MANAGEMENT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE AT THE
NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF LESOTHO

By

Tsepiso Patricia Malehlohonolo Mohapi-Moloi

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
MASTER IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Graduate School of Business, Faculty of Management
University of Natal (Durban)

Supervisor: Professor Elza Thomson

September 2003
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that all views expressed in the research are my own and in the case where other people’s work has been used, it has been duly acknowledged. This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not being currently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed...T. Mangi-Moldi...

Date...12/02/2003...096692
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to many people, who have helped make this dissertation a reality.

I would like to start by thanking the Almighty Father for guiding and giving me the strength amidst all the academic and social challenges I experienced throughout the two years I spent at the University of Natal (Durban) pursuing my MBA.

To my supervisor and mentor, Professor Elza Thomson, thanks very much for your support, guidance and encouragement throughout all the steps of writing this dissertation.

To Janice, thank you for the time you spared to proofread this research report.

A million thank you's to Ebuse Sixishe, for her assistance with the data collection. I wish you all the best in your future endeavours.

To ‘Me Nkele, Tsoamathe and aus Tlotly, thank you for your words of encouragement during times of utter despair. All the moments of laughter and sadness that we shared while at UND will always be cherished.

To Motheba Malibeng, thank you very much for being there for me at times that I needed your assistance. I know it was a bit too much, but you really have been my saving angel.

To my family, thank you for your undoubted support at all times. I know that some of the decisions I made at the beginning of the year may have been irrational given the circumstances and have affected your lives in many ways, but believe you me; it was not easy for me as well.
Mom and Pully, thank you very much for taking care of my little boy for me. No words are enough to explain to you how much I appreciate all what you have done for me. I knew I could always count on you.

To the two men in my life, Ernest my husband and Lehlohonolo my son, this one’s for you guys!!

GOD BLESS YOU ALL!!
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Change is the single most important element of successful business management today. To remain competitive in increasingly aggressive, competitive and dynamic markets, organizations have to adopt a positive attitude to change. Ignoring or trivializing changing trends can be very costly. The best organizations are the trendsetters that monitor the environment, embrace the need for change and effectively lead change in order to survive. Effective management of change is, therefore, of great importance if organizations are to stay ahead of rivals and attain a sustainable competitive edge in the industry (Heller, 1998).

The main focus of this dissertation is to evaluate the management of transformational change at the National University of Lesotho (NUL), with the intention of formulating management of change strategies that NUL can adopt for the successful implementation of its strategic transformational change process. The text further explicates the correlation between leadership, change and the management of change within the context of NUL’s ongoing transformational change process. A case study approach has been used to conduct the research.

The report has been divided into five chapters. Chapter One provides the background to the study as well as the research methodology that has been employed to conduct the study. It further provides a brief outline of the structure of the dissertation. Chapter Two describes the theoretical framework of the change process, management of change and implications of different leadership traits on the management of transformation change in transforming organizations. The theoretical framework forms the foundation on which the study has been based and also provides guidelines and benchmarks of the management of change strategies that NUL can use for the successful implementation of its strategic transformational change process. At the end of Chapter Two, a case analysis model has been developed to conduct the case analysis in Chapter Four. In Chapter Three, a brief overview of an evolutionary background to the study problem is provided. The chapter also provides a critical analysis NUL’s strategic transformational change process. Chapter Four offers an evaluation of NUL’s strategic transformational change process. The discussion is based on the case study change model developed at the end of Chapter Two. It also highlights on the strengths and weakness of the NUL’s change process. Lastly, in Chapter Five, recommendations emanating from the analysis conducted in Chapter Four, are outlined as suggestions what NUL can do and things that it should avoid doing if it is to achieve the objectives and goals of its transformational change successfully. Moreover, the chapter concludes the dissertation by providing a summary of the entire case study and maps the way forward for NUL to meet its strategic objectives and goals, as well as achieve a successful transformational change process with long-term strategic development.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES ( xi )
LIST OF FIGURES ( xii )
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ( xiii )

CHAPTER ONE – BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION 1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY 4
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT 6
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY 6
1.5 SCOPE OF THE STUDY 6
1.6 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY 7
1.7 VALUE OF THE STUDY 7
1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 7
   1.8.1 Research Design 7
   1.8.2 Data Collection Methods 7
   1.8.3 Instrumentation 8
   1.8.4 Sample Size and Selection 8
   1.8.5 Ethical Considerations 9
1.9 QUESTIONNAIRE PRE-TESTING 9
1.10 BIAS CONTROL 9
1.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY 10
1.12 DATA ANALYSIS 10
1.13 LIMITATIONS 10
1.14 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT 11
1.15 SUMMARY 12
CHAPTER TWO – MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

2.2 CHANGE

2.2.1 The Change Process

2.2.2 Forces for Change

2.2.3 Change Models

2.2.3.1 Change Kaleidoscope

2.2.3.1.1 Design Choices

2.2.3.1.2 Change Context Features

2.2.3.2 The Culture Web

2.2.3.2.1 Elements of the Culture Web

2.2.3.3 A Systems Model of Change

2.2.3.4 Organizational Development

2.3 MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

2.3.1 Why People Resist Change in the Workplace

2.3.2 Techniques for Reducing Resistance to Change

2.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

2.4.1 The Trait Theory of Leadership

2.4.2 The Behavioural Approaches to Leadership

2.4.3 Contingency Theories of Leadership

2.4.4 Neo-Charismatic Theories of Leadership

2.5 LEADING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE
# CHAPTER THREE – AN OVERVIEW OF NUL’s TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE

3.1 INTRODUCTION 77
3.2 BRIEF COUNTRY BACKGROUND 77
3.3 OVERVIEW OF NUL 78
3.4 NUL’S CURRENT ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE 79
3.5 NUL’S ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE 81
3.6 THE NEED FOR NUL’s TRANSFORMATION 82
3.7 STRATEGIC PLAN FORMULATION AT NUL 83
   3.7.1 Mission Statement 84
   3.7.2 Vision 2020 84
   3.7.3 Core Values 84
   3.7.4 Strategic Goals 85
   3.7.5 Situational Analysis 86
      3.7.5.1 Internal Analysis 86
      3.7.5.2 External Analysis 86
   3.7.6 Strategic Options 87
   3.7.7 Strategic Thrust 87
CHAPTER FOUR – ANALYSIS OF NUL’s TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE

4.1 INTRODUCTION 98

4.2 CHANGE MODEL FOR THE CASE ANALYSIS 98

4.3 NUL’s CHANGE KALEIDOSCOPE 99

4.3.1 NUL’s Organizational Change Context 101
4.3.2 NUL’s Change Design Choices 103

4.4 NUL’s CULTURAL CONTEXT FOR CHANGE 104

4.4.1 NUL’s Current Organizational Culture 105
4.4.2 NUL’s Future Organizational Culture 109

(viii)
CHAPTER FIVE – RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION 118

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS 118

5.2.1 Clear Mission and Vision 118
5.2.2 Forces for Change 119
5.2.3 Integrating Changes 119
5.2.4 Human Resources 120
5.2.5 Organizational Culture Change 121
5.2.6 Management of Transformational Change 122
5.2.7 Promoting Creativity 123
5.2.8 Dealing with Resistance to Change by Building Trust 124
5.2.9 Managing Conflict 124
5.2.10 Education and Training 125
5.2.11 Reward and Celebrate Success 125
5.2.12 Effective Leadership 125
5.2.13 Delegate Responsibility 128
5.2.14 Achieving Success through Teamwork 128
5.2.15 Discipline 128
5.2.16 Implementation of Change
5.2.17 Ensure that Organizational Change is Sustainable
5.2.18 Organization Self Appraisal
5.2.19 Refocusing Change
5.2.20 Changing Continually
5.2.21 Achieving Dynamic Stability

5.3 CONCLUSION

REFERENCES
INTERNET REFERENCES
UNPUBLISHED REPORTS

APPENDIX 1
LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Types of Change 24
Table 2.2 Continuum of Resistance to Change 50
Table 2.3 Linking Strategy Change with Leadership Traits Through the Lifecycle Dimensions 68
Table 2.5 Sequential Steps to Leading Organizational Change 70
# List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Components of Change</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Levels of Interaction</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Forces for Change</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Change Kaleidoscope</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>The Typology of Change</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>The Culture Web of an Organization</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>GAP Analysis</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>A Systems Approach to Change</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>The Leadership Grid</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>The Life Cycle Theory of Leadership</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>Change Model for The Case Analysis</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>NUL’s Current Organizational Structure</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>NUL’s Strategic Plan Formulation Structure</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>NUL’s Proposed Managerial Structures</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>NUL’s Proposed Possible Matrix Structure</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Change Model for the Case Analysis</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>NUL’s Change Kaleidoscope</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>NUL’s Current Organizational Culture Web</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>NUL’s Future Organizational Culture Web</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>NUL’s Life Cycle</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHEMS</td>
<td>Commonwealth Higher Education Management Services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSU</td>
<td>Computer Services Unit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EYMAR</td>
<td>Ernst and Young Management Audit Report</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISAS</td>
<td>Institute of Southern African Studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEMS</td>
<td>Institute of Extra Mural Studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBO</td>
<td>Management by Objectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUL</td>
<td>National University of Lesotho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OD</td>
<td>Organizational Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBBS</td>
<td>University of Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PVC</td>
<td>Pro-Vice Chancellor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWOT</td>
<td>Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM</td>
<td>Total Quality Management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBLS</td>
<td>University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VC</td>
<td>Vice- Chancellor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWW</td>
<td>World Wide Web</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

"You must be the change you wish to see in the world".
Mahatma Ghandi

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The beginning of the twenty-first century has been characterised by major organizational restructuring, reengineering, downsizing and other assorted changes. A generation ago, successful managers valued stability, predictability and efficiency. However, in recent years, many organizations have failed because they did not take into consideration the dynamics and changes occurring in the environment in which they were operating. This demonstrates that organizations that remain stagnant and highly bureaucratic, despite of change signals are likely to fade especially when one of the biggest failures of managing organizations today is trying to hold onto the past (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001).

"In simple terms, change refers to the alteration of the organization’s status quo" (Robbins and DeCenzo (2001: 233). Change affects every aspect of life, either at an individual or an organizational level. Understanding and managing change are the dominant themes of today's business world. Organizations desire change in order to remain competitive, be able to grow, to adopt more effective and efficient means of operation, to achieve sustainable profitability and to remain in harmony with their environments. While for individuals, change is seen as either an opportunity for personal development and enhancement, or a threat to one's job security. Organizational change can occur in a gradual or radical manner and can either be reactive or proactive according to whether it occurs voluntarily or in response to the pressure of other organization-wide development. However, in practice, change often combines reactive and proactive elements. For instance, a crisis triggers radical reactive change in response to a calamity, but management has to decide proactively on the direction of the change in order to maximise the organization’s long-term success (Keller, 1998).
Successful change programmes involve planning for both the short and long-term. Planning involves setting clear objectives and goals to be achieved through change. If managers do not know where they are going, they cannot change to get there. If they do not know where they are, they cannot start on the right road (Keller, 1998). In order to start the change process, the strategic gaps of where the organization is, and where it would like to be need to be identified. Gap analysis can be conducted by realistically assessing the organization’s internal strengths and weakness so as to stay focused on the organization’s mission, aims and strategic vision. It can also used to identify areas within the organization that need to be changed in line of priority as well as establishing whether the organization has the necessary resources, capability and capacity to undertake the planned change (Ambrosini, Johnson and Scholes,, 1998:219-220). However, people should not be overwhelmed with too many specific changes. Organizations should identify the few significant areas in which change will have the most impact and focus.

According to Keller (1998), change involves the adoption of new ideas or behaviours in an organization, as well as the adaptation to uncertain circumstances of the future (risk orientation of change). As stated by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002), change is caused by both external (political, economic, social, technological, legal and environmental) and internal factors (the need for skilled human resources, the desire for quality and excellence, advancement in technology, and the need for effectiveness and efficiency). No successful organization can operate without understanding and dealing with the changes in the environment that surrounds it.

To deal effectively with increasing rates of change, organizations need to understand the underlying causes of change, which most often derive from wider changes in society, the economy and technological issues. Most changes that occur in an organization are instigated, at least in part, from within. This may involve internal restructuring, acquisitions or mergers generated at managerial level. Sometimes change can be as a response to external environmental conditions that either pose significant threats or opportunities to the business. Thus, skilful management is revealed in the ability to read environmental signals and react accordingly to stay ahead of the competition. Change can also be initiated by changing market and consumer needs and trends, which require internal restructuring of organizations in order to improve productivity in terms of efficiency, effectiveness and quality. Being aware of the
possible causes and need for change within the organization ensures that change is dealt with more openly and all parties are able to learn to develop its positive elements for the success of the organization (Keller, 1998).

The culture of an organization develops as a result of the behaviour of people within it, and in turn influences how the organization behaves. Understanding corporate culture is crucial when planning for change. An organization’s long-term and short-term aims can be achieved only if staff is sympathetic, committed or loyal to organizational aims, objectives and goals. Before proceeding with any change initiative, management should study the current organizational culture to see how best to introduce intended changes, and how to align personal values with organizational values and to develop openness to change. Studying the current organizational culture enables the organization to map exactly what needs to be changed in order to achieve organizational success. The aim should be to guide the development of the organization’s culture so that it supports change efforts. Changing organizational culture is not easy, but, positive, lasting change should follow effectively from other interrelated changes (Thompson and Strickland, 2003).

Organizations sometimes resist change because of their desire for stability and predictability. Thus, the success of any change initiative is dependent on the organization’s human resources. It is important for organizations to acknowledge that human resources are the most important assets in the change process, as change revolves around people who can either make or break the change process (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002). Those affected by change will most likely vary in their attitudes and needs. People deal with change in three different ways: by following the initiated changes, resisting it or being leaders of the change (Keller 1998). Effective change programmes should be flexible enough to match this variety and create means of dealing with different reactions to the change. Different situations, however, require different strategies for managing change. Adapting to the ever-changing present is essential for success in an unpredictable future. Change management has, thus, become one of the most topical issues in management circles.

By their very nature, change programmes call for effective leadership that also requires dedicated and inspired followers. In order for employees to adapt well to change without resistance, leadership must shape and influence the culture in the organization and put in place proper management of change structures for successful implementation of the change process.
For any change programme to succeed, all levels of management need to be involved. Leaders should lead with integrity and by example. Delegation is the key to effective management of change. This can be affected by assigning active roles to various people at all levels within the organization, and not merely those selected as change agents. Roles should be designated on the basis of desired outcomes. In other words, tasks should be matched to the skills and capabilities of a person rather than being constrained by job description or rank. Having a clear vision of what is expected from the change increases the level of involvement and commitment to the change process (Keller, 1999).

The most difficult of all stages in the change process is ensuring that the effected changes are maintained and that the organization does not revert back to old habits. For organizations to have effective and efficient change, the change process must, therefore, be continuously managed and monitored. Frequent and accurate assessment of progress is essential to ensure that the change programme is effective and is in line and consistent with previously set goals and objectives.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY

Change is vital for future organizational success. Like all other organizations that would like to remain competitive in their different industries, The National University of Lesotho (NUL) is currently undergoing transformational change to improve organizational efficiency, effectiveness, service excellence, and quality of its products. The University strives to meet the ever-changing needs of its customers and stakeholders and to continue producing competent and skilled graduates. The main objective of the transformational change is to restructure NUL into a future higher learning institute of excellence, delivering superior service through transformation.

NUL’s transformational change process is informed by consultative studies conducted by the World Health Organisation (WHO) 1984, the Commonwealth Higher Education Management Services (CHEMS) 1994/5 and the Ernst and Young Management Audit Report (EYMAR) 2000/1, which have highlighted a structural crisis that is hindering the efficient and effective discharge of the University’s mission. At the root of the crisis is a complacent managerial and organizational system, ill-suited to respond effectively and timeously to change imperatives,
poor managerial planning, inefficient utilization of resources, lack of transparency and accountability, as well as low cost-consciousness and the stunted growth in student enrolments, contrasting sharply with the national surge in the demand for higher education. It has been found that existing administrative and managerial systems and decision-making procedures are still centralised, creating bureaucratic bottlenecks that delay decision-making and implementation. This results in a considerable degree of duplication and greater responsibility being transferred to Faculties and Institutes without corresponding transfer of authority. This has also led to a lag in the review of academic programmes resulting in a decline in the relevance of programmes offered. Furthermore, there seems to be lack of interfaculty cooperation, staff alienation, poor facilities management, low staff morale, commitment and motivation, and a general atmosphere of fatalism and paralysis.

It has been clear from the reports mentioned above, that new domestic and global circumstances impose new demands and pressures on institutions of higher learning to develop the ability to determine trends and needs, and to adjust their academic and managerial structures accordingly. There was, therefore, a felt need for the university to reformulate and restructure its activities according to the recommendations made in the reports, so that it can successfully achieve its strategic objectives and goals. In 2000, the university council, in a special meeting confronted the challenge head-on and directed that an all-encompassing organization wide transformation process be instituted to salvage NUL from self-destruction and to restore its image, reputation and role as a premier institute of higher learning in Lesotho, and around the world.

The main aim of this dissertation is, therefore, to evaluate the nature of NUL's transformational change process, as well as the management of change strategies that it has adopted in implementing its transformational change. The study intends to establish how the specific change leadership at NUL affects the management of the ongoing transformational change process.
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

What kind of leadership style and management of transformational change strategies are appropriate for the successful implementation of NUL’s strategic transformational change process?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives address the purpose of the study:

- To establish the nature of NUL’s strategic transformational change approach so as to develop a transformational change model suitable for NUL’s specific transformational change context
- To determine the management of change initiatives that NUL is using to create awareness, acceptability and reduction of employee resistance to the current change efforts
- To evaluate leadership traits of NUL’s transformational change agents and the subsequent implications for the success of the transformational change process
- To make recommendations on the type of management of transformational change strategies and the leadership style appropriate for the successful implementation of NUL’s transformational change process.

1.5 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study is intended to evaluate the management of transformational change strategies that NUL is using in the implementation of its organization-wide transformational change process.
1.6 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The research aims at making a contribution to existing knowledge within the field of management of change strategies and leadership styles appropriate in the strategic transformational change of organizations. The study is also intended to establish ways of managing the change so that every employee of NUL positively perceives it so that it can become a success and be of benefit to the entire organization.

1.7 VALUE OF THE STUDY

The results of this research study are intended to contribute to the advancement of knowledge in the field of management of transformational change in higher learning institutions.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section on the research methodology highlights the steps that have been followed in conducting the research. It includes the research design, and sampling techniques as well as the methods of data collection and analysis.

1.8.1 Research Design

The case study method of qualitative research design has been chosen. The case study method has been selected as it places more emphasis on the full contextual and in-depth analysis of events and their interrelatedness. Its emphasis on detail provides valuable insight for problem solving, evaluation and strategy development. In order to provide information that will give answers to the research problem, a case study analysis of NUL’s transformational change process has been conducted.

1.8.2 Data collection methods

The critical analysis of the case study has been done with the aid of detailed and in-depth secondary data. The Secondary data was collected from past research conducted on the similar
topic. Information specific to NUL’s strategic planning and transformational change processes was obtained from the WHO Report (1984), CHEMS (1994/5), EYMAR (2000/1), NUL’s strategic planning documents and other research articles relevant to NUL’s transformational change process and best practices, especially in developing countries. Some material that has been used was collected from journals, textbooks, online publications, the WWW, as well as other relevant published and unpublished academic and non-academic information.

In the case whereby it was felt that the case study information at hand was inadequate, and additional information was required to supplement the secondary data collected, primary data was collected using structured self-administered questionnaires (see Appendix 1). Most of the interview information was used in the case study model of analysis in Chapter Four. Due to the busy schedules of respondents, questionnaires were delivered, and collected at a later date. This method of data collection was chosen because of its relatively higher response rate when compared to snail mail and e-mail interviews. A research assistant was employed to conduct the data collection.

1.8.3 Instrumentation

The primary data was collected by use of structured self-administered questionnaires (see Appendix 1). These questionnaires were delivered to relevant people and then collected at a later date.

1.8.4 Sample Size and Selection

Non-probability quota sampling technique was used to draw the sample. Quota sampling was selected as the appropriate sampling technique since only a small sample was needed to collect the additional supplementary information. The sampling frame consisted of fifteen NUL employees stratified into the three categories that characterize NUL’s workforce as academic (including top management staff), non-academic and administrative staff, employed on either a permanent or temporary basis. The different groups of respondents were selected judgementally, with all candidates in the study population having a non-zero, known or an equal chance of being selected into the sample. The fifteen questionnaires were then distributed evenly among the three groups of respondents with five questionnaires per group.
The purpose of the data collection was to determine the feelings and views of employees, at different levels of employment, towards NUL’s ongoing transformational change process and its implications for the success of NUL as a higher learning institute of excellence.

1.8.5 Ethical Considerations

The researcher has, throughout the process of data collection, acknowledged and respected the respondents’ cooperation, privacy, and voluntary participation in the study. Hence, in cases where respondents were not willing to complete the questionnaire, an alternative respondent was given the questionnaire to complete. A covering letter was attached to the questionnaire to explain to the respondents the aims and benefits of the study to both the researcher and NUL as an organization, as well as a clause indicating respect for the ethical rights of anonymity, embargoing and confidentiality of information about the organization that has been used in the study.

1.9 QUESTIONNAIRE PRE-TESTING

The questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure that the research assistant, as well as the respondents, had a common understanding and interpretation of the questions. This was done to ensure validity and reliability of the information collected and the subsequent results of the entire study.

1.10 BIAS CONTROL

In order to avoid a biased presentation of NUL’s management of transformational change in the study, the critical analysis of the case study was conducted with as much objectivity as possible. Also the questionnaire was designed so that the logic and sequence of questions would not affect the motivation of respondents to complete it. Order biases of questions, as well as leading questions were avoided as they may influence respondents to respond to the questions in a certain way as expected by the researcher. Bias control is thus very important, as bias is most likely to distort the results, analysis and interpretation of the study, as well as have implications for the validity and reliability of the study.
1.11 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY

The validity and reliability of the research have been predetermined by pre-testing the research instrument to determine its capability of providing appropriate and relevant information as well as consistent results.

1.12 DATA ANALYSIS

The study is qualitative in nature. Hence, the primary data collected had been qualitatively analyzed and has been used only as supplementary information in the case study models of analysis in Chapter Four. With regard to secondary data, the information has been used to formulate a case study model of analysis at the end of Chapter Two, and the model has been used to analyze NUL’s management transformational change in Chapter Four.

1.13 LIMITATIONS

- Due to time and budgetary constraints, a case study method of research has been selected. Case study analysis has a limitation in that only the views of the researcher on the current situation of the case being evaluated are reflected in the study. This further creates reporting biases that are most likely to affect the validity of the research results, as they may not reflect a true picture of the current situation.

- Because the secondary information available was inadequate, some additional primary information had be collected. However, only a small sample was judgementally selected. Even though the sample is representative of all categories of NUL’s employees, the use of non-probability sampling has implications for the study with regards to the results, as it will be very difficult to make generalizations on certain aspects of the study based on the primary information collected. This is likely to affect the reliability of the study. It is, therefore, suggested that further research be conducted as not all aspects of the research problem have been studied in-depth.

- The primary information collected may suffer from some errors caused by either sampling or respondent errors. Sampling errors may be due to the use of judgemental sampling and respondents being selected on the basis that it was believed they would be able to provide
the necessary and relevant answers. This may have affected the representativeness of the sample. Respondent errors may have been caused by respondents deliberately providing false information and being uncooperative due to the sensitivity of the transformation process, mistrust, fear, and trade union and organizational patriotism.

- Due to time constraints and the use of self-administered questionnaires, some respondents were not able to answer questions appropriately. Time constraints did not allow the researcher to revert to them for clarity on the information provided. In some instances, the research assistant could also not explain clearly enough some issues that were raised by the respondents. Thus, some information collected was very unclear and not well understood.

1.14 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

- **Chapter Two** comprises the theoretical framework as the foundation on which the entire study is based. The literature review examines recent and historically significant research studies and reports that act as a basis for the proposed study. The theoretical models of leadership, change and management of change are also discussed. At the end of the chapter a management of change model has been developed for the purpose of case analysis in Chapter Four.

- **Chapter Three** presents a review of an evolutionary background of the case study to the study.

- **Chapter Four** presents a qualitative case analysis of management transformational change at NUL.

- **Chapter Five** constitutes strategy recommendations that NUL can employ to achieve the successful implementation of its strategic transformational change process. The recommendations include an interpretation of how the findings of the study could be utilized. This chapter also includes a conclusion as a summary of the entire report and the way forward for NUL.
1.15 SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an outline of the flow of the research methodology used in evaluating the management of transformational change at NUL. A case study approach has been adopted. The information in this chapter serves as a background to the other chapters of the report.
CHAPTER TWO

MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

"The smartest tool for success is the ability to adapt well to change."

Doug Smart

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Managing change has become a pivotal theme for managers. Organizations have been experiencing turbulence, struck by external waves of rapid competitive change, deregulation and re-regulation, as well as economic boom and recession. Internally, shocks have been amplified by quality programmes through corporate restructuring and by the impact of office and communications technology. There is much greater capacity for producing goods and service more quickly, more uniformly and to higher standards of quality and reliability than before. Change has become more awe-inspiring and widespread throughout organizations. Managers are becoming more receptive to recognizing change as a strategic process (Keller, 1998).

For many organizations the beliefs upon which today's change initiatives are based, represent a transformation. That is, a discontinuous break with existing individual and collectively held paradigms. Through transformational change a new reality can be created, an outcome not possible through the process of incremental change. Transformational change redefines the standards of peak performance. Meeting them requires more than the conventional development of new skills and knowledge through training or changes to structure and process through organization development. These standards also require the development of new organizational paradigms through transformational change. Hence, managing change refers to the making of changes in a planned, managed or systematic manner. The aim is to effectively implement new methods and systems in the organization (Grundy, 1995, and Senior 2002: 38-40).

One of the major debates concerning organizational change relates to the role of those who lead it. Support for change needs to be provided by means of effective leadership of the
change process. Leadership is essential to guide any change, through facilitation or interventions, to ensure a successful and smooth change process. This may involve continuously questioning what key insights have emerged, what behaviour shifts have occurred, what initiatives have started, and equally what initiatives have ended and with what benefit. Thus, the importance of regular checks against milestones and long-term “wins” achieved by the strategic change process, towards achieving change objectives. Those responsible for designing organizational change, therefore, have to create the conditions in which change is well understood. This consists of fostering attitudes of flexibility, dynamism and responsiveness, seeking structures and cultures that are positive and organic, and developing the human resource to its maximum (Keller, 1998).

The main purpose of this chapter is to highlight on the literature pertaining to the strategic change process, management of change and effective ways of leading change so as to achieve organizational change objectives. Some change models have been reviewed to enable the determination of the nature of change and strategic change approaches that could be used in organizational transformation as a means to meeting change objectives. At the end of the chapter, a management of change model has been developed for case analysis in Chapter Four.

2.2 CHANGE

The verb “change” is usually defined as “to alter, to make different, to cause to pass from one state to another, or to render something essentially different from what it was” (Johns, 1963: 21). Organizational change can, therefore, be a modification in purposes of production or ways of providing services. It can be a change in what the organization does or how it functions or operates. It can be in the form of a minor adaptation or a major reorganization. Change for the sake of change has little value. Hence, planned organizational change involves well-defined objectives, values, soundly conceived methods and skilful leadership. “In simple terms change refers to the alteration of an organization’s status quo. That maybe effected through the alteration of an organization’s environment intended to alter the organization’s structure, technology or people” (Robbins, 2000: 268).

Many mangers seek ready-made solutions to change problems. But the nature of change varies enormously from organization to organization, making it impossible to resolve change
problems according to a fixed and mechanistic set of rules. According to Balogun and Hailey (1999: 03), “organisational change has three main components: “the context” of changing referring to the why of change; the “change content” relating to the what of change, and also the “change process” referring to the how of change”.

Figure 2.1 Components of Change

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, “context” entails understanding the internal and external opportunities, constraints and organizationally defined routes to change as presented by the social, economic, political and technological environment, as well as the culture, structure and capabilities of within which the organization operates. “Content” refers to the hype and scale of organizational change. It includes choices that need to be made about an organization’s product and service ranges, markets in which it competes, how it should compete, how it should be structured, and so on. Any of these issues may need to change because of changes in the organization’s context. “Process” involves the means to achieving organizational change (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

However, when people talk about organizations changing, what they really mean is that people must change. Of course, the technology and services offered by an organization could be easily changed, but if an organization is to change, then people within the organization should also change the way they behave. Managing change and achieving change, involving individuals is, therefore, a challenging undertaking for managers.
2.2.1 The Change Process

The change process as defined by Grundy (1995: 45), is “the process of diagnosing, planning, implementing, controlling and learning from the change. The process includes the managing of the dynamics of change, leadership and stages of change, evaluating how major changes are triggered, staging deliberate interventions and managing expectations, communications and capability”. The first step in the change process is the ability to recognize the need for change, then recognising that a gap exists between the organization’s current state and desired state of affairs.

The process of change has been characterized as having three basic stages: “unfreezing”, “changing” and “refreezing”.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{UNFREEZING} & \quad \text{CHANGING} & \quad \text{REFREEZING} \\
\text{Current state} & \quad \text{Transition state} & \quad \text{Future state}
\end{align*}
\]

Source: Adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999: 11).

This process draws heavily on Kurt Lewin’s (1951) model of the change process adopted from the systems concept of homeostasis or dynamic stability. What is useful about this framework is that it gives rise to thinking about a staged approach to changing things: “look before you leap”. According to Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 545), the model is based on the assumptions that:

- The change process involves learning something new, as well as discontinuing some current attitudes, behaviour and organizational practices.

- Change will not occur unless there is motivation to change. This is often the most difficult part of the change process.

- People are the hub of all organizational changes. Any change, whether in terms of structure, group processes, reward systems or job designs, requires individuals to change.

- Resistance to change is found even when the goals of change are highly desirable.
• Effective change requires reinforcing new types of behaviour, attitudes and organizational practices.

Figure 2.2 Levels of Interaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unfreeze</th>
<th>Move</th>
<th>Sustain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Denial</strong></td>
<td><strong>Awareness</strong></td>
<td><strong>Integration</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shock</strong></td>
<td><strong>Acceptance</strong></td>
<td><strong>Search</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Help individuals to let go of pain and accept change
- Minimize shock
- Communicate intentions as early as possible
- Expect resistance
- Help individuals to change, listen, sympathize, support, encourage, coach, debate, give and take feedback
- Put in place education, training, personal development, new working practices and systems
- Support individuals in their roles
- Encourage reflection on change and learning
- Celebrate success and reinforce new ways of behaving

Source: Adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999:159).

The model in Figure 2.2 provides a continual reminder of how best to allocate effort during the change process. It helps ensure that managers can switch over from focusing primarily on efficient change management to effective change management (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

The status quo can be considered an equilibrium state. As stated by Robbins and DeCenzo (2001: 233), “Unfreezing” is “necessary to move from this equilibrium. It involves developing an initial awareness of the need for change. This can be achieved by increasing driving forces, which direct behaviour away from the status quo, and by decreasing restraining forces, which hinder movement from existing equilibrium”. The focus of unfreezing is to
create a motivation for change. In so doing, employees are encouraged to replace old behaviours and attitudes with those desired by management (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

Once unfreezing has been accomplished, the “change” itself can be implemented through the learning of the new required behaviours. The movement or transition stage entails implementation of needed changes through selected range of levers and mechanisms. This can be successfully achieved by, providing employees with new information, new behavioural models and new ways of doing things, so as to facilitate change. However, the mere introduction of change does not ensure that it can be sustained over time (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

The objective of “refreezing”, then, is to stabilize the new situation by balancing the driving and restraining forces. It also involves embedding the changes throughout the organization to ensure that members do not relapse into old patterns of behaviour, and ensuring that the change becomes permanent. Refreezing centres on reinforcing the new behaviours by positive results, feelings of accomplishment and rewards. Additional coaching and modelling are used at this point to reinforce the stability of change. Unless this last step is attended to, there is a strong chance that the change will be short lived and employees will revert to the previous equilibrium state (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

Although the three stage model of “unfreezing”, “changing” and “refreezing” is commonly used by organizations in transition, it has proven useful in situations of implementing planned change under relatively stable conditions. With the continuing and dynamic nature of change in today’s business world, it no longer makes sense to implement a planned process of ‘refreezing’ changed behaviours. Implementing stability and reinforcing behaviour which conforms to a grid of set procedures for new work arrangements does not meet the growing requirements for employee flexibility and structural adaptation to the unfolding and complex nature of ongoing change processes (Senior, 2002).

2.2.2 Forces for Change

An organization’s effectiveness and need for change is largely influenced by the external environment that comprises of major socio-economic, political, legal, technological, and
environmental factors that are beyond the organization’s locus of control. At the same time, spectacular organizational success cannot be achieved without a compatible internal environment characterised by the organization’s human resources, managerial activities and a sound organizational culture. Both the external and internal forces of change have implications for the organization’s success (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

Figure 2.3 Forces for Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Forces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technological Advancements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Automation of work processes and methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Manufacturing automation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market Changes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mergers and acquisitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Economic recessions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and Political Pressures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Societal values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gender relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Environmental concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Legal requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Education and skills levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Immigration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal Forces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Prospects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Expectations and perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Skilled labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Behaviour and attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Staff turnover and job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial Decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Leadership styles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reward systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Structural reorganization and job redesign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Authority relationships and conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spans of evaluation and control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 541).
As stated by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 541), “external forces of change have global effects that may cause an organization to question the essence of what business it is in and the process by which products and services are produced”. The four key external forces for change are discussed as follows:

- **Demographic characteristics**: create workforce diversity. An imperative for organizations to effectively manage the diversity in order to receive maximum contribution and commitment from employees.

- **Technological advancements**: have pushed both manufacturing and service organizations to improve productivity and competitiveness through the use of more efficient methods of production. Computerization of systems integrates product planning, design, control and operation. In the service sector, computerization increases efficiency more through office automation. The development and use of information technology is a major force for change in terms of e-commerce, learning and communication. The major challenge is in the use of available technology as it can be to the company’s detriment or success.

- **Market changes**: are forcing companies to change the way they do business. Companies all over the world are forging new partnerships and alliances the provide organizations with strategic synergies to ensure sustainable competitive advantage against competitors.

- **Social and political pressures**: are mostly exerted through legislative bodies and cultural behaviours that the organization is exposed to.

  (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002: 541-543)

Internal forces for change may be subtle, such as low job satisfaction, or they can manifest themselves in outward signs as low productivity and conflict. As stated by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 543), these forces come from human resource problems and from managerial behaviour and decisions. The internal forces for change are discussed as follows:

- **Human resource problems and prospects**: stem from employee perceptions of the match between individual and organizational needs and desires. Dissatisfaction and absenteeism are symptoms of underlying employee problems that need to be addressed. Organizations
might respond to these problems by using various approaches to job design, reducing employees' role conflict, overload and ambiguity as well as eliminating stressors in the workplace.

- **Managing behaviour and decision**: Expressive interpersonal conflict between managers and their subordinates is a sign that change is needed. Either the manager or the employee may need interpersonal skills training, or the parties should be separated. Inappropriate behaviour shown by leaders, such as inadequate direction or support, may require a change in the response to human resource problems.

The cues that signal the need for change are found by monitoring the forces for change. As stated by Senior (2002:102), most of these forces advocate for:

- **Organization direction**: which can be linked to having a clear strategic vision providing a sense of where the organization must go as an integrated unit.

- **Efficiency**: which balances the costs and benefits of organizational operations. It also tends to encourage standardization and formalization, focusing on rationalization and restructuring.

- **Proficiency**: entails carrying out tasks with high levels of knowledge and skills.

- **Concentration**: means the opportunity for particular units to concentrate their efforts on serving particular markets.

- **Innovation**: encourages the search for new and different ways and procedures of doing things in organizations. It also encourages adaptation and learning.

- **Cooperation**: envisages the pulling together the culture of norms, beliefs and values that knit together people into a harmonious and cooperative entity.
Awareness of these forces can help managers to determine when they should consider implementing organizational change. The internal and external forces of change are often interdependent. A change in one force is likely to create significant changes in other forces. Hence, it is often difficulty to anticipate and plan for every eventuality.

2.2.3 Change Models

The lack of a universal change formula and the complexity of the change task, have led to a number of different descriptive change models. These models are designed to improve our understanding of change and its implications for organizational development. A couple of models that can be used for effective management of the change process will be discussed in this section.

2.2.3.1 Change Kaleidoscope

Most often, the process of changing an organization is a complex and drawn out affair that involves many people, large amounts of resources and time. The greatest challenge facing modern organizations is, therefore, the need to identify appropriate change, to nurture the changes and manage the changes in various aspects of the organization. The change kaleidoscope will be used as a diagnostic framework, which can enable change agents to pinpoint the key contextual features of organizational change, in a simple and timely manner. As indicated by Balogun and Hailey (1999: 14), “the Change Kaleidoscope is a diagnostic framework of the context of organizational change. The outer ring is concerned with the organizational strategic change context, and the inner ring contains the menu of design choices open to the change agent”.

22
The model in Figure 2.4 indicates the design choices and change context which any organization undergoing change, can adopt for effective implementation of their change process.

2.2.3.1.1 Design Choices

A key issue when planning for change implementation is to decide which design choices to make. Balogun and Hailey (1999: 57-93), have indicated that “the Change Kaleidoscope separates the array of choices, that need to be made on any implementation approach, into six categories namely change path, change start point, change style, change target, change roles, and change levers”. These categories have been discussed as follows:

Source: Adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999: 58).
1. Change path

The change path involves the type of change to be undertaken in terms of the nature of the change and desired end result. This category is referred to as distinct from the change type, as in some circumstances it is necessary to undertake an enabling phase of change before it is possible to undertake the actual changes required. Arguably, it is beneficial for the nature of change in an organization to be incremental. In this way it will build on the skills, routines and beliefs of those in the organization, so that change is efficient and likely to win commitment. A ‘big bang’ approach to change might be needed on occasions, for example, if the organization is facing crisis or needs to change direction very fast, but it may in some instances be disruptive and painful (Balogun and Hailey, 1999). The change path can also take the form of planned incremental or evolutionary change or unplanned emergent change as indicated in the table below.

Table 2.1 Types of Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Change</th>
<th>End Result</th>
<th>Transformation</th>
<th>Realignment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incremental</td>
<td>EVOLUTION</td>
<td>ADAPTATION</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big Bang</td>
<td>REVOLUTION</td>
<td>RECONSTRUCTION</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999: 21).

Table 2.1 indicates the end result of change can either be transformational, entailing a change in the organizational culture and structure, driven by the need to remain competitive in the face of better performance by rivals; or realignment referring to a change with the way of doing things that does not involve a fundamental reappraisal of the central assumptions and beliefs within the organization. It may involve a substantial change like a major restructuring. According to Balogun and Hailey, (1999: 20-22), there are four main types of change defined in terms of the end result of change, extent of change required, and the nature of change. The different types of change have been discussed as follows:
- **Evolution**: is transformational change implemented gradually through different stages and interrelated initiatives. It is likely to be planned, proactive transformation, in which change is undertaken by managers in response to their anticipation of the need for future change. Evolution can result from a forced transformation or can occur in a more emergent manner.

- **Revolution**: is fundamental, transformational change that occurs by using simultaneous initiatives on many fronts and often in a relatively short space of time. It is more likely to be a forced, reactive transformation, due to changing competitive conditions faced by the organization.

- **Adaptation**: is less fundamental change implemented slowly through more suggested initiatives.

- **Reconstruction**: is change undertaken to realign the way the organization operates, but in a more dramatic manner. It is concerned with making organizations more efficient and better at what is already being done. Reconstruction is appropriate in organizations undergoing turnaround and re-engineering.

(Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 20-22)

Managers have often been criticised for emphasising short-term, quick-fix solutions to organizational problems. The type of change process selected is most often a result of the evaluation of the degree of complexity, costs, uncertainty and the potential for resistance of change. Not all change is initiated at the same pace. It can be both slow and deliberate or it can be quick and radical (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

**Figure 2.5 Typology of Organizational Change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptive change</th>
<th>Innovative change</th>
<th>Radically innovative change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reintroducing a familiar practice</td>
<td>Introducing a new practice</td>
<td>Introducing a new practice to industry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low Degree of complexity, uncertainty and cost Potential for resistance to change

High

Source: Adapted from Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 544).

25
The typology of change illustrated in Figure 2.5 is generic to all sorts of change that any organization intends to introduce. Adaptive change is lowest in complexity and involves repeating the implementation of change in the same organizational unit later on or imitating a change that was implemented by a different unit. Adaptive changes are not particularly threatening to employees because of their familiarity. Innovative change is characterized by unfamiliarity and a greater uncertainty making the fear of change a problem. Radically innovative change is most difficult to implement and tends to be the most threatening to managerial confidence and employee security. This form of change can tear the fabric of an organization's culture (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

2. Change start point

According to Balogun and Hailey (1999), the change start point refers to point where the change is initiated and developed, which could be summarized simplistically as top-down or bottom-up or rather the locus of control and influence. Balogun and Hailey (1999: 28-39), have further indicated four main approaches to change start point. These are discussed as follows:

- Most of the prescriptive change literature has emphasized on a top-down approach, in which the direction, control and initiation of the changes come from the strategic apex of the organization. It usually involves a programme of change determined and implemented by the top management and their representatives. This directive form of top-down change design has the advantage of being speedy to implement.

- The emergent or bottom-up approach to change has a different starting point and logic to top-down approach. This is partly because of the assumption that the responsibility for change should not lie with the senior managers only, because in certain change contexts a top-down approach may not encourage the needed ownership and commitment to the required changes. This is a highly collaborative approach to change. The process has some drawbacks. As it is an emergent process it can be much slower to mature.

- The prototype approach to change involves implementing change in just one department or by using a new start-up site. This approach can be used to implement technical change of information systems and working processes. The drawbacks are that departmental
change is different, thus, measures used to instigate and manage change in one department may not be appropriate in another.

- **Pockets of good practice** is less well-known. In this approach, an individual in the department at his or her own instigation initiates change in the department. Changes made are more piece-meal and fragmented, since they are not orchestrated from any central point. However, such an approach is limited in that, unless the individual’s attempts are harnessed into some collective initiative for the organization, they will lead to limited change.

3. **Change style**

This involves the management style of implementing the change, such as highly collaborative or more directive management style. Most of the management of change styles will be discussed below under the techniques or strategies for managing resistance to change. These include management of change through education and communication, collaboration, participation and intervention, direction and, lastly, coercion (Balogun and Hailey, 1999). These management styles have been discussed in detail in the section that discusses the different ways of managing resistance to change.

4. **Change target**

Change target refers to the target of the change interventions, in terms of people’s attitudes and values, behaviours or outputs. An important design choice requiring consideration is the different organizational levels at which to intervene. Some change processes concentrate on attempting to change the values of employees, others emphasize behavioural changes, whilst others may only seek to change the performance objectives or outputs of employees (Balogun and Hailey, 1999). According to Robbins and Decenzo (2001), change targets also include significant changes that involve making alterations in one or more of the following key components:

- Changing **organizational structures** includes changes in the pattern of interactions and coordination designed by management to link the tasks of individuals and groups in order to achieve organizational goals. Reorganization of structures is both concerted and
dramatic associated with high performance. Structures must, therefore, be adapted as circumstances change.

- **Technological change** is reflected both in major new products and services and in frequent improvements in current products and services. As technological advancements change work processes, they affect the way jobs are designed and the number of employees and skills required needed to perform certain tasks. Hence, with changes in technology, organizations have to adapt work processes to stay abreast of global competitive forces.

- Bringing about changes in human resources in the workplace is typically aimed at altering the knowledge, skills, perceptions and behaviours needed to do the job. Changing individuals generally relies on training and development activities, supplemented by performance appraisal and reward systems that reinforce the needed behaviours. Frequently, recruitment and selection systems also must be adjusted to reflect the varied needs of individuals with different skills. Changes in such systems are necessary in order to support the effectiveness of alterations made in other organizational components, such as structure and technology.

5. Change roles

According to Balogun and Hailey (1999), change roles refer to change agents who are to assume responsibility for leading and implementing the changes. Change is likely to succeed if someone is responsible for leading that change, although it is accepted that this responsibility cannot reside with just one person. A selected change agent needs to be supported by additional change agents. Major change, however, requires a champion who shows to, and enthusiasm for, the vision she or he wants to see implemented in the organization.

There are a number of ways changes can be managed, although none of them are mutually exclusive. The primary roles of change agents include:

- **Leadership**: The success of the change programme is based on a key pivotal figure such as the company Chief Executive Officer or Managing Director. If the leader is not a senior
executive officer, such a person may need to gain the support of more powerful individuals within the organization if they are to push change through.

- **External facilitation**: External consultants may be appointed to lead the change process. They may be recruited to provide more informative advice on the change path or to assume a more participative role in the process.

- **Change action team**: Comprise of a team of people within the organization who may be appointed to lead the change. This may be in the form of a steering committee or a task force.

- **Functional delegation**: Change responsibility may be assigned to a particular functional department in the organization. This may be appropriate when implementing change limited to a particular function or if the skills needed to manage the change reside within a particular department.

(Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 46)

The choices made are likely to be affected by the scope and timeframe for the changes, the extent of change management skills possessed by the organization’s managers and the availability of organizational personnel who are either knowledgeable about enacting change, or can be trained.

**6. Change levers**

One of the issues facing any change agent is the range of levers and mechanisms to be deployed to effect the change. Organizations are composed of a number of interconnected and interdependent parts or subsystems, and are most effective when the major components are in alignment with each other. Thus, it is difficult to change one part of the organization in isolation of others. Either other parts of the organization with which the changed part interconnects with, counteract the effect of the change, or the change made will force domino change effects in other parts of the organization. Hence, one of the problems organizations face in managing strategic change is effecting changes in organizational culture and selecting a range of levers and mechanisms to use (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).
2.2.3.1.2 Change Context Features

Successful change, by its very nature, depends heavily on context and circumstances. Balogun and Hailey (1999: 59) state that "organizational change context deals with the analysis of the change context features in order to determine which of the features are more critical in any particular organizational context, and how this affects the design choices made". The different organizational context features, namely, time, scope, preservation, diversity, capability, capacity, readiness, and power are discussed as follows:

1. Time

According to Balogun and Hailey (1999: 60), "time is to do with how long the organization has to achieve change". That is, a need for long-term strategies or short-term results. How much time is needed to deliver change should be determined by strategic analysis. Duration of change is most often determined by the nature change required. For instance, an organization in a crisis situation may need reactive rapid turnaround and recovery change process. Alternatively, an organization may need to implement proactive change rapidly, either to preempt fast competitor imitation or to meet changing customer needs. If there is limited time available to the change agent, then some design choices become automatic. Initial change initiatives are likely to involve some type of realignment, probably through a "big bang reconstruction", before the actual change can be implemented. Such a reconstruction is likely to be a more top-down, directive approach and supported by a change leader appointed from within the organization. This is partly due to the fact that there is insufficient time for participative approaches, but also because the crisis may legitimize the action. Because of an awareness of the crisis by all stakeholders, there is likely to be a greater willingness amongst staff to follow top management edicts. In cases where there is no perceived need for change, the change agent may have to force change in order to trigger the realization amongst staff of the inevitability of change (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

However, if there is the luxury of time, this enlarges design choices available to the change agent. For instance, they may wish to map a particular change path whereby the organization starts with one form of change, which, over time develops into another change. Organizations can start with adaptation aimed at increasing the organizational and individual capability for change, and then move into the more fundamental and transformational evolution. Similarly,
when time is not an issue, it is possible to consider change processes, which are educative, participative or collaborative in style. Highly participative or collaborative change processes take time to cascade through an organization. Furthermore, if there is no obvious need for change, such an approach may be needed to gain recognition of the need for, and a buy-in to, change (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

In terms of change targets, when there is ample time available and transformation is required, then it is possible to target values. This, in turn, impacts on the change levers. Longer-term change interventions, especially those intended to aid values and organizational culture changes, include communication, management development programmes and personal development initiatives such as coaching or mentoring. Time also affects the choice of change roles when selecting people to champion the change process, as potential candidates need to be extensively screened for competence and capability. If change agents require a great deal of coaching in change leadership, yet there is not much time available, then support may be needed from external consultants or champions (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

2. Scope

Scope, is the required outcome of the change, varying from realignment through a more radical change aimed at transformation of an organization. Scope is affected by whether the entire organization needs change, or just one division of it. There are two aspects to scope: the depth of the change required in an organization and the physical spread of change across the organization. The depth of change is related to the types of change to be undertaken and the change path to be followed. When considering the depth of change it is necessary to consider whether the desired change involves a transformation, a change which can not be handled within the existing paradigm and organizational routines and entails a change in the taken-for-granted assumptions and “the way of doing things around here”; or a realignment, a change to the way of doing things that does not involve a fundamental reappraisal of the central assumptions and beliefs within the organization. A useful framework that can be used to assess the scope of change required is the Cultural Web (Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 66).

The depth, or extent, of change obviously impacts on the type of change required in terms of adaptation, reconstruction, evolution or revolution, and consequently the choice of change path. However, other contextual features such as time, capacity and capability also affect the
change path. A short time scale points to reconstruction with associated design choices. If the change points to a transformation, then the change path becomes even more complicated as reconstruction needs to be performed first to create the readiness for change, and a need for adaptation through personal development interventions to build capacity and capability for change. The physical spread of change throughout an organization also brings other dimensions into consideration. If, for instance, the change is limited to one functional division or department, then the change is less complex than trying to lead an organization-wide change initiative (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

3. Preservation

Preservation “refers to the extent to which it is essential to maintain continuity in certain practices or preserve specific assets (both tangible and intangible), either because they constitute invaluable resources, or they contribute towards a valued stability or identity within an organization. A key criterion for the change agent is to consider the extent to which there is a need to preserve the status quo within the organization and to decide what should not be preserved” (Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 70). A resource audit can help identify assets that need, or do not need, preservation in terms of their relevance as unique competencies that cannot be imitated by competitors and that provide the organization with a sustainable competitive edge. The organizational Culture Web can be used either to identify resources that need to be change, or to identify resources that need to be retained because they can contribute to future competitiveness or because they can be used to facilitate the change process. More important is the need to analyze resources with great care such that the change process does not lead to loss of unique resources (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

If the preservation of hard to replace assets is important, particularly intangible assets embedded in the existing culture, then a number of design choices become clear. For instance, revolution in which many aspects of the organization are changed simultaneously would be a risky change path. Similarly, a target of outputs could be dangerous as this could lead to unintended behavioural side effects. In the retention of particular staff deemed highly desirable assets in the labour market, change processes should avoid alienating them. As such, a collaborative or educative change style may be a safer route than a directive approach. If the staff values their autonomy and independence, then direction and prescription of behaviours or values is likely to be inappropriate, and it might be that a change target of outputs is more
appropriate. On the other hand, organizations seeking true transformational change will have to give up, or even destroy, features of the organization that in the past might have been assets but are now an impediment to future organizational change (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

4. Diversity

As stated by Balogun and Hailey (1999: 74), “diversity has to do with the degree of differences that exist among the staff groups affected by change. Change may affect groups or divisions with different subcultures or national cultures. Staff may also differ in the way in which they identify with the organization through their teams, jobs, departments, divisions or the whole organization. Professional groups can identify more with their professions than their employing organization”. They further indicate that diversity impacts on the appropriateness of any change approach through:

- The extent to which there is uniformity or diversity in different national cultures or subcultures, as well as professional or occupational groups within the organization.

- The impact of the sources of diversity on staff loyalty and commitment to the overall organization.

- The extent to which the change agent wishes to reduce or increase levels of diversity as part of the intended outcomes of the change process.

The globalization of business across different countries presents serious implications of diversity not only to change programmes, but to organizational procedures of doing business. However, if diversity is based around different national cultures only, then a target of value led change can cross these boundaries. Likewise, common output targets can be prescribed across the globe. High levels of diversity have implications for change roles as staff members can identify more with the head of their department, staff divisions and staff trade unions, than with the management of the organization. Therefore, in identifying change leaders it may be wise to devolve responsibility down to business unit heads. It is also unwise to unfurl a change process across the organization if there is high diversity among department and staff divisions (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).
5. Capability

Capability assesses how good the organization is at managing change. Aspects that require consideration include the location of change expertise and how much change the organization has been exposed to in the past, and the degree of expertise for handling change at an individual, managerial or departmental level (Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 79). It is important to question whether the organization possesses the necessary skills and abilities to manage change before embarking on change design and implementation. A change agent should not design an implementation process that the organization is incapable of delivering.

Capabilities need to exist at three levels: the individual level, managerial level and organizational level. Individual capability is about the ability of individuals within an organization to manage change within themselves, as change can be an overwhelming experience. The more reflective the individuals are, the more they can learn from the experience and hopefully be able to better manage the process if it reoccurs. Learning about individual change is part of personal development. This involves individual staff members developing a competence for handling change at a very personal and emotional level in order for their reactions not to affect organizational activities. Managerial capability is about managers being able to coach, counsel and prepare staff members for the change process and to better handle the change. Managers should, therefore, have the appropriate communication skills to convey the need and benefits of the change to the staff, so as to win their support. Organizational capability involves the ability to establish change units throughout the organization as well as the ability of top management to handle change appropriately (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

Capability is difficult to assess in the short-term, as it requires a resource audit, which may be time consuming. As a result, may affect the choice of change levers. Selected change levers requires the staff in the human resources function to possess both an operational excellence in areas of recruitment, selection, and reward systems and a strategic understanding of the power of these systems as change mechanisms.
6. Capacity

Capacity considers how much resource the organization can invest in the proposed change both in terms of cash and staff, and how much time managers have to devote to the change. Many of the programmes written up as showcase pieces, feature large corporations undertaking change. The danger is that small to medium sized enterprises try to mimic these large programmes without the necessary capacity available for investment in initiatives. The result can be over ambitious changes announced at senior management level, which fizzles out at lower levels because there is no means to manage a big-bang change. It is, therefore, necessary to conduct a resource audit in order to establish whether there are sufficient resources to support the change in terms of finance, time and staff (Balogun and Hailey, 1999:83-85).

Cash capacity affects the choice of change path, as some change initiatives can be very expensive, especially if they involve restructuring of organizational structures and technology. Likewise, value led change, if it is to be successful, involves a heavy investment in the communication, training, education and personal development change levers that will need to be used to achieve the target value-driven change. Investment is needed in the form of managerial time and money. A change target of outputs may be cheaper in terms of both time and money, but may fail to deliver the change that is needed (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

Choosing the right people for the key roles in change management also raises questions of capacity. The chief executive may be the company’s most charismatic leader, but if she or he does not have time to devote to the leadership of the change process, then alternative candidates need to be considered. If the company has little time but does have finance, then there is the option of bringing in an external change consultant to help manage the change or assembling an internal action team to lead the change process (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

7. Readiness

Readiness for change “is to do with how aware staff is of the need for change and how willing and motivated they are towards the change. It also has to do with how much support there is for the change and the extent of understanding of the scope of change needed. Staff can be
aware at a rational level of the need for change but be unprepared at an emotional level to embrace change personally” (Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 85).

Management of organizations should be able to read the signals of change well in advance to be able to respond effectively and competitively to the changing environment. Healthy organizations with excellent profits and high staff satisfaction, are faced the problem of how to demonstrate the need and benefits for change to all employees at different levels. However, at times people may understand the necessity for change but may not be committed or motivated to change because of the failure to understand their gains from it. Assessment of an organization’s readiness for change can be made formally through mechanisms such as staff attitude surveys or more informally through focus groups (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

Implication on the change path are such that if the organization has a complacent workforce, the change may need to take a change path that is “big-bang” in nature but only to achieve realignment rather than transformation for the organization. This high impact change design may be necessary in order to shake staff out of their complacency in readiness for a subsequent, more fundamental, change initiative. If personal change is not perceived as necessary by staff when it is this impacts on the change style. Merely directing staff to change may be insufficient. Change leaders may need to lead a participative or collaborative campaign, which engages the personalities of the staff involved (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

Change agents need to accept that even if change is understood but perceived of little gain, some employees may resist the change and contemplate voluntary or compulsory exits from the organization. Likewise, a top-down approach to change should be avoided in cases of low readiness. In such cases, change levers to be considered when there is low readiness for change or a low recognition of the need for personal change include personal development courses for senior managers and other levels of staff, which encourage them to recognize the need for change (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

8. Power

Power examines where power is vested within an organization. It has also to do with the identification of major stakeholders, individuals or departments which hold power in the organization. Other issues include whose support must be canvassed and how much self-
discretion the change unit possesses. Power can be understood from two perspectives: the personal power exercised with organizations by individuals or groups of people, and the power of the organization to determine its future (Balogun and Hailey, 1999: 91). Understanding personal power and politics within an organization and identifying major powerbrokers, is critical before any change design can be made. Even the best choice of design may not be achievable because of powerful coalitions that may block the change because of hidden agendas.

In organizational terms, a useful way of assessing who has the power and their position in the proposed change is to conduct a stakeholder analysis. This analysis enables change agents to consider what they can do to gain support for their proposed changes from those who have power and are either against the proposed changes or are ambivalent about them. It also enables the consideration of how weaker stakeholders who are for the proposed changes can be used to help endorse change (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

Power also influences the change path chosen. For instance, in cases where a business division badly needs to be transformed, such transformation can be prevented because of more powerful divisions. Furthermore, powerful individuals can block the change path in the same manner. A powerful chief executive officer or top management, who feels a potential threat from the proposed change, can squash the plan for transformation in favour of more modest realignment routes. Equally, a powerful change agent can insist on a change process, which is disproportionately large in comparison with the problem it is trying to address (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

Powerful individuals such as managing directors can push through top-down and directive change. However, where the change agent has identified more powerful groups within the organization whose support and commitment is needed, then a more collaborative style may be appropriate. Power is also critical in assigning roles within a change process. If a change champion is to be appointed then management should pick a powerful leader or provide the individual with powerful backing support. Other powerful stakeholders need to be identified and incorporated into the change process, particularly if these groups could be obstructive to the change. Specific change levers to deal with power struggles includes techniques such as breaking and re-forming both formal and informal power structures within organizations,
using the existing cliques, networks and those with influence to gain buy-in for change, and resistance management (Balogun and Hailey, 1999).

2.2.3.2 The Culture Web

Each organization has its own distinctive culture. An organization’s culture develops over many years and is rooted in deeply held values to which employees are strongly committed. According to Hofstede (1984), organizational culture refers to the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. He also refers to culture as the way of doing things within the organization. These are rules and guidelines that instruct members of the organization how to participate, what to do, what not to do and when and how to do it. Hofstede identified four areas of work related value systems that denote an organization’s culture. These are:

- **Power distance:** is the extent to which hierarchy at work is seen either an irreducible fact of life, or it is not.

- **Uncertainty avoidance:** is the degree of tolerance for rule-breaking and the extent to which members feel threatened by behaviours which embrace or reject formal rules.

- **Individualism/collectivism:** is the extent to which work within the organization is done individually or is centred on managed groups or teams.

- **Masculinity/femininity:** is the degree to which some goals are more important than others at work, such as, pay and assertiveness or friendliness and good relations with the boss.

Robbins (2000: 510) refers to organizational culture as “a system of shared meaning held by members of the organization that distinguishes the organization from other organizations.” This system of shared meaning is, on closer examination, a set of key characteristics that the organization values. He identified seven primary characteristics that, in aggregate, capture the essence of an organization’s culture. These characteristics are:
• **Innovation and risk taking:** The degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and risk takers.

• **Attention to detail:** The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail.

• **Outcome orientation:** The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes.

• **People orientation:** The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organization.

• **Team orientation:** The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals.

• **Aggressiveness:** The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going.

• **Stability:** The degree to which organizational activities emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

(Robbins, 2000: 510)

Each of these characteristics is measured on a continuum of the degree of prevalence. Appraising the organization on these seven characteristics gives a composite picture of the organization’s culture. This picture becomes the basis for feelings of shared understanding that members have about the organization, how things are done in it and the way members are expected to behave.

The Cultural Web can be used as a means of identifying blockages to and facilitators of change, and required changes in culture. It can also be used as a device for mapping organizational culture. As argued by Ambrosini, Johnson and Scholes (1998: 138), there are a number of reasons that indicate the importance of mapping organizational culture to achieve a successful change process. Some of the reasons are:
• Surfacing that which is taken for granted in organizations can be a useful way of questioning what is normally rarely questioned. If no one ever questions what is taken for granted then, inevitably change will be difficult.

• By mapping aspects of organizational culture it may be possible to see where barriers to change exist.

• It may also be possible to see where there are linkages in the aspects of organizational culture, which are resistant to change.

• A map of organizational culture can also provide a basis for examining the changes that need to occur to deliver a new strategy.

• Culture mapping can be used to determine whether changes in the organization can actually be managed. In this way practical ideas for implementing change can be developed.

Figure 2.6 The Culture Web of an Organization

Source: Adapted from Johnson and Scholes (1999), in Balogun and Hailey (1999: 48).
The Culture Web in Figure 2.6 is used to indicate the type of change in the organization and how the change is to be effected. Change requires all norms-carriers in the organization from top management to support staff to participate in the same commitment to change. This gives all members a common and shared framework within which to think about, discuss and practice the fullest possible mobilization of human resources for effective performance within the organization. To manage an organization’s culture, people must comprehend and effectively manage the conditions that promote involvement, commitment and dedication.

2.2.3.2.1 Elements of the Culture Web

The eight elements of the Culture Web discussed below have been adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999: 231) and Johnson and Scholes (1999: 231-235). These are:

- **The paradigm** as stated by (Balogun and Hailey, 1999), is the set of assumptions about the organization, which are held in common and taken for granted in the organization. The paradigm is often intermingled with competing patterns of “how we do things around here”. Within the paradigm, culture is seen as elusive, intangible, implicit and, as said taken, for granted. Every organization develops its own core set of assumptions, understandings, and implicit rules that govern day-to-day behaviour in the workplace. Until newcomers learn the rules, they are not accepted as fully-fledged members of the organization. Transgressions of the rules on the part of high-level executives or front-line employees results in universal disapproval and penalties. Conformity to the rules becomes a primary basis for reward and upward mobility.

The paradigm can, therefore, be used to conduct a gap analysis or overall path of strategic change particularly to diagnose where the organization is, where it is headed and how it will get there. That is, to conduct a gap analysis before introducing changes.
The Gap Analysis model in Figure 2.7 is less concerned with the fact that there is a gap between things, but rather, with how to close the gap. Having recognized that a gap exists, managers need to develop strategies that will close this gap, manage the process of change, and finally monitor the process to ensure that the same gap does not reappear. Changing organizational structures, power structures and control systems in order to close the existing gap will not necessarily bring about a paradigm shift. Much effort should be put into bringing about changes in the other elements of the Culture Web (Ambrosini, Johnson and Scholes, 1998).

- **Routine ways** are the ways in which members of the organization behave towards each other and that link different parts of the organization. These are the “way we do things around here” which, at their best, lubricate the work of the organization and may provide a distinctive and beneficial organizational competence. However, they can also represent a taken-for-grantedness about how things should happen which is extremely difficult to change and highly protective of core assumptions.

- **Rituals** of organizational life, such as training programmes, promotion and assessment, point of what is important in the organization, reinforce ‘the way we do things around here’ and signal what is essentially valued.

- **Stories** told by members of the organization to each other, to outsiders, to new recruits and so on, embed the present in its organizational history and flag important events and personalities, as well as mavericks who deviate from the norm.
Other symbolic aspects of the organization include logos, offices, cars and titles, or the type of language and terminology commonly used. These symbols become a shorthand representation of the nature of the organization.

The formalized control systems, measurements and reward systems that monitor, and therefore, emphasize what is important in the organization, and focus attention to organization’s core activities.

Power structures are also likely to be associated with the key constructs of the paradigm. The most powerful managerial groupings in the organization are likely to be the ones most associated with core assumptions and beliefs about what is important.

In turn, the formal organization structure, or the informal ways in which the organization works, is likely to reflect power structures and again, delineate important relationships and emphasize what is important in the organization.

(Balogun and Hailey (1999: 231), and Johnson and Scholes (1999: 231-235)

The design choices should always be considered separately for each change initiative, in order to avoid the use of change recipes involving particular combinations of choices in inappropriate situations.

Changing an organization’s culture is extremely difficult, but cultures can be changed. According to Senior (2002), culture change is most likely if all, or most, of the following conditions exist:

- A dramatic crisis that undermines the status quo and calls into question the relevance of the current culture. The crises can be characterised by financial setbacks, loss of major customers or a dramatic technological breakthrough by competitors.

- Turnover in leadership through the appointment of a new leader. New leadership can provide an alternative set of key values, maybe perceived as more capable of responding to the crisis.
- **The younger the organization** is, the less entrenched its culture will be. Similarly, it is easier for management to communicate its new values when the organization is small.

- **Weak cultures** are more amenable to change than stronger ones. The more widely held a culture is, and the higher the agreement among members on its values, the more difficult it will be to change.

If a combination of the preceding conditions exists, the following may lead to change: new stories and rituals need to be set in place by top management; employees should be selected and promoted who espouse the new values; the reward systems need to be changed to support the new values; and current sub-cultures need to be undermined through transfers, job rotation and terminations. It is, however, important to note that, even under the best of conditions, these actions may not result in an immediate or dramatic shift in the cultural change. This is because, in the final analysis, cultural change is a lengthy process measured in years rather than months. *But organizational cultures can be changed!* (Senior, 2002).

### 2.2.3.3 A Systems Model of Change

As stated by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buehrens (2002: 545) “systems approach to change takes a “big picture” perspective of organizational change. It is based on the notion that any change, no matter how large or small, has a cascading effect throughout the organization. This model offers managers a framework for understanding the broad complexities of organizational change”. The three main components of the systems model are: inputs, target elements of change and outputs.
As can be seen in Figure 2.8, change involves the interaction of all systems within the organization. These systems may interact in ways, which will either facilitate or inhibit change. A key factor in managing change effectively is to understand the interaction of these systems.

With regards to inputs, all organizational changes should be consistent with an organization’s mission, vision and resulting strategic plan. The mission statement should represent the reason an organization exists while the vision should define the long-term goals that describe what the organization wants to become. The strategic plan should be based on the consideration of the organization’s strength and weaknesses relative to its environmental opportunities and
threats. This comparison results in the development of an organizational strategy to attain desired outputs such as efficiency, customer satisfaction, and quality, return on investment, acceptable levels of staff turnover and employee commitment, as well as profits.

The target elements of change can be directed at realigning organizing arrangements, social factors, methods, goals or people. The choice of target elements of change, therefore, should be based on the strategy being pursued or the organizational problem at hand. It is important to note that people are the hub of any change process. Change will not succeed unless people embrace it.

Outputs represent the desired end results of the change process. These results should be consistent with the strategic plan. Change may, thus, be directed at the organizational level, departmental level or group level.

(Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002)

2.2.3.4 Organizational Development

No discussion of management of change would be complete without the inclusion of organizational development (OD). OD is not an easily defined concept. Robbins (2000: 553) defines OD as “a term used to encompass a collection of planned change interventions built on humanistic and democratic values that seek to improve organizational effectiveness and employee well-being”. OD is a process of facilitation of planned organizational change and renewal. OD is considered an activity designed to facilitate long-term organization-wide changes. Its focus is to change the attitudes and values of organizational members so that they can readily and competently adapt to, and be more effective in achieving, the new directions of the organization. OD is used mainly to change the organization’s culture. It can also be defined as a process by which behavioural knowledge and practices are used to help organizations achieve greater effectiveness, including improved quality of life, increased productivity and improved product and service quality. The focus being on improving the organization’s ability to assess and solve its own problems. OD can take the form of survey feedbacks, process consultation, team building and inter-group development (Robbins, 2000, and Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001).
As further defined by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 548), "organizational development is concerned with helping managers to plan change in organizing and managing people that will develop the requisite commitment, coordination and competence. Its purpose is to enhance both the effectiveness of organizations and human well-being of their members through planned interventions in the organizations human processes structures and systems, using knowledge of behavioural science and its intervention methods". OD techniques of intervention apply to all the change models that have been discussed above, especially in Lewin's model of initiating and controlling change and where it is also used to identify and implement targeted elements of change within the systems model of change. It can also be used in the sequential steps to leading organizational change.

The OD paradigm values human and organizational growth, collaborative and participative processes, and a spirit of inquiry. The change agent may be directive in OD; however, there is a strong emphasis on collaboration. Concepts as power, authority, control, conflict, and coercion are held in relatively low esteem among OD change agents (Robbins, 2000: 553). Robbins identified the underlying values in most OD efforts. These are:

- **Respect for people.** Individuals are perceived as being responsible, conscientious and caring. They should be treated with dignity and respect.

- **Trust and support.** The effective and healthy organization is characterised by trust, authenticity, openness, and a supportive climate.

- **Power equalization.** Effective organizations de-emphasize hierarchical authority and control.

- **Confrontation.** Problems should not be disregarded or ignored. They should be openly confronted.

- **Participation.** The more that people who will be affected by a change are involved in the decisions surrounding that change, the greater their commitment to the implementation of those decisions.
Robbins (2000: 554-556) further identified five OD techniques that change agents can use in the management of organizational change.

- **Sensitivity training.** This is a method of changing behaviour through a process of unstructured group interaction. Members are brought together in a free and open environment in which participants discuss themselves and their interactive processes, loosely directed by a professional behavioural scientist. The objective of the intervention is to increase sensitivity to the behaviour of others and increase understanding of group dynamics and behaviours.

- **Survey feedback.** This is a tool for assessing attitudes held by organizational members identifying discrepancies among member perceptions and solving the differences. This approach can be administered by use of a questionnaire circulated and completed by organizational members.

- **Process consultation.** No organization operates perfectly. Managers often sense that their unit’s performance can be improved, but they are unable to identify what can be improved and how it can be improved. A consultant is normally appointed to assist management to perceive, understand and act upon process events. This might include workflow, informal relationships among unit members and formal communication channels. Process consultation is similar to sensitivity training in its assumption that organizational effectiveness can be improved by dealing with interpersonal problems and in its emphasis on involvement. Process consultation is more tasks directed than sensitivity training.

- **Team building.** Organizations are increasingly relying on work teams to accomplish work tasks. Team building utilizes high-interaction group activities to increase trust and openness among team members where activities are interdependent.

- **Inter-group development.** This is a process that seeks to change the attitudes, stereotypes, and perceptions that groups or departments have of each other within the organization.

Through successful OD a company can turn into a learning organization that has through time and effort, developed the continuous capacity to adapt and change for a sustained existence.
2.3 MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

More and more organizations today are facing a dramatic and changing environment. This, in turn, is requiring organizations to adapt. “Change or die!” is the rallying cry among today’s managers worldwide (Keller, 1998). The introduction of change is not only a threat to managerial personnel but also to non-managerial personnel. As stated by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 551), “no matter how technically or administratively perfect a proposed change may be, people either make or break it”. This is because “most people hate change that does not jingle in their pockets or bring about personal advancement” (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001: 235). Many targets or victims of change are cynical about its motives, relevance and processes. Cynicism about organizational change combines pessimism about the likelihood of successful change with blame, with those responsible for change being seen as incompetent, uncaring or simply lazy. According to Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 551), “change management, therefore, refers to the process, tools and techniques to manage the people side of business change to achieve the required business outcomes and to realize that businesses change effectively within the social infrastructure of the workplace”.

2.3.1 Why People Resist Change in the Workplace

Every manager or leader is familiar with employees who resist change. Sometimes it may be easy to see why: employees fear a shift in power, the need to learn new skills and the stress of having to join a new team. In other cases such resistance is far more puzzling. Employees may have the skills and smarts to make a change with ease, have strong commitment to the company, genuinely support the change, and yet inexplicably do nothing (Keller, 1998).

The continuum of resistance to change in Table 2.2 indicates how different individuals in the organization are likely to react to change. Resistance to change does not necessarily surface in uniform ways. Resistance can be overt, implicit, immediate or deferred. It is easier for management to deal with resistance when it is overt and immediate. For instance, a change is proposed and employees quickly respond by voicing complaints and engaging in a work slowdown, threatening to go on strike, or the like. The greater challenge is management resistance that is implicit or deferred. Implicit resistance efforts are subtler and may result in loss of loyalty to the organization, loss of motivation to work, increased errors or mistakes, increased absenteeism. This resistance is difficult to recognize. Similarly, deferred actions
cloud the link between the source of the resistance and the reaction to it. A change may produce what appears to be only a minimal reaction at the time it is initiated, but resistance surfaces weeks, months or even years later. Individual and group behaviour following an organizational change can take many forms. The extremes range from passive acceptance to active resistance to change (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002).

**Table 2.2 Continuum of Resistance to Change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acceptance</th>
<th>Indifference</th>
<th>Passive resistance</th>
<th>Active Resistance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Enthusiasm, Co-operation</td>
<td>-Apathy, loss of interest in job</td>
<td>-Regressive behaviour</td>
<td>-Slowing down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Co-operation under pressure from management</td>
<td>-Doing only what is ordered</td>
<td>-Non-learning and work to rule</td>
<td>-Personal withdrawal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Acceptance</td>
<td></td>
<td>-Protests and doing little as possible</td>
<td>-Increased absenteeism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Passive resignation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Spoilage a and continuous errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Deliberate sabotage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002:552).

The continuum of resistance to change in Table 2.2, does not necessarily imply that people are opposed to working any harder or that they are hostile to the organization’s change efforts, but shows that resistance to change can be as subtle as passive resignation and as overt as deliberate sabotage. As stated by Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002: 551), managers, therefore, “need to learn to recognize the manifestations of resistance, both in themselves and in others, if they want to be more effective in creating and supporting change”.

Despite the best efforts of senior executives, major change initiatives often fail. Those failures have at least one common root: executives and employees see change differently. For senior managers, change means opportunity for the business and themselves. But for many employees, change is seen as disruptive, intrusive and not necessarily for their benefit.
Robbins and DeCenzo (2001), Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002) and Brookes (1980), have identified various reasons why people resist change. These reasons are as follows:

- **Lack of status and job security.** Administrative and technological changes that threaten to alter power bases or eliminate jobs, generally trigger strong resistance. For example, most corporate restructuring involves the elimination of managerial jobs. One cannot, therefore, be surprised when middle management resists restructuring and participative management programmes that reduce their authority status.

- **An individual’s predisposition towards change.** This predisposition is highly personal and deeply ingrained. It reflects an offshoot of how people have learned to handle change through socialization.

- **Change constitutes ambiguity and uncertainty of the unknown.** When change is introduced without adequate awareness, affected employees become fearful of the implications. This arouses feelings of insecurity as change is viewed as a threat. Groups may have adopted work patterns which have been accepted previously and which nobody may want to change. It is these customs and practices, and probably not the job, which change threatens.

- **Misunderstanding and lack of trust.** Mutual mistrust can doom otherwise well conceived change to failure. Mistrust encourages secrecy, which begets deeper mistrust. Managers who trust employees make the change process an open, honest and participative affair. On the other hand, employees who trust management are more willing to expend extra effort and take chances with new initiatives.

- **Belief that change instituted is not good for the organization.** This occurs when there is belief that the change being instituted will be harmful to the organization or it is not compatible with the goals of the organization. At other times, it may be felt that the change is only done for the benefit of certain individuals at the expense of the organization.
• **Peer pressure and personality conflicts.** People not directly affected by change may actively resist it to protect the interest of co-workers.

• **Fear of failure.** Intimidating changes to a job can cause employees to doubt their capabilities. Self-doubt erodes self-confidence and cripples personal growth development.

• There may be fear of a **decline and fall in earnings** due to a loss of personal control over certain working practices and procedures, which may be taken over by management. This may lead to manipulation of payment systems in order to ensure that counteracting the loss of certain informally held powers of initiative and discretion preserves earnings.

• **Self-interest and non-reinforcing reward systems.** Individuals resist change when they do not foresee positive rewards for changing. For instance, employees are unlikely to support change that is perceived as requiring longer work hours and more work pressure, without clearly indicated rewards.

• Most changes tend to **disturb interpersonal relations** as far as the influence and control element is concerned in working relations. Disruption of cultural traditions and group relationships creating conflicts of interest. This occurs mainly when innovations and changes in work procedures call for changes in working arrangements which breakdown previously established social ties. It also occurs whenever individuals are transferred, promoted or reassigned and cultural and group dynamics are thrown into disequilibrium.

• **Lack of tact or poor timing.** Undue resistance can occur because changes are introduced in an insensitive manner or at an inopportune time.

  (Robbins and DeCenzo (2001), Kreitner, Kinicki and Buclens (2002) and Brookes (1980))

Despite the reasons for resistance that have been outlined above, research indicates a growing belief that resistance to change represents the employees’ responses to obstacles in the organization that prevent them from changing. For instance, in research conducted by Kotter (1999), it was found that obstacles in the organization’s structure or in a performance appraisal system impede change more than the individual’s direct resistance. This new
perspective implies that a systems approach to change should be used to determine the causes of failed change.

Resistance to change does not always reflect opposition nor is it merely a result of change. Even when people unwittingly apply productive energy towards a hidden competing commitment, the resulting dynamic equilibrium stalls the effort in what looks like resistance but is in fact a kind of personal immunity to change (Kegan and Lahey, 2001).

2.3.2 Techniques for Reducing Resistance to Change

Leading major organizational change often involves radically reconfiguring a complex network of people, tasks and institutions that have modus operandi, no matter how dysfunctional it may appear. This most often results in some form of employee resistance. Most often resistance to change hinders the success of the change process. Hence, the ability to maintain perspective in the midst of action is critical to lowering resistance.

According to Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, (2002: 554-555), before making any recommendations for overcoming resistance to change, there are four important factors that should be kept in mind. Firstly, an organization must be ready for change. Secondly, organizational change is less successful when top management fails to keep employees continually informed about the change process. Thirdly management should not assume that employees are resisting change consciously and lastly, employees’ perceptions and interpretation of change affects resistance significantly. Ensuring adaptation to change is an essential feature of a manager’s job when faced with demands and pressure from the organization to improve operating capability and performance efficiency.

Robbins and DeCenzo, (2001), Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, (2002), and Balogun and Hailey (1999), suggest some tactics that can be used by change agents in dealing with resistance to change. These tactics are reviewed in the section that follows:

- **Education and communication.** Resistance can be reduced through communicating with employees to help them see the logic and necessity for change. This tactic assumes that the source of resistance is due to misinformation or poor communication. The communication, therefore, entails the explanation of the reasons for, and means of,
strategic change. It also involves convincing employees of the need for change, gaining their commitment and support. This may involve more than just talking to employees, and could include sending employees on a benchmarking visit to other organizations to learn how things could be done better. It should involve continuous communication at all steps of the change process. Communication can be achieved through discussions, workshops, seminars, circulars or memos, group presentations and reports. Communication is easily confused with participation. However, communication and education are more to do with equipping employees with an understanding, which enables them to undertake personal change that is supportive of the organizational change goals. This style of leading change is problematic, in that it can be difficult to generate commitment to action from it. Workshops and seminars may be seen as interesting exercises to generate awareness but may not translate into commitment to action. It is also time consuming if a lot of people are involved and the direction or progress may be unclear.

- **In collaboration**, there is a widespread involvement of employees in both what to change and how to deliver the needed changes. Employees are asked to contribute to both the goals set for change and the means of achieving the goals. With collaboration, the intention is to maintain consultation with employees about how to deliver the desired change. This may be done through workshops, focus groups, or any type of participative face-to-face interactive meetings. The principle behind collaboration is that the more employees are involved, the more likely they are to support and be committed to the changes that they have helped design, and the more likely they are also to sell those changes to others in the organization. Furthermore, collaboration may be used, not only to determine what to change and how, but also to create awareness of the need for change by challenging complacency within the organization. Collaboration is time-consuming. It is very effective if the aim is to achieve incremental or long-term transformational change.

- **Participation** is a form of limited collaboration efforts. The principle that involvement will equal greater commitment still underpins this approach to change. It is difficult for individuals to resist a change decision in which they have participated. Prior to making a change, those opposed to it can be brought into the decision process. Assuming that the participants have expertise to make a meaningful contribution, their involvement can reduce resistance, obtain commitment and increase the quality of the change decision. However, it is more of consultation than complete collaboration. Employees are allowed
limited involvement in certain areas of change, such as how the desired changes can be
achieved. Obviously, this change style enables management to retain greater control over
the outcomes of the change process as they are setting the overall goals, if not the means
of achieving the goals. Unfortunately, it may be seen by employees as manipulation, an
attempt to pay lip service to employee involvement, particularly if participation is limited
or employees are told what outcome is expected from the forum. Participation can be very
time-consuming if participators are to design an inappropriate change model. In most
cases it may, however, lead to changes in solutions within existing paradigm. It can best
be used for incremental or non-crises transformational change situations.

- **Facilitation and Support.** Change agents can offer a range of supportive efforts to reduce
resistance. When employees' fear and anxiety are high, employee counselling and therapy,
new skills training, or a short, paid leave of absence may facilitate the adjustment. The
drawback of this tactic is that it is very time-consuming and is an expensive exercise.
Furthermore its implementation offers no assurance of success.

- **Negotiation.** Another way for the change agent to deal with potential resistance to change,
is to exchange something of value for a lessening of the resistance. For instance, if
resistance is centred with a few powerful individuals, a specific reward package can be
negotiated that will meet their individual needs. Negotiation as a tactic may be necessary
when resistance comes from a powerful source. Yet one cannot ignore its potentially high
costs. Additionally, there is the risk that, once a change agent negotiates with one party to
avoid resistance, he or she is open to the possibility of being blackmailed by other
individuals in positions of power.

- **Manipulation and Co-optation.** Manipulation refers to the influential attempts to twist
and distort facts to make them appear more attractive, withholding undesirable
information, and creating false rumours to get employees to accept a change, are examples
of manipulation. Co-optation, on the other hand, is a form of both manipulation and
participation. It seeks to "buy off" the leaders of a resistance group by giving them a key
role in the change decision. The leaders’ advice is sought, not to seek a better decision, but
to get their endorsement. Both manipulation and co-optation are relatively inexpensive
and easy ways to gain the support of adversaries, but the tactics can backfire if the targets
become aware they that they are being tricked or used. Once discovered, the change agent's credibility may drop to zero.

- **Direction** involves the use of personal managerial authority to establish a clear future strategy and how change will occur. Those leading change make the majority of decisions about what to change and how, and use their authority to direct the achievement of change. This approach separates the thinkers from the doers. The thinkers come up with change ideas and then sell them to the thinkers, who to implement the plans and the ideas developed by the doers. Direction lacks adequate employee consultation and involvement. This might create more resistance to the proposed changes. It is, however, less time consuming and provides a clear direction and focus that is effective for transformational change.

- **Coercion** is an extension of direction. It is the application of direct threats of force upon resisters to change. Here, change is imposed on staff rather than staff having an idea of change sold to them. It is a way of achieving rapid change but it may lead to greater resistance. It may be successful in crisis, rapid transformational change, change in established autocratic structures or state of confusion as it allows for prompt action. (Robins and DeCenzo (2001), Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002) and Balogun and Hailey (1999).

The description of the different change styles suggests a contingency approach to selecting the appropriate style. What matters is matching the style to the internal and external context of the organization. Hence, managers are encouraged to use a systems model of change to identify obstacles that are affecting the implementation process.

### 2.4 Leadership Styles and Their Implications for the Management of Change

Leadership and management are two terms that are often confused. Kotter (1999), argues that management is about coping with complexity. Good management brings about order and consistency by drawing up formal plans, designing rigid organizational structures, and monitoring results against plans. Leadership, in contrast, is about coping with change. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future. Then they align people by
communicating the vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. Planned organizational change requires an appropriate form of leadership style.

Leadership as defined by Robbins (2000: 314), “is the ability to influence people toward the achievement of set objectives and goals. The source of this influence can be formal such as that provided by the possession of managerial rank in an organization”. Not all leaders are good managers, nor are all managers good leaders. Just because organizations provide their managers with certain formal rights, this is no assurance that they will be able to lead effectively. In today’s dynamic business environment, organizations need strong leadership and strong management for optimum effectiveness. Strong leaders are needed to challenge the organization’s status quo, to create visions of the future and to inspire organizational members to achieve the visions. Managers are in turn, needed to formulate detailed plans, create efficient organizational structures, and oversee day-to-day operations (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001).

This section discusses the approach to management of change as influenced by different leadership styles, and the likely effects on the extent of organizational change success. The importance of strategic leadership is to determine where the organization is going, where to invest resources, how to develop a competitive strategic advantage and selecting right working teams.

The logic behind the evaluation of the different leadership approaches is to create some understanding of what makes some people more effective as leaders, merely by assessing their behaviour and influence as leaders. It is also to assess the appropriateness of different leadership styles as applied to different situations and their implications for organizational success.

2.4.1 The Trait Theory of Leadership

During the first half of the twentieth century, the prevailing belief was that “leaders were born not made” (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002: 452). Researchers, therefore, sought to understand leadership by comparing leaders with followers, and effective leaders with ineffective leaders. This search for features, or traits, of leaders was prompted by a belief that leaders somehow possessed distinguishing traits that set them apart from other people.
Several traits have been identified and these include intelligence, analytical reasoning ability, creativity, specific cognitive ability, task persistence, tolerance of interpersonal stress, enthusiastic, charismatic, and courageous, self-confidence, and the ability to influence others' behaviours. The trait approach has a number of limitations. There are no universal traits that can predict leadership in all situations. Rather, traits tend to appear to predict leadership in selected situations. Traits predict behaviour more in weak situations than strong situations. The evidence of the trait theories is unclear in separating causes from effects. Also, traits are more effective in predicting the appearance of leadership than in actually distinguishing between effective and ineffective leaders (Robbins, 2000). These limitations led researchers to look in other directions.

As stated by Kroon (1990: 361-362), the following are some of the qualities that characterize good leaders:

- **Physical and mental health.** A constructive spirit can control a frail constitution and generate boundless energy.

- **Healthy life-view.** A constructive rather than cynical viewpoint is necessary for success. The successful person gets more out of life than he gives, while the man of value gives more than he receives.

- **Dedication to a cause.** An idealistic striving for something worthwhile is a struggle for the heart and mind of man.

- **Unselfishness.** A spirit of service: “If some wants to be first, he must be the last to of everyone and everyone's servant”.

- **Enthusiasm.** The heart is the source of enthusiasm; it creates the drive and acceptance of responsibility.

- **Intelligence and knowledge.** A sound mind, good judgment, thorough knowledge, continual study and endless attention create geniality.
• **Humble self-confidence.** The leader's belief in himself and his task creates self-confidence.

• **Eloquence.** The leader should convey his cause with enthusiasm clearly, forcibly and effectively in order to inspire.

• **Courage.** Great men in history displayed great moral courage and pluck.

• **Will power and purposefulness.** Will power to persevere alone, and purposefulness through long working hours and sleepless nights are the cost of leadership.

• **Adaptability and flexibility.** Flexibility and adaptability result in sober assessment and admission of mistakes, an ability to distinguish autocracy, democracy and “just let go” leadership and to act accordingly.

• **Creativity, vision and initiative.** Vision inspires imagination, foresees problems and results in facing them with initiative.

• **Sound intellect and balanced judgment.** Intelligence and experience create a balanced judgment and insight regarding what is or is not possible.

• **Understanding and insight into people.** The ability to put oneself in another’s position is the basis of understanding and knowledge of human nature, man’s motives and ambitions, and strengths and weaknesses. This helps a leader choose and utilize suitable personnel.

• **Organizing, delegating and trust.** The practical dreamer and realistic optimist who manages and leads should have the ability to organize, delegate and to trust.

• **Decisiveness.** The true leader is decisive and can say “yes” or “no”.

• **Character.** Honesty pays in the long run, reliability is proven as time passes, integrity creates trust, loyalty cannot be bought with money and constancy creates calmness.
• **Communication abilities.** The leader should speak and write a language that his subordinates understand correctly. The eloquent leader easily succeeds in inspiring subordinates to action.

• **Striving for excellence.** This results in a climate and environment that is conducive to performance and inspires others to achieve a high level of performance.

(Kroon, 1990: 361-362)

### 2.4.2 The Behavioural Approaches to Leadership

The inability of the trait theories of leadership to strike the anticipated “gold” and leadership effectiveness, led researchers to look at unique behavioural traits that characterize successful leaders. The thrust of early behavioural leadership theory was to focus more on leader behaviour than on personal traits. It was believed that leader behaviour directly affected the effectiveness of employees. This led researchers to identify patterns of behaviour that enable leaders to influence others effectively.

• **Kurt Lewin’s Studies at the University of Iowa.** Lewin, and his associates at the University of Iowa, explored three forms of leadership styles: autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. An *autocratic leadership style* is that of a leader who tends to centralize autocratic powers. It involves making unilateral decisions, dictating work methods, limit workers’ knowledge and participation to the task at hand only and it sometimes gives punitive feedback. This is often referred to as top-down approach of management (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001:346). A *democratic leader* tends to involve employee participation in decision-making and delegates authority. It uses feedback as an opportunity to coach workers. A democratic, consultative leader seeks input and hears the concerns and issues of employees but makes the final decision. Democratic leadership is characterized by higher performance in terms of quality and quantity of work as well as employee satisfaction. Management by Objective (MBO) is used. Managers and employees identify performance objectives jointly. Rewards are allocated on the basis of progress towards objectives, which are periodically reviewed (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001: 346). Bartol and Martin (1991:485) argue that, *laissez-faire leaders* “do almost nothing.” Employees are given freedom to make decisions and authority to complete work as they see fit. Leaders participate only to answer questions from employees or clients and in providing material resources needed for task completion. This type of leadership avoids
giving feedback in any form. This form of leadership is ineffective in all forms of performance criterion as compared to the autocratic and democratic leadership.

• **The Ohio State Studies.** Ohio State researchers identified two independent dimensions that describe the behaviour of leaders: Consideration and initiating structures. According to Robbins (2000: 316), “consideration is described as the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationships that are characterized by mutual trust, respect for employees’ ideas, and regard for their feelings. The leader shows concern for followers’ comfort, well-being, status and satisfaction. A leader high in consideration could be described as one who helps employees with personal problems, is friendly and approachable, and treats all employees as equals. Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader is likely to define his or her role to employees in the search for goal attainment. It includes behaviour that attempts to organize work, work relationships and goals. The leader characterized as high in initiating structures can be described as someone who manages by objectives, assigns employees to particular tasks, expects employees to maintain definite standards of performance and emphasizes the meeting of deadlines. As such, this kind of leadership behaviour organizes and defines what employees should be doing to maximize output”. Both consideration and initiating structures (a “high-high” leader) tend to achieve high employee performance and satisfaction more frequently than those who rated low on consideration, initiating structure, or both. However, the “high-high” style does not always result in positive consequences. For example, leader behaviour characterized as high on initiating structure leads to greater rates of grievances, absenteeism, and turnover and lower levels of job satisfaction for worker’s performing routine tasks. Studies have also found that high consideration is negatively related to performance ratings of the leader by top management (Robbins, 2000).

• **University of Michigan Studies.** Leadership studies undertaken at the University of Michigan’s Survey Research Centre had as their objective the locating behavioural characteristics of leaders that appeared to be related to measures of performance effectiveness. They identified two dimensions of leadership that they labelled employee-oriented and production-oriented. Employee-oriented leaders are described as emphasizing interpersonal relations, take personal interest in the needs of employees and accept individual differences among members. Production-oriented leaders, in contrast
and tend to emphasize the technical or task aspects of the job. The Michigan studies favor leaders who are employee oriented in behavior, as they are associated with higher group productivity and higher job satisfaction. While production oriented leadership is associated with low group productivity and lower job satisfaction (Robbins, 2000).

- **The Managerial Grid.** The managerial grid developed by Blake and Mouton in the 1940’s, is based on the leadership styles of “concern for people” and “concern for production”, which essentially represents the Ohio State dimensions of consideration and initiating structures or the Michigan dimensions of employee orientation and production orientation. The grid has nine possible positions along each axis, creating eighty-one different positions in which the leader’s style may fall.

![The Leadership Grid](image)

**Figure 2.9 The Leadership Grid**

As indicated in the model in Figure 2.9 the managerial grid through its concern for people and concern for production define five major leadership styles. The first one is authority or obedience management (9.1), which emphasizes efficiency in operations that results from arranging work conditions in such a way that human elements can interfere only on a small
scale. Second, is the country-club management (1.9) that involves thoughtful attention to the needs of people, because such satisfying relationships are expected to lead to a comfortable, friendly organizational atmosphere. Thirdly is the laissez-faire or impoverished management (1.1) that is characterized by minimal effort to get the required work done and sustain organizational membership. Fourth is organization man-management (5.5), which is concerned with balancing the necessity to get the work done while maintaining morale at a satisfactory level. The goal is adequate performance. Lastly, team management (9.9) relies on independence through a common stake in the organization’s purpose. This interdependence leads to relationships based on trust and respect, and work accomplishment from committed employees. The grid does not show actual results produced but, rather, the dominating factor in the leader’s thinking in regard to getting results (Vecchio (1999), Kroon (1990) and Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (2002).

Behavioural studies have had modest success in identifying consistent relationships between leadership behaviour and group behaviour and group performance. What seems to be missing is consideration of the situational factors that influence success or failure.

2.4.3 Contingency Theories of Leadership

According to (Robins and DeCenzo, 2001: 397), contingency theories hold that “appropriate leadership traits are dependent on relevant situational factors. This means that effective employee performance depends upon the proper match between the leader’s style of interacting with employees and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader”.

- **Path-Goal Theory.** The term path-goal is derived from the belief that effective leaders clarify the path to help their followers get from where they are, to the achievement of their work goals. Hence, the essence of the path-goal theory is that it is the leader’s job to assist followers in attaining their goals and to provide a necessary direction and support to ensure that their goals are compatible with the overall objectives of the group or organization. It uses supervision as a means of effective leadership. Leaders clarify the path to employees so as to reduce hurdles and pitfalls and motivate them. As stated by Robbins (2000: 325), the path-goal theory identifies four leadership behaviours, namely: directive leaders who let followers know what is expected of them, schedules work to be
done and gives specific guidance as to how to accomplish the tasks. The **supportive leader** is friendly and shows concern for the needs of followers. The **participative leader** consults with followers and uses their suggestions before making a decision. The **achievement-oriented leader** sets challenging goals and expects followers to perform at their highest levels. The path-goal theory further assumes leaders are flexible and that the same leader can display any or all behaviours depending on the situation.

- **Situational Theory of Leadership:** According to Robbins (2000: 322), “situational leadership focuses on followers. Successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, which is contingent on followers’ level of readiness, ability (skills, knowledge and experience to do specific tasks) and willingness (psychological readiness) to complete a task according to instructions”. This form of leadership depends on the degree of two-way communication between managers and employees. The emphasis on leadership effectiveness actually reflects the reality that it is the followers who accept or reject the leader. Regardless of what the leader does, effectiveness depends on the actions of his or her followers. This is an important dimension that has been overlooked by most of the leadership theories.

- **Fiedler Contingency model.** The model proposes that effective group performance depends upon the proper match between the leader’s style and the degree to which the situation gives control to the leader. Kreitner, Kinicki, and Buelens (2002: 459), state that “Fiedler believes leaders are either task motivated or relationship motivated. The theory is also based on the premise that leaders have one dominant leadership style that is resistant to change” They further argue that leaders must learn to manipulate or influence the leadership situation in order to create a match between their leadership style and the amount of control within the situation at hand.

- **Leader-Participation Model.** This model relates leadership behaviour and participation in decision-making. It provides a sequential set of rules for determining the form and amount of participation a leader should exercise in decision-making according to different types of situations. Recognizing that task structures have varying demands for routine and non-routine activities, researchers argued that leader behaviour must adjust to reflect the task structure (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2001: 355).
2.4.4 Neo-Charismatic Theories of Leadership

According to Robbins (2000: 327), neo-charismatic theories of leadership have three common themes. “First, they stress symbolic and emotionally appealing leader behaviour. Secondly, they attempt to explain how certain leaders are able to achieve extraordinary levels of follower commitment. Thirdly, they de-emphasize theoretical complexity and look at leadership more the way the “average person on the street” today views the subject.

- **Charismatic Leadership** involves “the leader’s ability to inspire pride, faith and respect to recognize what is really important, and to articulate a sense of mission and vision that inspire followers effectively. Their vision of purpose is very clear and easy to identify with, and they demonstrate consistency and focus in pursuit of their vision, which they capitalize on as their strength” (Bartol and Martin, 1991: 506). Charismatic leaders also articulate an appealing vision that provides a sense of continuity for followers by linking the present with a better future for the organization. As argued by (Robins, 2000: 327-328), “charismatic leaders communicate high performance expectations and expresses confidence that followers can attain themselves. This enhances follower self-esteem and self-confidence. The leader also conveys, through words and actions, a new set of values and, by his or her behaviour, sets an example for followers to imitate. The charismatic leader makes self-sacrifices and engages in unconventional behaviour to demonstrate courage and convictions about the vision”. Research indicates a high correlation between charismatic leadership and high performance and satisfaction among followers. People working under the guidance of charismatic leaders are motivated, exert extra work effort, and because they like and respect their leader, express greater satisfaction.

- **Transactional Leadership.** “Transactional leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements. They also inspire followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization. They are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers” (Robins and DeCenzo, 2001: 360).

- **Transformational leadership** is a supplementary of the transactional leadership theory, with add-on effects of performance beyond expectations. According to Senior (2002: 234), “such leaders possess charisma and provide intellectual stimulation, individualized
consideration and inspirational motivation to followers. They create a dynamic organizational vision that often necessitates a metamorphosis in cultural values to reflect greater innovation and also seek a bonding between individual and collective interests allowing subordinates to work for transcendental goals. They pay attention to the concerns and developmental needs of individual followers. They change followers’ awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in new ways and they are able to excite, arouse and inspire followers to put an extra effort to achieve group goals (Robbins 2000).

**Visionary Leadership** “is characterized by the ability to create and articulate a realistic, credible, attractive vision of the future of an organization that grows out of the past and improves upon the present. It uses all available resources in terms of skill and talent to work towards successful goal attainment. This vision if, properly selected and implemented, is so energizing that it in effect jump-starts the future by calling forth the skills, talents, and resources to make it happen” (Robbins and Decenzo, 2001: 359). Visionary leaders have three dominant qualities. The first is the ability to explain the vision to others. The second is the ability to express the vision, not just verbally, but through the leader’s behaviour. This requires behaving in ways that continually convey and reinforce the vision. The third skill is the ability to extend the vision to different leadership contexts. This is the ability to sequence activities such that the vision can be applied in a variety of situations.

Different leadership styles effect change in different ways in any organization. The appropriate form of leadership depends on the nature of the organization and kind of change initiated, organization size, and stage on the life cycle.

As indicated in Figure 2.10, the most effective leadership is one that adapts to the so-called maturity of the subordinate. Maturity is viewed as a desire to achieve, the willingness to accept responsibility and task related competence and experience. The subordinate’s maturity develops in four phases and the manager must adapt his cycle in each phase (Kroon, 1990).
The model in Figure 2.10 shows that in the initial phase a high task orientation is present with a low emphasis on the relationship between leaders and subordinates. On being employed workers should be informed and trained to carry out tasks effectively. Workers become acquainted with the rules and regulations to make the development of a closer relationship between manager and subordinate possible. In the second phase workers begin to fit in with the work pattern, but are still not able to accept full responsibility. Confidence and support of workers increase as management gets to know workers better. Management becomes more employees oriented. The third phase is characterised by the worker’s desire for greater responsibility. The workers gradually become more self-assured, self-motivated and have the experience to continue on their own. The fourth phase represents a maturity level where employees are willing and able to accept responsibility. The manager will still identify problems but the responsibility to execute the plans will depend largely on the subordinates. The style has low behaviour relationships and low task orientation (Kroon, 1990).

According to Rothschild (1996: 80), organizations go through four basic stages. The first stage is the embryonic stage, the second is the rapid growth stage, the third is the maturity stage and the fourth is the decline stage.
### Table 2.3 Linking Strategy Change with Leadership Traits Through the Lifecycle Dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Leadership Traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction/ Embryonic</strong></td>
<td>Risk Taker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• A visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Aggressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Highly intuitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Creates dynamic change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Has ‘killer’ instinct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rapid Growth</strong></td>
<td>Caretaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Builds on strengths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Creates gradual change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Willing to commit to longer term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Maturity</strong></td>
<td>Surgeon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Selective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Knows what is attractive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Decisive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Makes tough decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Holds nothing ‘sacred’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decline</strong></td>
<td>Undertaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Selects the best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Liquidates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Is compassionate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Rothschild, (1996: 80).

Table 2.3 shows different stages of the organization's life cycle and the type of leader required to implement the necessary strategies in each stage. Risk taker or entrepreneurs, are required when the organization is in the beginning of its life cycle. Once the organization reaches a certain size and magnitude, the qualities of a caretaker are required. As the organization matures, pruning will be necessary and the talents of a surgeon are needed. Finally, when an organization is declining in product or service efficiency and effectiveness an undertaker is needed to rejuvenate organizational growth and save it from going under (Rothschild, 1996).

The life cycle theory, as illustrated in Figure 2.10 and Table 2.3, recommends a kind of dynamic and flexible leadership. Regular evaluation of the ability and experience of subordinates is necessary to decide which leadership style must be applied. If the style is appropriate, it will not only motivate, but lead to further “maturity”. As subordinates become
more mature, the degree of direct control and supervision should, however, decrease (Kroon, 2000).

2.5 LEADING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

The idea that leadership is a key link between strategy and structure comes from the observation that, because of a lack of appropriate leadership, having a clear strategy may not necessarily produce effective implementation. Leadership, therefore, plays a pivotal role in managing strategic change because without it, the strategy will not galvanize managers into appropriate action. Leadership is vitally important not merely as a part of its symbolic role in reinforcing strategy and structure, and it also plays a major role in shaping paradigm and guidance systems of an organization.
Table 2.4 Sequential Steps to Leading Organizational Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Establish a sense of urgency</td>
<td>Unfreeze the organization by creating a compelling reason why change is needed. Examining the current market trends and opportunities, as well as setting a reasonable time frame for the change can achieve this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Create the guiding coalition</td>
<td>Create a cross-functional, cross-level group of people with enough power to lead the change. Encouraging the group to work together as a team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Develop a vision and a strategy</td>
<td>Create a vision and a strategic plan to guide the change process. Developing strategies to achieve the vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Communicate the change vision</td>
<td>Create and implement a communication strategy that consistently communicates the new vision and strategic plan. Teaching new behaviours by example of the guiding coalition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Empower broad based action</td>
<td>Eliminate barriers to change and use target elements of change to transform the organization. Encourage risk taking and creative problem solving. Changing systems or structures that undermine the vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Generate short-term wins</td>
<td>Plan for and create short-term “wins” or improvements. Recognize and reward people who contribute to the “wins”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consolidate gains and produce more change</td>
<td>The guiding coalition uses credibility from short-term “wins” to create more change. Additional people are brought into the change process as change cascades throughout the organization. Attempts are made to reinvigorate the change process with new projects, themes and change agents. Using increased credibility to change the systems, structures and policies that do not fit the vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Anchor new approaches in the culture</td>
<td>Reinforce the changes by highlighting connections between new behaviour, processes and organizational success. Develop methods to ensure leadership development and succession.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Kotter (1996) in Kreitner, Kinicki and Bue lens (2002:548)

Organizational change fails because management does not comply with the sequential steps of leading change. Each of the above steps in Table 2.4, is associated with errors that need to be avoided in leading change. The value of the steps is that they provide specific recommendations about the types of behaviour that managers need to exhibit to lead organizational change successfully. Kotter’s (1996 and 1999) research reveals that it is ineffective to skip steps and that successful organizational change is 70 to 90% leadership,
and only 10 to 30% management. Senior managers are, thus, advised to focus on leading rather than managing change (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens, 2002: 540).

2.6 A CHANGING ORGANIZATIONAL FUTURE

This section addresses issues of how organizational dynamics, social demographics, changing occupational structures, work force diversity, lifestyles, gender dimensions and education are likely to influence and change the nature of organizational life, directly or indirectly, in the future of organizational change. The need for managers to continuously keep track of internal and external environmental forces that may advocate for change in organizations is highlighted.

2.6.1 General Trends

According to Senior (2002: 342), the general trends highlighted are likely to affect industry, lifestyles and social structures which, in turn, will affect organizations, their structures, strategies, how they are led, employment practices and the need to work with change.

- **Individuality**: a decline in traditional family norms.

- **Choice**: an increase in choice of home, work and leisure.

- **Mobility**: an increase in the mobility of individuals regarding residence, working, and personal relationships.

- **Identity**: increased ‘fluidity’ in personal identities because of increased mobility and more transient working arrangements, personal relations and leisure.

- **Independence**: increased freedom from traditional obligations leads to more self-centredness, self-indulgence and hedonistic psychologies.

- **Anxiety and risk**: a more rootless society giving rise to feelings of insecurity; society perceived as perhaps high-risk and threatening or exciting and challenging.
Creativity: increased focus on self-interest and individuality will encourage personal creativity generating a more innovative society.

Globalisation: increase in international division of labour with greater global segregation between developed and under-developed economies.

Information and communications technologies (ICTs): increasing capabilities of ICTs leading to the decline in traditional forms of organizations.

Bio-technologies: genetic engineering; increased ability to control patterns of reproduction, and technologies to improve health.

Socio-economic inequalities: increased polarization in cultural, educational and material living standards.

(Senior, 2002: 342)

It is advised that management, to be able to stabilize and reinforce change processes, should take cognizance of these trends so as to be able to predict future organizational changes and deal with the uncertainty presented by these trends as forces for change.

2.6.2 Changing Organizational Practices

Robbins and DeCenzo (1998 and 2001), have suggested a number of practices that organizations should take cognizance of and if need the need arises change the practices in order to improve effectiveness, efficiency and to gain sustainable competitive advantage. These practices are discussed as follows:

More and more employees are concerned about the quality of work life. This includes adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, opportunities for continued growth and security, opportunities for human capacity development, social integration in the work-place, balanced working roles, as well as socially beneficial and responsible work. The challenge is therefore to meet employee needs by continuously conducting human resources audits to assess whether available skills are being used
effectively, whether available jobs are sufficiently challenging and whether there are new avenues for development. It is also in the interest of the organization to realize the optimal return from its employees while making the organization an attractive place to work. There is a drastic need to balance work and leisure in terms of adequate compensation for overtime worked and to provide a non-discriminatory platform for voicing grievances.

In implementing any change process in the organization, it is imperative that management should understand the workforce diversity characterized by heterogeneous workers in terms of race, gender, age and ethnicity. Since employees do not set aside cultural values and lifestyle preferences when they go to work, the challenge for managers is, therefore, to make organizations more accommodating of diverse groups of employees and to address employee problems according to individual needs. There is a need to acknowledge that employees are the key to the success of any organization and should be treated as valuable assets.

The complexity and nature of many jobs, is changing, as workers tend to be considerably more knowledgeable about how best to do their jobs, in some cases more so than those who manage them. Management should recognize that they could improve efficiency, quality, and productivity and employee commitment by re-designing jobs in order to increase the decision-making discretion of workers and to meet changing work processes. This can be achieved through continuous empowerment of workers and by encouraging their participation in decision-making. Work teams could be used to increases employee effectiveness, responsibility and control.

The need for flexibility of hours of work, poses a threat to the productivity of organizations as this had resulted in an increased use of a contingent work force. This is due to the fact that most people now prefer to take up part-time jobs that do not conform to a full-time working week of forty hours, five days a week. Employees prefer to work flexible hours that fit in with their family and other commitments. For some people, part-time work represents more income as more jobs are can be held simultaneously. However, for the organization, this is critical as it creates pressure for meeting performance targets and it also implies increased labour costs.

Due to ever-changing environmental conditions, firms are experiencing increased pressure to become more productive and deal with very short product and service life cycles. Employees are obliged to work harder, longer and faster. As a result companies are taking much of home
life. The rapid organizational changes may bring stress to employees. Unless organizations develop support mechanisms to keep stress manageable, both the organization and employees are likely to pay a heavy price. To deal with this phenomenon, organizations should do something to create a conducive working environment that will keep employees motivated.

As more and more jobs become specialized, organizations are faced with issues pertaining to the outsourcing routine and peripheral jobs. The problem with outsourcing is that some employees may get retrenched due to the downsizing of operations and organizations may lose some irreplaceable human resource assets.

There is also the challenge of meeting stakeholder needs. The organization’s effectiveness and competitiveness is determined by satisfying the needs of stakeholders through high performance standards. This can be done through the use of the Balanced Scorecard by measuring organizational performance and presenting it to stakeholders. The Balanced Scorecard is important as it highlights the most important aspects of the business that need focus to enhance competitiveness. These include being customer-focused, improving quality, emphasizing on teamwork and managing for the long-term.

Meeting stakeholder needs also involves total quality management (TQM), which can be considered as “getting it right the first time” in order to reduce control costs. TQM requires the matching of skills with work requirements to continuously improve quality and productivity using work teams and training programmes.

The high performance work systems emphasize on the maximization of strategic fit between a company’s social and technical system. This however presents organizations with the dilemma of getting working workers with job specific knowledge and basic skills to keep pace with product or services developments and design improvements. The need for improved interpersonal skills and relations cannot be over-emphasized.

Organizations should also be socially responsive. They must not only fulfil not only their obligations of performing long term-goals that are good for society, but they should be able to adapt to ever changing societal conditions.
Successful managers are encouraged to make sense of tough situations when everything seems futile. They should be able to turn disasters into opportunities, be flexible in their management styles, work smarter, and be quick with informed decision-making, efficient in managing scarce resources, better at understanding and satisfying employees and customers and lastly, confident in enacting massive and revolutionary changes.

(Robbins and DeCenzo, 1998 and 2001)

2.7 CHANGE MODEL TO BE USED FOR THE CASE ANALYSIS

The model presented in Figure 2.11 is developed out of the above literature review and the models of change reviewed. The model will be used for case analysis in Chapter Four as an evaluation of the effectiveness of the management of transformational change at NUL, the case study under review.

Figure 2.11 Change Model for the Case Analysis
2.8 SUMMARY

The review of literature provided in this chapter demonstrates that strategic transformational change is a dynamic process, which needs to be anticipated, shaped and controlled. It is organization-wide and is characterized by radical shifts in strategy, mission and values as well as associated changes in structures and systems. As change progresses, the perceptions of the success or otherwise, of the process will invariably shift. This is also associated with dips in performance which may be inevitable, but may, however, be minimized through effective change management. The change process is amenable to analysis through a combination of strategic change models and tools. It also requires rigorous consideration of issues, processes and outcomes, as well as a questioning attitude of both the status quo and the new areas of change. The literature has illustrated effective models of managing and leading change to achieve organizational objectives. The models lay a foundation on which the current research is based, and will be used to evaluate NUL’s transformation process and make recommendations of methodology that can be employed for an effective and successful transformation process.
CHAPTER THREE

AN OVERVIEW OF NUL's TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Academic institutions globally have, in recent years faced pressures from change arising from declining financial resources, changes in production and transmission of knowledge, multiple impacts of globalisation, increasing demand for higher education as well as increasing competition in the provision of higher education and accreditation. Hence the need for higher learning institutions to identify key challenges they are facing and the need to build the rationale for the transformation routes they choose to follow.

This chapter intends to provide an overview of the case study: Management of transformational change at NUL. The objective being to determine the nature of NUL’s transformational change process and to determine the management of change strategies that it has adopted and to assess their implications for the success of the transformational change process. To achieve the objectives, an overview of NUL will be provided, and then the current transformation process will be highlighted upon. The overview together with the theoretical framework in Chapter Two, serves as a basis for the following chapter on the case analysis.

3.2 BRIEF COUNTRY BACKGROUND

Lesotho is a small landlocked country, wholly surrounded by South Africa. The economy of the country is small, with total GNP and GDP estimated at M3.9 billion and M2.5 billion respectively. With a per capita income estimated at US$ 650, it is classified among the world’s least developed countries. Currently, Lesotho’s population of just over two million is growing at 2.6% annually. Since the mid 1970’s the Government has emphasized the importance of the education sector as a fundamental driving force in the social-economic development of the country, with the objective of improving the quality, efficiency, relevance and effective management of the education system. Hence, the need to strategically review higher learning institutions, especially the NUL to meet wider socio-economic development
requirements and for it to compete effectively with other similar internationally accredited
institutions of higher learning (Government of Lesotho, 1997).

3.3 OVERVIEW OF NUL

NUL, the only university in the country, is located at Roma, 35 kilometres away from Maseru
the capital of Lesotho. The origins of NUL go back to April 8, 1945, when the Roman
Catholic Hierarchy of Southern Africa founded a Catholic University College at Roma. The
establishment of this College was the realization of a decision taken in 1938 by the Synod of
Catholic Bishops in Southern Africa to provide African Catholic students with post-
matriculation and religious guidance. In 1950 the University was ceded to the Congregation of
Oblates of Mary Immaculate as Pius XII College. Having satisfied itself that Pius XII College
was an academically viable institution, the University of South Africa (UNISA) agreed to
enter into a formal agreement, thereby granting an associate status to the College; with
external degrees conferred by UNISA. However, in the early 1960's the College experienced
difficulties both academically and financially. UNISA, thus, unilaterally decided to redefine
its relationship with the College. As a result directed its resources elsewhere (NUL Calendar,

In January 1964, an independent, non-denominational University of Bechuanaland
Protectorate, Basutoland, and Swaziland (UBBS) replaced Pius XII University College with
its own Charter granted by Queen Elizabeth II. It was later in 1967, inline with the country
names chosen after independence, to be known as the University of Botswana, Lesotho and
Swaziland (UBLS), when the first autonomous degrees and diplomas were conferred. The
University continued to grow steadily, physically and academically being supported by the
three Governments' subventions and by international organizations. In time, branches of the
University were established in Botswana and Swaziland. UBLS, though much admired as an
institution, soon found problems of administration and in areas of organizational growth

Cooperation between the three campuses was not always consistent and equal, as interests and
concerns about development and future plans differed. In 1974 the tri-national university split,
and NUL was born as an independent institution. The University is sited on the Roma campus
of the former UBLS and has additional campuses in Maseru.
Today, NUL is a growing institution striving to meet the needs of the Basotho nation through competent and skilled graduates who can take up the call to assist in the development of Lesotho, as well as striving to meet stakeholder needs. The University has been in transition from a traditional university to a modern day higher learning institute that can compete with other universities on an international basis. It is, however, relatively small with limited resources and is dependent on the Government for at least 95% of its finances with a bias allocation for support services. The activities at NUL are viewed as falling within two spheres: core and supporting activities. Core activities relate to teaching and research while support activities include staffing, financing, marketing and service units as well as facilities provision. Traditionally, the management of support services has been the responsibility of central administration with core activities falling under academic structures. Under a devolved framework, the academic centres are to assume management of support activities and they must do so within the overall strategic and policy framework determined by central administration (NUL Strategic Plan Report, 2002/2007).

3.4 NUL’s CURRENT ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

An organizational structure is an instrument for operationalizing the vision and mission of an institution. The current structure of NUL was adopted in 1975. Key aspects of it are based on the British collegiate style of management. The University was founded with six faculties and later three institutes of research and one of extra-mural studies were created. The University has recently introduced the faculty of Health Sciences. This brings the number of faculties to seven. It also has a centralized administrative structure controlled through the registrar’s office. The reporting system is committee-based with the final decision being taken by the office of the Registrar or Pro-vice Chancellor and subsequently by the Senate.
Figure 3.1 NUL's Current Organizational Structure

COUNCIL

VICE - CHANCELLOR'S OFFICE

SENATE

REGISTRAR

PVC

FACULTIES

INSTITUTES

LIBRARIAN

BURSAR

Departments
Advisory Boards
Faculty Board
Divisions

Physical Planning and Development Planning
Consultancy, Internal Audit
Information and Public Relations
Development and Student Affairs

SERVICES

LIBRARY

REGISTRY

BURSARY

University Libraries

Building
Mechanical
Electric
Maintenance
-Estate and Property
Transport
Stores

Budget
Central Stores
Loans
Pensions
Gratuities

ACADEMIC APPOINTMENTS CSU COUNCIL ADMINISTRATION

Admissions
Senate
Senate Exec.
Exams
Records
Appointments
Promotions
Labour Relations
Info. Systems
Network Services
Helpdesk
Brd. of Finance
Tenders
Higher Degrees
Legal Matters
Council
Development
Housing
Schools
Security
Bookshop
Sports
Printing
Tel. And Telex
Dom. Bursar
There is growing consensus among stakeholders that the NUL’s organizational structure, including the support staff versus core staff ratio, is neither effective nor efficient, and it fails to deliver services that support the core functions of the institution. An observation has been made that the current structure tends to be too centralized and ill-adapted to efficient and effective management of the university. More precisely, the current structure is problematic in that decision making-processes take a long time, there is lack of implementation and accountability, and there is apathy and lack of involvement and responsibility of staff, as well as a general atmosphere of fatalism and paralysis (EYMAR, 2000/1).

The EYMAR (2000/1) further notes that in the current structure there had been a tendency for elements of the administration to be too powerful and conservative, thus marginalizing academics in the decision-making process. The report recommends the introduction of a management system with decentralized decision-making support mechanisms, which would have a positive impact on NUL functional structures and operations. It is, therefore imperative to restructure and reform the organizational structure of NUL in order to enable effective management and administration of core business functions, human and other resources of the University.

3.5 NUL’s ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

While NUL discharged its role with distinction in producing qualified human resources in diverse fields, addressing the developmental challenges of Lesotho and her neighbours, it faced increasingly multi-faceted pressures as a result of its failure to respond and adapt timeously to the fast changing national, regional and global environment impacting on higher learning institutions. Studies conducted by various organizations such as the WHO (1984), CHEMS (1994/5) and EYMAR (2000/1), highlighted the structural crisis hindering the efficient and effective discharge of the University’s mission. At the root of the crisis was a complacent and cumbersome managerial and organizational system ill-suited to respond effectively and timeously to change imperatives; poor planning; inefficient utilization of resources and low cost-consciousness, and stunted growth in student enrolments contrasting sharply with the surge in the demand for higher education. The reports further noted an institution characterized, inter alia, by staff alienation, lack of implementation of decisions and poor levels of accountability. There was a need to reformulate the University’s mission.
statement and draft a strategic plan to help restructure the University’s activities for improved efficiency and quality of service.

Moreover, the EYMAR (2000/1), found that existing administrative and management systems and decision-making procedures are still centralised thus creating bottlenecks, delays in decision making and implementation with a considerable degree of duplication, and greater degree of responsibility being transferred to faculties, institutes and units without corresponding transfer of authority and responsibility. This has lead to a decline in the relevance of academic programmes, lack of interfaculty cooperation, low staff morale, poor facilities management and lack of efficiency due to delayed decision making on issues of relative importance.

3.6 THE NEED FOR NUL’s TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE

It has been clear from the reports of the WHO (1984), CHEMS (1994/5) and EYMAR (2000/1), that new domestic and global circumstances impose new demands and pressures on institutions of higher education to develop the ability to read the signs of the times and to adjust their academic and managerial structures accordingly, with significant decentralization and scaling down of centrally located services. In 2000, the University Council in support of the EYMAR (2000/1), indicated that NUL needed a comprehensive restructuring of its academic, non-academic and administrative structures and functions in order to realise its strategic thrust.

As part of the several initiatives intended to deal with the current dilemma and to address the challenges with which NUL was confronted, a strategic transformation process was proposed and, a strategic plan mapping out the transformation process and its goals was drafted as the initial step in turning NUL around to be a centre of excellence. The transformation process is seen as a course of breaking away from the past inefficiencies. It is hoped to institutionalize a decentralized and devolved managerial system, consolidate teaching and research organs, and break new ground and niche areas for teaching and research as core businesses. Hence, the current strategic plan proposes as key elements of the reorganization and restructuring of the University, the merger of faculties, academic institutes and the devolution of budgetary, planning, administrative and human resources functions to the emergent centres/ units, superintended by executive Deans.
3.7 STRATEGIC PLAN FORMULATION AT NUL

The process that led to the strategic plan drafting as a basis for the transformation followed extensive consultation with stakeholders within and outside the University. The following diagram summarizes the consultation model followed:

**Figure 3.2 NUL’s Strategic Plan Formulation Structure**

![Diagram showing the strategic plan formulation process]


Through the strategic plan formulation, NUL has been able to formulate its mission statement, vision, core values and goals as a starting point of re-organization and restructuring of the
University. These issues have been stated in the Strategic Plan Report (2002/2007) as follows:

3.7.1 Mission Statement

NUL will employ innovative teaching and learning methods, research professional services to continuously develop human resources capable of leading and managing development processes in a world increasingly driven by knowledge, science and technology.

3.7.2 Vision 2020

NUL’s vision is to be a leading African tertiary institution for lifelong learning and relevant research in order to provide innovative solutions to societal needs.

3.7.3 Core Values

In achieving the vision and mission NUL pledges to:

- Be dedicated to quality teaching, learning and research as basic services to students.
- Promote and support the use of relevant technology in teaching, learning and research.
- Encourage originality and scholarship as the guiding principles in our research and in our public engagement.
- Ensure equity and social justice for all in respect to University education to all groups including people with disabilities and social disadvantages.
- Provide a non-sexist, gender sensitive environment to allow people to develop their potential to the best of their capabilities.
- Subscribe to the highest moral and ethical standards of conduct in the delivery of our services and corporate governance.
- Anchor the future in a diverse cultural heritage inspired by positive values from history and traditions.
- Become an environmentally aware and sensitive institution dedicated to environmentally sustainable development.
• Uphold the principles of democracy, transparency and accountability in the conduct of activities.
• Optimize the use of resources in fulfilling core functions of the University and to ensure competitiveness, quality and professionalism in the conduct of all responsibilities.
• Uphold institutional autonomy and safeguard academic freedom.

3.7.4 Strategic Goals

In line with the mission, the strategic issues and in context with the transformation, NUL aims to pursue the following goals:

• Teaching and learning: To foster innovativeness in teaching and learning, to improve the quality of graduates, to optimize the utilization of teaching resources, to enhance the quality of teaching support services and to increase student enrolment in the University.

• Research: To initiate and sustain the academic staff research skills and output, to improve quality of research, to optimize the utilization of research resources and to enhance the quality of research support systems.

• Management and governance: To improve human resources management, improve support and general services and nurture the University autonomy.

• Niche development: To establish a centre for water and environmental management, tourism and cultural studies and international relations, diplomacy and conflict resolution.

• Income generation and cost containment: Expand the income base by increasing enrolment, contract research and consultancy services, fundraising, outsource non-essential support services, decentralize decision-making and eliminate overlaps and duplications in programmes and services.

• Institutional restructuring to realize the strategic thrust.
3.7.5 Situational Analysis

The Strategic Plan task team went further to identify a plethora of internal strengths and weaknesses, as well as external opportunities and threats (SWOT) as driving forces for the transformational change.

3.7.5.1 Internal Analysis

An analysis of the internal environmental scan shows that weaknesses of the current structure organized around departments and disciplines, far outnumber the strengths. The University’s major weaknesses included: a decline in the relevance of academic programmes, lack of interfaculty cooperation, low staff morale, poor human resources management, poor institutional culture, an unclear definition of the powers and functions of the Pro-Vice Chancellor, a centralized management structure, poor facilities management and lack of marketing. Ironically, while the strengths are comparatively fewer in these areas, they are substantial if suitably exploited to meet the objectives of the mission. The approach is therefore to address weaknesses by reconfiguring existing resources to facilitate a more efficient delivery of core businesses. The alternative being to deploy resources against weaknesses. In either case the structures will have to be revamped to meet new and emerging demands.

3.7.5.2 External Analysis

The external situational analysis reveals a University whose opportunities are balanced by its threats. This situation assures the University of a definite chance for survival provided it aggressively works to attain its mission. Among the threats identified were: a decline in Government funding, globalization of markets, loss of autonomy, a growing number of institutions nationally, dwindling financial resources, low research output and quality, political instability and competition from regional and overseas educational institutions as well as the impact of HIV/AIDS. The logical conclusion is that NUL is in a situation which it lacks the capacity to effectively exploit available opportunities to deal with the threats posed by the changing external environment. This situation will therefore have to change if NUL is to accomplish its mission and to move towards a state of renaissance or re-awakening of its vision.
3.7.6 Strategic Options

On the basis of the identified threats and weaknesses, the strategic team concluded that NUL needed to respond effectively to the needs of stakeholders, become more effective and efficient in the resource mobilization and utilization, enhance its competitiveness and strive to safeguard its autonomy in relation to its governing strategic goals. To accomplish the above, NUL needs to:

- Review its academic structure.
- Promote interdisciplinary, intra and inter-faculty academic programmes.
- Review the cost effectiveness and relevance of its academic programmes to avoid duplication of programmes and to realize teaching capacity and full utilization of resources.
- Enhance inter-faculty co-operation.
- Devolve resources, responsibilities, and accountability and decision-making powers to academic units.
- Structures should have the capacity to explore strategic academic partnerships with other universities.

3.7.7 Strategic Thrust

The thrust of the strategy, as informed by the situational analysis requires the University to transform in order to:

- Respond effectively to the needs of stakeholders.
- Be efficient in the mobilization and utilization of financial resources.
- Become more competitive.
- Maintain and safeguard its autonomy.
- To foster accountability and transparency at all managerial levels.
- Consolidate teaching and support services to improve the focus and quality of programmes.
- Foster the competence of academic, non-academic and administrative staff.
3.8 A FRAMEWORK FOR TRANSFORMATION AT NUL

Transformation and restructuring should be carried out within a clear framework. Such a framework must integrate a clear rationale for the restructuring, the objectives to be achieved, the guiding principles, the nature of restructuring, the mechanisms to regulate the restructuring and the process for effecting the change.

3.8.1 Rationale for NUL’s Transformational Change

The need for, and the nature of, transformation and academic restructuring in higher learning organizations must find their justification in the nature and significance of the challenges the institutions faces, and more importantly in the development framework and education policy of the country. For NUL, the rationale for transformation has been found in the need to align the University to national development objectives. Both the Vision 2020 and the draft of Higher Education Bill serve as driving forces behind the transformation. Specifically, the rational can be attributed to the findings and recommendations of the EYMAR (2000/1) as clearly indicated earlier.

The report further recommends that administrative activities should support academic activities and administrative structures should move away from their conservative nature and marginalizing of academics in decision-making. NUL should also introduce a managerial hierarchy to replace the collegiate committee system of management. Under the managerial hierarchy, Deans, Directors and Heads of Departments would be responsible for the finance and the management of their respective units. They further recommended that NUL should review the relevance of existing academic programmes, traditional faculties and institutes, with the view to consolidating academic faculties and institutes into fewer and more focused departments. However, structures that create intellectual freedom and expression should be protected.

3.8.2 Approach to NUL’s Transformational Change

An internal task team comprising of representatives of all employee categories and various stakeholders, was appointed to develop the Management and Strategic Plans for the proposed devolution of functions and responsibilities, to Faculties, Institutes, the Library and other arms
of the University. The Director of Transformation was appointed to head the implementation of the transformation.

The process of preparing for the transformation involved a review of strategic planning documents on related transformation activities, consultation with various units of the University and study visits to universities in South Africa that had undergone the same process. These universities included the University of Fort Hare, the University of Natal and the University of the North. The purpose of these visits was to learn firsthand about the transformation processes and procedures, the dynamics of the restructuring process and experiences of those managing the new units, the problems and constraints that they were facing, in order to draw lessons that would be of benefit to NUL as it undertakes transformation. To afford full participation of all units and to ensure ownership and legitimacy of the process, all units of the University were invited to organize forums in their respective constituencies to provide input for addressing the terms and references of the task team and the overall transformation process.

3.8.3 Principles Guiding NUL’s Transformational Change

The overall principles guiding NUL’s transformation are derived from the University’s strategic goals. These principles include:

- Structures should promote interdisciplinary intra and inter-faculty academic programmes and research activities.

- There needs to be an emphasis on developing relevant and cost effective academic programmes by eliminating small programmes and avoiding the duplication of programmes in order to release teaching capacity and resources.

- The size of academic units should be such as to enable a sustained uniform level of academic quality.

- Academic programmes that promote student developmental growth should be recognized.
• Academic entities must be based on a comprehensive analysis of workload in order to facilitate optimum workload that avails time for research and other academic activities for members of staff.

• Structures should have the capacity to explore strategic academic partnerships with other universities and sister institutions nationally, regionally and internationally.

• Academic disciplines and programmes where the University possesses comparative advantage should be vigorously pursued and supported.

3.8.4 Goals and Objectives of NUL’s Transformational Change

The goals and objectives of devolution of authority as proposed by the transformation task team are to improve the management effectiveness and efficiency of Faculties and Schools for delivery of quality teaching and research. These are included in the two broad objectives of devolution.

1. To develop an optimum structure that provides:

• Effective planning of inter-disciplinary academic programmes responsive to the needs of the nation and market requirements

• Innovative teaching methods.

• The provision of up-to-date learning facilities.

• The production of a mix of disciplines.

• Increase research activities and quality output.

2. To implement effective and efficient management principles that:

• Enable decisions to be taken close to their impact.

• Balance responsibility and authority with personal responsibility.

• Avoid duplication.

• Facilitate optimum use of human and financial resources.
The proposed framework for devolution of functions and responsibilities is informed by the general principles and is intended to achieve the objectives stated above.

3.8.5 Content of NUL’s Transformational Change

The content refers to the powers to be devolved or delegated to the Faculties and Schools and the degree to which such devolution will be made. The general principle is that decentralization must be accompanied by highest possible decision-making powers for operations. In this regard, the role of central administration has been reduced to one of overall strategy and policy formulation and management. Under the devolved framework, the Faculties and Schools are to assume management of support services and they must do so within the overall strategy and policy formulation framework determined by central administration. The powers to be devolved to the centres include strategic and business planning, determination of academic programme offerings and their conduct, determination of research priorities and activities, formulation and implementation of marketing strategy, and lastly resources mobilization and allocation.

3.8.6 Regulatory Framework of NUL’s Transformational Change

The regulatory framework is taken to refer to the control and coordination mechanisms, which the central administration will use to oversee the activities of the Faculties and Institutes. A variety of control and coordination mechanisms have been generally presented:

- Control mechanisms will include direct supervision; uniformity of conduct of policies and procedures established in relation to performance of activities under each delegated area and output control whereby centres would be assessed on their contribution to the strategic objectives of the University.

- Coordinating mechanisms will ensure the coordination between the activities of the central administration and those of the centres on the one hand, and between the various centres on the other hand. The following mechanisms are proposed: integration of offices through directorates, matrix committee system in which the centres and the administration meet to deal with matters of shared responsibility, inter-centre coordination.
Every organization requires effective organizational structures to operationalize its vision and mission. According to the Strategic Plan Report (2002/2007), the introduction of a management hierarchy with decentralized decision-making support mechanisms are believed would have a positive transformational impact on NUL systems and operations. The envisaged structure devolves managerial powers to the faculties through Deans, Directors and Heads of Schools and Departments as illustrated in the matrix in Figure 3.4 below. The Faculty administrative structure consists of Executive Deans who are supported by a team of administrators and an executive secretary. Each Head of School and Department is supported by a number of secretarial services depending on the size of the school. At the central level, the new administrative structure includes the new positions of PVC- Finance/ Administration and the Director of Human Resources. Other Directorates have their counterparts in the old administrative structures. Another new feature is the office of the corporate secretary for Corporate Governance, security services, general services and legal matters.
Figure 3.3 NUL’s Proposed Managerial Structures

- University Librarian
  - Library
  - Archives

- Dean Institute of Research
  - Centre for water and environmental studies
  - Centre for tourism
  - Moshoeshoe centre for diplomacy

- Dean IDCS
  - Centre for sub-degree programmes
  - Centre for degrees and post-graduate programmes
  - Centre for distance learning and support

- Dean Faculty of Humanities and Education
  - Heads of schools
  - Programmes within schools

- Dean Faculty of Law and Social Sciences
  - Heads of schools
  - Programmes within schools

- Dean Faculty of Sciences
  - Heads of schools
  - Programmes within schools

- Director Buildings and Infrastructure Facilities
  - Design and physical planning
  - Transport and fleet management
  - Estate Management

- Director Student Affairs
  - Counselling
  - Health
  - Recreation
  - Accommodation

- Director Finance
  - Finance management
  - Payroll
  - Stores and assets

- Director Human Resources
  - Personnel
  - Training and development
  - Labour relations
The introduction of a management hierarchy with decentralized decision-making support mechanisms would have a positive transformational impact on NUL systems and operations. Under this management system, all decisions pertaining to academic issues will be handled at the Faculty level with some support from the central administration. In the new structure, administrative staff in the Faculties, Institutes and Schools will also be responsible to the
Deans, Directors and Heads concerned. All decisions pertaining to academic issues will be handled at the Faculty level with some support from central administration. This will not only improve on performance effectiveness but also on efficiency.

3.10 NUL’s PROPOSED ACADEMIC ENTITIES

It is apparent from the situational analysis conducted that budgetary constraints and reductions in Government subventions funds for NUL will continue to pose a threat to the sustainability of the institution. The analysis also indicates that the Faculties and Institutes have a tendency of acting as independent entities with no regard to the mission and vision of the University. Experiences within transforming Universities show a general trend of consolidating Faculties to improve the focus and quality of programmes and service. The EYMAR recommended that NUL examine the rationale of the type and number of its Faculties and Institutes in order to revamp the current structures to meet the new and emerging global trends and demands.

The proposed academic entities will be structures as follows as follows:

- Institute of Extra-Mural Studies (IEMS).
- Three Faculties (Humanities and Education; Law and Social Sciences as well as Sciences) instead of the former seven Faculties. The Faculties will comprise of various small schools formed by clustering existing Departments.
- Institute of research forming a consolidation of the former Institutes of Labour and Institute Southern African Studies (ISAS).
- Library consolidating the Institute of Education and ISAS documentation centres.
- Basic Studies Unit as a multi-disciplinary centre based in the Faculty of Humanities and Education.

The proposed Faculties, Institutes, Schools and Programmes will have certain powers and responsibilities accorded to them by the University authorities. They will also establish their respective boards; committees and such other subsidiary organs as may be necessary to carry out such functions and responsibilities. The consolidation of faculties and institutes will hopefully lead to improved manageability, a greater sense of responsibility, accountability and responsiveness. Additional benefits will be realized in the reduction of duplication of services offered by existing Departments, optimizing the employment of existing staff expertise.
through teaching across areas currently pigeon-holed in separate Faculties; maximizing academic and cross-Faculty interactions; fostering faster and more efficient decision-making and optimizing staff student ratios within Faculties.

3.11 NUL’s PROPOSED HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

The EYMAR (2000/1) criticizes the University for its lack of job descriptions. Currently job descriptions are, at best vague and possess no detail with regard to competencies required to fulfil the functions. Certainly, different positions require different and specific descriptions. This situation is further compounded by an academic structure which arbitrarily groups together academics with support staff. The absence of a human resource plan contributes to the lack of control over growth and development of staff in the University. With the new system, job descriptions should form the basis for performance appraisals and should constitute the core of the employment contract between staff members and the University. Staff should undergo a thoroughly thought out process of recruitment which includes extensive interviews for both academic and non-academic staff. Furthermore, the human resources arm of the University should be housed under the Directorate of Human Resources who should be the coordinator of all academic and non-academic human resource issues as well as a central coordinator of administrative issues. The responsibility of developing job descriptions should lie with the Head of Department, and the human resources Directorate must coordinate these. The size of NUL support staff compared to teaching and research requires urgent review in order to focus on the core functions of the institute.

3.12 LESSONS LEARNED FROM BEST PRACTICES

The task force learned that the process of restructuring in the different universities visited took different directions depending on the specific circumstances of individual universities. There is, therefore, no single model for restructuring that can be applicable to every institution. Nevertheless, there are some pertinent lessons that have been learned from the diverse experiences. Some of the lessons learned include the following:

- Restructuring generates a lot of tension and resistance.
- Restructuring requires a paradigm shift.
• Restructuring should be based on agreed principles and objectives, which should be clearly stated.
• There is a need for all concerned to understand the rationale for change.
• Restructuring is a messy, time-consuming and exhausting process which tends to divert energies from the core academic business.
• Transformation is not about cost saving but should be seen in terms of optimum allocation and use of resources.
• There is a need to strike a balance between the University’s overall strategic positioning, its academic goals and support services.
• Academic restructuring needs to be implemented simultaneously with the restructuring of support services.
• Management needs to set a broad framework for restructuring. Through a process of negotiations, consultations and discussions, Faculties and Institutes should then be permitted to decide the configuration of their units, the partnerships and the marrying of units to each other to create larger units in order to create legitimacy for the new structures.
• Continuous communication is very vital in restructuring.
• Human resources functions should remain centralized while the devolution of finance in all Institutes should include the devolution of authority for budgets and allocation of resources by Deans to their units.
• The Library plays a critical role in achieving the mission of the University and should therefore play a proactive role in the development of a range of services relevant to teaching, research and students.

3.13 SUMMARY

The approach to the transformation and formulation of the strategic plan is said to have been consultative and participatory both within the University and the larger Lesotho society, providing a good scope for co-ownership of the plan by all stakeholders. However, from the foregoing discussion concerning NUL’s strategic agenda, it is revealed that NUL is at the crossroads. It is under pressure from both its external and internal stakeholders to redesign and re-engineer its systems and processes to enhance its capacity to respond effectively to the needs of its stakeholders.
CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF NUL's TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Increased competition and startling breakthroughs, coupled with globalization are forcing organizations to change the way they do business. Customers are demanding greater value for money, efficiency and superior service, and the rate of organizational and societal change is clearly accelerating. Organizations no longer have a choice. They must change, not only to survive, but also to remain competitive in the long-term. Unfortunately, it is not easy to implement organizational change successfully, as it revolves around people and people react in different and sometimes unpredictable ways and may resist the change even if it is for a good reason.

Since change is more than the development and implementation of a formal project or strategic plan, its success depends on the development of a context sensitive change approach. Thus, management of change is a very complex process. Managers charged with the responsibility of managing change need to address the complexities of both the process and context of change.

The aim of this chapter is to use the integrative case study model developed at the end of Chapter Two to conduct an analysis of NUL’s transformational change process. The analysis will be conducted by way of using the Change Kaleidoscope model, the Organizational Culture Web, Management of Change tools and Leadership Traits. The analysis is done as a way of evaluating the strong and weak points that may have either positive or negative implications for the implementation of NUL’s transformational change.

4.2 CHANGE MODEL FOR THE CASE ANALYSIS

At the end of Chapter Two a change model was developed as a combination of management of change aspects from the change models discussed in the same chapter. This model will be used for case study analysis. The analysis will focus on the features of the Change Kaleidoscope mainly the organizational context and design choices as applicable to NUL’s transformational change. NUL’s current and future organizational culture will be mapped so
as to highlight the difference between the current and future organization. The management of change as applied by NUL will also be determined as well as the leadership styles and their implications for the success of NUL’s transformation.

Figure 4.1 Change Model for the Case Analysis

The model in Figure 4.1 is an illustration of the change features namely, Organizational Culture, Management of Change, Leadership styles and the Change Kaleidoscope, that will be used in this chapter for analysis of NUL’s transformation process, from its planning through to its implementation.

4.3 NUL’s CHANGE KALEIDOSCOPE

The Change Kaleidoscope has been used as a diagnostic tool of analysis to pinpoint the key contextual features of NUL’s change context. The Change Kaleidoscope is not used to provide a predictable configuration that may lead to more formulaic change recipes, but the contextual features are to be constantly reconfigured to provide different pictures for each
organizational change situation it is used to assess. The contextual features infer different design choices, but potential permutations are endless.

**Figure 4.2 NUL's Change Kaleidoscope**

Source: Adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999)

The Change Kaleidoscope in Figure 4.2 has been analyzed using information collected from the University management. The analysis is divided into two parts: the organizational change context and the change design choices.
4.3.1 NUL's Organizational Change Context

- **Time:** The model in Figure 4.2 indicates that the NUL's transformation team has no specific time frame for the implementation of the transformation. There is not that much of a crisis to warrant a big bang change, but time will be an issue if management takes too long to effect the necessary changes to aspects identified as hindering the University's success. The appointment of an internal staff member as the change agent implies that there is ample time available for long-term change interventions. The transformation is effected in order to achieve long-term strategic development. It has been initiated as a result of a crisis of staff inefficiencies and ineffectiveness and poor financial accountability. Due to the fact that the change is effected in a dynamic environment, the transformation is expected to produce short-term benefits, throughout the phases of the implementation of the transformation.

- **Scope:** The transformation is intended to be effected throughout the entire organization, with the specific aim of improving on the University's core activities of teaching and conducting research, as well as achieving efficiency and effectiveness with the support activities that complement the core activities. The transformation also intends to change the existing paradigm and organizational culture. The cultural web is also used to determine the scope of NUL's transformational change.

- **Preservation:** The transformation aims to retain qualified and capable core staff members in order to meet its objectives of contributing to the organization's competitive advantage, core competencies, service excellence to stakeholders and to outsource basic services to cut on operating costs. The University would like to preserve the levels of staff loyalty and commitment it has enjoyed in the past. The consolidation of departments is aimed at reducing redundancy and duplication of services to increase efficiency within the University.

- **Diversity:** The change will most definitely take into consideration the diversified and multi-cultural workforce and diversity of its stakeholders. However, as part of the transformation the University is effecting its localization plans of replacing expatriates with qualified nationals. Whether the localization is based on logical and relevant ground that is for the benefit and success of the university, is yet to be revealed. The University is
characterized by diversity of sub-cultures created by different professional and occupational groups between divisions and departments. These sub-cultures may have implications for staff loyalty and commitment to the overall organizational change.

- **Capability**: With regards to capability, the University possesses a capable workforce that can definitely aid in realizing the university's objectives. The transformation task force seems to be representative of all staff divisions. The management is made up of top academic officials whose capability in management, especially of such a huge change, initiative is not well denoted.

- **Capacity**: The University is still highly dependent on the Government subvention fund for its finances. It is not yet self-sufficient to undertake such a huge task, as it requires a lot of financial support for the implementation of its strategic plan, as well as to for the transformation process to succeed. The University has a capable workforce of both academic and non-academic staff. However, due to staff redundancy and low staff morale, which has led to the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the University, one wonders whether with the current state of the workforce, the University will be able to achieve the required results and support for the transformation. Another issue of paramount importance is whether the task team have enough time at their disposal to devote to both the transformation and their current work activities without one compromising the other.

- **Readiness**: The University staff members claim to be ready for the change - its impacts and implications. The results of the transformation may either be positive or negative depending on how it impacts on individual staff members. Hence, the readiness of staff members is highly relative. For some it means losing their long-held positions, and for others it means being part of the consolidated departments and experiencing all sorts of rivalry and hostility at the beginning.

- **Power**: Power within the University has been devolved into flatter structures with more power being awarded to academic departments than administrative as before. Decision-making has also been centralized to speed up decisions and to improve on efficiency. The success of the transformation lies with the appointed transformation task with its appointed Director from within the University. The appointed change leader is believed to
have powerful leadership and management qualities and hence, the support and commitment from fellow staff members.

4.3.2 NUL's Change Design Choices

- **Change paths:** The outcome of NUL’s phase of change is expected to be transformational change. As informed by the management audit reports, the transformation has to change the University’s paralytic state into a more efficient and renowned institute of higher learning. It has been indicated that time is not an issue is to determine the duration of NUL’s transformation process. Perhaps it would have been better if time was an issue. The luxury of time implies that NUL should be prepared to deal with different forms of change as they evolve throughout the transformation process. The university should consider a change process that is more educative, participative and collaborative. The abundance of time allows for enough communication about the change to cascade through the organization and to be well understood by all employees. NUL would also like to be more focused on meeting stakeholder needs effectively.

- **Change start point:** NUL has chosen a top-down approach to transformation dictated by top management and academic staff members as informed by the management audit reports. These reports indicated that NUL’s current status quo of paralysis and inefficiency created by low staff morale and motivation is untenable, and that for NUL to achieve its objective of being a leading institute of higher learning, it ought to transform to keep its competitive advantage.

- **Change style:** A top-down approach to change requires management to create more awareness of the intended change for it to be well understood and embraced by all staff members. Even though, NUL's transformational change process was made to be participative through workshops and seminars it was, however, not collaborative enough, with the final decisions made by the transformation task team on how to achieve overall change targets thus, denying the entire University community full ownership of the change process. NUL has to take into consideration the fact that human resources are the most desirable assets of any organization. Hence, the success of any change initiative depends on the current organizational culture and the way of approaching the change. It is
important to avoid alienating staff members by reducing resistance to change through the involvement of all staff members at all stages of the change process.

- **Change target**: The target is for long-term change interventions to alter current administrative and behavioural values, power and decision-making structures as well as the consolidation of departments. The objective being to achieve long-term strategic development characterized a realization of short-term “milestone-wins”.

- **Change roles**: The time taken to select the change agent is of utmost importance, as the Director of the change has to be screened for competence, capability and leadership qualities. The selected change agent has been selected from within the University on the basis of his track record in University departmental management. Whether he has the necessary leadership traits to lead the university transformation successfully is in question. Hence, the need for more external support from consultants and objective change champions. In an organization with high workforce diversity, staff is more likely to identify and be loyal to their departments rather than the activities of the entire organization. This indicates the importance of devolving responsibility departmental heads when identifying change leaders.

- **Change levers**: The key levers of NUL’s transformation were based on the trips made to neighbouring universities in South Africa. The trips were made to investigate how the particular universities went about their change process and to learn from their success and avoid the mistakes that hindered their change processes. The constraint of financial resources may have limitations for NUL to invest a great deal in more change levers such as education, training and personal development interventions, to make the transformation process to stick and become a long-term success. This includes employment of relevant and qualified staff required for the change. However, features of the organization that have in the past been assets but currently represent barriers to change should be given up or destroyed.

### 4.4 NUL’s CULTURAL CONTEXT FOR CHANGE

An organization’s capacity to execute its strategy depends on its “hard” infrastructure - organizational structure and systems and its “soft” infrastructure – its culture and norms.
Every organization has its own unique culture, which has been defined as "the way we do things around here", and implies that the visible actions and behaviours of an organization’s members are the organization’s culture. It can further be referred to "as a set of beliefs, values and learned ways of managing and this is reflected in its structures, systems and approaches to the corporate strategy. Organizational culture most often derives from the past, present and current people, technology and physical resources, as well from its aims and objectives and values of staff members" (Lynch, 2000: 313).

Analysis of culture is important because culture influences every aspect of the organization and has an impact on the performance of organizations. When beliefs and values are compatible with an organization’s strategy, culture becomes valuable to strategy implementation and execution. If culture is in conflict with the strategy, it becomes a stumbling block that impedes successful strategy implementation and execution.

As indicated in Chapter Two, NUL’s change is transformational in nature as it impacts on the paradigm. The cultural web is used as a tool of analysis and as a way of understanding current organizational culture and mapping out the desired future organizational culture. By drawing on the current cultural web of NUL and then drawing an outline web of the sort of organization NUL would like to be if the desired changes are to be a reality, the extent of the required changes are highlighted so that the two webs will provide a picture of how different the future organization will need to be from the current organization, if NUL is to achieve its long-term strategic objectives.

4.4.1 NUL’s Current Organizational Culture

In mapping out NUL’s current organizational culture, the deeper levels of assumptions and beliefs shared by members of the organization are identified as aspects that define NUL’s current cultural context for change. NUL’s cultural web is mapped from information sought from the EYMAR (2000/1).
The assumptions and beliefs as identified in Figure 4.3 are held in the paradigm and are hedged around and connected to everyday visible behaviour by the other aspects of the web surrounding the paradigm. These form the tangible aspects of the organization such as structures and control systems as well as harder to define aspects such as formal and informal power structures, symbols, stories, myths, routines and rituals.

- **The Paradigm:** NUL is characterized by a paralysis of an inefficient and ineffective workforce resulting from low staff morale and poor motivational rewards and a lack of appropriate celebration of staff successes. Though management realizes the decline in
staff efficiency and effectiveness, nothing has been done to improve the situation, and it seems to be sinking deeper and deeper by the day.

- **Symbols**: These refer to managerial and general staff activities that are substantive enough to illustrate organizational culture-strategic fit. These actions are important in cultural analysis as they signal the kind of behaviours that influence the performance output of any organization. At NUL there is staff division according to academic and non-academic categories. This distinction creates a sense of low staff morale especially within the non-academic staff, which affects on the NUL’s overall organizational performance and delivery of its services. An ageing long service workforce also characterizes the organization. The danger of such a workforce is that it believes in doing things the old-fashioned way, being less dynamic and prefers old-fashioned, and conservative way of doing things as well as staying with the tried and tested. Also long-term serving staff feels too secure in their jobs, that they sometimes become redundant. Thus, in every decision to be made, there will always be reference on how things have always been done.

- **Power Structures**: The leadership style follows a matrix structure with a lot of managerial levels, characterized by some bureaucratic bottlenecks. This delays decision-making and makes management of the institution very complex. The University management is also challenged by highly unionized labour. This sometimes has a bearing on the decisions made and on the appointment of managerial staff members. With the current organizational structures, it is not clear who reports to whom, and this makes the establishment of the positions of departmental heads doubtful. Especially when through appointment contracts people can report directly to the appointments office, Registrar or Pro-Vice Chancellor, instead of following proper lines of command starting from respective heads and directors to senior management structures.

- **Organizational Structures**: The organizational structures are based on functional department management with highly centralized decision-making. As a result problem solving takes a long time due to the committee system of decision-making moving from departmental level to higher levels and subsequently to Senate and University Council where the final decisions are made.
• **Control Systems:** Control systems are standardized across all departments but are managed centrally. There is poor accountability and control of financial resources, as well as poor tracking of staff whereabouts during office hours. Office time is misused and spent on irrelevant and personal activities. Staff members come and go as they please, as there are no strong control mechanisms restricting human resources movement. The fact that there is no clear-cut dress code, allows staff to dress anyhow and one cannot tell the difference between a student and a lecturer. Communication is largely formal and more often done through memos for future reference. Staff promotion is done through departmental assessment for non-academic staff based on individual performance. For academic staff, assessment is done through academic criteria set out in the University statutes.

• **Routines and Rituals:** The main routine activities at NUL are teaching and research, which form the core business of the University. These activities, however, need some reviewing so as to remain relevant and of benefit to stakeholders. Most of the staff’s time is spent attending committee meetings. This has an impact on staff efficiency and effectiveness. The University has instituted training programmes that assist in the training of staff member to acquire higher degrees and as well as to attend courses and workshops to refresh their skills. Academic staff is given first preference in the allocation of training opportunities. This is a result of the University’s localization policy of replacing expatriates with qualified local staff members especially core academic staff members. It should be noted that for NUL, like most Third World universities, 100% localization is not advisable, as these universities have not yet reached the optimal levels of self-sufficiency.

• **Stories and Myths:** A significant part of NUL’s culture emerges from the stories told by old staff members to new employees to illustrate the importance of certain values, beliefs and ways of operating. There is also emphasis on how things are done and how they have always been done. This somehow creates resistance to change by reinforcing old and outdated behaviours. Politics have their own way with staff members, especially through union affiliation. The newsletter that is intended to keep staff informed of the institutes activities most often publishes information that is not useful to the intended readership.
4.4.2 NUL’s Future Organizational Culture

The future organizational culture of NUL mapped out in Figure 4.4 is informed by the recommendations of the EYMAR (2000/1).

Figure 4.4 NUL’s Future Organizational Culture Web

- **Stories and myths**
  - Clear strategic vision
  - Open dialogue

- **Symbols**
  - Consolidation of academic departments

- **Routines and rituals**
  - Fewer meetings
  - Improved communication
  - Reward and celebrate success
  - Development of relevant programs and research
  - Training

- **The paradigm**
  - Meeting stakeholder needs
  - Efficiency and effectiveness
  - Service excellence

- **Power structures**
  - Devolved responsibility

- **Control systems**
  - Performance related rewards
  - Accountability

- **Organizational structures**
  - Hierarchical matrix structures
  - Decentralized and devolved decision making
  - Flexible, dynamic and responsive

Source: Adapted from Balogun and Hailey (1999)

- **The Paradigm**: Through the transformation NUL would like to achieve success and meet its stakeholder needs through improved staff efficiency and effectiveness, as well as through service excellence. This will help the University to discharge its services on time.
and in the creation of market-related programmes and discarding less beneficial programmes. The University, through improved efficiency will be able to overcome problems caused by delays in decision-making and bureaucratic bottlenecks, in order to meet stakeholders’ needs adequately.

- **Symbols:** The University Faculties and Institutes are to be consolidated and reduced in number from six Faculties to three, and from four Institutes to one Directorate of Research. The consolidation is expected to reduce staff redundancy, duplication of services as well as better management of resources from flatter management structures.

- **Power Structures:** Administrative power is to be devolved from central administration to academic faculties. Both financial and human resources are to be managed from the faculty level reporting to the Heads of Schools and Deans of respective Departments.

- **Organizational Structures:** NUL is to change its organizational structures to more organic hierarchical managerial and organizational structures with flatter management levels. Decision-making is to be decentralized to departmental level. The flexibility and dynamism of the structures will allow management to be more responsive to staff and institutional problems as well as to reduce bottlenecks and bureaucratic red tape.

- **Control Systems:** In order to increase staff morale the University intends to be more accountable and increase communication between top management and staff. It also wants to reward and acknowledge staff successes. The University will review its promotions criteria to be performance-related, with assessment conducted at departmental level informing central administration and appointments office. Recruitment has also to be done departmentally in order for the University to start recruiting relevantly qualified staff members. As indicated earlier, departmental budgets and financial services will be controlled by Deans of Faculties not centrally as was the case before. Management will follow formal lines of command and discipline.

- **Routines and Rituals:** The University would like to concentrate more on its core activities of teaching and conducting relevant research as well as ensuring that academic departments work harmoniously with academic support services such as the library, in
delivery service excellence to stakeholders. As recommended by the management audit reports, the University intends to review its academic programmes so as to develop market-related and relevant academic and research programmes. As a result training programmes and scholarship awards should also be reviewed. This has to be done so as to match staffing requirements with programmes offered. In relation to this is matching of staff intake in relation to availability of Facilities, and the staff student ratio should allow for conducive ease of learning. Communication is to be improved and opened for increased accountability and transparency. Moreover, management should devise a means of awarding and recognizing staff successes. For the University to be able to concentrate all efforts on core business, the committee-based system of reporting and decision-making has to change. Consolidation of faculties and devolution of decision-making powers should change the number of committees and reduce time spent attending meetings and doing private consultancy works.

- **Stories and Myths:** If NUL manages to remain true to its vision, it will be able to accomplish its mission of being a leading higher learning institute. A system of open dialogue is hoped to create a sense of belonging for staff members as well as to increase loyalty and commitment to the success of the organization and its plans.

It is important for NUL to realize that the future organizational web and the identification of levers and mechanisms for change as well as the choices made should be based on targets (outputs, behaviours and values) selected and the change levers selected to achieve the targets. Even though NUL has chosen a top-down approach to change, a change approach that is bottom-up and collaborative is the best as it involves a wider range of employees in the process of developing the vision and in making cultural development and changes a success.

### 4.5 MANAGEMENT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE AT NUL

To manage transformation is not easy. Any change, organizational or otherwise, brings uncertainty. Some organizations or individuals in organizations are better able to cope with change than others. Some people may oppose newly proposed strategies and put at risk the new proposals. It is very common to find that once transformation has been implemented and enthusiasts who championed the change have moved on, the organization may slip back into old habits. Ensuring adaptation to change is an essential feature of a manager’s job when
faced with demands and pressure from the organization to improve operating capability and performance efficiency. Amongst the most difficult issues is making the change last.

The starting point for any change initiative is for the organization to be aware of and ready for the change. Awareness is most often created through continuously informing employees about the need and benefits of the change process, in order to reduce uncertainty and resistance to change. Managers need to learn to recognize the manifestations of resistance, both in themselves and in others, if they want to be more effective in creating and supporting change. Change management can be effected through processes, tools and techniques that manage the people side of business change in order to achieve the required business outcomes and to realize that businesses change effectively within the social infrastructure of the workplace.

The change process at NUL began with a forensic audit performed by Ernst and Young Management Auditors. The audit report indicated that the University needed to transform in order to meet its objectives as expected. The entire transformation is based on the EYMAR (2000/1) recommendations. Almost all the University staff members were aware of the forensic audit and its intentions, but it is doubtful as to whether they clearly understood the basis of the transformation and its implications. The University management went further with the drafting of a strategic plan with a clear mission and vision of the University to lay the foundation for the implementation of the transformational change.

Although NUL’s transformational change process started with a top-down approach to change, at the beginning of the transformational change process, the University management conducted workshops, seminars and departmental meetings, intended to educate and inform the University community about the need for the institute to transform and also create awareness of the benefits of such a transformation for the whole organization. The process could be described as participative and to a certain extent consultative with the transformation task team retaining greater control over the outcomes of the change process by setting the overall goals and means of achieving the goals. Employees were also given a chance to contribute towards the goals set for the change and the means of achieving the goals. However, the entire process was not collaborative enough as all ideas and final decisions lay with the transformation task team and there was little involvement, if any, from other employees on the decisions made on how and what to change within the institute.
The transformation task team also educated and communicated the need for transformation and the process that the intended transformation would follow, to all NUL employees. The education and communication were transmitted through workshops and group briefings. The aim was to gain greater support and commitment of staff members for the transformation and to get people informed about what is happening in the organization so as to reduce staff resistance to change. Moreover, the workshops were intended to equip employees with a thorough understanding that would enable them to undertake personal change supportive of NUL’s organizational change goals.

NUL’s transformational change process was not imposed on employees through any form of coercion or use of power. However, the transformation task team were entrusted to make the majority of decision concerning what has to be changed and how the change was to be effected. They used their authority with the guidance of the University’s top management to direct the implementation of the change.

4.6 NUL’s TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE LEADERSHIP

In transformation, there are individuals who provide the vision and the broad direction for the transformation and make the fundamental decisions which set the major transformation process in motion, through planning, organizing, consulting informing, coordinating and so on. However, managers of change are not always powerful and clear about what they can and cannot control or change within a transforming organization. Planned organizational change requires an appropriate form of leadership style. In plain terms, leadership is achieving things through other people. Weak leadership can wreck even the soundest of strategies, but on the other hand, forceful execution of poor plans can often bring victory. What matters is matching the style to the internal and external context of the organization.

The leadership style appropriate for any changing organization should be matched with the organization’s position on its lifecycle as well as the type of change required to make the organization profitable and competitive within the industry.
The model in Figure 4.5 indicates that NUL is in a mature phase of its life cycle and is at the brink of experiencing a decline. The decline is caused by NUL not being able to meet stakeholder requirements and needs due to staff inefficiencies and ineffectiveness. This is also a result of the fact that NUL has failed to become self-sufficient and still depends on the Government subvention fund for its financing thus this has serious implications for the quality of services NUL provides to its stakeholders. This compromises the quality of scholarship, graduates and research that the university produces. The leadership that NUL requires to spearhead its transformation process is one that will be able to turn it around to become more efficient, effective, and provide quality services to all stakeholders concerned.

NUL is at a stage that requires a strong leadership of a surgeon who has the capability of selectiveness, knows what has to be changed when and how, someone who is decisive and is able to make tough decisions without fear of staff reactions as long as it is for the good of the organization. NUL’s transformational change leadership should be visionary with a clear focus on where the organization is headed and how it is to get there. The required transformational leader should have charisma to provide a vision and a sense of mission that instills pride, gains respect and trust for the transformation. The leader should also be inspirational to be able to communicate high expectations, use symbols to focus efforts and to
be able to express complex but important purposes in a simple manner. Moreover, the leader should have intellectual simulation and individualized consideration to enable him to promote intelligence, rationality, careful problem-solving, give personal attention, treat each employee individually as well as to coach and advise employees accordingly.

NUL has appointed a director to lead its transformational change process from within the institute. The Director of the Transformation is Dr Makoala Marake who has been with the university for over a decade and at the time of appointment was serving as a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Soil and Conservation in the Faculty of Agriculture. He possesses special skills in negotiation, conciliation, and public speaking; and has academic prowess, adequate academic experience, and professional know-how as well as a passion for change tempered with prudence. As indicated by Lebohang Chefa, NUL’s information officer, Dr Marake has a vision and commitment to help NUL make a positive difference “moving from the past, in the present, towards the future”, and is the right man to steer the University boat into turbulent waters of uncertainty to the shore of certitude. Dr Marake possesses the necessary skills and capability to be NUL’s change agent. His enthusiasm and dedication to see the transformation process become a success are inspired by a commitment and dedication to a paradigm shift from conventional approaches to innovative and transformative development initiatives.

Having served in the strategic planning team that laid the foundation for the transformation, the Director of Transformation is convinced that what NUL needs to become a leading higher learning centre of excellence, is commitment by all staff members to the purposeful change process to reverse the crisis of the university. The Director believes that nothing short of a big transformational change will save the University from an impeding academic and management decay.

Dr Marake appears to be the appropriate leader of NUL’s transformation as he has foresight of a future state of the University delivering service excellence through transformation. Through his time at NUL he is quite clear of the constraints and circumstances of the University departments, and of what needs to be changed within the Institution, what kind of a future organization NUL is supposed to be and how through his leadership and University community support, NUL will achieve its transformational goals. He is also aware that for the transformation to be successful, it requires a managed process. His role is, therefore, to
nurture the University culture in order to facilitate a deliberate break from the historical academic and management logic that has carried the University thus far. His role entails, among other things, to articulate to internal and external stakeholders a new context encapsulating where NUL has come from, where it is now and where it is headed, as well as to convert purpose to strategic action by facilitating pragmatic activities to fulfil the new purposes of NUL.

The question that remains is whether with his capability, vision, enthusiasm and charismatic leadership, the Director of Transformation will get the necessary support, loyalty and commitment to the transformation by fellow staff members to ensure that together they all strive for the success of the transformation process and a better future for NUL. However, some people may argue that academic experience and familiarity with the institute and its problems does not mean that the selection of the change agent from within the university was a good strategic move by the university management. Maybe the change agent should have been selected from outside consultants who have the appropriate capability and no stake in the change process. This would ensure greater objectivity and much more focus on the activity without any other interventions.

4.7 SUMMARY

It is obvious from the foregoing discussion that NUL management has tried to unfreeze the organization by providing convincing reasons and the need for the organization to change. The change forces have been mapped out in the University strategic plan, which forms the basis of the university’s transformational change. The change is further informed by the EYMAR (2000/1) recommendations. The change process, as has been analyzed, requires more effort toward changing the University’s organizational culture and moving into a more sound and work-focused culture. The failure to create a sense of urgency for the transformation means that more time is to be spent of dealing with the dynamics, adaptations and changes in focus caused by a slowly moving transformation process. The University’s approach has mostly been a top-down approach to change but has somehow been interactive and involved participation from all staff members. The process was, however, not collaborative enough, giving the transformation team an upper hand in decision-making. A clear vision has been created for the future University and the appointed transformation leader shares the same vision. The vision has clearly been communicated to the university
community through the strategic plan formulation process and short-term strategic wins have been identified to guide the transformation. There is however a need to reinforce the changes to be achieved from the transformation to ensure that NUL’s crisis, management decay and staff paralysis does not reverse. In Chapter Five, recommendations will be provided as a guide of what NUL can do to ensure that whatever changes have been effected are maintained for the long-term strategic success of the Institution.
CHAPTER FIVE

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Having critically analyzed NUL’s transformational change process in Chapter Four, this chapter aims at using the outcomes of the analysis to make recommendations to NUL on what can be done to improve on the transformational change strategies adopted, so as to make the process a success and be able to achieve the intended goal of making NUL a centre of excellence through the transformation process. The conclusion that is drawn provides a summary to the entire research and the future insight into NUL after the transformation.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations put forward stem from the analysis of NUL’s transformation process in Chapter Four. The analysis was intended to study NUL’s transformation against the background information provided in the literature review, so as to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the transformation process, and make recommendations on aspects that NUL can further examine and take advantage of its strengths so as to make the entire process a success.

5.2.1 Clear Mission and Vision

Every organizational change starts with a clear mission statement, vision, and forces for the intended change, objectives and goals. If all these elements are clearly understood and embraced by all employees, then the process can begin and progress without much hindrance. The process should then be transparent and collaborative involving continuous communication between all stakeholders at all stages of the transformation. Moreover, the management of the institute should put in place mechanisms to ensure that once the change has been effected, it should be maintained and results be beneficial to the whole organization and not only to certain individuals.

118
5.2.2 Forces for Change

There is a need for the management of the NUL to recognize the kind of change required and the forces of the change before they can recognize the need for change and the aspects within the organization that need to be changed. A specific timeframe should be set for the duration of the transformation from its planning phase to its implementation as well as evaluation stages. Too much time allocated for transformation gives leeway for change to take different forms that will require a lot of adaptation and alterations to the original transformation plans. At some times, dealing with the interventions may even make the focus bleak and at the worst, the transformation goals may not even be realized. Set time frames provide for the creation of benchmarks, short-term wins and large milestones to be achieved as the change process moves through the various stages. Thus, incremental change is possible within a given timeframe.

The problems that have led to the transformation may have been clearly outlined by the forensic audit reports, but the way of trying to solve the identified problems is not really focused. The process of strategic planning should not be confused with management of change. The University management should have a common understanding and clear path of exactly what they want to achieve out of the transformation, not to do it just because consultants have recommended it. A slight confusion and misunderstanding of the process is likely to throw the whole process into shambles and destroy good intentions.

5.2.3 Integrating Changes

Organizations are complex social and technical entities in which everything is more or less connected to everything else. Ignoring this complexity and trying to effect change in only one aspect of the organization without considering the implications for other aspects of the organization, will not work. Change processes should always be integrated so that each stage builds on its predecessors. Organizational processes should be continually adapted to help keep change alive, as all setups eventually outlive their optimum efficiency. To prevent change from stagnating, people’s roles within different departments should be changed. Management should move constantly forward and build each change on the last, in this way, the gains from change will continue to benefit individuals and the organization as a whole.
There is also a need to identify other aspects within the organization that need to be developed. Currently at NUL the change is aimed at the organizational structures more than anything else. However, structural change needs to be accompanied by behavioural and technological changes so as to gain sustainable competitive advantage. Changing only one aspect of the organization without giving thought to the other parts of the organization creates a gap in the change process, especially in an academic organization like NUL where the activities of various departments are interrelated. A lack of development in one division can led to further paralysis and hindrances to the change process to produce the intended results.

5.2.4 Human Resources

Most organizations undergoing transformational change need to develop appropriate leadership structures and processes that keep them in contact with their environment and be able to recognize the need for change and how to stimulate changes identified. Change requires a systematic analysis of all parts of the organization’s key operating systems. Because change does not happen in a vacuum, the roles of people in determining the outcomes of the change are a vital issue that must not be overlooked. Without the commitment of those who produce and sell the organization’s products and services, make decisions and implement strategies, the intended change will most definitely fail to achieve the initial goals. It is, therefore, the responsibility of those in charge of the change to create and instil an appropriate environment that will reduce negativity associated with the implementation of the change. The change should be presented as an opportunity for learning and as a success creating activity, and not as a threat to people’s success and job security within the organization.

Change managers should learn to turn change plans into an offer that cannot be refused by stressing the positive potential of change and the negative risks if it is prevented. Management should be as straight forward as possible when addressing specific fears about the future of employees and the organization. Employees should be encouraged to communicate openly their fears and feelings openly as well as to confront their concerns about the change process.

The NUL management should start by acknowledging that human resources are assets and the success of any transformation depends on them. Therefore, more attention should be given to making sure that staff understand and appreciate the need for, and the benefits of, the change
before it can be implemented. Employees should be adequately equipped for any organizational change through training, change awareness workshops and seminars, and continuous information and communication on the direction and intentions of the transformational change being implemented. However, management should be aware of workshop resolutions that never become a reality, as this is a waste of time and resources to both the employees and the organization. There should be more input sought from employees if the process is intended to be consultative and some collaboration should be instilled so that all employees feel some sense of ownership of the process. As such, most of the employees are likely to embrace the process, give it more support, commitment and loyalty.

The change should be focused on the development of all employees. NUL’s transformation process seems to be focused on the development of academic staff members more than the non-academic and administrative staff. Development of the academic section without consideration of the non-academic side is likely to cause resistance among staff members as it indicates some form of biasness and favour towards others. If staff is given a sense of belonging and ownership and that the process is for the good of everybody, then resistance is likely to be reduced. The process will be a failure if the support staff will not provide the necessary support, commitment and loyalty to their academic colleagues. As a result, the objectives and goals of the transformation will not be met. Without the acknowledgement of the value that non-academic staff bring into the organization, there will always be a need for recognition and a feeling that individual needs are not met, hence an decrease in staff morale that compromises the University’s performance. Teamwork between the academic and non-academic support staff should be emphasized to highlight the importance of both to the success of all core and non-core activities of the University.

5.2.5 Organizational Culture Change

Changing an organization’s culture to align it with strategy is among the toughest management tasks. It is easier to talk about than implement. Changing problem cultures is very difficult because of the heavy anchor of deeply held values and beliefs. A culture grounded in values, practices and behavioural norms that match what is needed for good strategy execution helps energize people throughout the organization to do their jobs in a strategy-supportive manner, adding significantly to the power and effectiveness of strategy execution. The starting point should always be the diagnosis of the facets of the present
culture that are strategy supportive and those which are not. Communicate openly to all staff members' the aspects of the organization's culture that need to be changed, modified or aligned to suit current strategic initiatives.

The menu of cultural change actions should include revising policies and procedures in ways that will help drive cultural change, altering incentive compensation to reward the desired cultural behaviours, visibly praising and recognizing people who display new cultural traits, recruiting and hiring new managers and employees who have the desired cultural behaviour, replacing key executives who are strongly associated with the old culture and taking every opportunity to communicate to employees the basis for cultural change and its benefits to all concerned.

5.2.6 Management of Transformational Change

In altering the status quo of the organization be it the structure or whatever changes are enacted, members of the organization will be affected. It is, therefore, important to apply a concerted effort to make members of the organization aware of the planned change to allow for organizational development and proper management of the change and reduce the expected resistance to the change process. This also helps acclimatize employees to the change process and to prepare them for the change without affecting the organization's productivity. The most fundamental issue being the importance of employees’ participation in an effort to foster an environment in which open communication and trust exists.

NUL should, in future, use a more collaborative approach to transformation as this is the best management style when dealing with professionals such as academics who value the freedom and autonomy they have in their work. Collaboration involves more employees in the change process and they are more likely to support and be committed to the changes that they have helped design, and the more likely they are to sell the changes to others in the organization. Furthermore, collaboration can be used to determine what needs to be changed and to create awareness of the need to change by challenging complacency within the organization. Collaboration also reduces resistance and rebellion of academic employees against more directive interventions, which may be perceived to be limiting their autonomy and the right to have a say in their future. NUL management should be aware of the fact that collaborative style of management is sometimes time-consuming and does not always produce expected
results, as ideas may be provided within the existing paradigm and way of thinking that may stifle the creativity and intentions of the transformational change.

A participative and educational approach to managing change should always be used with great care. This approach may be viewed as a form of manipulation especially if the outcomes of the transformation are set out before the consultation phases. Employees should be given power to make suggestions and contribute to final decisions in a significant manner so as to promote a sense of belonging and ownership of the process. This will instil support and commitment from employees to contribute to the organization meeting its objectives successfully.

Continuous evaluation throughout all the stages of the transformation is important. This helps to ensure that the implementation, and outcomes thereof, remain in line with originally set goals, by keeping the process in control and including preventive measures whenever the need arises. Feedback from stakeholders should be sought as frequently as possible to keep the organization on track and ensure that it meets stakeholder needs effectively, as well as to know whether the transformation serves the intended purpose.

5.2.7 Promoting Creativity

For NUL’s core activities of relevance, management should release the potential for generating new knowledge, ideas and programmes by all employees concerned. Promotion of creativity and continuous innovation can be done by example, encouragement, rewarding success, skills training in relation to required capabilities, procedures, budgeting processes and promoting the organization’s objectives. Any creativity barriers should be lowered by learning to tolerate failure and eccentricity, doing away with ethnocentrism and parochialism, flattening organizational structures, removing any form of blockages, and refusing to tolerate conceptions such as “not invented here”, “it will never work”, “if it was any good somebody else would have done it”, and their equivalents. NUL management should also recognise that consensus can be the enemy of creativity, and do not allow the pursuit of agreement to kill creative initiatives. If a creative idea is proposed, it should always be considered before being discarded.
5.2.8 Dealing with Resistance to Change by Building Trust

Change will always meet with some resistance, as individuals are not altruistic. Each person will judge the transformation process according to what it promises or threatens for him or her personally. People most often, rightly, expect to benefit as individuals in return for the upheaval of making changes. In order for people to support any change initiative, they need to understand its basis and feel involved in its development. NUL management should plan how to sell the benefits of the transformation to employees as well as to try to pre-empt resistance to change by understanding employee reservations to the change process and should take steps to accommodate some objections to the change plan.

NUL management should be prepared to encounter, and plan ways to deal with, opposition to the change based on misunderstandings or rational objections, fear of personal consequences and emotional mistrust. The intensity of negative responses will largely depend on the existing degree of trust. Before introducing any change plans, employees should be consulted as much as possible to build up trust and prepare them for change. In a well-run change programme, open dialogue is usually instigated at the beginning of the change programme and should be continuous throughout the implementation of the change efforts. Resistance should also be treated as a sign of involvement and be allowed to play a positive role in the change process.

5.2.9 Managing Conflict

Managing conflict is one of the greatest challenges a leader of organizational change faces. The conflict may involve resistance to change, or involve clashing viewpoints about how the change should be carried out. That is because most organizations are “allergic” to change, seeing it as a source of danger, which it certainly can be. But conflict is a necessary part of the change process and if handled properly can serve as the engine of progress. Thus, a key imperative for a leader trying to achieve significant change is to manage people’s passionate differences in a way that diminishes their destructive potential and constructively harness their energy.
5.2.10 Education and Training

Education and training “from cradle to grave” is a key element in maintaining the momentum of change. Learning new ways of working enriches people’s jobs and alters their attitudes. Training should be related to specific tasks required for organizational development. People also require training in interpersonal skills such as leadership and team building. Training of employees will ensure that NUL meets its goals of efficiency, effectiveness and service excellence.

5.2.11 Reward and Celebrate Success

Any change process takes effort, not only to forget old ways but to also adjust to new methods of working. Special efforts deserve a special response. NUL should acknowledge staff commitment to the success of its transformational change process. People want to feel that their reward matches their efforts. NUL should celebrate the achievements of those who have made outstanding contributions with the organization. This will encourage others to join in and support the process fully and reinforce their commitment to the new ways. NUL should avoid bias in rewarding employees. All employees should be compensated for their efforts including the support staff.

5.2.12 Effective Leadership

Successful organizations have good leaders who set high standards and goals across the entire spectrum of strategies, leadership, plans, quality of productivity and reliability. Major change efforts that start from the top-down and are vision driven have to start with diagnosing the current organizational situation and then deciding on how to handle the change. This requires a leader who is familiar with the organization, its procedures, and culture and aware of the problems and crisis at hand. It also requires someone who has the ability and qualities, as well as experience, to take the organization into the uncertain future and to ensure that once the organization has achieved its transformation goals, the new organizational behaviour will be maintained for the benefit of the organization achieving long-term strategic development.

NUL’s change leadership should develop short-term wins that are achievable given the current capacity available. The leadership should be able to set a clear direction for all
stakeholders and maintain open and continuous communication about the transformation process. The leader should be able to make sure that employees are motivated and remain loyal to the organization’s initiatives and to make the employees aware that they are what it takes to make the process a success and that without their commitment and loyalty, they cannot turn the university into a first-class institution.

A successful leader should not be afraid to make mistakes but should be ready and willing to make every mistake a learning path. NUL’s leadership needs to be one that is charismatic, consultative and with a strong belief in fellow staff members, that together they can drive the institution to greener pastures. Moreover, the leader should not have any fear of being disliked by staff members when the change is being implemented for it will definitely have short-term negative implications for others and long-term benefits for all employees and the organization. The change agent should have direction and stay focused on the process and always be ready for changes that may come along as the transformation is being effected and to be able to adjust accordingly.

The effective management of others is paramount to success. The difference between leadership and management lies in the leader’s ability to inspire the will to excel. Truly effective leadership lies in mastering a wide range of skills, from implementing and administering processes to inspiring others to achieve excellence. A successful change leader should be a people person who has the best interest of staff and the organization at heart. The leader should seek to develop a climate of openness in which people are free to express their opinions and share their ideas. Leaders should spur people on to achieve their best through motivation and leading by example. NUL’s management should acknowledge the fact that people are capable of remarkable achievement if they are exposed to the right motivational and credible leadership that is able to mobilize employees’ inner drive, enthusiasm and vigour. The key to motivation is communicating a strong sense of shared purpose. There is, therefore, a need to create the undoubted desire to succeed not only for personal gratification, but also out of the sense of identification with organizational objectives and goals. People will excel themselves for a leader in whose strength and wisdom they truly believe.
Good leadership for successful strategy execution entails:

- Staying on top of what is happening, closely monitoring progress, ferreting out issues and learning what obstacles in the path of good execution
- Promoting a culture and spirit that mobilizes and energizes organizational members to execute strategy in a competent fashion and perform at a high level
- Keeping the organization responsive to continuously changing conditions, alert for new opportunities, innovative ideas and ahead of rivals in developing competitively valuable competencies and capabilities
- Exercising ethical leadership and insisting that the organization conduct its affairs like a model corporate citizen
- Pushing corrective action to improve strategy execution and overall strategic performance.

There is no one kind of leadership style that can be used successfully in isolation from the others. However, to be effective in any given situation, leaders should be aware of all forms of leadership and know how to use their elements in appropriate situations, especially when dealing with different events simultaneously.

Even though change is often associated with a particular change leader, it should not solely be dependent on them. Organizations should build positive change in all aspects of the systems and culture of the organization in practical and lasting ways, so that change programmes can continue and be sustained even after the change agents have moved on to other projects.

As indicated by Heifetz and Linsky (2000), even though leadership is an improvisational art, leaders may be guided by an overarching vision, clear values and a strategic plan, but what leaders actually do from time to time cannot be scripted. While today’s plan may make sense, tomorrow may bring about unanticipated efforts of today’s actions and thus the need to adjust accordingly. Sustaining good leadership, then, requires first and foremost the capacity to see what is happening within and outside the organization, as well as to understand how today’s turns in the road will affect tomorrow’s plans.
5.2.13 Delegate Responsibility

Managers often claim that the demands of operational and routine duties leave them with little time to concentrate on important, long-term matters, such as strategic planning or the organization’s core activities. Leaders should concentrate and dedicate most of their time to activities that no one else within the organization can perform. To create more time for other equally important organizational issues, it is essential to hand over more routine tasks through delegation. Change leaders should learn to delegate roles to managers and capable employees at all levels. Delegation should be on the basis of available skills in relation to desired outcomes. Selected employees should learn that classified information is sensitive and should be handled with confidentiality.

5.2.14 Achieving Success Through Teamwork

Effective leaders create a culture of teamwork. Each person must know that success is inextricably linked to the success of the team as a whole and if the team is to win more often, every one must be responsible for improving the game. Achieving success through teams is particularly relevant in the current business climate where organizations are under pressure to transform. Individuals are compelled to work hand-in-hand to build on each other’s strengths and to compensate for their colleagues’ weaknesses.

5.2.15 Discipline

Discipline is the single most important criterion for the success of organizational change. While industry-leading skills and knowledgeable people are central to the success of an organization; a culture of discipline is what truly differentiates a winning organization. Skill can be taught, self-discipline cannot. In successful organizations, the culture of discipline starts at the very top, with leaders who lead with passion and commitment and are not egocentric. They recognize that the organization is not built on the back of only one visionary leader but through integrative teamwork. They recognize that a whole is far greater than the sum of its parts.
5.2.16 Implementation of Change

NUL should learn that the implementation of transformational change is not as easy as said. It is a process that requires a lot of organization-wide changes that involve adaptation that flows with the nature of the process. Even though, the transformation task team has visited other institutes that have recently undergone some form of change, the University management should learn that every organization has its own way of dealing with its own problems. There is no set strategy or formula for dealing with and effecting change. No one strategy can work the same for all organizations. NUL should, however, learn from the mistakes that the other universities have experienced and avoid doing the same. They should also learn from their successes and adopt some of the strategies that are fit for NUL’s change process. In a nutshell, every change has its own appropriate strategies depending on the nature of the problems at hand and the change style that could lead to its success.

The change should be incrementally implemented or take the form of modular transformation, so that it is much easier to control and adjust the change efforts from time to time. Through incremental implementation, the change will be effected in one department first to test the waters and the change agents will be able to learn what it is they are doing wrong and what their strongest points of the transformation are. They will also be able to keep the whole process on track and in line with the overall objectives and goals.

5.2.17 Ensure that Organizational Change is Sustainable

Having achieved successful results through effective change, organizations sometimes relapse into complacency once the “Hawthorne effect” has worn off. The organization either reverts to its original state or moves in a new direction that may not be desirable. This explains why turnarounds, in which drastic changes have moved companies from crisis to strong survival, often peter out. NUL must ensure that once the status quo has been changed, it must be maintained for long-term strategic development of the organization.

5.2.18 Organizational Self-Appraisal

However good the change agents are in leading the change, there is always room for improvement. Management should be sure to highlight on the change successes, but also
develop a habit of self-criticism, both of leadership and the organization at large. It is as important to enjoy the success of change initiatives as it is to be aware of, and work on, its weak points. There should be no hesitation to pass on praise and appreciation to staff and share the fruits of their success. As the best antidote to complacency, NUL management should adopt a formal system of organizational self-appraisal. This process will reveal shortcomings and help renew efforts to improve continuously.

5.2.19 Refocusing Change

Change initiatives are not unstoppable tides. They change course from time-to-time. Change plans should not be cast in stone. Change objectives should be reviewed from time-to-time to ensure that the aims remain relevant to external and internal environmental circumstances. A change process that does not change is a contradiction in terms. As a result, an organization’s change momentum will be lost unless there is periodic renewal, both for the specific plan and for those executing it. NUL management should, therefore, re-examine the details of their change policy regularly and refocus the programme if progress seems to be slowing down. Refocusing can be done through the annual launching of the change process with fresh mission and vision statements.

5.2.20 Changing Continually

The completion of the transformational change process should not be considered as an end in itself. It is more beneficial to examine the procedures and processes that the organization has followed and to inject the best aspects from them into the rest of the organization. NUL should promote change enthusiasts and seek new projects that can utilize lessons of success. These projects should be set against a general background of continuous, University-wide improvement, and pave the way for change management to become “the way we do things around here”.

5.2.21 Achieving Dynamic Stability

The fact that organizations have to change to stay alive is a given. Most proponents of change management argue that organizations have to change as much as possible, and as quickly as possible, to stay ahead of the competition. Abrahamson (2001), however, argues that in order
to change successfully, organizations should stop changing all the time. Instead should intersperse major change, through a process of dynamic stability. At its essence, dynamic stability is a process of continual but relatively small change efforts, that involve the reconfiguration of existing practices and business models rather than the creation of new ones. The change should be implemented at the right intervals. Moreover, there is a need to combat chaos, cynicism and burn out by using change tools that are less destructive. Oscillation between big and small changes helps ensure dynamic stability in organizations. Of greater importance, it paves the way for change to succeed. Change does not always have to create anguish. Sometimes change is more effective when it hurts less.

5.3 CONCLUSION

From the foregoing discussions, it could be noted that effective transformational change should be organization-wide, concerning different levels and functions of the organization, its people, organizational structures as well as methods and process of doing business. Organizational change is seen as a very complex process triggered by either internal organizational or external environmental factors that challenge the organization to improve on the quality of its products and services to meet stakeholder needs and to remain competitive and gain competitive advantage in the industry.

In a world of constantly fluctuating demand and supply, of changing customer and stakeholder needs, environmental pressures, globalization of business as well as the wider concerns brought about by the legitimate expectations of employees, change is essential. However, effecting the change is very complex as every change initiative involves people who can either make or break the change process. Management of change mechanisms and the type of leadership to direct the change process is also of paramount importance in making the change process a success. As a result there should always be a strategic fit between organizational culture and management of change strategies, leadership and the nature of change style the institution has adopted.

If NUL’s transformational change process is to be an on-going process, it should be characterized by fine tuning of the ‘fit’, or match, between the organization’s strategy, new structures, people and processes. Such an effort should be manifested in the refining of policies and methods of productivity, creating specialist units and mechanisms to ensure
improved quality of service, developing personnel specially suited to the present strategy, fostering individual and group commitment to the company mission and excellence of the organization, promoting confidence in the changed accepted norms, myths and beliefs, and clarifying established roles and mechanisms for allocating available resources equitably among different departments.
REFERENCES


INTERNET REFERENCES

http://www.DougSmart.com/
http://www.nul.ls/

UNPUBLISHED DRAFT REPORTS

Commonwealth Higher Education Management Services (1994/5)

Ernst and Young Management Audit Report (2000/1)


APPENDIX 1

MANAGEMENT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE AT NUL

SECTION A: GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. DEMOGRAPHICS

1.1 Age:
1.2 Gender:
1.3 Occupation:
1.4 Employment Category: Administration Academic Non-Academic
1.5 Number of years employed by NUL:

2. STRATEGIC CHANGE

2.1 In your opinion what is strategic change?

2.2 What is its relevance to organizations?

2.3 When is it necessary for organizations to implement strategic changes?

2.4 What are the factors that lead to organizational change?

2.5 What are the driving forces of strategic change?

2.6 How should change be effected?
2.7 What tools should be used to motivate the change process?

2.8 Why do employees resist change?

2.9 What can organizations do to manage employee and stakeholder resistance to change?

2.10 What should be done to effectively manage change in transforming organizations?

3. LEADING CHANGE

3.1 What kind of leadership is essential for successful organizational change? WHY?

3.2 Who should lead change in transforming organizations (should it be internal agents or external consultants)? WHY?

3.3 What are the implications of leadership on the change process?

4. NUL STRATEGIC TRANSFORMATION

4.1 What do you understand by transformation?

4.2 What are your views on the overall NUL transformation process and its relevance to the organization?

4.3 What is the need or motivation for NUL to transform?
4.4 What motivational tools has NUL used and put in place to effect the proposed change?

4.5 What have been the general employee and stakeholder reactions to the transformation process?

4.6 What structures has NUL put in place to reduce resistance to the transformation process?

4.7 In your opinion has NUL selected the appropriate change agents that could lead to a successful transformation process? WHY?

4.8 Are NUL’s current leadership and management structures strategically fit for effecting the ongoing transformation successfully? WHY?

4.9 What is the appropriate leadership style for NUL’s transformation process?

4.10 Do you think NUL is following the correct steps of transformation? WHY?

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 What transformation steps can you recommend for NUL? (Please list)

5.2 What recommendations can you make to NUL so that it can achieve success in implanting its transformation process?
SECTION B: NUL’S CHANGE KALEIDOSCOPE

1. Time

How much time has been planned for NUL to achieve transformational change?

Is NUL’s transformational change concerned with a crisis or it is concerned with long-term strategic development?

Are NUL’s stakeholders expecting long-term or short-term results from the change?

2. Scope

Is the required outcome realignment or transformation?

Does the change effect the whole organization or is it only with a particular department?

3. Preservation

To what extent is it essential to maintain continuity or preserve specific assets or practices as a result of the transformation?

Does these practices or assets constitute invaluable resources or do they contribute to the stability or identity within NUL as an organization?
4. Diversity

How diverse or relatively homogeneous are NUL employees in terms of its values, norms and attitudes?

Are there many subcultures or national cultures within NUL employees?

With whom or what in the organization (NUL) do different staff groups’ identify- their team, job, department, division or the whole organization?

Are there professionals who identify more with their profession or vocation than their employing organization (NUL)?

5. Capability

How capable or competent is NUL at managing change and how widespread throughout the organization is this capability?

How much change has the organization (NUL) and its individual staff experienced in the past?

Is there enough expertise at an individual level for handling change?

6. Capacity

How much financial resources are there to divert the change?
How much human resources are there to divert the change?

7. **Readiness**

Are NUL staff members aware of the need for change?

If they are, how willing and motivated are they towards the change?

How much support generally is there for the change?

How much understanding is there of the scope needed for change?

8. **Power**

Where is power vested within the organization (NUL)?

For this change to be successful who are the major stakeholders within and outside the organization (NUL) whose support must be canvassed?

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE!
June 6, 2003

To Whom It May Concern:

MBA RESEARCH DISSERTATION: FINAL YEAR STUDENT

SPECIALITY: STRATEGIC MARKETING MANAGEMENT

TOPIC: AN EVALUATION OF THE MANAGEMENT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL CHANGE AT THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF LESOTHO

Tsepiso Mohapi-Molo Student No 202514775

It is a requirement of our Master of Business Administration Degree that all students undertake a practical research project, in their third year of study.

Typically this project will be a “practical problem solving” exercise, and necessitate visits to, and discussions with, personnel at organizations in commerce or industry.

Your assistance in permitting access to your organization for purposes of this research is most appreciated. Please be assured that all information gained from the research will be treated with the utmost circumspection. Further, should you wish the result from the thesis “to be embargoed” for an agreed period of time, this can be arranged. Under no circumstances will information that is confidential to your organization be revealed to anybody other than the student concerned, and the examiners.

Many thanks for your assistance in this regard.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

W T HARRISON
Acting Head of School