conceptual framework, it is concerning for an organization which employs staff who do not feel a more optimal sense of commitment to the organization (Rousseau, 2000; Argyris, 2000 & 1985; Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975). Employees may need to feel more a part of the organization in order to have

their intrinsic needs met, the need to feel an inner sense of accomplishment, self motivation, creativity and innovativeness (human resources frame).

The notion of intrinsic values is congruent with McGregor's Theory Y (McGregor, 1966), which supports the conclusion that employees are internally motivated to work as an end in itself, and is not motivated externally by the employer. Internal motivation may be related to work with clients or in relationships with colleagues. Employees who lack in their attachment to and identification with an organization, but who think that they have limited options with regard to leaving the organization may behave in ways that may be problematic for the organization and may result in less than optimal types of behaviour, related to the fact that they are working in an environment simply because there are no other options for similar types of employment.

Employees in this study reported that they did not have strong emotional attachments to the organization and did not have a strong sense of feelings of obligations to the organization; however, they did report a strong need to continue to work for the organization (due to having limited options in terms of other employment). When the in-person interviews were conducted one participant reflected on the fact that there were few options with regard to other employment opportunities, with comparable benefits and suggested that, if the salary and benefits were similar, one might find more social worker working at places like Tim Horton's or Wal Mart, a strong sense of lack of options to work elsewhere and that employees felt that there was a lack of options for other employment opportunities. This combination (not feeling attached to the organization but feeling the need to stay with the organization due to lack of options) may be

concerning for the organization since employees are not committed to the organization, but may feel disillusioned and discontented; the net result potentially being burnout of employees and negative impacts on client services and programs.

While levels of expressed commitment to the organization is concerning from an organizational, employee, and client services perspective, it is interesting to note that, during the in-person interviews, two of the participants expressed a strong sense of commitment to the profession and to the client population. The distinction of commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997) versus commitment to the profession (Morrow, 1988) and/or clients is an important one to clarify in any organizational change process, especially in human services organizations. In this case of organizational change, the change was framed as providing better services and better access to services to clients. Even with services not improving and services being reduced, it appears that the social workers found work value in clients and the profession, more so than for employees in the organization. As professional social workers, employees expressed continued and strong commitment to the client population, a critical component of any change process that organizations may want to recognize and encourage.

The lack of options to find other employment may also be disempowering for employees since they have little other employment opportunities available to them (political power frame). The model of organizational change (structural bureaucratic) may have left employees feeling that they are less attached to the current organization (a human resources issue) and have felt disempowered (political power frame) in the organizational change process which was more

concerned with structure and hierarchical contexts than process (a structural bureaucratic issue). There appears to be a conflict between a service orientation and a management orientation.

Commitment and Program Areas of Work

Study results in relation to study participant characteristics indicated significant differences between program areas of work. There are three distinct program areas of work for the employees under study: Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections. There were significant differences between Community Living and Youth Corrections, indicating that those employees who worked in the program area of Community Living had stronger levels of affective commitment (emotional attachment; personalized involvement in the organization) to the organization than those in the Youth Corrections program area.

These results are interesting for a number of reasons. Historically, from the perspective of this researcher as a former employee within the former and current organization, there had been a strong sense that the program area of Child Welfare had been the most challenging program area in which to work. The program area of Community Living, while less stressful, was viewed as being more service administration and case management oriented, rather than clinical social work oriented. The program area of Youth Corrections historically was viewed as being the most stable program area in which to work and had the most senior front line social workers. However, having the most senior social workers employed in the area of Youth Corrections has changed somewhat since the integration to Health and Community Services. The in-person

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interviews confirmed that, while there continues to be some senior social workers, there are many more junior social workers now employed in this area.

An interesting finding with regard to program area of work is that Child Welfare did not stand out as having the most strong negative levels of commitment to the organization. When conducting the in-person interviews, one participant reflected that she would have expected the Child Welfare Program area to report stronger negative views with regard to commitment. However, employees in the Child Welfare program area tend to be the more junior employees. Their focus may have been related to their commitment to the profession and their clients (Morrow, 1988), not on an organizational change process with which they may not have had a strong interest, a comment which was also reflected in two of the in-person interviews. In addition, 62% (26) of the child welfare employees were young social workers, the majority of whom had been employees of the current organization only, most of whom were recent BSW graduates. The organizational change process was more focussed on administrative issues (structural bureaucratic frame). For the child welfare social workers, their focus may have been more so on commitment to the profession.

The social workers who may have been more focussed on the profession, may have felt more valued as professional social workers (human resources frame), their identity being with the profession, and not identifying primarily with the organization. The identity with the profession may also have outweighed their perceived lack of power as child welfare social workers, who are often viewed as being entry level positions in the organization. The other program areas of

Community Living and Youth Corrections are more highly valued by social workers (cognitive symbolic frame), in that they are viewed as being the purview of more senior employees/social workers - the implication being rewarded for having spent time in the child welfare program area.

Commitment and Age

In completing correlation and hierarchical regression analyses, the results indicated that there was a positive correlation between continuance commitment and age, which is supported in other studies (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitct, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Older study participants reported higher levels of continuance commitment to the organization, suggesting that they were less likely to consider leaving the organization, or were more satisfied with the organization than younger employees. However, older study participants did not have strong affective or normative levels of commitment. While their levels of affective and normative commitment may not be strong, they reported being less dissatisfied with the organization than younger employees. From an organizational perspective, the older, more experienced group of employees may be considered to be more committed overall to the organization and are less likely to stay only because other employment opportunities are not available. Employees who have been with the organization for longer periods of time may identify more strongly with the organizational culture and may be demonstrating a sense of resilience with regard to coping with organizational change (cognitive symbolic frame) (Toch & Grant, 2005; Grant, Kenney & Oswick, 1998; Sparrow, 1998).

The in-person interviews strongly reflected the conclusion that older employees also usually had more invested in the organization in terms of pensions, in particular, and did not want to jeopardize their pensionable service. The commitment of older employees may be related more to utilitarian motives (pensions and benefits) than to ideological motives (commitment to the organization's mission and values). Older employees in this study may also have a strong sense of identity with the (former) organization and continue to identify themselves with the current organization as being similar to the former organization, since the day to day service delivery programs and services appear to have changed in a limited way only. While the move to the health and community services board model was rapid and pervasive, the employees were basically the same and the service delivery structure at the front line did not appear to change significantly (structural bureaucratic frame), a notion that was clearly expressed in the in-person interviews. The external structure changed, the internal structure may have changed, and the organizational symbols changed. However, the services either remained primarily the same, or were seen to have been reduced. In addition, older employees may have experienced organizational change processes in the past and may have been better able to adapt to change and uncertainty.

From the organization's perspective, it may be beneficial to work with the older employees who, while their affective and normative commitment levels are low, are more committed to the organization overall than are younger employees. The purpose of working with older employees is to try to better understand their commitment levels. By coming to an understanding of the commitment levels of the more senior employees, and working to increase their commitment

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levels, the older employees may act as role models for the younger employees (human resources frame). In addition, the older employees could act more as informal leaders (leadership frame) (Conger, 1999; Bolman & Deal, 1997; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993) and may be effective in developing a more positive, realistic, and participatory model (action learning frame) with regard to the organizational change processes.

Commitment Within the Context of Organizational Change

A comparative analysis of the levels of affective and normative commitment of study participants who had worked for both the former and current organizations indicated higher levels of commitment to the former organization, almost five years after the move to the current organization. The higher levels of commitment to the former organization may be related, in part, to feelings of nostalgia, a sense of a positive working environment in the former organization while, at the same time, minimizing the challenges in the former organization. The higher levels of commitment to the former organization may also be related to the fact that the move to the community health board model was mostly an administrative one (structural bureaucratic frame) (Rainey, 1997; Jones & Gross, 1996; Gouldner, 1954), where it was assumed by organizational leaders that a change in the structure was 'real change' as opposed to front line social workers who viewed the change as primarily administrative changes.

In addition, in the in-person interviews, one participant, with close to approximately 20 years of experience, related that there had been several suspensions and firings of employees since

moving to Health and Community Services. Formerly, while employed in government, she could only recall one person being fired and that the issue with regard to the firing was that the employee's behaviour was unacceptable. She expressed the sense that there was a lack of tolerance for mistakes and that this sense of lack of tolerance was 'unsettling'. Interestingly, she was one of two participants who did not want her name to be included in the acknowledgements in this thesis as she did not feel safe in openly expressing her opinions and experiences, even in a confidential in-person interview. Another interviewee expressed fond regard for colleagues throughout the province, where relationships had developed spanning over two decades. The sense of stronger commitment to the former organization appears to be related to a feeling that, according to interviewees, the former organization was more relaxed, the work was more reflective, and many relationships had been developed throughout the province over the years, as well as the fact that the current organization appeared to rule with an "iron fist" as one employees stated in the in-person interviews. There appears to be a sense that the organization expected the social worker to act as a professional, while not being treated as a professional or respected as a professional. The feeling of not being treated as a professional was further demonstrated by an interviewee who stated that doctors can make mistakes and nurses can make mistakes, but there is no room for social workers to make mistakes.

It is important for organizations to create a new organization by developing concrete as well as symbolic messages and signs that help employees identify with the new organization (Miller & Heath, 2004; Bolman & Deal, 1997; Argyris & Schon, 1974) (cognitive symbolic frame) as well as to help employees deal with their attachments and sense of loss for the former organization

(Argyris, 1985) (human resources and cognitive symbolic frame). Failure to deal with these important issues and messages may result in a new organization which may become less functional than planned (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984; Bion, 1959). The net result of not dealing with process as well as content of organizational change, may be that the organization fails to adapt and may engage in non-adaptive and/or dysfunctional behaviours which may be a disservice to its clients, its employees, and to the organization overall.

Intention to Turnover and Change

Employees may experience dissatisfaction with their employer. However, to consider leaving the organization is indicative of a serious and strong sense of dissatisfaction. While commitment to an organization reflects an employee's level of 'interest' in staying with the organization, intention to leave the organization suggests a sense of 'disillusionment' with, or 'giving up' on the organization (Beck, 1996; Mobley, 1982; Roseman, 1981).

In this study, employees expressed relatively high levels of intentions to leave the organization. Almost half stated that they often think of quitting, while 41.2% stated that they would likely actively look for a new job within the next year. The in-person interviews supported the survey results that colleagues often talked about quitting their employment. As one veteran social worker stated quite frankly; "Yeah. Lots of us think about quitting.", but added that she was not sure how many actually quit or followed through on actively looking for other work. In addition, participants in the interviews stated that colleagues often did apply for jobs in other program

areas within the organization. Low commitment levels combined with thoughts and intentions to leave the organization may be concerning from an organizational perspective. In addition, the analysis of documents (see Chapter 4) indicated that social workers believed that the organizational change process was a foregone conclusion and that efforts were made to dispel this notion throughout the transition year were not believed. Discontented employees may provide less effective services, and the negativity could permeate throughout the organization (human resources frame) (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975; McGregor, 1966). Continuing to work with an organization, under these conditions, may lead to less than optimal employee and organizational functioning (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984; Bion, 1959) as well as result in poor client and community services.

Study participants who considered leaving the organization may have experienced the frustration of having gone through an organizational change experience but not being able to create in their minds a sense of identity associated with the current organization, a sense of cognitive dissonance (Sims, Gioia & Associates, 1986; Miller, Friesen , & Mintzberg, 1984). In consideration of the need for effective change and the cognitive symbolic frame, it is critical for the new organization to consider and support the new mission and vision. The challenge for organizations when there is rapid and pervasive change is that employees are often not enabled to adapt to the new symbols such as working from a community health model, adapting to new leadership styles(or traits), and to directly working with other professionals in new ways, as well as identifying with symbols as simple as the new logo on the letterhead on correspondences. A shift in ones mind needs to take place over time which often does not occur when there is a

swift and often dramatic change (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Miller & Heath, 2004). The struggle for study participants to adapt cognitively and symbolically to the change to the current organization may contribute to considerations of working in another environment. The challenge to make the shift to the new organizational model (community health board model) and the limited options for employees to find other employers may also lead to employees who act in dysfunctional ways (Argyris, 1999; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984; Bion, 1959) such as resisting changes to hours of work or resisting coffee break rules. From the perspective of the organization, it may have concentrated on changing the structures only (Beetham, 1996) and not taken into account other complex dynamics of the change process.

Considerations of leaving the organization may also reflect study participants' overall sense of feeling powerless to effect change. In an environment of organizational change, employees may have felt that the change process was a foregone conclusion and, having experienced the change process as disempowering, they considered seeking employment in another organization where they may feel more valued. As one participant in the in-person interviews stated: "That was outlined but we all knew from the beginning that, you know, the rumor mill, or the discussion of this is where were are going to end up at some point." In other words, employees believed that there was an outcome planned that was not being shared with them and that the change outcome was going to happen, regardless of the process. The disempowering effect was also indicated in the analysis from the Devine Questionnaire where social workers indicated that they felt, for the most part, that their input was not valued. From the political power frame, this notion of lacking power is critical to feelings of value (or lack thereof) as a member of an organization, especially

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a professional organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997; Jackall, 1988; Gaventa, 1980). The resultant thoughts and behaviors are, thus, towards leaving the organization; a possible concern for organizational leaders if significant numbers of employees leave. Also, of concern is the fact that many employees are discontented to the point of considering leaving the organization, and the impacts of the high levels of discontentment from a human resources, political power, and structural bureaucratic frames.

An organization where a significant number of employees are considering leaving may be very concerning for the organization, even if the employees do not leave. In addition to the practical issues of employee training and initiation to the organization and its culture, it may be concerning from an organizational perspective that there are significant numbers of discontented employees and their commitment to and effectiveness in the organization may be lacking. Organizational leaders may also wish to consider how their leadership has impacted on the high levels of considerations of leaving the organization, in an organizational change process, and how leaders might work to instill a sense of commitment and a wish to continue to work with the organization in a positive and effective manner (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Leadership is analyzed later in this chapter.

Input, Impacts and Change Process: Devine Questionnaire

The Devine questionnaire was developed by this researcher and provided an analysis of selected and specific aspects of the organizational change process. The questionnaire included 19

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questions; however, six of the questions were dropped, with the result that four concepts emerged from the 13 remaining questions. The four concepts included the following: impacts, I inputs, work responsibilities, and client impacts.

Impacts

The organizational change process was viewed by over one-quarter of the study participants as having a strong negative impact both personally and professionally, with the results being supported by participants in the in-person interviews. It is concerning, from a human resources perspective, that almost five years after the organizational change process, employees were still feeling negatively impacted and the meaning that the change process may have had for the employees. It may also be concerning for the organization which may want employees to feel positive and valued in the organization. It may be beneficial, both from an individual as well as from an organizational perspective, to consider ways that the organization may be able to demonstrate its concern for and commitment to the employees and to seek ways to minimize the impacts on them both professionally and personally. Creating a culture of caring for its employees may help create a new organization where employees feel valued, even in times of uncertainty (Boyd, 1992; Argyris, 1990).

Input

Study participants indicated that they felt they had limited input into the organizational change process. Over half of the study participants indicated that they had little opportunity to have input and that there were obstacles to providing the input they would have liked to provide. Study participants in the in-person interviews clearly stated that their workloads and the workloads of their colleagues were a major impediment to providing input into the organizational change process and that, when they did provide input, they did not believe that they had been heard. Subsequently, there was a sense, by some employees, that input was not meaningful and was not valued or considered seriously by the leaders in the organization. In addition, the analysis of documents leading up to the organizational change process espoused the importance of stakeholders having input into any changes which would take place. Organizational leaders who ask for input but do not provide appropriate opportunities for input may be perceived as being insincere; the result being the creation of a lack of trust, disillusionment, and discontentment by its employees (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975; McGregor, 1966). Being asked to have input, even though there were limited opportunities to do so, and not feeling valued in the process can be very disempowering (political power frame) and may be connected to the fact that significant numbers of employees were considering leaving the organization (see analysis of Intention to Turnover and Change section above) at the time of mailed survey (January, 2003).

Study participants also reported that the change process was more concerned with how administrative processes and service structure would function. This emphasis is consistent with the structural bureaucratic frame, where the change in structures is central, not the process of the change, or the human product of change, as is critical in the human resources and cognitive symbolic frames. Assuming the organization functions within the context of Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), which supports the notion that employee efforts are related to their own sense of satisfaction with doing their work well. For example, one would expect that human resources issues and human motivation and involvement would be taken into account and valued by the organization and for its employees. From the perspective of study participants, an over emphasis was put on changing structures and not valuing the employees and what the change meant for them. Changing structure may be a very visible and concrete part of the change process. Changing how employees think about and understand change is an internal cognitive process where meaning about what the organization represents and means to the collective, is a process which requires time. The cognitive changes for employees can be nurtured by the organization paying attention to this aspect of change and ensuring clear and consistent messages and symbols are espoused, made visible, and operationalized in the every day life of the organization (Toch & Grant, 2005; Grant, Kenney & Oswick, 1998). For example, ensuring the mission and vision of the organization are clearly communicated and continually connecting the mission and vision of the organization to all aspects of change processes and products within the organization are critical.

Input and Tenure

Differences were found in tenure in relation to whether study participants felt their input had been taken into account, with the older employees indicating more strongly in the positive that their input had been taken into account. The difference in relation to tenure, may be due to the fact that study participants, who had worked with the organizations for longer periods of time, had experienced a number of different changes during their careers and may have concluded that the organization, this time, had made efforts to involve front line social workers, even though the change efforts may have been viewed as having limited success.

In fact, part of the organizational change process included the development of five regional transition teams and one provincial transition team to manage the integration process. The limitation to this model was that it did not appear to take into account, the process and complexity of the change in moving Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections services to be delivered under a health and community services board model in an integrated work environment. In the in-person interviews, one participant, who had been involved in various committees, thought that social workers may not have been clearly informed about how input and change operates, that input does not mean that everyone's recommendations will be accepted, for example. The participant who had been involved in the organizational change process understood that input received has to be taken into account from many individuals and groups and, from that, a decision or decisions will be made. The process, she thought, was not well understood by many social workers. However, from the perspective of the majority of

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social workers in the study, they believed that the organizational change process was pre-determined and that their input would not be heard and would not make a difference to the process.

Work Responsibilities

In an organizational change environment, where feelings of loss and feelings of not having power were experienced (political power frame), some study participants reported feeling that their work responsibilities had changed very little, some reported that their work responsibilities had changed significantly, and some expected that their work responsibilities would change in a limited way only in the future. In the in-person interviews participants indicated that, is some area of work there were significant changes, while in other areas, there were limited changes. For example, the legislation regarding the Child, Youth, and Family Services Act as well as the Youth Criminal Justice Act, had significant impacts on the workload and responsibilities of some social workers; thus helping to explain the polar responses in this concept. From the perspective of the structural bureaucratic frame, change in the organizational structure (from a government governed model to a community health board governed model) may have been viewed as significant. However, employees saw little changes in their day-to-day lives regarding their work with clients. Conversely, they saw and felt the major changes with regard to the organization, its structure, and its ongoing plans for how structures within the organization changed. In other words, they saw little improvements in terms of client services, given the major disruptions associated with moving to a community health board model. Given

that many believed that the structural changes had been pre-determined before the consultation processes and that the goal of service improvement was not achieved, then expressions of discontentment and disillusionment with the organization are understandable.

Client Services

Finally, study participants reported that services to clients had not been well developed and lacked relevancy to the client population being served. Part of the rationale for the move to a community health board model was that services could be developed which could be more relevant to the clients being served and that services could be adapted or changed more easily to the client context as opposed to services which were based on a 'one size fits all' model, within a provincial context. From the perspective of most study participants, client services were less than adequate and services were reduced overall. For social workers, they believed that participation in the organizational change process did not have the desired effect. The method of having input into decision making was in the form of one provincial Transition Team and five regional Transition Teams with representatives from each employee group on each team. The representative was responsible to communicate the ongoing work of the Team as well as to bring forward employees suggestions and concerns. The transition teams were disbanded after the 12 month transition period.

In the in the in-person interviews, it was stated that, after the transition year, for example, needed home support services, for the elderly or disabled, would be approved only in

exceptional circumstances, and that a Committee had been developed where such decisions would be made - the net result being that fewer approvals were forthcoming even though the best clinical judgement of the case manager was that such support was needed and justified. While services were perceived to be similar in structure after the organizational change process, it is likely that some decision structures had changed. This perceived lack of significant improvement in client services may also have added to employee disillusionment and discontentment. The organizational change process may be viewed as a complex issue - integrating traditional social work services into a community health board model. The integration may have been one with a power orientation in that new words and symbols were used such as local and regional relevance; however, the net result appears to have been less services. Less services suggests economical changes or financial savings, while increasing management control (structural bureaucratic frame) with a focus on administrative management as opposed to a focus on clients and quality client services.

Service Availability

The availability and number of services was, for the most part, reported as less services being available or close to similar services available. It appears that the dynamics of the organizational change process were not taken into account by the organization and that the focus was primarily on the structural changes.

In summary, study participants' responses to questions regarding selected aspects of the organizational change process reported primarily in the range of negative to moderately negative responses. In part, social workers may have felt that there was little purpose to engaging in the process. Many thought that the integration to Health and Community Services had not resulted in more client services and, in addition, expected their work responsibilities to increase in the future. For some study participants, they had been employed in social work program areas for many years, had experienced a number of organizational change processes, and may have adopted the attitude that input did not matter. The fact that only 37.5% of study participants responded to the mailed survey suggests the attitude of input not being valued, may be part of their thinking. The 'withdrawal' of many study participants from becoming involved in this organizational change process may be of concern for organizations and the community as well. It may be concerning for a number of reasons, from an organizational perspective, that employees do not believe that the change process was inclusive. First, front line social workers are in key positions with regard to service and program delivery. Social workers have practice, program, and services experience and knowledge that may be very valuable in helping to ensure appropriate and effective services are provided. Secondly, employees (social workers in this study) who are part of and help develop and implement organizational change, will have made an 'investment' into the change and may be more committed to ensuring the organizational change process and products work well. Organizations may have much to gain from ensuring employees are not only participants in change, but that employees think that their involvement is sincere and in the best interests of employees, its clients, the organization, and the community as a whole.

Leadership and Change

The leadership questionnaire adopted in the analysis of leadership in this study was developed by Bass and Avolio (Bass and Avolio, 2000). Bass and Avolio's research identifies three styles or traits of leadership. The first style of leadership is referred to as transformational leadership, which includes leaders who are concerned with higher order values in the organization such as justice, equality, and liberty and leaders who can espouse a sincere vision for the future of the organization. Transactional leadership style focuses more on clarifying expectations, responsibilities, and providing rewards for employees' efforts. The third style of leadership is laissez faire leadership which includes the absence or delaying of decision making or not becoming involved in organizational issues.

Transformational leadership consists of five components. In order to be considered to be a transformational leader one must be rated on a likert scale at a defined or ideal range on all five components. In this study, the total population of study participants (N = 60) did not rate their immediate supervisor as transformational on either of the five components. In other words, supervisors were reported as not adequately espousing higher order values such as justice, equity, and liberty and did not adequately espouse the mission and vision of the organization. In an environment where rapid and pervasive organizational change has taken place, it may be important for organizational leaders at all levels of management to have a vision of the organization as well as to be able to share the vision with those with whom they interact.

Mission and Values of Organization in Relation to Leadership

The organization under study has a mission and vision statement, along with a set of values to guide their vision (Health and Community Services, (October 4, 2006). In the mission (and vision and values) statements important terms are employed such as; "committed to advocacy", "respecting the integrity, dignity, rights.....of each person", individuals, families and communities having a... "...right to be involved in decisions that affect them", being "client centered", and being accountable to the community, are included. However, the leadership questionnaire findings indicate that staff perceived that supervisors placed an overemphasis on micro management issues such as focusing on mistakes, irregularities, exceptions, and, deviations from standards. On the one hand the mission and values of the organization espouse higher order values while, on the other hand, the focus at the first line of management (the supervisors) is that of micro management related to administrative, technical issues. It may be that supervisors did not believe they were able to support the organization's mission and values because their daily work lives and management directions may have been more focused on administrative issues as well as, possibly, financial and budget issues. The net result may have been that it would have been impossible for supervisors to try to live both the mission and values and, at the same time, to live the realities of the expectations related to administration, budgets and financial issues. To try to live both may have created a state of cognitive dissonance where both demands or expectations are incompatible (Miller, Friesen, & Mintzberg, 1984).

With regard to transformational leadership, supervisors lacked in their ability to discuss and promote beliefs and values, ethics, and purpose of the organization as well as in their ability to instill a sense of pride in the organization, to build the respect of the employees, and to display a sense of their own power and confidence. Identification with an organization (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000; Bolman and Deal, 1997) is important in attaining an understanding of what the organization represents, its values and mission. Supervisors have a role to play in developing this sense of identity. However, if supervisors do not have a strong sense of identity with the organization, and receive conflicting messages (for example, the mission and values statements and expectations to micro manage) it would not be surprising that employees do not have a strong sense of identity with the organization. The lack of commitment to the organization and considerations of leaving the organization (by front line social workers) are indicative of not being strongly identified with the organization.

In the move to the community health board model, part of the change which needs to take place is for employees to develop a sense of vision and mission for the new organization, a cognitive symbolic process. Employing supervisors who can espouse and demonstrate the values, ethics, and mission of the new organization and who can implement these values in their work responsibilities, may help to instill a stronger sense of identification by front line social workers with the organization. It may also lead to stronger levels of commitment, may lessen or eliminate thoughts of leaving the organization and may increase the social workers' sense of positive regard for and identification with the organization.

Also related to transformational leadership was the failure of supervisors, in their role to be a teacher and coach, to help the individual develop her/his unique strengths. The role of teacher and coach may have been lacking, in part, due to the stronger focus in the organization on administrative supervision as opposed to a more clinical approach to supervision. Social workers who do not feel valued by their supervisors, as individuals, may not have a strong sense of commitment to the organization, may not feel a strong sense of identity with or connection to the organization (human resources frame), and may consider seeking employment elsewhere. Employees new to an organization may develop an identity with the organization over time (Easterby-Smith, Arujo & Burgoyne, 1999; Pfeiffer, 1997). The sense of identity will not develop by social workers becoming familiar with the organizational structures only (Beetham, 1996; Gouldner, 1954) (the structural bureaucratic frame) but, also, by leaders who can espouse the organization's values, mission, and culture; the cognitive symbolic frame. The challenge for social workers and, possibly, their supervisors, may be that the mission states, in part, that the organization is; "...committed to advocacy, partnership and the provision of respectful and responsive services to promote the health and well being of people and their communities within our region", (Health and Community Services, (October 4, 2006) while the reality is that the focus and the expectation may be more on administrative and structural issues (economics, in part, at least) (theory in action). One may not be able to espouse the mission when one's work reality is opposed to it. By trying to identify with both, non-rational behavior may be the outcome (Kets de Vries, 1991; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1984). Therefore, one may be able to logically identify with ones day-to-day work reality - the lived experience.

Leadership and Motivation

Supervisors were observed by social workers to be less optimistic about the future, less enthusiastic about what needs to be done, and less confident in their goals (inspirational motivation). In an organizational change environment leaders are in a critical position to lead change and to encourage optimism as well as to help motivate employees to work in different ways; the ultimate goal being to create an organization which provides better quality services to its clients. For supervisors to be able to be optimistic about the future, they, in turn, need to also hear and see the vision of their immediate managers through to the top leaders in the organization. The vision, mission, values and goals of the integrated organization (in this case) must be espoused and demonstrated in action, so that everyone in the organization is working with the same sense of purpose as well as to be receptive to seeking different perspectives on issues and to be optimistic about the future.

Transactional Leadership Style

With regard to transactional leadership, study participants rated their supervisors lower on the ideal score range in relation to; support (assistance) to the study participants, not being clear on performance objectives, and not expressing satisfaction when expectations were met ("contingent reward" component). In times of organizational change, there may be many changes in the integrated organization which may leave some employees struggling to cope in the new work environment. Having a clear sense of the expectations of the organization may be

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very important to give direction to ones own work. Lacking clear expectations and not providing timely feedback may result in employees who experience greater degrees of stress and a sense of alienation in the changed work environment, possibly resulting in less productive employees and employees who seek out ways to leave the organization. A focus on clear objectives and expectations may be critical to positive transitions to an integrated organization. As one social worker stated in an in-person interview in relation to the former organization compared to the current organization; "I think in the former organization we kind of knew where we were. Your work was clear." Providing clear and focused work expectations congruent with the mission and values of the organization may support a work environment for employees that optimizes possibilities for more positive outcomes in the interest of employees and client services.

Conversely, on the third component of transactional leadership (referred to as "management by exception-passive"), study participants rated their immediate supervisors higher on the ideal score range. The results suggest that supervisors tended to be too involved in employee workload issues too quickly, suggesting that employees were limited in their ability to work in a professional environment where professional judgement, for example, may have been inhibited. In-person interviews supported the issue that employees are limited in their ability to exercise professional judgement. The program area of Child Welfare was clearly identified as an area by two of the participants in which, in the area of Child Protection, workers had very limited ability to exercise professional judgment and independence in their work, with the expectation and/or requirement that they check frequently with their supervisors before making any significant

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decisions. In an organizational change environment, where uncertainty is often accentuated, employees, sensing that their work life is being assessed in a manner which may question ones professional abilities, may have significant negative impacts on them, both professionally and personally, as is also suggested in the Devine Questionnaire discussed above, possibly resulting in dissatisfaction and discontentment in the work environment. The results may be employees who lack confidence in and commitment to the current organization, an organization in which employees may feel unfulfilled, both professionally and personally (human resources frame). Also, the increased emphasis of supervisors on micro management issues (for example; overly involved in issues and lacking autonomy) identified in the leadership questionnaire as well as in the in-person interviews suggests that the supervisors moved away from a clinical focused supervision model to an administrative management model (more control management), even though the mission and values statements of the organization (Health and Community Services, (October 4, 2006) espoused client centered services.

On a positive note, social workers rated their supervisors as being appropriately focused on irregularities, exceptions, mistakes, and failure to meet standards. The role of the supervisor in this area of work is to help ensure minimal standards of practice or policy adherence are enforced and may be helpful to the employees in understanding and abiding by the organization's rules and policies. When considered in relation to other components of transactional leadership, one may interpret the focus as being that of micro management when important issues, such as objectives not being clear and employees not feeling supported by their supervisors in their work environment, are not given appropriate attention. However, the focus

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appears to be one that attempted to provide direction and a sense of control and normality to an otherwise chaotic time of transition for both supervisors and social workers.

While the integration of the programs of Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections officially took place effective April 1, 1998, the organizational change process itself continued on for a number of years. The feelings of uncertainty and disillusionment were also felt on a provincial level. In particular, on February 9, 2000, social workers in different Health and Community Services Boards across the province of Newfoundland and Labrador, staged a wildcat strike which lasted three days (Stokes, February 12, 2000). The strike was called out of frustration by social workers who were reported to be carrying caseloads three times the national average and to protest lack of action with regard to pay equity issues. After the first day of the strike, an injunction was received from the courts by the employer. Social workers refused to obey the injunction, injunctions that were delivered to their homes in the evening, but relented when the provincial government agreed to consider their requests on a priority basis.

The wildcat strike received much public attention. Social workers received support from the local union (Newfoundland Association of Public and Private Employees - NAPE) and from the provincial opposition party (Williams, February 10, 2000); they received support from academics in the community (Kimberley, February 14, 2000; Kufeldt, February 16, 2000); they received support from a foster parent (Northcott, February, 17, 2000); and, they received support from the media (The Telegram, February 19, 2000). The social workers experienced what may be described as a heavy handed approach by their employer with the court injunction and

delivering correspondence regarding the injunction to the homes of social workers. The social workers did not receive support from the courts who, one would expect would be aware of their workload demands, particularly as it relates to social workers in court related matters for child protection. Interestingly, the media reports during this time did not include support, nor any public statements from their professional association (Newfoundland and Labrador Association of Social Workers). Some may argue that it would be difficult to support the actions of social workers when their actions were illegal. However, as one academic pointed out (Kufeldt, February, 16, 2000), sometimes civil disobedience is justifiable when laws themselves are unjust. The author stated that the actions of social workers were a last resort and that social workers found themselves caught between breaking the law and their ethical obligations to advocate on behalf of their clients.

The actions of the social workers and the resultant treatment by a number of groups may have left them with a sense of having even less power and feeling not respected by a number of stakeholders, at a time when they were also experiencing much turmoil and uncertainty in a changed and changing organizational environment (Dunphy & Stace, 1990; Dunphy & Stace, 1988; Barczak, 1997). Feelings of being devalued, and disrespected as professionals may have only amplified their sense of disillusionment.

Organizational Change and Front Line Managers (Supervisors)

Social workers reported that they believed that supervisors were also experiencing challenges in the organizational change process and attempting to 'make sense' of their work environment by ensuring that basic structures and processes were adhered to, even in the absence of having a vision or clear sense of the organization's mission and vision. As one participant stated in the in-person interviews: "Ah. Front line managers are at the lower end and I don't think they felt they had a lot of power in what was going on or what they could be doing about or even a real good understanding of the organization's structure and all that kind of thing." It appears that social workers perceived that supervisors themselves were experiencing stresses and uncertainty in the new work environment. One participant in the in-person interviews also related the fact that supervisors themselves were unsure of what the organizational change process itself might mean for them with regard to their employment - being non-unionized, they had less job security than the social workers they were supervising. This uncertainty appears to have permeated the work life of the social workers as well. Thus, the focus, as perceived by front line social workers was that of supervisors who were micro managing in high degrees of uncertainty in relation to their own work life and careers.

Laissez Faire Leadership

On the laissez faire leadership style, study participants also rated their supervisors higher than the ideal on the scale in this study, indicating that supervisors exhibit behaviors such as avoiding

making management decisions. A laissez faire leadership style discourages employees from taking initiative and the supervisor withdraws from situations and delays responding to urgent requests (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 2000). It is concerning that supervisors scored higher than ideal on the laissez faire style of leadership which includes non-decision making and avoiding becoming involved in employee and/or client issues/concerns.

Client services in the program areas of Child Welfare, Youth Corrections, and Community Living are delivered to vulnerable populations of, primarily children, youth, and disabled adults. One would expect that social workers sometimes feel unsupported and/or abandoned (human resources frame) in this style of leadership. Social workers may also sometimes feel that they are powerless to adequately provide services (political power frame) and that the organization is not really concerned for them (human resources frame). Another layer of concern is that employees do not identify with and/or feel committed to the organization (see Commitment and Change section above). Avoidance of becoming involved in issues and delaying responses to urgent requests could result in employees becoming suspicious of the supervisor's agenda and, in seeking possible rational reasons, may develop a deep distrust which could result in dysfunctional types of behavior and thinking, wondering if the supervisor is, somehow, "out to get me" (Gabriel, 1999; Kets de Vries, 1991; Bion, 1959) (psychodynamic frame).

A focus by organizations on ensuring their leaders are functioning within the ideal range of laissez faire style of leadership is critical for effective and healthy organizational operations. Supervisors who work within the ideal style related to the laissez faire style would be involved

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in decision making and provide timely feedback to social worker requests, for example. Appropriate responses and support to employees may result in an environment where supervisors are trusted and social workers appreciate a sense of support in their work.

Leadership Compared in Current and Former Organizations

In the second part of the study of leadership, front line social workers ($\underline{N}$ = 29) completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire <u>as if</u> they were still employed with and under the supervision of their former supervisors (in the provincial Department of Social Services). In this retrospective response to their ratings of their former supervisors, social workers rated their supervisors below the ideal score on all five components of the transformational leadership style. As discussed above in relation to the current organization (Health and Community Services), study participants ($\underline{N}$ = 60) also rated their immediate supervisors below the ideal score on each of the five components of transformational leadership. However, study participants' ratings of their immediate supervisors were closer to the mean ideal score range in relation to their former organization (Department of Social Services) on three of the five components and the same score on one component of the transformational leadership style. On only one component were supervisors in the current organization rated higher than supervisors in the former organization (inspirational motivation component). Former supervisors (in the Department of Social Services) were reported as being better able to espouse the higher order values of the organization such as justice, equality, and liberty. The findings suggest that the supervisors of study participants in the current organization were less able to espouse the higher

order values in the current organization as compared to supervisors in the former organization, even though the integration process had taken place almost five years before the time of this study.

The current organization has a formal mission and values statement (Health and Community Services, (October 4, 2006). The fact that social workers rated their supervisors higher in the former organization compared to the current organization may be due, at least in part, to the fact that there may have been more of a connection in the former organization in relation to the espoused values and the values in use (Argyris, 1985b). Within the current organization the mission and values are clearly stated. However, the study findings indicate that supervisors in the current organization were placing greater emphasis on micro management issues (for example; focusing mistakes, irregularities, exceptions, deviations from standards), which, either by default or by design, may have resulted in supervisors being less available or focusing less on clinical and case management issues. There appears to be a great divide between the symbols and the words in the mission and values statements compared to the reality of the work life for supervisors and social workers (cognitive symbolic frame). For supervisors, attempts to operationalize the mission and values in relation to the realities of their work life may have created a state of dissonance; the result being that supervisors, to be rational, could only operate in their 'theory in action' (Argyris, 1985). The net result may have been that value was placed on micro management issues, not the values of the organization.

On the one hand, it may not be an unexpected finding that supervisors in the former organization were rated higher, since supervisors in the current organization were continuing to struggle with the identity of the current organization. On the other hand, almost five years after the organizational change process (at the time of the survey being completed), one would expect that supervisors would be clear about and be equally able to espouse the higher order values of the organization (Marrow, 1972; Bass, 1985). One reason may be related to the fact that organizational change processes were ongoing. During the time the quantitative survey was administered, the organization was in the process of physically reconfiguring the number of departments in the region and setting up multi-disciplinary teams under one roof. The reconfiguration of departments may have left front line supervisors becoming more uncertain about their roles as supervisors, should they be expected to supervise staff from other professions such as nursing and behavior management services, for example. Also, the older model may have provided better client centered supervision and the new model may be one which focuses more on an administrative supervision model.

It is critically important for supervisors in the new organization to provide good leadership by espousing the higher order values as one important way to support the organizational change process. While one may expect that there may be more challenges for management to espouse higher order values in an integrated organization early in the change process, this survey was completed close to five years after the integration had taken place, which suggests that the organization was still struggling as an integrated, changed organization. Organizational leaders

may need to place more emphasis on reinforcing the values and vision of the organization to all levels of management in a coordinated and thoughtful manner.

With regard to the transactional style of leadership, study participants who completed the leadership questionnaire, as a group reflecting on their immediate supervisor in the former organization (Department of Social Services), rated their immediate supervisor as less than ideal overall. Study participants rated their previous supervisors higher than the ideal score on one (management-by-exception [passive]) of the three components of transactional leadership, when compared to their ratings of their supervisors in the current organization (Health and Community Services). Supervisors were less likely to become involved in issues until they became serious and chronic, and until things went wrong. A supervisory approach of not becoming involved in front line employee issues until they became chronic and serious problems appears to be reactive or crisis management. Managing an organization in which an organizational change process has taken place, and in which changes continue to evolve, in a reactive supervisory style, may result in a very frustrating work environment for front line social workers. The organizational change process may also result in stress levels which may be heightened and where employees feel less valued by the organization (human resources frame), and who may be less committed to the organization, and may consider seeking employment elsewhere.

Overall, social workers rated their supervisors more positively in the former organization (Department of Social Services) with regard to the transactional style of leadership, than in the

current organization (Health and Community Services), a concern from an organizational change perspective. One participant in the in-person interviews expressed the view that she and her colleagues felt 'safer' in the former organization, with regard to the organization's management overall. This statement is also related to the fact that some social workers and management had been suspended or fired in the current organization, both before and after the reconfiguration of interdisciplinary teams. Organizations may need to ensure supervisors are clear as well as appropriately focused on organizational expectations to ensure employees understand the focus and direction for organizational functioning. In particular, disciplinary actions in relation to the current organization, may need to be explained and shared in a manner which, first of all, respects those disciplined and, secondly, which ensures organizational members understand the reasons for the actions by the organization. The objective is to alleviate the fears of the employees. In the wildcat strike discussed above, social workers were advocating on behalf of their clients. The mission and values statements of Health and Community Services support and embrace advocacy. However, what may be described as a very heavy handed approach to social workers who went on a wildcat strike for three days, their advocacy role was met with a very strong negative reaction, which contradicts the mission and values. An organization which values advocacy may have used an approach to dealing with the problem which could have embraced their espoused mission and values, not contradicting these mission and values statements. The mission and values of an organization, unless an active part of the daily life of the organization, are of little value if not upheld.

Overall, the findings in the leadership questionnaire indicate that both current and previous supervisors appeared to be overly focused on micro management issues (for example, focusing on mistakes, irregularities, exceptions to cases, dealing with deviations from standards; dealing with issues only after they have become a problem) but often delayed in becoming involved in issues until they became crises. The previous supervisors, overall, rated better on their transactional leadership style than the current supervisors. However, crisis management (often dealing with issues after they become a problem) appears to be more frequent in the current organization. One explanation may be that, where organizational change has taken place, employees (including front line management) are lacking in their sense of direction for the organization, are unsure of the higher end values (transformational leadership) and, thus, focus on micro management issues in trying to make sense of their organization (Morgan, 1993; Miller, Friensen, & Mintzberg, 1984) (cognitive symbolic frame). A sense of purpose is found or sought in placing emphasis on "the smaller things", which may be a symptom of the larger issue of an integrated organization without a clear mission and vision, or, at least, one that is not being communicated clearly to its front line management. Another possible explanation may be that the espoused new direction, as stated in the mission and values statements of the organization, and the reality of daily work life and direction was focused on dealing with administrative and management control issues, with an emphasis on financial and administrative control.

One would expect that, in the current integrated organization, strong leadership would be essential. The reported absence of strong leadership, as exemplified by rating former

supervisors higher in the former organization (Department of Social Services) than in the current organization, may suggest that the 'change processes' include struggles with the integrated organization, the notion of change processes which are incomplete and which have left front line social workers continuing to struggle with adjusting to the changes, almost five years after the integration to Health and Community Services (cognitive symbolic frame). Employees who work in an environment for long periods of time where lack of direction, purpose, and, with uncertainty, may develop coping mechanisms which may be non-rational (psychodynamic frame) and which may perpetuate dysfunctional types of thinking and behavior, and where the organizational members may become stuck in dysfunctional thinking and acting (Kets de Vries, 1991; Argyris, 1999).

Education and Leadership

Education and transformational leadership were significantly positively correlated; those with MSWs rated their supervisors more positively with regard to their transformational style of leadership. Supervisors are more likely to have an MSW degree. In-person interviewees concurred that with the findings which indicated that employees with an MSW degree rated their supervisors higher than social workers with a BSW. The thinking, according to the participants, is that both the supervisor and the social worker may be able to discuss, in more depth, issues and concerns in relation to broader theoretical and practical issues and in relation to the organization, a more complex and comprehensive analysis of issues with which both parties identify with and comprehend in more depth (cognitive symbolic and human resources

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frames). Another possible explanation may be related to the 'direction' of the organization. As discussed previously, the front line management in the organization appeared to have changed to an administrative and control management approach as opposed to a clinical and case management approach that was employed in the former organization. Social workers with a BSW may have needed and may have benefitted more from the approach of the former organization, with the expected outcome of better client services. Given this preliminary finding, more research may provide insights into the value of approaches to supervision as well as encouraging and supporting higher education in organizational change processes and products.

Overall, leadership was reported to be more effective in the former organization (Department of Social Services) when compared to the current organization (Health and Community Services). From the perspective of the current organization, one would expect that this may be concerning. In times of organizational change, strong and visionary leadership is important. It is interesting to note also that, in the qualitative analysis completed, it was reported that the concept of leadership was referenced infrequently. Considering the degree and pace of this organizational change process, effective leadership is one area which many authors would argue to be important (Hersey, 1984; Bass, 1990; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Conger, 1999; Maycunich Guilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003) in leading and guiding effective, transparent, and participatory change. Failure to consider and give priority to leadership issues may have had a significant negative impact on the organizational change process.

Adjusting to the Current Organization

For the social workers in this study, adjusting to and accepting the integration to Health and Community Services was a long and challenging journey, as stated by the participants themselves. The in-person interviews provided further insights into the organizational change process of integration of Social Services to Health and Community Services (board model). During one in-person interview, the participant talked about the process of accepting the change to the Health and Community Services Board model. She indicated that it was about five years after the move to Health and Community Services that she and, she thought, her team/unit began to accept that the change was a permanent one. She related that, up to that time, they (she and her team/unit) thought that they would move back to working within a provincial government department. Another interviewee clearly expressed her view that the change process had met with more resistance due to the fact that they (social workers) felt that their input was not valued and the negativity that it created: "And that took time. A number of years, I think, actually to feel that you were part of that and...to understand where it was going or how it happened". When the change became more accepted, there was an indication of a stronger sense of identification with the current organization. Although the point of acceptance of change was not a focus of the study, it does provide for a very interesting phenomena for future study.

In this study, it appears that the organizational change process was not widely or strongly accepted and one may infer that there was resistance to change; a holding on to the hope of returning to the former organizational model. Even if change planning and implementation is

not well developed, employees may eventually come to accept the change, a cognitive symbolic process. The acceptance of the organizational change in this study may also be related to the resignation to the new organization and management style of micro management and control, as opposed to acceptance that work life had improved either for themselves as social workers or for their clients. Resistance may decrease over time and eventually become accepted. However, the implications of lack of acceptance for long periods of time, may be of concern for organizational leaders. Further study of resistance to change when change processes do not appear to work well, may be helpful to understanding the dynamics and complexities of change and how employees come to ultimately accept change.

Summary

The move to a community health board model of service delivery was framed as a more effective and efficient method of delivery of programs and services that would be more client relevant. The results of the analysis in this study indicate significant differences in relation to some of the characteristics of the population under study (for example, age and whether one worked only with Health and Community Services versus if one also worked with the former employer: the Department of Social Services). Overall, the results of this study suggest that the organizational change process was relatively negative for many of those who responded to the survey. In addition, the characteristics of the total population are very similar to the sample population; thus, it could be argued with good reason that the total population may have had similar negative experiences of the organizational change process.

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The focus on changing organizational structures is an important part of any organizational change process, but it is not the only part of the change process. The dynamics of organizational change need to be taken into account as a significant, often messy, and complex process. Employees make up a critical component of an organization. Front line employees have knowledge, skills, and abilities that contribute to organizational functioning. Prior to, during, and after organizational change processes, organizations need to ensure employees are genuinely valued in the process. Valuing employees may be operationalized by involving them as active participants in the change process (participatory action frame), and ensuring meaningful involvement and input into the change process is a clearly explicated value of the organization. Employees who are involved in changing and building the organization may be highly committed to ensuring positive outcomes than employees who have organizational change imposed on them or a process that espouses input and involvement but does not follow through in what is perceived to be a substantive manner. It is also important that, when employees are provided the opportunity to have input, they believe that the input is valued and not simply a process put in place which is not considered as part of how change will be implemented. In addition, as is reported in the evaluation document analyzed in Chapter 4, communication is critical to the process. All members of the organization need to be informed, in a timely and clear manner, of what is taking place throughout the process and to be assured and believe that there is not another agenda being implemented.

This study reported data related to the perceived impacts of organizational change on social workers. As a case study methodology, the data provide important beginning information

related to how organizational change processes are developed and that any planned changes are clear and transparent to all members of the organization. In this study, social workers and management thought there was a master plan and felt that it had been put in place.

The data related to the Commitment and Intention to Turnover Questionnaires reported that, close to five years after the integration process, levels of commitment were primarily less than adequate. As well, intentions to leave the organization were a concern with over 40% of the participants expressing thoughts and/or intentions to leave the organization. A longitudinal study related to commitment and intentions to leave the organization may be of value for future studies as a means to determine levels of commitment over several years. As indicated, one participant stated that it took about five years for her and her team to "accept" the results of the change process. Future studies which focus on commitment levels over a period of time may provide more information on how commitment and intentions to leave the organization change over time. As well, studies may consider seeking answers to why and how commitment levels change over time; what extraneous variables affect commitment and intentions to leave the organization.

Organizational change is a concept that is not static. Change appears to be constant in organizations (Campbell, 2004; Nadler & Nadler, 1998; Nutt & Backoff, 1997; Hendry, 1996; Argyris, 1985). In this case, the changes are perceived to have not resulted in effective improvements for clients and staff, with some suggestion of losses for clients. Seeking insights

into how to make changes more effective, efficient, and positive experiences for organizational members as well as its clients are important areas for consideration.

Other important components of organizational change processes are the dynamics of the power relationships that exist in the organizations before the change process takes place, as well as the dynamics of power relationships and the potential conflicts that may arise as two organizations integrate (Paulsen & Hernes, 2003; Blau, 1988). In this case study, the Health and Community Services Board consisted primarily of nurses. When the integration took place, the professionals who were integrated into the community health board model were primarily social workers and social work managers. As an employee in the organization at that time, there were informal discussions regarding a concern that the programs would be 'taken over' by nursing personnel. This concern was also validated in the in-person interviews. In fact, a number of key management positions which were formerly filled by social workers, were filled by nurses after the integration. The power dynamics in such change processes, in this case study, were discussed informally, but it was never a formal, explicit item for discussion; the power dynamics were played out serendipitously. Power relationship dynamics which are played out in an informal, uninformed manner may result in change processes which may have negative results for its employees and its clients. Power dynamics may also create an environment of resentment and distrust (psychodynamic frame), to the detriment of the organization and the change process overall.

Related to the political power frame and who has power is the notion of leadership in an environment of organizational change. The move to a community health board model created a more complex dynamic in that it was not simply changing one organization but it was integrating an existing organization with another organization. Interestingly, leadership was not given high consideration in relation to the documents analyzed in this case study (Chapter 4). In a number of instances there were parallel positions in each organization before the merger as well as similar management positions throughout the organization. Leadership in times of rapid and pervasive change, such as in this case study, was a critical issue. The change was framed structurally as having co-facilitators on each of the five regional committees throughout the province as well as in the provincial transition committee. However, the new structure dealt with the leadership position but did not deal with the dynamics of leadership in the integrated organization. It appears that it was assumed that, by putting the structure in place, the leadership dynamic had been addressed. However, the move, which appears to have been a micro management approach, with a focus on financial management issues, resulted in social workers feeling devalued and powerless in providing better services.

The issue of leadership in this study was not highlighted as an important component in leading up to the organizational change process. The organizational change process, in this study, rated leaders less than adequate in their leadership styles or traits. For example, front line management were perceived to not espouse the vision and mission of the current organization well. In fact, evidence suggests that the leadership style was antithetical to front line professional social workers who perceived a more supportive style of management in the

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previous organization. While there are a number of factors that contribute to the findings of this study that the change process could be improved in a number of ways, leadership was one area that suggests that leadership may have been a contributing factor to the outcomes of the study on organizational change. The importance of leadership, particularly in relation to organizational change, is supported in the literature (Hersey, 1984; Bass, 1990; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Conger, 1999; Maycunich Guilley, Callahan, & Bierema, 2003). Perceptions of leadership styles (or traits) by subordinates that suggest that front line leaders are lacking in their leadership abilities, may be significant contributing factors to the outcomes in this study. Future studies related to leadership before, during and after organizational change processes may make further contributions to the literature on the role and impacts of leadership styles (or traits) related to effective organizational change; that is, effective for front line workers and clients.

Another issue was related to the notion of how to "create" the new organization. Again, by creating a new structure, it appears that it was assumed that the new organization was meaningful for its employees. However, the process did not take into account the importance of creating symbols of the new organization that had meaning associated with the newly created organization (Morgan, 1993). On the one hand, how could some employees who had worked in the former organization for over 25 years, come to associate themselves with the current Community Health Board Model? On the other hand, new employees experienced a micro management organization that appeared incongruent with stated mission, values, goals, and needed professionally educated front line social workers.

The study results reported indicate that the organizational change process to a community health board model included significant negative components to it. The results of the analysis also indicate that, almost five years after the study was completed, study participants continued to have negative organizational experiences such as relatively low commitment levels to the organization and reported intentions to leave the organization. The organization may need to consider ways and means to re-engage its employees in a process of renewal where professional employees feel valued and empowered in their work and in the organization as a whole.

Research Questions and Findings Summary

A number of broad research questions were posited at the end of Chapter 1. The questions are provided below with a brief summary of the findings of the study.

1. How was the plan for organizational change framed in leading up to the organizational change experience/process?

    The discussion papers analyzed in relation to the delivery of services in the province indicated that services were not effective or efficient. As well, indications were that services were fragmented and may have been duplicated. The analysis of documents indicated that change in the ways services were delivered, was needed, and that any planned changes should include a model of participation and input by various stakeholders, including the community at large, as well as service providers.

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2.   What are the impacts on social workers within the context of an organizational change experience?

The study findings indicated that over 25% of social workers were strongly impacted in a negative way, both professionally and personally, in the rapid and pervasive organizational change process.

3.   What are the inputs that social workers had into an organizational change experience and what were their perceived impacts?

The study findings indicated that social workers perceived that their input was not valued and they felt that, when they provided input, they generally did not receive feedback on their input. The result was the participants felt devalued and disillusioned, as professionals, throughout the organizational change process.

4.   What is the commitment level of social workers who have experienced a rapid and pervasive organizational change experience?

Social workers reported levels of commitment to the current organization below the mid point score on the scale, indicating less than adequate levels of commitment to the organization. Interestingly, the study indicated that social workers were strongly committed to their clients as professional social workers. Despite what appeared to be a negative organizational change experience, social workers found meaning and commitment by focusing on and committing themselves to their work with clients.

5.   How does the level of commitment of social workers to the current organization compare to their commitment to the former organization?

Study findings indicated that social workers had stronger levels of commitment to the

former than to the current organization. The lower levels of commitment is important, particularly when considered with regard to the fact that the integration to community health had taken place over four years after the time the survey was administered. The organization may wish to consider the factors that are underlying these findings.

6. How effective are the leadership styles (or traits) of front line supervisors in an organization which has experienced rapid and pervasive organizational change?

Social workers reported their immediate supervisors to be less than adequate on each of the three styles of leadership needed for ideal leaders, according to the authors (Bass and Avolio, 2000). Overall, supervisors appeared to be more focused on micro managing; a focus on administrative and financial issues, in the absence of the broader espoused values of the organization.

7. How does the style of current supervisors compare with the leadership style of supervisors in the former organization?

The study findings reported higher scores for the former supervisors compared to the current supervisors. The differences may be due, at least in part, to a change in focus of the style of the current supervisors. Former supervisors were reported to be more reflective, with a stronger focus on clinical supervision.

8. To what degree do social workers who have experienced an organizational change process, intend to leave the organization?

Close to half of study participants expressed intentions to leave the organization. The finding is interesting, particularly when considered within the context of the survey

being administered over four years after the integration process took place. From an organizational development perspective, this may be concerning.

9. Have client services been impacted after a rapid and pervasive organizational change experience?

Both the availability and the number of client services were reported to be less than adequate by over one third of study participants. When considered within the context that one of the espoused reasons for the organizational change was to effect better and more relevant client services, clients do not appear to have benefitted from the change and, may have received less services.

CHAPTER VII

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The current chapter discusses the limitations of the research undertaken in this study. As well, the chapter discusses the implications of the study in relation to social work practice, research, and education. The chapter also discusses the implications of the study as it relates to client populations. The conceptual framework is also discussed with regard to its efficacy for understanding and analyzing organizational change and rapid and pervasive organizational change, in particular. Finally, recommendations for future study in this area are provided.

Limitations

The case study methodology is limited in that it is applicable to the case only and is not generalizable to the population or other organizational change processes. The results of this study reflect the findings for this organizational change process only. However, the results provide some preliminary findings which may be of interest and provide insight to the organization under study as well as to organizations planning organizational change processes and products in relation to future planned changes.

The Devine Questionnaire developed for this study is limited in that it is not a standardized instrument. The questionnaire is a new instrument developed by this researcher specifically to

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address questions related to the organizational change process under study. Therefore, reliability issues are not addressed. The questions in the Devine Questionnaire address only selected aspects of the organizational change process and do not address, in depth, broader aspects of the change process.

In addition, while the sample size (60 out of a population of 160) is acceptable, it may have provided a more thorough analysis and may have produced different results. However, information related to non-respondents indicated similar socio-demographic characteristics, which address some of the issues related to response rates.

The retrospective Commitment and Multifactoral Leadership Questionnaires may have provided a biased response as study participants may have reflected more positively on the former organization than it was in reality (nostalgia). Upon reflection of the former organization, over four years after the integration with the current organization and the challenges that this integration may have presented, the time in employment with the former organization may have been viewed as a more stable time, a time of much less uncertainty, compared to the current organization.

The questionnaire may have been too long for some participants. The suggestion that the questionnaire may have been too long is exemplified by the fact that only 29 of 35 participants responded to the second Multifactoral Leadership Questionnaire in the mail out survey. This

questionnaire was the last one in the survey. A total of 148 questions were included in the package, plus the socio-demographic questions.

The quantitative (mail out survey) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews) research were completed over four and over seven years, respectively, after the change process. The retrospective responses may have been biased; a possible feeling that the former organization, despite its challenges, functioned better than the current organization. Employees may have reflected more on the positive aspects of the former organization and minimized the positive aspects of the current organization. Interestingly, one study participant, in the in-person interviews, indicated that she and, from her perspective, her work team, had accepted and embraced the current organization; a process which took place approximately five years after the move to the current organization.

Another limitation is that the qualitative analysis of documents is limited. Only seven documents are analyzed. There may be many more internal and external documents which could add richness to the analysis. Also, interviews with the authors of the government documents could have shed light on the intent of the documents produced. However, such interviews may have been difficult to attain. Interviews with authors of the documents may be considered for further research at a later date.

Social workers may have been reluctant to voice their opinions, concerns or confusion on the topic(s) in questions-either in the mail out questionnaire or in the in-person interviews. In the in-

person interviews, study participants were assured that their names or identities would not be identified in the thesis. Despite this assurance, two of the six participants requested to not be acknowledged in the thesis. The research, particularly in the in-person interviews, indicated that social workers did not feel safe to express their opinions and related to several incidents of colleagues who had been disciplined and/or dismissed.

Finally, some social workers may not have been serious about or interested in the topic of organizational change and, therefore, did not respond (Palys, 1997). While socio-demographic characteristics of non-respondents were very similar to study participants, the non-respondents may have not been interested in responding for the reasons indicated above and, thus, may have resulted in a bias in participants.

Implications for Social Work

Social Work Practice

Social work practitioners have knowledge and skills which may contribute to positive outcomes for organizational change processes and products, particularly where organization leaders express a receptiveness and/or request input from employees, with the goal of implementing effective organizational change outcomes. In the organizational change process in this study, the change process was framed as the front line practitioners being provided with the opportunity to have input. While social workers in this study expressed limits to being able to have input (due to

workload demands, for example), social workers have knowledge and skills to contribute to effective rapid and pervasive organizational change processes and products. Social workers have knowledge and skills which can influence change processes in the interests of clients, and a value base which supports and directs their work in this area.

Overall, the implications for social work practice in relation to this study suggest that organizations which do not pay close attention to organizational members or its clients, may inadvertently result in clients being harmed and professional social workers feeling that they are powerless to have positive impacts on changes for the betterment of themselves, their clients and, ultimately, for society at large.

One key skill area for social workers is their ability to advocate on behalf of their clients. Organizational change processes and products, as researched in this study, indicated that advocacy on behalf of clients in environments of organizational change, is a critical skill required to work effectively on behalf of client groups. Working on behalf of clients may present its unique challenges as exemplified in this case study when social workers went out on a wildcat strike and ended up in the court system. It is also a critical time to help ensure client programs and service enhancement occurs and that changes are not related only to seeking efficiencies and in the absence of improved client services. Social work practitioners, therefore, have the opportunity to employ their advocacy skills on behalf of clients at the macro level in times of organizational change processes and products.

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A related opportunity for social workers is that of supporting the organizing of clients to be true participants in organizational change processes. In the organizational change process under study, client input was viewed as one of pseudo involvement rather than real input. Social workers are challenged, in an already over demanding work environment, to be proactive in organizing and supporting grass roots client interest groups. Organizational and group organizing and development skills are an asset that social workers may employ to help ensure positive outcomes for clients.

In the present study, commitment to the organization was measured. Implied in the analysis is that social workers, while lacking in their commitment to the organization, appeared to be committed to their clients (Morrow, 1988). The social workers in this study worked primarily with individuals and families. Social workers who are committed to their clients, may be a resource to more positive organizational change outcomes by also working at a marco level of practice and in the interests of their client groups, and not primarily at the level of individuals and families. Further studies may also consider exploring the notions of commitment to the organization versus commitment to the clients and the interaction between the two, often competing kinds of commitment.

While the primary focus of this study was related to front line social workers, part of the research analyzed front line leadership. The first level of leadership in the organization under study was the social workers' immediate supervisors. The results of the study indicated that front line leaders lacked in their transformational and transactional leadership or traits. From the

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perspective of social workers in the study, supervisors were not able to espouse the higher order values of the organization and were lacking in their ability to support and direct the work of their subordinates (social workers). Social workers, particularly graduate level social workers, have knowledge and skills regarding organizations and organizational change processes and products, which may help to lead change in the interests of clients, social workers, and society in general. Supervisors need to be challenged to assume proactive leadership roles, especially in times of organizational change processes and products. Supervisors may have been in a situation where the organization's espoused goals (for example, the mission and values statements referred to in Chapter 6) and the expectations of organizational leaders may have been conflicting. Front line management may be in difficult positions in dealing with the daily work demands of their subordinates (front line social workers) and the demands of their superiors. Further studies may consider a focus on front line management in relation to the organization's espoused goals and their goals in action.

A further area of study for consideration may be in relation to managers and management positions above the front line supervisors. In this study, there appears to be an incongruency between the formal mission and values of the organization and its actions as an organization. Further studies regarding how managers deal with such issues, its effects on the organization, from the perspective of managers, and considerations of how one might work to change either or both the formal and informal values and goals of the organization.

Social work practitioners also have skills in effective communication. In times of organizational change, communication may be a challenge. In this study, the analysis of documents indicated that communication was a challenge. With high degrees of uncertainty in an environment of organizational change, words and actions may be interpreted in ways that may lead to varying interpretations which may result in even higher levels of uncertainty. Social workers can play a role in helping to ensure that information that is shared, both formally and informally, is clarified with organizational leaders. As professional practitioners, social workers are aware of their right as well as their responsibility to seek clarification when information is received which is of concern or which may be misrepresented. Seeking to have information clarified may help to ensure a smoother path to organizational change in the interests of practitioners, clients, and community.

Social Work Education

The demands on a social work education knowledge and skills base are high. In this study, social work students may benefit from curriculum which specifically addresses the theory, skills and the dynamics of organizational change processes and products. Organizational change appears to be an ongoing process in many human services organizations. The adapted model of Bolman and Deal (1997) may be one model which would be beneficial in the curriculum, for social work students. In this study, for example, the organization, "Health and Community Services", no longer exists. The model has been replaced (in 2006) with an Integrated Health Authority model; the integrating of several community boards such as nursing home care, hospital care and health

and community based care (social work and nursing) under one board. Social work practitioners need knowledge and skills to understand, work within and, in a proactive manner, to effect positive changes to client programs and services and to support social work values and ethics. Related to the role of social workers in organizational change processes and products, social work curriculum is committed to micro-macro level change. Both undergraduate and graduate social work programs need to consider the degree to which they focus on skills related to macro level changes, particularly as these changes relate to organizational changes. In today's society, and Canadian society in particular, the neo-liberal ideology appears to be the focus of many governments. The ongoing restructuring and rationalizing of programs and services is one which is part of the reality for many in human services organizations. As social work educators, an increased emphasis on macro level changes and the dynamics of these changes within human services organizations may need to receive special attention to both undergraduate as well as graduate programs.

The current study indicated that social workers had low levels of commitment to the organization. The study also suggests that social workers may have had strong levels of commitment to the profession and to client services. Social work curriculum may benefit from curriculum which recognizes and analyzes ways to integrate the two concepts (of commitment to the organization and commitment to the profession). While the concepts are distinctly different, they may also be connected by the fact that social workers who employ their knowledge and skills related to organizational change processes and products, may also benefit their clients in focusing on and advocating for more effective, efficient, and relevant programs and services.

The suggestion is that, by making a commitment to organizational change, one may benefit ones clients in the process.

One of the main focuses of the integration of services within a community context was the hope and the belief that the integration of services would result in increased opportunities for interdisciplinary work, with the expected or hoped for result of better client programs and services. It appears that there was a belief that, if different professionals (social workers, nurses, physiotherapists, nutritionists, and so on) were working under the same roof, interdisciplinary work would develop. In social work education, the importance of interdisciplinary work appears to be 'on the radar' and curriculum is developing in this area. For example, in the School of Social Work at Memorial University, modules in specific courses are being developed by interdisciplinary faculty teams for integration into courses. In addition, Memorial University is presently embarking on developing a structure and a model with the focus being to ensure interdisciplinary work becomes part of the curriculum of several related human services schools and part of the University culture. Social work curriculum which provides the theoretical underpinnings of interdisciplinary work as well as models for such a work environment are areas which may need further consideration for development.

Social workers have the opportunity to work in leadership positions. In this study, for example, the Chief Executive Officer in the geographical area under study, was a social worker. With social workers in leadership positions, one would expect that there would be greater possibilities that organizational change processes would take place in an environment of understanding and

focusing on client programs and services. Social work curriculum at both the undergraduate and graduate levels would benefit from having part of their programs focusing on leadership theories and practices, particularly in human services organizations. Consideration of having a School of Social Work which has a specialized program in leadership in this country may be an option. Positive organizational change does not just happen; it is a process which requires specialized knowledge and skills.

Finally, most Schools of Social Work have curriculum developed which focuses on communication. In particular, in relation to this study, it was clear that communication was a concern. In times of change in organizations, informal understandings of espoused rationale for change and the underlying reasons may not be congruent. Communication, first of all, needs to be congruent with both the espoused and 'real' agenda. When change is rapid and pervasive, communication may be a challenge. Curriculum which addresses communication challenges and ways to minimize communication problems specifically, may need to be included in curriculum. If organizations are challenged in their communication, then, social workers may be in a position to positively influence communication processes, to ensure communication is clear, concise, timely, and relevant.

Implications for Clients and Client Services

The rationale for organizational change models are often framed as improving client services by making them more effective and efficient; the ultimate espoused goal of improving the lives of

clients through improved programs and services. Further studies which focus on this aspect of

organizational change processes and products, in the interests of client services, may prove of

great value for clients as well as the organization and its leaders. Studies specifically focused on

client participation, or lack thereof, may be beneficial to the clients as well as to the organization.

Models for participation framed in an action research or action learning model, may be

worthwhile.

The Conceptual Framework

The expanded model of Bolman and Deal (1997) provided for a greater ability to consider and

analyze the dynamics of change and, thus, contributed to a better understanding of the

importance of considering the dynamics of organizational change processes. The expanded

model (of Bolman and Deal) encourages the analysis of organizational change processes within

the context of each of the seven frames. Each of the frames can analyze organizational change

from the perspective of micro (individual and group dynamics) to macro (organizational and

societal contexts) contexts. In addition, the Bolman and Deal analytical model can analyze

organizational change processes through more than one lens at a time. For example,

organizational change can be analyzed in relation to the interaction between the human resources

analytical frame and the political power frame; considering both importance and dynamic of

human relations as well as the power structures that may play a part in the interaction where

power is unequal, for example. Interactions may then be analyzed within the realm of micro to

macro contexts. The interaction which may take place between the frames may sensitize us to

observations and conclusions by being able to analyze through several frames concurrently. Future research may consider adopting this model or any similar model which considers the complexity and the dynamics of organizational change, particularly in human services organizations.

Social Work Research and Recommendations for Future Study

The methodology employed in this study is the case study methodology. Therefore, it is not generalizeable. The methodology had value in that it provides beginning understandings of some do the dynamics, issues and concerns that may arise from and result in organizational change processes and products.

The organizational change process was framed as being inclusive, participatory and empowering employees and clients in rapid and pervasive change. The structure of the organizational change process appeared to be an inclusive model. Five regional committees were developed which included representatives from each level and classification in the organization. Similarly, a parallel provincial model was also developed. The reality, in the work life of social workers, was that there were obstacles to providing the input that they would have liked to provide. In addition, employees thought that, when they did provide input, it was not valued. Future studies to focus on this aspect of organizational change may be beneficial to understand the dynamics of input, its limitations, and to seek ways to ensure opportunities for input are available and valued. Action research may be one model that may be beneficial.

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This study analyzed social workers' commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, the study suggested that commitment to the profession (Morrow, 1988) and to client is an area which may provide interesting findings in relation to organizational change processes. A study to analyze both concepts may be beneficial in understanding the dynamics of both types of commitment and its implications for social work research, education, and practice.

The personal and professional impact of rapid and pervasive organizational changes is an area which would also benefit from further study. The results of this study indicated that some social workers were impacted negatively both from a personal as well as a professional perspective. An in depth study of how social workers may be impacted and what it means for them both professionally and personally would benefit the social workers themselves, the profession, and the organization. Further studies may also provide insight into how to support employees who are negatively impacted and to demonstrate their value as employees by providing appropriate and timely support.

The role of social workers as leaders in human services in rapid and pervasive organizational change is an area that may benefit from further research, particularly with regard to the dynamics of organizational change. This study suggests that multiple methods of research may better capture the nature and complexity of organizational change processes and products. Organizational change is a "messy process" (Lindblom, 1959). As indicated above, social workers are playing leadership roles in organizations. Social work curriculum which focuses on rapid, pervasive, and ongoing change, may benefit the student, the profession, clients as well as

community overall, by developing a deeper understanding of the dynamics of change and aspects of change which need attention; the anticipated outcome being change processes which are more adaptable by organizational members as well as its client population.

Summary

The formal integration of social work programs and services (Child Welfare, Community Living, and Youth Corrections) from a government governed model to a Community Health governed model occurred in Newfoundland and Labrador in April, 1998. This case study completed research regarding selected aspects of the organizational change processes and products. The use of triangulation as a model provided a more in depth analysis of the dynamics of change. The change process was framed as being an inclusive, participatory, and empowering process by organizational leaders. The results of the study suggest that the change process met with a number of challenges, from the perspectives of social workers.

While the case study methodology is focused on the case under study only and is not generalizable, it does provide interesting findings to consideration for future study in this area. The area of study in this case is very complex and the dynamics of change are ever changing and developing. Social work curriculum may need to consider an increased focus on organizational change processes and products, given the fact that organizational change appears to be an ongoing process, particularly in human services organizations. In this study, the organization underwent another change process this past year, integration several boards in the region under

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study, into one large board. Social workers are often situated in key positions in organizations to influence change, from front line to top management positions. With increased knowledge on how to manage change, they may be able to influence change for the benefit of the client population, the profession, the organization, and community as a whole.

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APPENDIX A

APPROVAL FOR HUMAN SUBJECTS INVESTIGATIONS FROM
INTERDISCIPLINARY COMMITTEE
ON ETHICS IN HUMAN RESEARCH APPROVAL

October 23, 2002

ICEHR No. 2002/03-007-SW

Mr. Mike Devine
School of Social Work
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Dear Mr. Devine

Thank you for submitting your proposal for the research project entitled *"Social worker participation in organizational change: impacts and perceptions"*. The Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR) has reviewed the proposal and is pleased to give its approval to the project subject to the following minor modifications:

1. Item #5 on the consent form should be amended so that participants are able to withdraw at any point in the study, even after the survey responses are sent to your assistant.

2. The consent forms may be held for the researcher by the third party specified (Ms. D. Janes, NLASW), but this person should sign an oath of confidentiality with respect to information about participants learned through this project. These consent forms should be stored in a secure location such as a locked filing cabinet.

3. In the interest of maintaining the participants' anonymity from the researcher and his supervisor, someone other than the supervisor should complete the draw for the prize. The winner of the prize should remain as anonymous as possible and arrangements should be made that only NLASW staff know who won the prize.

The ICEHR contact person for this review should you have any questions is Dr. Russell Adams, Department of Psychology.

If you should make any other changes either in the planning or during the conduct of the research that may affect ethical relations with human participants, these should be reported to the ICEHR in writing for further review.

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This approval is valid for one year from the date on this letter: if the research should carry on for a longer period, it will be necessary for you to present to the Committee annual reports by the anniversaries of this date, describing the progress of the research and any changes that may affect ethical relations with human participants.

We wish you well with your research.

Yours sincerely,

Janice E. Parsons
Chair, Interdisciplinary Committee on
Ethics in Human Research

JEP/emb

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APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER FOR ORGANIZATIONAL SURVEY (PROCEDURES TO ENSURE INFORMED CONSENT)

Cover Letter for Organizational Survey

School of Social Work
Memorial University of Newfoundland
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1C 5S7
Date: _____

Dear Prospective Survey Participant,

I am writing you at this time to invite you to participate in a research study involving the impact of rapid organizational change in human services organizations. This survey is being mailed to selected social workers to solicit their opinions regarding the recent move of many social work services from a provincial government service delivery model to a community health model. The survey is being sent to social workers who have worked within the government operated model as well as social workers who have worked only under the community health board model.

The study is being conducted by myself, Mike Devine, as part of my doctoral research thesis with Memorial University of Newfoundland.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to seek the opinions of social workers regarding various aspects of organizational change and the impacts of the move from a government governed model of delivery to a community health board governed model.

Procedures: Should you agree to participate, complete the sections of the enclosed survey that apply to you and place the completed survey in the stamped envelope also enclosed. The survey will take approximately forty-five minutes to complete. Do not write your name or any identifying information on the survey or the envelope.

Risks and Benefits of Participants: There are no known risks or benefits to your participating in this survey.

Confidentiality: The results of individual responses to this survey will be kept confidential. A code is included on each survey to allow my assistant to track the surveys which are returned. However, the names of those who participate in the survey will be kept confidential. Completed survey responses will be kept in a locked room. The surveys are returned to a contact person in the name of Debbie Hanlon at NLASW office. Debbie will control the coded survey forms returned. The researcher will not be made aware of who returns or who does not return the survey.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Your decision to not participate in this survey will have no negative consequences for you in relation to the University or to the professional association.

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Contacts and Inquiries: Should you have any questions regarding this survey, you may contact me, Mike Devine at 709-737-8152, or my supervisor, Dr. Dennis Kimberley, at 709-737-8145.

Survey Return Time Lines: Please return the survey **within two weeks** from time of receipt of same. All participants who return this survey will be included in a draw of chance for $250.00. Heather Piercey at the NLASW office will assign a code number to each survey distributed. The research assistant will be the only individual who will know who returns the survey.

Sincerely,

_____

Michael C. Devine MSW, RSW

APPENDIX C

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH FORM

Consent to Participate in Research

In signing below, I acknowledge that I have read and understand the following information regarding this research:

1. I understand that the purpose of this research is to gain a better understanding of social workers' perceptions regarding selected aspect of rapid organizational change processes to what is now one integrated human service organization.

2. I understand that Michael Devine, the researcher, is a professional social work educator and that this study will serve as part of the requirements of his Ph.D. program at Memorial University of Newfoundland.

3. I understand that individual responses of the persons participating in this study will be kept confidential and that data will be reported in a way that is not attributable to any person.

4. I understand that there are no known risks or benefits to me associated with participating in this research.

5. I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary. I may withdraw, without prejudice, up to the point that my survey responses are sent or delivered to Mr. Devine.

6. I understand that Mr. Devine hopes that the results of the research will benefit the profession and human services organizations who may be undertaking rapid and pervasive organizational change processes.

7. I understand that my participation in this research will include the completion of a questionnaire package that will take approximately forty-five minutes to complete.

8. I understand that the results of this research will be made public at the Queen Elizabeth II Library and the School of Social Work at Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada. I also understand that the research may be reduced for presentation or publication provincially, nationally and/or internationally.

9. I understand that this signed consent form will be held in confidence in a sealed envelope at the office of the Newfoundland and Labrador Association of Social Workers for up to nine (9) months after the survey is returned. The signed consent forms will not be made available to the researcher and his supervisor.

10. The proposal for this research has been approved by the Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research. If you have ethical concerns about the research that are not

dealt with by the researcher, you may contact the Chairperson of ICEHR at icehr@mun.ca or by telephone at 737 - 8368.

Survey Return Time Lines: Please return the survey **within two weeks** from time of receipt of same. All participants who return this survey will be included in a draw of change for $250.00. Heather Piercey at the NLASW office will assign a code number to each survey distributed. Only NLASW stall will be aware of who wins the prize. The research assistant will be the only one who knows who returns the survey.

_____   _____
Participant Signature   Date

APPENDIX D

**CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN INTERVIEWS RELATED TO ORGANIZATIONAL
CHANGE IN RELATION TO THE TRANSFER OF SOCIAL SERVICES TO A
HEALTH AND COMMUNITY SERVICES BOARD MODEL**

Consent To Participate in Interview Related to Organizational Change in Relation to The Transfer of Social Services to a Health and Community Services Board Model

In signing below, I acknowledge that I have read and understand the following information about the in-person part of the study being conducted by Michael C. Devine MSW. I understand that the purpose of this study is to gain a more in depth understanding of an organizational change process, exploring responses to organizational and policy changes that govern the provision of social services to a health and community services through a regional board model.

- I understand that this study will serve as part of the requirements of a doctoral thesis study completed as part of the requirement for the doctoral degree in social work.
- I understand that my identity will be protected in this research and that my name will not be used in the research report or any derivative reports.
- I understand that my responses will be known by the researcher and, possibly, his supervisor, Dennis Kimberley.
- I understand that the transcribed audiotape of the interview will not identify me in any way.
- I understand that the audio taped interview will be destroyed when the interview has been transcribed.
- I understand that the final research report will be placed in the Queen Elizabeth II Library at Memorial University of Newfoundland and that portions of the research may be published in professional journals or summary reports.
- I understand that my name will not appear in any written or oral reports on the research.
- I understand that, if I decide not to participate in this research, I may withdraw without any negative consequences to me.
- I acknowledge that the risks and benefits related to participating in this research have been explained to me and that there are no known risks for me.
- I acknowledge that I have had the opportunity to have any of my questions clarified.

I hereby consent to participate in this study on the outcomes of research related to the change in the provision of social services to a community health board model.

_____   _____
(Name of Participant)   (Name of Witness)

_____   _____
(Signature of Participant)   (Signature of Witness)

_____
(Date)

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APPENDIX E

FORMAT FOR PHONE CONTACT WITH PERSPECTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN IN-
PERSON INTERVIEWS

Format for Phone Contact with Perspective Participants in In-Person Interviews

Hello,

May I speak with -------------- (perspective participant's name).

My name is ---------------- (Researcher or research assistant). I am phoning on behalf of Mike Devine. Mike is a Phd. student here at Memorial University who is doing his research in the area of rapid, pervasive and externally motivated organizational change in human services organizations. Mike is interested in interviewing a small number of social workers who have gone through and may still be going through an organizational change process. The interview would be confidential and would take approximately one hour to complete. The time and place of the interview would be whatever is most convenient for you. If you wish to complete the interview in Mike's office or at any site where transportation is required, Mike will provide transportation.

Would you agree to an interview with Mike?

Thank you so much for: EITHER; (your time)
                          OR (agreeing to give of your time and your insights into this research).

Good bye.

Research Assistant

APPENDIX F

OATH OF CONFIDENTIALITY OF TRANSCRIBER

St. John's, Newfoundland

December 9, 2005

This is to acknowledge that I, _____, of St John's, Newfoundland, have been hired on a contractual basis by Michael C. Devine, Phd. student in the School of Social Work, Memorial University of Newfoundland, to complete typing work. The tying is related to audio transcripts of interviews that Mr. Devine is completing in relation to his thesis.

I understand that I am required to keep the information (audio tapes, floppy disks, and computer saved copies) confidential, and that I will not share any information related to the interviewees to any individuals. When I have returned the information (audio tapes, and floppy disks) I will ensure that any computer or saved copies of the transcripts will be immediately destroyed.

Signed by _____ (Name here) this 9th day of December, 2005, at St. John's, Newfoundland.

APPENDIX G

FIRST FOLLOW UP LETTER REGARDING MAILED SURVEY

First Follow up Letter Regarding Mailed Survey

41 A Thomas Street
St. John's, NL
A1E 2K4
February 17, 2003

RE: Survey Questionnaire of January 7, 2003

Dear Prospective Participant;

You may recall that you received a survey instrument from me in early January, 2003.
If you have misplaced the instrument, please call Heather at the NLASW office (753-0200) and
she can send you out another copy.

The package includes a return stamped envelope. You may also recall that there will be a draw,
from all those who returned the surveys, for $250.00. The survey will take from 30 minutes to
45 minutes to complete.

I would really appreciate it if you would take the time to complete the survey at your earliest
convenience.

Thanking you in advance.

_____
Mike Devine

APPENDIX H

SECOND FOLLOW-UP LETTER REGARDING MAILED SURVEY

Second Follow-up Letter Regarding Mailed Survey

41 A Thomas Street
St. John's, NL
A1E 2K4
January 27, 2003

Dear Prospective Participant;

You may recall that you received a survey instrument from me about three weeks ago, regarding the impact of rapid organizational change in human services organizations.
This survey is being mailed to selected social workers to solicit their opinions regarding the recent move of many social work services from a provincial government service delivery model to a community health model. The survey is being sent to social workers who have worked within the government operated model as well as social workers who have worked only under the community health board model.

The results of this survey are confidential. As you can see from the survey package, the self addressed stamped envelope, and from the cover letter and consent form in the contents of the original instrument package, I will not be aware of who returns the survey instruments.

Also, note that there is the chance to win **$250.00** for completing and returning the survey. Even the winner of this prize will not be made known to me or my supervisor.

I would very much appreciate your taking the time to complete the survey which will take from thirty to forty-five minutes of your time.

If, by chance, you have misplaced the survey instrument, you may obtain another copy by phoning Heather at the NLASW office at 753-0200.

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

_____
Mike Devine MSW, RSW

APPENDIX I

LETTERS OF CONSENT TO USE STANDARDIZED INSTRUMENTS

Dear Mike,

You are welcome to use the commitment scales in your research. There are no conditions as long as you are using them for research purposes only. I have attached a copy of an in-press paper that you might find relevant to your research. In it, we report a series of meta-analyses conducted on research that has used the measures. Good luck with your research.

Regards,
John

Mike Devine wrote:

> Hi,First of all, I am assuming I have reached the correct Professor
> John P. Meyer. My name is Mike Devine at Memorial University in
> Newfoundland. I am both a faculty member in the School of Social Work
> here, as well as a Phd student in the same school. I am presently
> doing my dissertation research on organizational change. I have read
> your work and am most interested in the Commitment instrument both you
> and Professor Allen have developed. I am most interested in using this
> instrument in my research and am writing, therefore, to ask for your
> permission to do so.I plan to use three other instruments, one which I
> developed myself. If there is any other information you require or any
> conditions related to the use of the instrument, please
> advise. Thanking you in advance. Mike
> Devine_____
> Mike Devine
> Assistant Professor
> Memorial University of Newfoundland
> School of Social Work
> St. John's, Nfld
> A1C 5S7
> Email: mdevine@mun.ca
> 709-737-8152
> FAX: 709-737-2408

--

John Meyer
Department of Psychology
University of Western Ontario
London, ON, Canada N6A 5C2
Phone: (519) 661-3679
Fax: (519) 661-3961
Email: meyer@uwo.ca

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Mike,

I have spoken to Peter Warr about this and he is happy for you to use the measure. John Cook, I'm afraid, died several years ago, but would also have agreed to your request.

Toby Wall

Date sent: Thu, 15 Dec 2005 09:07:57 +0000
From: M C Steele <   >
To:
Subject: Fwd: RE: John D. Cook
Organization: University of Sheffield

Hi Toby

Before my time ... do you have any info ?

Mark

----- Forwarded message from Mike Devine <   > -----
   Date: Wed, 14 Dec 2005 13:56:52 -0330
   From: Mike Devine <   >
Reply-To: Mike Devine <   >
  Subject: RE: John D. Cook
     To:

Hi,

I am trying to Locate Dr. Cook with regard to seeking his permission to use a portion of his work in a book he published in 1981. The purpose of this request is related to my Phd thesis at this University.

Is he still at your university? If not, do you have any information on him so that I can make contact with him?
Mike Devine
Assistant Professor
School of Social Work
Memorial University of Newfoundland
St. John's, NL
A1C 5S7
Phone: (790) 737-8152
FAX: (709) 737-2404

12/15/2005

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mind garden

1690 Woodside Rd. Ste. 202
Redwood City, CA 94061

Invoice

DATE	INVOICE #
1/8/2003	17361

PAID

BILL TO	SHIP TO
Mike Devine Memorial University of Newfoundland School of Social Work St. John's Nfld A1C 5S7	Mike Devine Memorial University of Newfoundland School of Social Work St. John's Nfld A1C 5S7

P.O. NUMBER	TERMS	DUE DATE	REP	SHIP	VIA
	Credit Card	1/8/2003	VJ-	1/8/2003	US Mail

ITEM CODE	DESCRIPTION	QUANTITY	PRICE EACH	AMOUNT
MLQRS	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Research Sampler	1	30.00	30.00
MLQRD	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Research Duplication Set for 100 leader and unlimited rater forms	1	120.00	120.00
MLQRB	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Research Bulk Permission for reproductions $120.00 for 1st 100 leaders and unlimited rater forms per leader. $1.00 each additional leader.	66	1.00	66.00
Shipping	Domestic Shipping and Handling Charge		5.00	5.00
Payment	Master Card Payment			-221.00
			0.00	0.00

This is not a new invoice it is a voluntary renewal notice.

If you wish to renew please
follow instructions on
accompanying letter.

Thank you!

Total	$0.00

Ph (650) 261-3500 Fax (650) 261-3505 info@mindgarden.com
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Document Information

Title: MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Sampler Set
Author(s): Bernard Bass, Bruce Avolio
Source: MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Second Edition; Revie, October 2000
Page(s): 68
Price: $ 20.00 (USD)

Open Document
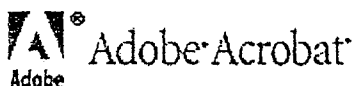
THAWTE 128-bit Encryption   CyberCash Enabled Partner   /A\® Adobe·Acrobat·   DocuRights Web Version 1.3.4

Hello Mike,

As long as you have purchased the permission to reproduce the MLQ, there is no problem with the changes you made. You must also make reference to the MLQ, its authors, and it's publishers.

Best Regards,

Vickie

Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com
info@mindgarden.com
1690 Woodside Rd. Suite 202
Redwood City, CA 94061 USA
ph. (650) 261-3500
fax (650) 261-3505
>From: "Mike Devine" <mdevine@mun.ca>
>To: "Mind Garden" <info@mindgarden.com>
>Subject: RE: Multfactorial Leadership Questionnaire
>Date: Fri, 14 May 2004 11:47:35 -0230
>
>Dears Madam/Sir;
>
>In January, 2003, I received permission, through Mind Garden Inc., to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (2nd Edition). Specifically, I used the MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Scoring Key [5X] Short). The questionnaire was one of four (4) other instruments used in my PhD dissertation (in Social Work). I am using the Case Study methodology. Within the context of this methodology, I am also analyzing seven (7) government documents as well as completing several semi-structured interviews with social work practitioners.
>
>In preparing the mail out questionnaire to 160 social workers (of which 60 were returned and completed), I typed each of the questionnaires to ensure the formatting and the flow of the questionnaires was 'user friendly'. In transposing the questionnaire, I made an error in your scale. Your scale included the following items: not at all; once in a while; sometimes; fairly often; frequently, if not at all. In addition your scale numbers are from 0 - 4 inclusive. In my transposing the information, I included the following: not at all; sometimes; frequently, if not always. In addition the scale numbers I included were from 1 - 4.
>
>I realize that the results are not generalizable. However, I think that the data results are valid for this

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study and, given that my research is a case study methodology, I would like to use the data. Of course I will explicitly state the changes in relation to your instrument as well as the fact that these results are not generalizable. I have discussed this issue with my Committee Supervisor, Dr. Dennis Kimberley, who is supportive of my request. His E-mail address is: dkimberl@mun.ca <mailto:dkimberl@mun.ca> . His work telephone number is 709-737-8145, should you wish to discuss this matter further with him.
>
>I am specifically requesting that you confirm your permission to use the scale, and that you are in agreement that it be used with the above described scale revisions, using a 1-4 range versus a 0-4 range.
>
>You may e-mail your response if you wish.
>
>I remain yours respectfully,
>
>
>
>
>Mike Devine MSW RSW
>
>E-mail: mdevine@mun.ca <mailto:mdevine@mun.ca>
>
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APPENDIX J

MEYER AND ALLEN COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (1997)

Meyer and Allen Commitment Questionnaire (1997)

There are 23 questions below. Each question relates to your feelings and levels of commitment with regard to working for Health and Community Services, St. John's Region. Rate your response

		Strongly Disagree			Agree		Strongly Agree	

A-1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-2. I enjoy discussing this organization with people outside it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-9. I do not feel any obligation to remain with this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-10. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave this organization right now 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-11. I would feel guilty if I left this organization now 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-12. This organization deserves my loyalty 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-13. I would not leave this organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

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		Strongly Disagree			Agree			Strongly Agree

A-14. I owe a great deal to this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-15. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-16. It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-17. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organization right now 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-18. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave this organization in the near future 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-19. Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-20. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-21. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-22. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-23. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX K

MEYER AND ALLEN COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (1997) - ADAPTED (2002)

Meyer and Allen Commitment Scale (1997) - Adapted (2002)

Each of the following questions is <u>to be answered ONLY by those employees who have worked</u> <u>with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment for a</u> <u>minimum of one year</u> prior to the transfer to a Health and Community Services Board Model. These questions asks you <u>to reflect on how you felt with regard to each issue when you worked</u> <u>with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment.</u> <u>Answer</u> <u>the questions AS IF you are still working for the former Department of Social Services/Human</u> <u>Rresources and Employment.</u> Rate your response using the scale below.

| | **Strongly Disagree** | | | **Agree** | | | **Strongly Agree** |

B-1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-2. I enjoy discussing the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services with people outside it .. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-3. I really feel as if the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services' problems are my own . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-4. I think that I could easily become as much attached to another organization as I am to the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-7. The Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services has a great deal of personal meaning for me . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-9. I do not feel any obligation to remain with the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services . 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-10. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services right now 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-11. I would feel guilty if I left the Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services now ... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-12. The Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services deserves my loyalty 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-13. I would not leave The Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

B-14. I feel that I owe a great deal to The Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX L

INTENTION TO TURNOVER SCALE
(SEASHORE, LAWLER, MIRVIS, & CAMMANN, 1982)

Intention to Turnover Questionnaire (Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, & Cammann, 1982)

Please answer each of the following three (3) statements:

C-1. How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?
        Not likely   *Maybe*   *Very likely*
              1   2   3   4   5   6   7

C-2. I often think about quitting.
        Never   *Sometimes*   *Often*
              1   2   3   4   5   6   7

C-3. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.
        Not likely   *Maybe*   *For Sure*
              1   2   3   4   5   6   7

APPENDIX M

DEVINE QUESTIONNAIRE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE EXPERIENCES (2002)

Devine Questionnaire on Organizational Change Experiences (2002)

If you had worked with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment, for <u>less than one year</u> *skip this set of questions. If you worked for the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment for one year or more, answer the next set of nineteen (19) questions. The following nineteen (19) questions seek your opinion on a variety of issues related to the integration of the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment with Health and Community Services.*

D-1. To what degree has the integration with Health and Community Services had an impact on you <u>professionally</u>?

Negative impact   *No impact*   *Substantial positive impact*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-2. To what degree has the integration with Health and Community Services had an impact on you <u>personally</u>?

Negative impact   *No impact*   *Substantial positive impact*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-3. To what degree do you think that you had the *opportunity* to have as much input into the transition to Health and Community Services as you would have liked?

Had little opportunity   *Had much opportunity*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-4. Were there obstacles in you being able to have as much input into the transition to Health and Community Services as you would have liked (for example, workload demands, organization not providing the time or sufficient advance notice for meetings in which to have input)?

Many obstacles   *No obstacles*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-5. Did you conclude that giving input into the integration to Health and Community Services (e.g., through Email/MSmail or correspondence) was not a priority for you because you felt that the outcome was a foregone conclusion?

Not at all   *Somewhat*   *Most definitely*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-6. Did you and your colleagues have ample opportunity, as a group, to meet and discuss various aspects of the move to Health and Community Services in a detailed, meaningful and thoughtful way, which considered most aspects of the change process?

Had no opportunity   *Had somewhat of an opportunity*   *Had ample opportunity*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-7. Did your organizational superiors make it a priority for you to have input into the change by setting up or supporting the setting up of meetings, workshops, seminars, brainstorming sessions, and so on?

Superiors made no priority   *Superiors made some priorities*   *Superiors made ample priority*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-8. At times, when you did provide input, did you always receive information back on the outcome of each specific change process?

Not at all   *Somewhat*   *Most definitely*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-9. When you received information back from input you had given, did you conclude that your input had been taken into account?

Not at all   *Somewhat*   *Most definitely*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-10. Did you believe that the input that you had into the move of programs to the health and community services board model was related primarily to how the administrative functions of the transfer would take place?

Not at all   *Somewhat*   *Most definitely*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-11. Did you feel that the move of programs to Health and Community Services failed to ask questions about the fundamental assumptions of how the service delivery model might impact the services to clients?

Not at all   *Somewhat*   *Most definitely*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-12. To what degree do you think your work responsibilities have changed since the integration of Health and Community Services?

Little change in responsibilities   *Much change in responsibilities*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-13. To what degree do you expect your work responsibilities to change now that the integration to Health and Community Services has taken place?

Responsibilities likely to change   *Responsibilities not likely to change*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-14. How much control do you have over your present work environment with Health and Community Services as compared to when you worked with the former Department of Human Resources and Employment/Social Services?

Much less control   *Much more control*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-15. To what degree are you satisfied with the level of support (e.g., with payment of tuition, access to training both inside and outside the organization) you have gotten from Health and Community Services?

Not satisfied   *Very satisfied*

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-16. To what degree has your interaction with other professionals increased since the integration to Health and Community Services;   i.e., interdisciplinary collaboration?

Little change in interaction   *Much change in interaction*

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-17. To what degree has the number of services changed since the integration of Health and Community Services?

Less adequate services   *More adequate services*

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-18. Do you think that the availability of services has changed for clients since the integration of Health and Community Services?

Services less available   *Services more available*

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

D-19. Assuming that new services have been developed, to what degree are the services relevant to the population or client group it is intended to serve?

Services very relevant   *Services not relevant*

    1   2   3   4   5   6   7

APPENDIX N

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (2000)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (2000)

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits your immediate supervisor with Health and Community Services, St. John's Region.

		Not at all	Sometimes		Frequently if not always
E-1.	My immediate supervisor provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	1	2	3	4
E-2.	My immediate supervisor re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4
E-3.	My immediate supervisor fails to interfere until problems become serious	1	2	3	4
E-4.	My immediate supervisor focuses attention in irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	1	2	3	4
E-5.	My immediate supervisor avoids getting involved when important issues arise	1	2	3	4
E-6.	My immediate supervisor talks about their most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4
E-7.	My immediate supervisor is absent when needed	1	2	3	4
E-8.	My immediate supervisor seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	1	2	3	4
E-9.	My immediate supervisor talks optimistically about the future	1	2	3	4
E-10.	My immediate supervisor instills pride in me for being associated with her/him	1	2	3	4
E-11.	My immediate supervisor discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	1	2	3	4

		Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always

E-12. My immediate supervisor waits for things to go wrong before taking action 1 2 3 4

E-13. My immediate supervisor talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished 1 2 3 4

E-14. My immediate supervisor specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose 1 2 3 4

E-15. My immediate supervisor spends time teaching and coaching 1 2 3 4

E-16. My immediate supervisor makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved 1 2 3 4

E-17. My immediate supervisor shows that s/he is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." 1 2 3 4

E-18. My immediate supervisor goes beyond self interest for the good of the group 1 2 3 4

E-19. My immediate supervisor treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of the group 1 2 3 4

E-20. My immediate supervisor demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action ... 1 2 3 4

E-21. My immediate supervisor acts in ways that builds my respect 1 2 3 4

E-22. My immediate supervisor concentrates her/his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures 1 2 3 4

E-23. My immediate supervisor considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions 1 2 3 4

E-24. My immediate supervisor keeps track of all mistakes 1 2 3 4

	Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always
E-25. My immediate supervisor displays a sense of power and confidence	1	2	3	4
E-26. My immediate supervisor articulates a compelling vision of the future	1	2	3	4
E-27. My immediate supervisor directs my attention toward failure to meet standards	1	2	3	4
E-28. My immediate supervisor avoids making decisions	1	2	3	4
E-29. My immediate supervisor considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	1	2	3	4
E-30. My immediate supervisor gets me to look at problems from many different angles	1	2	3	4
E-31. My immediate supervisor helps me to develop my strengths	1	2	3	4
E-32. My immediate supervisor suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	1	2	3	4
E-33. My immediate supervisor delays responding to urgent questions	1	2	3	4
E-34. My immediate supervisor emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	1	2	3	4
E-35. My immediate supervisor expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	1	2	3	4
E-36. My immediate supervisor expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	1	2	3	4
E-37. My immediate supervisor is effective in meeting my job-related needs	1	2	3	4

		Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always

		Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always	
E-38.	My immediate supervisor uses methods of leadership that are satisfying	1	2	3	4
E-39.	My immediate supervisor gets me to do more than I am expected to do	1	2	3	4
E-40.	My immediate supervisor is effective in representing me to higher authority	1	2	3	4
E-41.	My immediate supervisor works with me in a satisfactory way	1	2	3	4
E-42.	My immediate supervisor heightens my desire to succeed	1	2	3	4
E-43.	My immediate supervisor is effective in meeting organizational requirements	1	2	3	4
E-44.	My immediate supervisor increases my willingness to try harder	1	2	3	4
E-45.	My immediate supervisor leads a group that is effective	1	2	3	4

Your answers to these questions are very important in helping me understand how organizational change affects social workers and the clients they serve. You're almost done. Please take a few more minutes to answer these last questions about leadership as well as the demographic information.

APPENDIX O

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (2000)
(REFLECTIVE GROUP)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (*2000*)
(Reflective Group)

This questionnaire is to be answered <u>ONLY</u> if you were employed with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment for a <u>minimum of one year</u>. Answer the forty-five descriptive statements are listed below <u>AS IF</u> you were still working with the former Department of Social Services/Human Resources and Employment. Judge how frequently each statement fit your immediate supervisor at that time.

		Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always	
E-1.	My immediate supervisor provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	1	2	3	4
E-2.	My immediate supervisor re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4
E-3.	My immediate supervisor fails to interfere until problems become serious	1	2	3	4
E-4.	My immediate supervisor focuses attention in irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	1	2	3	4
E-5.	My immediate supervisor avoids getting involved when important issues arise	1	2	3	4
E-6.	My immediate supervisor talks about their most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4
E-7.	My immediate supervisor is absent when needed	1	2	3	4
E-8.	My immediate supervisor seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	1	2	3	4
E-9.	My immediate supervisor talks optimistically about the future	1	2	3	4
E-10.	My immediate supervisor instills pride in me for being associated with her/him	1	2	3	4

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E-11. My immediate supervisor discusses in specific
terms who is responsible for achieving
performance targets   1   2   3   4

E-12. My immediate supervisor waits for things to go
wrong before taking action   1   2   3   4

E-13. My immediate supervisor talks enthusiastically about
what needs to be accomplished   1   2   3   4

E-14. My immediate supervisor specifies the importance of
having a strong sense of purpose   1   2   3   4

E-15. My immediate supervisor spends time teaching
and coaching   1   2   3   4

E-16. My immediate supervisor makes clear what one can
expect to receive when performance goals are
achieved   1   2   3   4

E-17. My immediate supervisor shows that s/he is a firm
believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."   1   2   3   4

E-18. My immediate supervisor goes beyond self interest for
the good of the group   1   2   3   4

E-19. My immediate supervisor treats me as an individual
rather than just as a member of the group   1   2   3   4

E-20. My immediate supervisor demonstrates that problems
must become chronic before taking action . . .   1   2   3   4

E-21. My immediate supervisor acts in ways that builds
my respect   1   2   3   4

E-22. My immediate supervisor concentrates her/his full
attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints,
and failures   1   2   3   4

		Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always

E-23. My immediate supervisor considers the moral and ethical
consequences of decisions 1 2 3 4

E-24. My immediate supervisor keeps track of all
mistakes 1 2 3 4

E-25. My immediate supervisor displays a sense of power
and confidence 1 2 3 4

E-26. My immediate supervisor articulates a compelling
vision of the future 1 2 3 4

E-27. My immediate supervisor directs my attention toward
failure to meet standards 1 2 3 4

E-28. My immediate supervisor avoids making
decisions 1 2 3 4

E-29. My immediate supervisor considers me as having
different needs, abilities, and aspirations from
others 1 2 3 4

E-30. My immediate supervisor gets me to look at problems
from many different angles 1 2 3 4

E-31. My immediate supervisor helps me to develop
my strengths 1 2 3 4

E-32. My immediate supervisor suggests new ways of looking
at how to complete assignments 1 2 3 4

E-33. My immediate supervisor delays responding to
urgent questions 1 2 3 4

E-34. My immediate supervisor emphasizes the importance
of having a collective sense of mission 1 2 3 4

E-35. My immediate supervisor expresses satisfaction when
I meet expectations 1 2 3 4

		Not at all	Sometimes	Frequently if not always

E-36. My immediate supervisor expresses confidence that goals will be achieved   1   2   3   4

E-37. My immediate supervisor is effective in meeting my job-related needs   1   2   3   4

E-38. My immediate supervisor uses methods of leadership that are satisfying   1   2   3   4

E-39. My immediate supervisor gets me to do more than I am expected to do   1   2   3   4

E-40. My immediate supervisor is effective in representing me to higher authority   1   2   3   4

E-41. My immediate supervisor works with me in a satisfactory way   1   2   3   4

E-42. My immediate supervisor heightens my desire to succeed   1   2   3   4

E-43. My immediate supervisor is effective in meeting organizational requirements   1   2   3   4

E-44. My immediate supervisor increases my willingness to try harder   1   2   3   4

E-45. My immediate supervisor leads a group that is effective   1   2   3   4

APPENDIX P

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Demographic Information

G-1. Job Title: _____

G-2. Employment Status:
    (1) Full-time temporary: _____
    (2) Full-time permanent: _____
    (3) Part-time temporary: (Percentage: _____ [i.e.: 25% - 50% - 75%])
    (4) Part-time permanent: (Percentage: _____ [i.e.: 25% - 50% - 75%])

G-3. Length of Time in Present Position/Caseload (# of years & months):
    (1) 11 months or less
    (2) 12 months to 35 months
    (3) 36 months to 59 months
    (4) 60 months or over

G-4. Length of Time with Board and Government (# of years & months):
    (1) Less than 4 years
    (2) 4 years to 7 years
    (3) 8 years to 15 years
    (4) 16 years to 25 years
    (5) 26 years or over

G-5. Length of Time in the Social Work Profession :
    (1) less than 4 years
    (2) 4 years to 7 years
    (3) 8 years to 15 years
    (4) 16 years to 25 years
    (5) 26 years or over

G-6. Gender:
    (1) Female:
    (2) Male:

G-6. Marital Status:
    (1) Single:
    (2) Married:
    (3) Separated:
    (4) Divorced:
    (5) Other (Specify): _____

G-7. **Age:**
(1) 20 - 29 years:
(2) 30 - 39 years:
(3) 40 - 49 years:
(4) 50 years and over:

G-8. **Highest Education Level:**
(1) BA (Social Welfare)
(2) BSW
(3) MSW
(4) Other (Specify): _____

G-9. **Specify Area of Specialization before the transition to a health and community services board model:**(eg: Child Welfare-General [or: Child Protection; Licensing, for example]; Family and Rehab-General [or; Alternate Family Care; Day Care, for example]; Youth Corrections-General [or Open Custody, for example]; or other agency/Department such as Adult Probation: _____

_____

_____

_____

G-10. **Specify Area of Specialization at the PRESENT time:**(eg: Child Welfare-General [or: Child Protection; Licensing, for example]; Family and Rehab-General [or; Alternate Family Care; Day Care, for example]; Youth Corrections-General [or Open Custody, for example]: _____

_____

G-11. **Location of Practice:**
(1) Rural - (District population of less than 10,000)
(2) Suburban - (District population of 10,000 to 50,000)
(3) Urban - (District population of 50,000 and over)

G-12. **Program Area of Employment**
(1) Child Welfare
(2) Community Living
(3) Youth Corrections

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS SURVEY!!