MANAGERIAL COMPETENCIES REQUIRED BY LIBRARY MANAGERS TO EFFECTIVELY MANAGE CHANGE IN SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES.

by

PRAVERSH JEEBODH SUKRAM

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SUPERVISOR : Dr. W. H. RAUBENHEIMER

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ABSTRACT

This study has been undertaken to determine and examine the managerial competencies required by library managers at different managerial levels in effectively managing change in university libraries in South Africa.

South African universities have experienced a large number of changes since 1994 which have inevitably affected the libraries of these universities. Library managers have been faced with a number of challenges. The study includes a literature review which highlights the findings that library managers in university libraries in South Africa, are not prepared to manage change. The literature review also identifies the competencies that are required to manage change. These are:

- Communication
- Planning and administration
- Teamwork
- Strategic action
- Global awareness
- Self-management.

The following management functions are also highlighted in the literature review:

- Job descriptions
- Job/person specifications
- Human resource planning
- Recruitment and selection of staff
- Staff appraisal
- Staff training and development.

Questionnaires were used to gather data from the population of the study. The data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) Version 15.

The main findings of the study are:

- Library managers in the university libraries are not equipped to manage change
- First line managers do not require any of the competencies to manage change.
- Middle managers require communication competencies and teamwork competencies.
- Communication competencies, planning and administration competencies, teamwork competencies and strategic action competencies are required by senior managers to manage change.

Based on the descriptive statistics and the hypotheses tested, this study provides a basis for a model that identifies the competencies and managerial functions that are required by the different managerial levels to manage change in university libraries in South Africa.

Recommendations include that:

- Library schools introduce a module on change management
- Competencies to be work shopped to all levels of library managers
- Structured training needs to be undertaken that cover all managerial functions
- A management qualification must become a minimum requirement for all managerial jobs in university libraries
- All senior managers should at least have a management major in their first degree or a Master of Business Administration (MBA).

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

South African universities have experienced a number of changes since 1994. One of these changes has been the merging of different universities. The National Working Group Report on the restructuring of the higher education system in South Africa recommended the merging of higher educational institutions. Mergers would be complete by January 2005 and would create 22 institutions out of an existing 36 universities and technikons (IEASA 2004: 13).

Such changes have and will inevitably affect the libraries of these universities. They will also bring a number of challenges for library management. Effective leadership would be required to navigate libraries through this period of uncertainty. Massis (2003: 3) states that to successfully negotiate the rough waters of change, the guiding force behind this change must include a strong respectful partnership between the library manager and library staff. Ponder (2001: 2) argues that leaders of organisations focus on areas such as identifying problems, managing change in the internal and external work environments, structuring the organisation, and motivating groups to achieve their goals. Their mission is to ensure that the organisation achieves specific objectives with the support of subordinates who are energised and excited about their vision and direction. For leaders to manage successfully, the support of their staff is crucial. Massis (2003: 3) has stressed that staff is a library manager's most important asset.

Denny (2002: 160) agrees and goes on to add that people are a library's most valuable resource especially now that libraries are interacting in an increasingly competitive, dynamic and global environment. However, human resources are also one of the most complex resources to manage. If not managed properly, the functioning of an organisation can be adversely affected. People-related problems in an organisation could

result in low production levels, high wastage, absenteeism, lack of motivation and a negative grapevine.

Stueart and Moran (1998: 165) mention that managing human resources has become more complex in the last few decades. One of the reasons they give is the increasing diversity of the workplace. As the workplace becomes less homogenous, a manager has to learn to deal with people from different backgrounds. In South Africa this problem is compounded by the different labour legislation that exists. Library managers need to keep abreast, for example, with the Labour Relations Act 66/1995, Occupational Health and Safety Act 85/1993, Employment Equity Act 55/1998 and the Skills Development Act 97/1998. They also have to have a good working knowledge of job analysis, job descriptions and job/person specifications, recruitment and selection procedures, performance management and training and development.

Employees also expect to have jobs that are more meaningful and provide opportunities for promotion and career advancement. It is therefore imperative that library managers have the necessary skills and qualifications to manage these problems. Often, as in other sectors, library managers are appointed to their positions without the necessary human resource management skills or qualifications. Oldroyd (2004: 42) refers to this as the Peter Principle, where capable workers are promoted until they reach their level of incompetence. Scott Adams suggests that this principle at least generated managers who had once been good at something and held out the prospect for everyone to rise to a level of highly paid and comfortable competence (Oldroyd 2004: 42). Now, he goes on to argue, the Peter Principle has been replaced by what he has christened the Dilbert Principle where 'the incompetent workers are promoted directly to management without ever passing through the temporary competence stage...the most ineffective workers are systematically moved to a place where they can do least damage...management'(Oldroyd 2004: 42). Adams is a cartoonist and has written a number of books on life among the managed and he also acknowledges that he uses a lot of 'bad boss' themes in his work and that he will never run out of material as he receives hundreds of messages a day complaining about 'clueless' managers. Although Adams presents his work as cartoons

and shows the amusing side of management, it is clear that a challenge to managers, including academic library managers, is to change the way others see them. There is a perception among library staff that library managers are appointed because of seniority and because they are good librarians. A human resource qualification is not a prerequisite to becoming a manager. Oldroyd (2004: 42) suggests that one way to change the status quo is to ensure that we get the right people doing the right jobs as managers to guide us in the future. This is as true for academic libraries and information services as anywhere else.

Staff are the means by which organisations can ensure that they deliver what their customers require. It is therefore necessary to get the most value from this key resource, and this can be achieved by giving careful and well-informed attention to each stage in staff management (Jordan and Lloyd 2002: 1).

Senge (1990) suggests that an organization is not made up of separate, unrelated parts. He states that when we give up this illusion, we can build 'learning organizations' where people continually expand their capacity to create results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together. It is no longer sufficient to have one person learning for the organization. The organisations that will excel in the future will be the organisations that discover how to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels in an organisation. Organisations need to operate in a context where staff complement each others' strengths and compensate for each others' limitations (Senge 1990: 3).

He adds that five new 'component technologies' are gradually converging to innovate learning organisations. Each provides a vital dimension in building organisations that can truly 'learn' that can continually enhance their capacity to realize their highest aspirations (Senge 1990: 6). These five new 'component technologies' or 'disciplines' are personal mastery (fostering the personal motivation to continually learn how our actions affect our world), mental models (focusing on the openness needed to unearth shortcomings in our

present ways of seeing the world), building a shared vision (fostering a commitment to the long term), team learning (developing the skills of groups of people to look for the larger picture that lies beyond individual perspectives) and systems thinking which integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice. It keeps them from being separate gimmicks or the latest organizational change fads. Without a systematic orientation, there is no motivation to look at how the disciplines interrelate. By enhancing each of the other disciplines, it continually reminds us that the whole can exceed the sum of its parts (Senge 1990: 12).

Although universities have human resources departments which provide assistance to library managers, it is the library managers who are directly responsible for the personnel in the libraries they manage. The lack of managerial attributes and competencies by library managers will not only negatively influence the functioning of the library but will result in increased stress for the manager and also the personnel. Mahadea (2000: 118) refers to this as an unhealthy or sick organisation.

According to Armstrong the following are the principles of modern human resource management:

- People are the most important assets an organisation has, and their effective management is key to success
- Organisational success is more likely to be achieved if the human resources policies and practices are linked with, and make contributions to, the achievement of the organisation's objectives and strategic plans
- The organisation's cultures and values will exert a major influence on the achievement of excellence, and this culture must be managed so that the values are accepted and acted upon by employees
- Continuous effort is required to encourage all individuals in the organisation to work together with a sense of common purpose (Stueart and Moran 1998: 167).

There is growing pressure on libraries to provide a good service for their users. Employees will only provide a good service if they receive good service from their managers. They need to feel that they are valued and that their managers have their interests at heart. To be efficient and productive, their needs must be met.

There is also a growing pressure for library managers to be multi-skilled. Ifidon (1992: 9) states that the four key resources which the librarian manages are people (library staff and library clientele); information (bibliographic and media resources); physical facilities (building, furniture and equipment) and finance. Each of these resources has to be managed separately but the end results of the librarian's good management - good service and user satisfaction - are a function of a successful blending of the overall management of all resources.

A manager is judged on his or her management of all these key resources.

1.2. The research problem

Libraries are made up of a number of inter-dependent departments that contribute to their efficient functioning. The primary function of a university library is to support the teaching, learning and research of its institution. Walker (2003) adds that the library is central to a university's function of advancing knowledge by research and teaching. It is also vital for application of knowledge to the needs of society. In order to contribute effectively and add value to the services offered to its community, the university library will need to have a number of resources to achieve this. One of these resources is its human resources. The management of this resource becomes more critical when an organisation is going through a process of change.

If human resources are not managed effectively, the library's goals will not be met. The management of people is one of the most challenging aspects of a manager's job. To meet these challenges, managers will need to be equipped with a wide range of human management skills. If managers were appointed by the Peter Principle then they would be

lacking in these skills. The challenges confronting library management are further compounded by the merging of universities. Muller (2003: 143) states that mergers have been seen to have the following impact on library staff:

- Stress - anxiety and resistance
- Absenteeism - increase in sick leave taken
- Lack of acceptance - by their counterparts
- Psychological contract - a sense of self-preservation in that staff would look after themselves as they felt that no one else was looking out for them
- Job security - the elimination and rationalisation of duplication presents an issue for job security
- Fairness of appointments - suspicion and concerns about the fairness of appointments
- Low morale - feelings of insecurity, lack of respect (for management and for each other) and lack of direction ('not sure where we are going')
- Speed and timing of change - there is a need for the period of change not to be prolonged. This will result in low morale, lack of focus and increased uncertainty for library staff
- Spreading the work load.

Levine (1984) adds that at times of change employees become anxious that their jobs are at risk and their career development will come to a halt (Goulding 1996: 7). Goulding (1996: 8) argues that employees may be subject to various forms of work-related stress including uncertainty, instability, insecurity, increased workload, role conflict and ambiguity, pressure to cut costs, and strains between management and staff. Jayaram (2003: 89) agrees and goes on to state that merger issues brought about a deep sense of insecurity among staff.

Given the above it is evident that mergers bring with them a number of complex human managerial problems. They also create new challenges for managers. At times of change it is not only the employees who experience stresses but also the managers. Muller (2003:

155) points out that in times of change it is the middle managers and supervisors in particular, who are often squeezed between the new and the old order. The roles, behaviours and attitudes of managers have an important impact and can make a fundamental difference to how well employees cope with the change and adjustments to a new working environment or situation.

Edwards and Walton (2000) stress that in academic libraries an atmosphere of openness, good communication, clear vision, leadership and training engenders good change management. Consultation, communications, transparency and informality minimise fear and suspicion. They add that staff resent the sense that changes are imposed on them and that they are powerless - they need to be involved. Staff need to understand the rationale behind decisions which are been made, even if they do not agree with them. Sullivan (1999: 73) adds that leadership in libraries need to transform. This requires a new philosophy of leadership, one that empowers staff and fosters creativity. Staff in a group or team must be encouraged to generate results and be empowered by the results they generate.

Evered and Selman propose that the role of manager must be that of coach, the manager must be committed to a partnership. The heart of coaching in this context is the relationship between the manager or leader and the staff member. The essential elements of this meaning of coaching are:

- Partnership, mutuality, relationship
- Commitment to producing a result and enacting a vision
- Compassion, generosity, nonjudgmental acceptance, love
- Speaking and listening for action
- Responsiveness of the player to the coach's interpretation
- Honoring the uniqueness of each player, relationship, and situation
- Practice and preparation
- Willing to coach and be coached
- Sensitivity to 'team' as well as to individuals

- Willingness to go beyond what's already been achieved (Sullivan 1999: 75).

The adoption of authoritarian attitudes in order to gain greater control is considered counter-productive. Edwards and Walton (2000) maintain that those in positions of leadership need to be firm yet flexible. Leaders need to listen to their colleagues and need to be consistent in their approach. Their support of staff should be ongoing.

Sweeney (1994: 85) argues that it is critically important for the library leader to be a strategist (with a vision, a plan, and the will to achieve it), communicator, coordinator, planner, motivator, nurturer, recruiter, teacher, negotiator, and mediator. A leader cannot lead without the trust and support of superiors and the parent organization. An organizational commitment to change is essential for successful leadership. This also assumes constant support and reinforcement of the value and importance of the vision and the mission.

Research by the consulting firm Hay/McBer, found that leaders displayed six distinct leadership styles, each springing from different components of emotional intelligence (Goleman 2000: 78). These styles are the coercive style, authoritative style, affiliative style, democratic style, pacesetting style and the coaching style. Their study has also demonstrated that the more styles a leader exhibits, the better. Leaders who have mastered four or more - especially the authoritative, democratic, affiliative, and coaching styles - have the very best climate and business performance. The most effective leaders switch flexibly among the leadership styles as needed (Goleman 2000: 87).

It is part of a manager's job to develop an organisation by introducing steady, predictable change. The pressures of today's environment, however, mean that change is often irregular, unplanned and erratic (Goulding 1996: 1). Clearly in an environment characterised by change additional pressures are brought to bear on the organisation's managerial structure. However, a management qualification is not a requirement when library managers are appointed. This is evident when perusing job advertisements for library managers.

Given the above, the immediate problem is that managers in university libraries are not prepared for change.

1. 3. Research objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

- Establish the leadership strategy and vision used by library managers to guide a library through a process of change.

- Determine the management competencies required by library managers in university libraries in South Africa.

- Cluster these competencies according to the different managerial levels, as defined by Hellriegel et al. (2002: 12).

- Determine human resources competencies required by management in a change management environment.

- Determine training and development needs of existing and potential managers.

- Suggest core change management content for library and information schools' curricula.

- Make recommendations on how change can be managed effectively.

1.4. Research questions

There are a number of questions that need to be addressed. In particular, the main questions this study will attempt to answer are:

- What leadership strategies and vision are used by library managers to guide a library through a process of change?

- What management competencies are required by library managers in university libraries to guide a library through a process of change?

- What managerial competencies are required by managers in the different managerial levels, in a change management environment?

- What human resources competencies are required by management in a change management environment?

- What training and development needs are required by managers in a change management environment?

- What management courses can library schools provide that will better equip library managers for the management of change?

- What recommendations can be made for how change can be managed effectively?

1.5. The research hypotheses

The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 2: H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 3: H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 4: H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 5: H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 6: H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 7: H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 8: H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 9: H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 10: H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 11: H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 12: H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 13: H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 14: H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 15: H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 16: H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 17: H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 18: H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

1.6. Definitions of key terms

The following are definitions of the key terms of the study.

Attribute

- A quality or characteristic inherent in or ascribed to someone or something.

Change management

- The coordination of a structured period of transition from situation A to situation B in order to achieve lasting change within an organisation (Chartered Management Institute 2004: 76).

Job analysis

- Analysis of the essential factors of a particular piece of work and the necessary qualifications of the person who is to perform it (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. viii: 247).

- Heery and Noon (2001: 184) define job analysis as the process of analysing the content of jobs in order to guide recruitment and selection, identify training needs, or for the purpose of job evaluation. Job analysis is carried out in a number of ways, including interviewing jobholders and supervisors, observation of work activity, and the completion of a job analysis questionnaire. The result should be an account of the tasks and competencies that comprise a particular job, which can then be used to inform a wide range of personnel management practice.

Job description

- This is a document that outlines the purpose of the job, the tasks involved, the duties and responsibilities, the performance objectives, and the reporting relationships. (Heery and Noon 2001: 186).

Job evaluation

- Is the process of analysing and assessing the content of jobs in order to place them in an acceptable order or hierarchy which then can be used as a basis for employment compensation (Hunter 2000: 121).

Manager

- Is a person who plans, organises, directs and controls the allocation of human, material, financial, and information resources in pursuit of the organisation's goals (Hellriegel et al. 2002: 7).

Managerial competencies

- Are sets of knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes that a person needs to be effective in a wide range of managerial jobs (Hellriegel et al. 2002: 5).

Performance/staff appraisal

- Is the process of evaluating the performance and assessing the development/training needs of an employee (Heery and Noon 2001: 7).

Person/job specification

- This is a document that describes the skills, knowledge, and qualities needed to perform a particular job (Heery and Noon 2001: 268).

Planning, organising, leading and controlling. These are the four essential managerial functions of management that were outlined by Henri Fayol (Jones and George 2003: 7).

Plan

- Is a formulated or organised method according to which something is to be done; a scheme of action, design, the way in which it is proposed to carry out some proceeding (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. xi: 958).

Planning

- The forming of plans (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. xi: 971).
- The process of organising how something should be done in future (Ivanovic and Collin 2003: 201).

Lead

- To cause to follow in one's path, to cause to go along with oneself (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. viii: 745).

Leading

- The action to lead (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. viii: 750).

Leadership

- A quality that enables a person to manage or administer others (Ivanovic and Collin 2003: 153).

Organise

- To arrange (personally), to take responsibility for providing (something) (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. x: 924).
- To set up a system for doing something (Ivanovic and Collin 2003: 187).

Control

- The fact of controlling, or of checking and directing action; the function or power of directing and regulating; domination; command; sway (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. iii: 852).
- The power or ability to direct something (Ivanovic and Collin 2003: 62).

Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment

- The act or process of recruiting a class of person (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. xiii: 376).
- The process of generating a pool of candidates from which to select the appropriate person to fill a job vacancy (Heery and Noon 2001: 298).

Select

- The word select is defined as to choose or to pick out in preference to another or others (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. xiv: 901).

Selection

- Selection is the action of selection or choosing; also the fact of being selected or chosen (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. xiv: 901). Heery and Noon (2001: 320) define selection as the process of assessing job applicants. It is the stage that follows the recruitment process.

When undertaking recruitment and selection, South African library managers need to have a working knowledge of the Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998. Management needs to be committed to the implementation of an Equal Opportunities and Employment Equity policy, which recognises that employment equity programmes are integral to transformation in South Africa. The purpose of this Act is to achieve equality in the workplace by:

- Promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and
- Implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce (Business blue-book of South Africa 2004: 131).

Training and development

Training

- Discipline and instruction directed to the development of powers or formulation of character; education; rearing; bringing up; systemic instruction and exercise in some art, profession, or occupation, with a view to proficiency (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. xviii: 372).
- The process of changing the skills, attitudes, and knowledge of employees with the purpose of improving their level of competence (Heery and Noon 2001: 372).

Development

- The bringing out of latent capabilities (of anything); the fuller expansion (of any principle or activity) (Simpson and Weiner 1989 v. iv: 564).

1.7. Introduction to the literature review

The objectives of the literature review were to investigate the competencies required by library managers to manage change in university libraries. It was found that literature on personnel management in academic libraries indicates that the management of human resources in a university library and in a business are similar.

Literature on change theories demonstrates the different approaches to change from classical management theory; contingency theory; purposeful action approach; organic adaptation approach; life-cycle approach; gestalt, field theory and systems; organisational development and knowledge-based theories. For example, the exercise of control is one of the main preoccupations of classical management theory while the main assumption of contingency theory, which is part of the functionalist tradition, is that the structural components of the organisation must be integrated for the organisation to survive.

The purposeful action approach proposes the strategic choice model of decision making and resource dependency theory. Child (1972: 13) refers to the concept of a dominant coalition which was formulated by Cyert and March in 1963. The notion of a dominant coalition refers to those who collectively hold most power in an organisation over a period of time. The dominant coalition concept draws attention to the question of who is making the choice.

Demers (2007: 11) argues that decision making models are concerned with decisions about change but are much broader in scope. After all, not all or even most decisions result in change. In the same way, resource dependency can be used to explain stability as well as change. For example, Pfeffer and Salancik (2003: 106) discuss organisational responses to environmental pressures, such as avoidance and manipulation. The organisation can adapt and change to fit environmental requirements or the organisation can attempt to alter the environment so that it fits the organisation's capabilities.

The organic adaptation approach offers a vision of organisations and change whose impact can be felt to varying degrees in more recent perspectives, such as the cultural and political approaches.

The life-cycle approach states that organisational development follows a predetermined sequence of stages from birth to maturity, sometimes followed by decline and death.

Field theory proposes that phenomena should be examined in their entirety. Innovation is seen as the result of the action of a number of forces within the organisation's systems, and calls for an understanding of the organisation as a whole while gestalt theory advocates:

- Adopting a holistic problem-solving approach to change
- Identifying the real issues beneath the surface
- Working to develop insights
- Establishing new ways of thinking about change, and about specific problems

- Treating change management as a learning process.

Systems theory is similar to both field theory and gestalt theory in that it views the organisation as a series of sub-systems. Organisational subsystems are related to each other and a change in one part of the organisation will trigger change in other subsystems.

Organisational development (OD) begins with the proposal that individuals have a complex and sophisticated reaction to change. In general, OD possesses a number of features which present a positive approach to change management. It pays attention to the structure of the organisation, its power bases, social and political systems, the technological make-up of the organisation, and the human resource implications.

Knowledge-based theories introduce concepts such as the learning organisation, double loop learning, knowledge management and knowledge leadership.

Managerial competencies identified in the literature were:

- Communication
- Planning and administration
- Teamwork
- Strategic action
- Global awareness
- Self management.

Jordan and Lloyd (2002: 1) refer to the different stages of staff management as:

- Writing of job descriptions
- Drawing up job/person specifications - this would entail a description of the skills, knowledge, and qualities needed to perform a particular job
- Human resource planning
- Recruitment and selection of staff

- Staff appraisal
- Staff training and development.

Similar stages for staff management are provided by Creth and Duda (1981: viii), Simmons-Welburn and McNeil (2004: xii), Hunter (2000: 64) and Stueart and Moran (1998:180). Stueart and Moran (1998:180) also include job analysis and job evaluation.

Hellriegel et al. (2002:12) outlined the basic levels of management as:

- First-line managers
- Middle managers
- Top managers.

The main sources of information in the literature review were:

- Books sourced from the Library catalogue, publishers' catalogues such as Global Books, SACat via Inter-library loan
- Published articles, dissertations and theses via SABINET and Ebscohost databases.

These sources revealed many other relevant papers and books which were also studied. The following search terms were used in the literature research:

- Change management
- Change management in university libraries
- Change management in academic libraries
- Change management in libraries
- Change management in universities
- Change management in colleges
- Change management in higher education
- Change management competencies

- Change management and human resource management
- Change management and personnel management
- Change management and leadership
- Change management and training
- Change management and staff development.

1.8. Limitations of the study

- The study was dependent on university library directors providing information regarding their managerial staff. Certain directors forwarded the questionnaire link to staff not in managerial positions.
- As the method of data collection was via the internet it could not be ascertained which libraries did not respond. This was done for confidentiality reasons.

1.9. Outline of chapters

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review which was extensive. The chapter discusses the different change management theories, patterns of change, how change affects human resources, types of organisational change and the role of leadership in management. It also identifies the competencies that are required by managers to manage change. The different managerial levels are also discussed.

Chapter 3 discusses the principles of the research methodology that were relevant for this study. It presents the research questions, objectives and hypotheses followed by an explanation of the research model and how the data was analysed.

The results of the study are presented in Chapter 4 while Chapter 5 contains the discussions regarding the results and the conclusion and recommendations based on the study.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

No organisation in the world, in any industry, can operate in an environment devoid of progressive change. Change cannot operate without a process to manage change (Goncalves 2007: 96). Every time a process is changed, workers must change as well. Goncalves (2007: 1) adds that the majority of workers are ignored and so are their cultural issues.

Change processes and change mechanisms in the business world have evolved rapidly over the last twenty years. There is nothing new about change, as change is part of the process of evolution, and little progress or growth can be achieved in a static environment. Since the late 1970s there has been a growing passion in business for what Roberts (2006: 8) terms 'packaged solutions' or 'packaged change'. Unlike the evolutionary approach, 'packaged change' nearly always involves something much closer in nature to revolution rather than evolution.

Revolutionary change is not new to business or industry. Two of the most notable examples were the advent of the production line (Henry Ford), and the time and motion study (Frederick Taylor). Both these techniques revolutionised production processes around the world and also had a major impact upon management theory (Roberts 2006: 9).

Change suggests progress, growth, success and also the possibility of uncertainty, failure and fear. The fundamental challenge of implementing change is how to help people through their fears and doubts so that they experience the joys of growth and success. Knowing how to deal with these human aspects of change is critical to a manager's or leader's success (Jellison 2007:3).

In her book *Banking on change* Helena Dolny (2001) reveals the number of challenges she faced in the transformation of the Land Bank where she was the managing director. She explores the business dynamic of change and confirms that to secure business success a clear strategy must go hand in hand with investment in people. Jellison (2007: 3) adds that often the mere possibility that something could go wrong causes many workers to conclude that something (probably many things) will go awry. This fear produces doubts, anxiety and resistance. In turn these feelings become roadblocks that slow or doom the effort unless one understands how change occurs, what employees think as they face change, and how to help them over the rough spots.

Hayes (2007: 151) argues that when thinking about managing change, some people assume that organisations are well-integrated entities within which everybody works harmoniously together. Some also believe that decisions are made logically and rationally, that people share similar views of the world around them and that they act to promote the interests of the organisation as a whole. This is rarely true.

He further maintains that organisations can be viewed as political arenas within which individuals and groups attempt to influence each other in the pursuit of self-interest. Those who adopt this political perspective argue that when there is a conflict of interest it is the power and influence of the individuals and groups involved that determine the outcome of the decision making process, not logic and rational arguments (Hayes 2007: 151).

Those in authority are those who are seen to have a legitimate right to influence others, but power is not always legitimate. Sometimes individuals and groups who do not have legitimate authority are able to exercise considerable influence and may even have more power than legitimately appointed managers. Change managers need to ensure that they do not overlook or ignore powerful individuals or groups just because they do not have any formal authority to influence a proposed change (Hayes 2007: 152).

Nadler states that political behaviour tends to be more intense in times of change because individuals and groups perceive the possibility of upsetting the existing balance of power. Some may be motivated to defend the status quo whereas others may perceive change as an opportunity to improve their position (Hayes 2007: 151).

Change managers need to be alert to these political dynamics, and especially to the possibility that others may be motivated to act in ways that undermine their efforts to bring about change. These others may not only resist change because they feel threatened by the anticipated future state, but also because they feel threatened by the processes used to secure change (Hayes 2007: 152).

As previously stated, the literature on personnel management in academic libraries reflects that the management of human resources in a university library and a business have a number of similarities. The challenges faced by managers are similar. But as Jordan and Lloyd (2002: 2) argue the term management is often misunderstood by librarians, who believe that only 'managers' manage, or that management is something that happens at the most senior levels. Management is in some minds seen as an undesirable activity which removes one from the 'real' professional practice of librarianship, and incarcerates one in an office, to work endlessly on new bureaucratic rules and procedures. They go on to state that management skills are useful at all levels. They are just as important for a subject librarian planning an induction programme for new students, or a community librarian planning an information service for the unemployed or the housebound, as they are for senior staff planning a matrix management structure, or assessing priorities over the next five years for staff training and development.

2.2. Change theories

2.2.1. Change and classical management theory

Most early writings on organisations are concerned with the maintenance of order or equilibrium rather than planned change. The exercise of control is one of the main preoccupations of classical management theory. The literature sometimes distinguishes between classical management and scientific management, usually on the basis that classical management was more concerned with general principles like the overall shape of an organisation, while scientific management was concerned with the analysis of tasks and micro-management (Pugh 2007: 24).

a. Specialisation

In classically structured organisations, specialisation is applied to skills and responsibilities. Tasks and roles are delineated on this basis, and are then grouped with related tasks in subgroups which form sub-units, usually in a sectional, departmental or divisional structure, where the internal boundaries of the organisation reflect the divisions between the specialised groups (Pugh 2007: 25).

A basic design principle is therefore that of function. In libraries, this is seen most clearly in conventional acquisition, cataloguing, and interlibrary loan unit, and lately in the emergence of electronic information divisions. It might also be seen in the emergence of posts responsible for access rights to electronic information. All of these arrangements are functional in that they are concerned with the delivery of a specialised part of the wider service (Pugh 2007: 25).

This feature is perpetuated as layers of management are added in order to deal with the resulting specialised sections, and the end is division of labour. Lower levels of the organisation naturally reflect this quite strongly, where it is possible for staff to concentrate on one aspect of a task without involvement in the complete process. In this

way, functions can be well defined, and areas of responsibility clearly demarcated, with a clear and unambiguous chain of command (Pugh 2007: 25).

Specialisation not only applies to the way in which work is organised. Perhaps an equally damaging fissure (division) occurs because of the separation of strategy and policy creation from implementation and operation. The centralisation of power and authority in this way can cramp the initiation and execution of change initiatives because it reinforces the monocular, management-biased view of the organisation and its development (Pugh 2007: 25).

b. Formal communication

Communication patterns tend to follow the organisational structure, being primarily vertical. There will be some concessions to cross-boundary communication via special projects, managerial posts with integrative responsibilities and other devices. Of particular interest, traditionally organised institutions do not make deliberate use of the informal networks which exist, which are critical in change management. From the change management point of view, all this underlines the general weakness of the classical theories of organisations, in that the resulting structures do little to make it easy for information, skills and knowledge to be shared and applied across the organisational boundaries. In rapidly changing environments this is a serious disadvantage in dealing with multi-faceted change (Pugh 2007: 26).

c. Formal control, hierarchical structures and standardisation

Classical organisations are rule-based, relying on the use of legal power and formal authority. The shape of the organisation is based on a conventional pyramid, and control is central. The effect of the formal organisational aspects is to create a compliant workforce, where obedience is a key characteristic (Pugh 2007: 27).

d. Skills and training

Skills and training are emphasised in bureaucracies, as part of the need to develop professionalism and in the interests of efficiency (Pugh 2007: 27).

e. The problems of managing change in classical organisations

Organisations designed on the basis of classical management theory can be effective vehicles for certain kinds of change. Libraries operating in this way can certainly implement effective change. In stable conditions, when change is pursued through the management of specific projects, traditional organisations can contribute much to the change process:

- They can bring considerable expertise to bear on a problem
- They allow people to operate effectively in steady-state conditions where there is a degree of certainty derived from working in a rule-based organisation
- There is clarity in terms of the delineation of responsibilities, communication, and the allocation of rules
- Classical management produces organisations and staff possessing administrative competence and good planning skills. There is still evidence of high failure rates of change initiatives, particularly those which embrace more than a single change project
- It is likely that in an emergency situation, or where a change has to be implemented with tight timescales, a bureaucracy will be effective (Pugh 2007: 28).

It is therefore a reasonable assumption that change management based on classical principles can occur effectively, but usually when the organisation and environment is not subject to turbulence. It is also possible to envisage a situation where even the most decentralised, loose-coupled organisation can, of necessity, revert to a bureaucratic type when faced with the need for rapid change in an emergency (Pugh 2007: 28).

i. Instability

The disadvantage of attempting to manage change today with the structures and ideas of yesterday can be easily stated. The first of these is that libraries no longer operate in a stable environment.

For the first time libraries are encountering serious competition in the provision of information. This competition comes from non-traditional providers of information and from the increasing confidence of users who are competent in their ability to bypass libraries and meet their own information needs (Pugh 2007: 28).

ii. The importance of precedent

The predictability of organisational life under classical management means that precedent is crucial. Planning is carried out partly on the basis of what has already happened, and what worked before. In the technological environment this is no longer advisable (Pugh 2007: 29).

iii. Lack of ownership

Another key difficulty is lack of ownership inherent in closed change projects imposed on an organisation by senior management. If the diversity and breadth of opinion, skills and knowledge inside an organisation is not taken into account and used in change projects, two main problems will arise. The project will achieve less because all the available talents and resources have not been used. As well as suffering all the consequences of using restricted problem-solving processes, the project will not be subjected to the proper level of scrutiny, and all the attendant problems of motivation will be exaggerated and will suppurate in the body of the organisation. This is because people will not face a sufficient challenge if their roles and responsibilities are restricted. Nor will they be fully engaged, thus weakening motivation. These issues are made more

intractable by the difficulties of communication between parts of the bureaucracy, and the possible use of motivational skills which are inappropriate for novel circumstances (Pugh 2007: 29).

To sum up, the key issues are: that change based on classical management principles ignores the vital role played by individuals; it devalues or constraints leadership, motivation, and the influence of groups; it pays little heed to sharing responsibilities and the benefits of bringing to bear multiple perspectives and varying views on organisational development; importantly, it ignores the influence of the environment, in the sense that one of its primary purposes is to protect the environmental shocks (Pugh 2007: 30).

f. Pugh's four principles for understanding organisational change

- Organisations as organisms: the organisation is not a machine and change must be approached carefully and rationally. Do not make changes too frequently because they become dysfunctional or cosmetic.
- Organisations are occupational and political systems: the reactions to change relates to what is best for the firm, how it affects individuals and groups, and how it affects the power, prestige and status of individuals and groups.
- Members of an organisation operate in occupational, political and rational systems at the same time: arguments for and against change will be presented using rational argument as well as occupational and political considerations.
- Change occurs most frequently where success and tension combine: two factors are important here, confidence and motivation to change. Successful individuals or groups will have the confidence to change aspects of their work, which are creating problems. Unsuccessful members of the organisation are difficult to change because to protect their interests they will use their rigidity (Paton and McCalman 2008: 211).

g. Kurt Lewin's classical model

Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist widely accepted as the first significant writer on planned organisational change, shared the presumption that equilibrium was the normal state of organisations. Writing in the 1940's he developed a model of change that could be used to guide organisations from one stable state to the next. His approach to organisational change is grounded in a general system of ideas termed 'field theory' (Graetz et.al. 2006: 114).

Among its uses, field theory can be applied to organisational change. The essence of the model is that organisations are constantly exposed to two sets of field forces: those that maintain stability and those that break it down. The normal state for most organisations is one of equilibrium in which the forces for stability are dominant. To achieve change, an organisation would need to reduce the forces for stability or increase the forces for change. In any particular change situation, a large number of forces are likely to converge to weaken attachment to the past and drive acceptance of the new. Lewin's model involves three steps:

- Unfreezing: this step requires a reduction in the field forces that maintain an existing organisational culture and method of operation. Unfreezing often involves breaking psychological attachment to the past by using information that demonstrates the existence of problems.
- Moving: this step entails the creation of cognitive recognition in the workforce of the need for change, and the establishment of new norms of behaviour around a particular set of new structures and processes.
- Refreezing: as soon as new values, structures and processes have been installed, cultural reinforcement is necessary to stabilise the system or restore equilibrium.

Figure 1. Lewin's classic change model

Unfreezing	**Moving**	**Refreezing**
↓ Unlearning stage ↓ Crisis stage	↓ Recognition of need for change ↓ Acceptance of change by majority	↓ New norms established ↓ New ways of doing things

The most common criticism of this model is that the third step refreezing no longer applies to many organisations. Organisations are now encouraged to thrive on chaos and constant change – concepts that resonate with actual experience in which the period of time between phases of planned change has dwindled to zero. How can refreezing occur when a new phase of change is introduced before the last phase of movement is fully accomplished (Graetz et.al. 2006: 116)?

2.2.2. Contingency theory

The structural contingency approach developed in the 1960s and achieved dominance in the 1970s in the field of organisational theory. The main assumption of contingency theory, which is part of the functionalist tradition, is that the structural components of the organisation must be integrated for the organisation to survive. Therefore, change in one structural element must be followed by adaptive changes in other elements for coherence to be maintained (Demers 2007: 6).

Moreover, contingency theorists argue that performance is dependent on the achievement of a match between various situational features such as technology, environment, size and age and structural features. Even though contingency theorists do not discuss explicitly the passage from one set of organisational characteristics to the other, they imply that

managers, as rational decision makers, are responsible for modifying the organisation's characteristics to adapt it to its environment (Demers 2007: 6).

In this approach, the organisation is conceived as an integrated system interacting with its environment, as well as an instrument in the hands of rational managers (Demers 2007: 8).

Graetz et al. (2006: 112) add that the contingency approach is said to require a 'reading of the firm's environment' to decide organisational structures. The leading Australian exponents of this approach are Dunphy and Stace. They list five dilemmas of change which require a choice from the following options:

- Adaptive or rational strategy development.
- Cultural change or structural change.
- Continuous improvement or radical transformation.
- Empowerment or leadership and command.
- Economic or social goals.

Central to the model is the idea that choices about the scale of change and the style of change management should 'fit' the environment. This 'fit' is sometimes labelled 'external fit', reflecting the match between the change strategy and the organisation's external environment. If product or capital markets are undergoing significant and rapid change, then managers need to choose a change strategy that is transformative in scale (a new mission, radical restructuring, culture change and so on) and directive in style (able to be directed quickly without room for uncertainty and delay). Conversely, stable technologies, product markets and capital markets allow businesses to rely on incremental adjustment (by continuous improvement), in which cooperation with internal stakeholders (through developed decision-making structures) reinforces the change programme. There must also be 'internal fit' between the change strategy and internal organisational characteristics. Thus, Dunphy and Stace argue that the key stakeholders' opposition to change may necessitate a directive or coercive style of change management,

while their support for change may permit a cooperative or consultative style (Graetz et al. 2006: 112).

The strength of Dunphy and Stace's contingency approach to change lies in its recognition of the importance of external or environmental fit – that is, that a change strategy must be selected to fit prevailing conditions. Dunphy and Stace are weaker in covering the systemic nature of change, or the need for integration of different elements of an organisational change programme. This holistic approach to change is represented in Pettigrew and Whipp's framework for competitive success (Graetz et al. 2006: 112).

Pettigrew and Whipp drew up their model on the basis of observations of firms in four British industries: automobile manufacture, book publishing, merchant banking and life insurance. A review of the characteristics of the higher performing organisations in these industries led Pettigrew and Whipp to identify five central factors for managing strategic and operational change:

- Coherence.
- Leading change.
- Linking strategic and operational change.
- Human resources as assets and liabilities.
- Environmental assessment (Graetz et al. 2006: 113).

Graetz, et al. (2006: 113) emphasise that two aspects of the model require attention. First, it is a holistic model in which each factor of change must be linked to every other factor. This internal match between elements of the model relates to the notion of internal fit. Second, each factor is divided into 'primary conditioning features' and 'secondary mechanisms'. The primary conditioning features are catalysts or enabling factors, whose role is to facilitate change in the secondary or operational mechanisms.

2.2.3. Purposeful action approach: strategic choice and resource dependency

Child (1972: 13) proposes the strategic choice model of decision making and Pfeffer and Salancik (2003: 258) developed resource dependency theory. Demers (2007: 11) has labelled these authors' works as the purposeful action approach, which are not, strictly speaking, theories of organisational change; they are more general.

Child (1972: 13) argues that in work organisations the actions of all members are not usually of equal weight in identifying the source of variation in major organisation wide features such as the formal structure of work roles, procedures and communication. The term decision makers has been employed to refer to the power-holding group on the basis that it is normally possible within work organisations to identify inequalities of power which are reflected in a differential access to decision making on structural design, and even in a differential ability to raise questions on the subject in the first place. Child (1972: 13) refers to the concept of a dominant coalition which was formulated by Cyert and March in 1963.

The notion of a dominant coalition refers to those who collectively hold most power in an organisation over a period of time.

Child (1972: 13) adds that one may find situations where there is more than one dominant coalition, where one group is constrained or challenged by another. He further suggests that the concept need not imply that other members of an organisation do not have some power to modify plans and decisions which have been formulated. The modification may be substantial when it is the result of collective action. Information reaching the dominant coalition is open to reinterpretation at the hands of the people who have to pass it on, such as those in boundary roles, with respect to information coming in from the environment and those in roles lower down in the hierarchy, with respect to information passing up from operating levels. Similarly, the implementation of decisions reached depends on securing the cooperation of other parties to the organisation. This political process accounts for the considerable length of time taken to reach many major

organisational decisions. The dominant coalition concept draws attention to the question of who is making the choice.

Demers (2007: 11) argues that decision making models are concerned with decisions about change but are much broader in scope. After all, not all or even most decisions result in change.

In the same way, resource dependency can be used to explain stability as well as change. For example, Pfeffer and Salancik (2003: 106) discuss organisational responses to environmental pressures, such as avoidance and manipulation. The organisation can adapt and change to fit environmental requirements or the organisation can attempt to alter the environment so that it fits the organisation's capabilities. Kotler's (1969) marketing concept is an example of the former strategy. According to the marketing concept, which is a derivative of classical economics, the firm assesses the needs of the marketplace, and then adapts its products and production process to fill some of these needs.

Alternatively, the organisation can adapt by attempting to operate in that environment. If the organisation and the environment must be mutually compatible, then either the organisation can change or the environment can be changed (Pfeffer and Salancik 2003: 106).

Demers (2007: 11) suggests that these, in fact, are ways not to change. As theories of adaptation, they see the relationship between organisation and environment as bidirectional in contrast to the previous adaptation perspectives. According to these views, environments can be adapted to organisations, just as organisations adapt to the environment.

2.2.4. Organic adaptation approach

Hirsch and Lounsbury (1997) state that this early organic adaptation approach, with its focus on internal organisational dynamics, is completely overshadowed by the emergence of contingency theory. However, it offers a vision of organisations and change whose impact can be felt to varying degrees in more recent perspectives, such as the cultural and political approaches (Demers 2007: 13).

Cyert and March characterise the firm as an adaptively rational system rather than an omnisciently rational system. They propose a decision process theory that seeks to explain how organisations adapt. In their view, firms are not malleable instruments in the hands of omnipotent managers. Rather organisations are political arenas constituted by subgroups with diverse interests, in which adaptation is an emergent process that depends on what goals are currently evoked and what part of the system is involved in making the decision. In their view, organisational response is governed by procedures and decision rules and is influenced by a dominant coalition. (Demers 2007: 13).

Braybrooke and Lindblom's 'disjointed instrumentalism' and Selznick's institutional approach are explicitly concerned with organisational change (Demers 2007: 14). Building on two dimensions – the scope of change (incremental or large) and the type of situation (low or high understanding) – Braybrooke and Lindblom construct a typology of four types of change. Influenced by the experience of the government sector, they argue that a rational, programmed approach to change only works for incremental change in situations of high understanding (i.e. routine decisions). Viewing organisations as political arenas they suggest that, in a situation of low understanding, a piecemeal, incremental approach to adaptation – disjointed incrementalism, also known as muddling through – is more realistic and is likely to give better results. In this view, change is a step-by-step process.

Selznick elaborates a theory of organisational change as a process of institutionalisation. Criticising most organisation theorists for being overly concerned with routine decisions

resulting in static adaptation, he focuses on what he calls dynamic adaptation, actions that results in basic institutional changes. Opposing the concept of organisation (a technical instrument, and expendable tool) to that of institution (a product of social needs and pressures – a responsive, adaptive organism), he defines leadership as the art of institution building (Demers 2007: 15).

As noted by Hirsch and Lounsbury (1997), Selznick thought of leaders as statesmen who were required to manage a wide complex of interests both inside and outside the organisation (Demers 2007: 15).

These models of organic adaptation all share a political view of organisations and conceive of change as largely emergent, different from what anyone intended, resulting instead from compromise, conflict, and confusion among actors with diverse interests and unequal influence. Still they retain a resolutely managerial perspective (Demers 2007: 15).

2.2.5. Life-cycle approach

The life-cycle approach states that organisational development follows a predetermined sequence of stages from birth to maturity, sometimes followed by decline and death. Haire suggests that organisations are like living organisms and that growth is a natural process following its own internal laws (Demers 2007: 17). According to life-cycle theory, development is a cumulative process, with each preceding stage leading the way to the next one in a movement toward increasing organisational complexity and specialisation.

Like a living organism, all its parts have a specific function and evolve in an integrated fashion following the same direction.

The type of change discussed in a life-cycle model is the modification in the particular combination of organisational features, such as strategy, structure, and leadership style that characterise each stage (Demers 2007: 17).

a. Stages of development

A typical model is the three-stage model, with its start up or entrepreneurial phase, its professionalization or specialisation phase and its decentralisation or multidivisional phase (Scott 1971: 6; Stopforth and Wells 1972: 11). Child and Kieser added the fourth phase, the matrix stage (Demers 2007: 19).

The generic model suggests that the birth of an organisation goes through an entrepreneurial phase during which it is entirely under the control of its owner, who directly supervises all operations with little formalisation. If it is successful, the organisation will grow rapidly, and soon the owner will be unable to cope with all the demands brought on by expansion. This will lead to the second stage , the specialisation phase, with the establishment of functional departments, each one in charge of a specific set of activities, such as marketing, finance, or production. In this type of design, the top manager's role is the coordination of these independent activities, which are now formally organised (Demers 2007: 19).

In the third stage, the decentralised phase, diversification and/or geographical expansion has increased organisational complexity to the point where top managers can no longer control the development of the organisation as a global concern. They do not have sufficient information and knowledge about new activities and are too involved in day-to-day operations to develop an overall strategy and reap the benefits from diversified operations or international activities. A new multidivisional structure composed of several quasi-autonomous functional divisions organised on a product or geographic basis becomes necessary. The divisions are managed by corporate headquarters, which are responsible for deciding the overall strategy and allocating resources among divisions. Finally, in the fourth stage, diversification is so extensive that a matrix structure is

necessary to handle the multiple and often conflicting pressures for differentiation (autonomy of the specialised units) and integration (overall coordination) (Demers 2007: 19).

b. Patterns of change

The question of how organisations change is mostly treated in terms of whether the transition between phases of the life cycle is gradual and smooth or metamorphic.

Demers (2007: 20) states that most authors see the pattern of change as metamorphic and emphasise the discontinuity between stages. Child and Kieser, for example, argue that the theory of stages in organisational development implies that it is not a smooth, continuous process but involves abrupt and discrete changes in organisational policies, contexts and structures. It should be noted that this interpretation of the discontinuous nature of change relates to the content of the change, the scope and magnitude of the differences between states, and is not derived from a systemic study of the process of change itself.

Actually, most pure life-cycle models do not take into account the process of transition. They are more concerned with the antecedents and outcomes (or results) of the change process than the dynamics of change over time. Although some authors acknowledge organisational resistance to moving from one phase to the next and the difficulties involved, they still represent the process of natural progression with the previous phase being the prerequisite, and setting the stage for the next one (Stopforth and Wells 1972: 19). The shift may be difficult, but it is the leader's role to facilitate this internal restructuring.

Greiner developed a four stage metamorphic model of growth, distinguishes for each phase a specific management crisis. For example, the creativity phase engenders a crisis of leadership, the direction phase a crisis of autonomy, the delegation phase a crisis of control, the coordination phase a crisis of red tape. The solution he offers to these crises

is a change of structure and often a change of the management team itself (Demers 2007: 20).

2.2.6. Human relations

The work of Elton Mayo (1949) is generally recognised as the starting point of the human relations school, which to a degree sees the bureaucracy as an obstacle to innovation. The human relation school offers an alternative to the slow-reacting bureaucracy (Pugh 2007: 31).

Rubin (1989: 1) states that people run libraries; they provide the essential services, process the materials, prepare the budgets, and establish the policies and practice that shape the institution. An important aspect of any library is an array of objects that contribute to library service: the media, physical facilities, and electronic technologies. A human being is responsible for combining these elements into effective library service and failures in library service are often failures to deal appropriately with human issues.

Managing personnel is an especially difficult task because the reasons people act as they do are varied and often opaque. The library manager, whose training emphasises librarianship more than management, is forced to operate in this difficult environment with few guidelines (Rubin 1989: 1).

Buttrick (2005: 128) referred to open and closed change projects. Closed change projects tend to be limited in their objectives, work on a narrow front might be limited in its duration. They are also related to simple problem solving. These projects have clear goals and a clearly defined set of activities to be carried out. One knows what one wants to achieve and how it will be achieved.

A project to automate an information service is a closed change project based on a simple problem. A project to introduce digital/electronic information, or even e-books, into a library service is usually treated as a closed change project. It has clear objectives, a clear

timescale, and it can be accurately costed. The results are measurable because of the way the objectives have been drawn up, which is to say that the services concerned will be slotted into the existing organisational structure and conform to the rules currently in force. Within limits, the project will undoubtedly produce a successful result if a few simple project management rules are followed (Pugh 2007: 31).

Open change projects are where one has no idea what to do or how to do it. It is often prompted as a reaction to a change in circumstances, although it can be set off proactively. One would need to act with velocity. This project needs, in some ways, to be managed like a quest. One would need to have a very tight control over costs and timescale; one would need to investigate many options and possible solutions in parallel. Like a quest, these projects can end up in delivering nothing of benefit unless firmly controlled (Buttrick: 2005: 128).

Change in information services can be termed an open change project, which is rapid, unpredictable, dislocational and unconnected with past practice. Change will have to be viewed as intrinsic, and the system will have to support creativity and entrepreneurism. None of these can easily come about in an organisation based on regularity, specialisation and standardisation (Pugh 2007: 32).

The human relations approach advocated the kind of organisation which valued:

- The role played by social relationships
- The central position occupied by individuals
- The contention that parts of the organisation could interrelate with each other in ways which made it the antithesis of the machine
- A broader view of leadership
- The role of teamwork
- The ability of disparate elements to work together, foreshadowing the late 20th century ideas about creativity and abrasion in organisations

This led, among other things, to an emphasis on flexible structures, intrinsic motivation and a change in the organisational climate (Pugh 2007: 33).

Martell (1983) in his argument for the client centered library, added a socio-cultural view of the organisation – the library as an open system involved in interpreting and interacting with the larger system of which it is part (Pugh 2007: 35). This demolishes the classic bureaucratic structure, which admits to little interchange with the environment, and allows little capacity for change except in the most prescribed circumstances.

Martell (1983: 73) states that the optimal client-centered design would have:

- Most librarians in client centered work groups
- All librarians in work groups involved in multi-functional roles – reference, collection development, and advisory services to users
- Client-related feedback channels for evaluating library performance
- High level of interaction with clients
- Individualised/personalised service
- Capacity to deal with contents or information contained in library books, journals and other media
- Capacity for effective information transfer as a result of content orientation
- Reduced or flat organisational structure with managerial roles emphasising coordination of activities
- Semi-autonomy of client-centered work groups
- Support functions (i.e. acquisitions, cataloguing and other processing activities) organised to facilitate the attainment of direct service objectives (Martell 1983: 73).

2.2.7. Resistance to change

A theory with a countervailing force that exerts itself in virtually all change efforts is resistance. Resistance refers to action, overt or covert, exerted on behalf of maintaining the status quo. Not all employees embrace change with equal enthusiasm. Coetsee (1999), in the table below, suggested a full continuum of responses to change initiatives ranging from 'commitment' at one end to 'aggressive resistance' on the other. Each of these reactions to change helps shape the behaviour of individuals and, ultimately the success of a change effort.

Table 1: Continuum of individual responses to change

Commitment	Involves a strong emotional attachment to the goals of the organisation and the aims of the change effort.
Involvement	Involves a willingness to participate in the behaviours being called for by the change effort.
Support	Involves speaking on behalf of the change effort without taking any other explicit actions to promote the effort.
Apathy	Represents a neutral zone in which individuals know about the change effort and engage in no behaviour either to support or oppose it.
Passive resistance	A mild form of opposition that involves a willingness to voice reservation or even threatening to resign if the change goes through.
Active resistance	Involves behaviours that block or impede change, usually by behaving in ways that contradict the goals of the change effort.
Aggressive resistance	Involves purposeful sabotage and subversion of the change effort.

(Spector 2007: 37).

a. Why employees resist change

Hullman (1995) has suggested a number of underlying causes of some form of individual resistance:

- Individuals may be satisfied with the status quo; because their needs are being met, they may view any potential change as negative
- Individuals may view change as a threat, fearing it will adversely affect them in some significant way
- Individuals may understand that change brings both benefits and costs but feel that the costs outweigh the benefits
- Individuals may view change as potentially positive but may still resist because they believe that the organisation's management is mishandling the change process
- Individuals may believe in the change effort but still believe that change is not still likely to succeed (Spector 2007: 36).

Paton and McCalman (2008: 52) add that organisations, individuals and groups often fear change for many rational reasons:

- It can result in organisation redesign: tampering with the design will modify, at least in the short term, existing power bases, reporting structures and communications networks. In extreme cases issues regarding security of employment will be raised and undoubtedly questions concerning redeployment and training emerge
- It creates new technological challenges: new techniques, procedures and skills acquisition can bring out, no matter how briefly, the 'Luddite' that lurks just beneath one's outer veneer of confidence. One should never underestimate the power of technological change to cause disruption. Often the technology is well understood by those promoting its introduction and they cannot understand the concerns of those who must manage end use of it

- It confronts apathy: a great many employees grow apathetic in their approach to working life. Careers falter: positions of apparent security and ease are achieved. Competencies are developed, and employees become apathetic to their working environment. They do what they do well, or have convinced their peers and manager that they do, and deep down they would prefer the status quo. Change may have the audacity to wake them up from their slumbers
- It permeates throughout the supply chain: change for change's sake is both foolish and potentially expensive. The effective and efficient management of the supply change ensures that the final consumer is delivered a product or service that meets their expectations. Stakeholders within the supply chain, including the final consumer, tend to be sceptical of any change that results in the 'equilibrium' being disturbed. Management must be careful to ensure that the effects of change, although beneficial to a particular member, do not cascade throughout the chain causing negative results further downstream
- It challenges old ideas: by their very nature organisations have traditionally encouraged stability, continuity and the pursuit of security. Continuity of procedures, services, products and staff leads to a stable operating environment. One must bear in mind that the basis of today's success lies in the past and this encourages management to reinforce the lessons of the past. For example, senior management do not retire. They take up non-executive positions on the board; non-executive directors are recruited for their past knowledge of the business environment; organisational design attempts to reflect the perception of historical success; and recruitment policies endeavour to reinforce old beliefs by ensuring the appointment of like-minded personnel. Success in the future will depend upon management understanding the lessons of the past, but if too much emphasis is placed upon the past then these lessons will simply reinforce old ideas.
- It encourages debate: debate is healthy when well managed, but it does tend to identify those lacking in understanding or knowledge. Once again the assumptions of the past and those who promote them will be challenged.

b. How managers create resistance during implementation

A negative approach to employee resistance overlooks two important points. First, employee resistance is often a result of management actions. Managers can and often do create resistance by the manner in which they pursue change. When employees are satisfied with the status quo, for example, the barrier may be that they have not been allowed to engage in an adequate and full diagnostic process to share learning about why the status quo is undesirable and what about the status quo needs to be changed. Employees who do not fully appreciate the potential benefits of the proposed change may either have little idea of where management proposes to take the organisation or believe that management simply does not possess either the competence or commitment necessary to achieve the stated goals (Spector 2007: 37).

Second, in treating resistance as a negative force to be overcome, managers shut down the possibility that they can learn from resistance. When the employee voice has been excluded from the change process, there is likely to be valuable data missing from the diagnostic and action planning phases of the effort. Employees may ask whether management really understands what customers expect from their products or services or what barriers the organisation has erected to understanding performance. Even when employees question whether management has selected an appropriate strategic response, it would be useful for managers to learn about their hesitations and concerns. Instead of treating resistance as a force to overcome, managers would do well to treat it as an opportunity to learn from employees and improve the change process. However, not all resistance to change offers an equal opportunity to learn, and some sources of resistance will have to be addressed and overcome (Spector 2007: 38).

The table below suggests the ways in which employee resistance may be an outgrowth of the implementation of the change effort rather than any natural reluctance to engage in personal change.

Table 2: Resistance during implementation

Individual resistance	May be caused by managerial actions.
Employees satisfied with the status quo	Management has not included employees in diagnosis and learning process.
View change as a threat	Employees see little opportunity to acquire new skills that will be required in the renewed organisation.
See cost of change outweighing benefits	Management has failed to articulate goals of change adequately to allow true assessment of costs and benefits.
Believe management is mishandling the process	Employees believe that their own voice and interests are not being included in the change process.
Believe change effort is not likely to succeed	Past change efforts led by management made little lasting impact and are abandoned for the next change programme

(Spector 2007: 38).

c. Barriers to change

Beer and Eisenstat (2000) contend that there is a range of barriers to achieving organisational change and have identified the 'silent killers' of organisational learning and change strategies as:

- Top-down or laissez-faire senior management style
- Unclear strategy and conflicting priorities
- An ineffective senior management team
- Poor vertical communication
- Poor coordination across function, businesses or borders
- Inadequate down-the-line leadership skills and development (Osborne and Brown: 2005: 221).

2.2.8. Field, Gestalt, and Systems theories

Kurt Lewin (1951) argued that any single event was a result of multiple factors, and these were interdependent. He went on to state that an organisation and its environment make up a field. Events on the boundary of the field, as well as within the field, are crucial and linked factors. The internal factors can be sparked off by individuals, groups, sociological, political, governmental, technological, economic or educational developments and conflicts. The forces of change are therefore external and internal. Field theory states that phenomena should be examined in their entirety. Innovation is seen as the result of the action of a number of forces within the organisation's systems, and calls for an understanding of the organisation as a whole (Pugh 2007: 37).

Gestalt theory advocates:

- Adopting a holistic problem-solving approach to change
- Identifying the real issues beneath the surface
- Working to develop insights
- Establishing new ways of thinking about change, and about specific problems
- Treating change management as a learning process (Pugh 2007: 37).

Systems theory is similar to both field theory and gestalt theory in that it views the organisation as a series of sub-systems. Organisational subsystems are related to each other and a change in one part of the organisation will trigger change in other subsystems. It also accords with Gestalt theory's proposition that insights into the whole organisation are essential (Pugh 2007: 38).

Libraries can be broken down into subsystems:

- Technical subsystem: skills, processes and knowledge
- Values subsystem: the aims and objectives of the service

- Psycho-social subsystem: the culture
- Managerial subsystem: the things that managers do
- Structural subsystem: the organisational framework (Burnes in Pugh 2007: 38).

2.2.9. Organisational development (OD)

OD begins with the proposal that individuals have a complex and sophisticated reaction to change. Because of the nature of this reaction, conventional bureaucracies are not considered to be the best organisational environments for managing change, and most OD interventions are concerned with diluting the bureaucracy in one way or another (Pugh 2007: 39).

In general, OD possesses a number of features which present a positive approach to change management. It pays attention to the structure of the organisation, its power bases, social and political systems, the technological make-up of the organisation, and the human resource implications. OD asks for:

- An understanding of the organisation
- A comprehensive consideration of the implications of change for the individuals and groups in the organisation
- The need for a plan
- Systematic implementation
- Whole-organisation change
- A problem-solving approach (Pugh 2007: 39).

Participative decision-making becomes a key aspect of change management. This can only happen when information is shared, where there is a culture of openness and support, and where systems for identifying environment change forces and the concomitant planning process are strong (Pugh 2007: 40).

OD cannot be prescribed as a universal remedy for libraries. It could be argued that in some parts of information services the bureaucratic style is appropriate. OD is about changing attitudes. It is about refocusing people's perceptions of the organisation they work in. It is also about improving communication and interaction through new structures and through harnessing the informal patterns which underpin structures. As this is done, the capability to innovate grows as the organisation becomes more adept at making the best of all the talents available to it (Pugh 2007: 42).

Table 3: Ten key perspectives and assumptions underlying OD

Perspective	***Underlying assumptions***
1.Systems perspectives	Outstanding performance depends on interactions between and among the multiple elements of organisation; between the people, processes, structure, and the values of the organisation; and between the organisation and its external environment.
2.Alignment perspective	The effectiveness of organisations will be determined by a state of congruence between people, process, structure, values, and environment.
3.Participation perspective	People will become more committed to implementing solutions if they have been involved in the problem solving process.
4.Social capital perspective	To achieve outstanding performance, organisational leaders seek to create a network of interdependent relationships that provides the basis for trust, cooperation and collective action.
5.Teamwork perspective	Accepting shared purpose and responsibility for interdependent tasks enhances coordination, commitment and creativity and supports outstanding performance.
6.Multiple stakeholder perspective	Outstanding performance requires that organisational leaders balance the expectations of multiple stakeholders: shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, host communities, labour unions, trade associations, governments, etc.

7. Problem-solving perspective	Conflicts over task issues can increase the quality of decisions if they occur in an environment of collaboration and trust.
8.Open communication perspective	Open and candid communication, especially upward in the hierarchy, creates the opportunity for learning and development while building trust and collaboration.
9.Evolution/revolution perspective	Organisations must develop competencies to engage in both incremental (evolutionary) and fundamental (revolutionary) change.
10.Process facilitation perspective	Individuals who reside outside of the organisational hierarchy can become both facilitators and teachers of effective implementation processes in partnership with organisational members.

Spector (2007: 31).

Margulies and Raia (1978) identify thirteen characteristics common to organisational development:

- It is a total organisational system approach.
- It adopts a systems approach to the organisation.
- It is positively supported by top management.
- It uses third party change agents to develop the change process.
- It involves a planned change effort.
- It uses behavioural science knowledge to instigate change.
- It sets out to increase organisational competence.
- It is a long-term change process.
- It is an ongoing process.
- It relies on experiential learning techniques.
- It uses action research as an intervention model.
- It emphasises goal setting and action planning.
- It focuses on changing attitudes, behaviours and performances of groups or teams in the organisation rather than individuals (Paton and McCalman 2008: 212).

2.2.10. Knowledge-based theories

Knowledge is at the heart of human civilisation. It is the origin of creativity and culture and defines our humanity. As a consequence, knowledge represents a great deal more than information, and it is the interaction of information with the human mind that gives it meaning and purpose. Knowledge is information in use, and it is the interaction of information with the human mind that gives it meaning and purpose (Sallis and Jones 2002: 8).

Sallis and Jones (2002: 2) also argue that knowledge-based organisations are the likely winners in the new economic order. They are the ones with all or most of the following characteristics:

- They recognise knowledge as the main driver of success
- They have a clearly formulated vision for knowledge creation
- Their values emphasise their commitment to managing knowledge
- Their employees are valued for their intellect and their capacity to create new knowledge
- They have high levels of individual, team and organisational learning
- Their organisational culture facilitates a knowledge creation purpose.

Learning is one of the major components of organisational development.

a. The learning organisation

The basis of this idea was laid by Argyris (1964). Learning in this context refers to the ability of organisations to change and improve their performance. The argument is that people working in organisations behave in a defensive way based on a desire to retain control. While this can minimise threats to the individual and the organisation, the negative aspect of this behaviour is that organisations also become negative and defensive. This attitude creates a barrier to learning, and by extension to effective change

and innovation. This can be changed, and people can be encouraged to think differently, and to learn, if organisations develop certain characteristics. These are:

- Open communication systems
- Empowerment
- Collaboration
- Honesty and realism in the affairs of the organisation, including the ability to learn from mistakes in a culture which permits this to happen (Pugh 2007: 43).

To achieve this state of affairs calls therefore for actions on the part of individuals, groups, and the organisation in general:

- A culture of sharing must be nurtured
- Communication between managers and managed must be more extensive, must be open and include feedback – it is a two way process; ideas should always be shared
- Structures should permit shared experiences across organisational boundaries
- People should be encouraged to question and to challenge accepted practice and thinking
- The environment should be blame-free and supportive
- Creative thinking and team learning are fundamental (Pugh 2007: 43).

To realise the learning organisation means innovation in strategy, structures, motivation and management and leadership styles (Pugh 2007: 43).

Senge (1990: 6) mooted that five new 'component technologies' were gradually converging to innovate learning organisations. Each provides a vital dimension in building organisations that can truly 'learn' that can continually enhance their capacity to realise their highest aspirations. For organisations to sustain change through learning and learning through change they need to master the following five disciplines. These

disciplines are personal mastery, mental models, building a shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking, which Senge referred to as the fifth discipline.

i. Personal mastery

Personal mastery is the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively. As such it is an essential cornerstone of the learning organisation; it is the learning organisation's spiritual foundation.

Few organisations encourage the growth of their people. This results in vast untapped resources (Senge 1990: 7).

It is about formulating a coherent picture of the results people most desire to gain as individuals alongside a realistic assessment of the current state of their lives today (Green 2007: 248).

ii. Mental models

Mental models are deeply ingrained assumptions, generalisations, or even pictures or images that influence how we understand the world and how we take action. Very often, we are not consciously aware of our mental models or the effects they have on our behaviour. Many insights into new markets or outmoded organisational practices fail to get put into practice because they conflict with powerful, tacit mental models (Senge 1990: 8).

The discipline of working with mental models starts with turning the mirror inward, learning to unearth our internal pictures of the world, to bring them to the surface and hold them rigorously to scrutiny. It also includes the ability to carry on 'learningful' conversations that balance inquiry and advocacy, where people expose their own thinking effectively and make that thinking open to the influence of others (Senge 1990: 9).

It is a discipline of reflection and inquiry involving skills focused around developing awareness of the attitudes and perceptions that influence thought and interaction (Green 2007: 248).

iii. Building a shared vision

Senge (1990: 9) suggests that if any idea about leadership has inspired organisations for thousands of years, it is the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future we seek to create.

When there is a genuine vision (as opposed to the all-to-familiar 'vision statement'), people excel and learn, not because they are told to do so, but because they want to. But many leaders have personal visions that never get translated into shared visions that galvanise an organisation.

He adds that the practice of a shared vision involves the skills of unearthing shared 'pictures of the future' that foster genuine commitment and enrolment rather than compliance. In mastering this discipline, leaders learn the counter productiveness of trying to dictate a vision, no matter how heartfelt it is (Senge 1990: 9).

Green (2007: 248) adds that the shared vision is a collective discipline that establishes a focus on mutual purpose by developing shared images of the future they seek to create, and the principles and guiding practices by which they hope to get there.

iv. Team learning

The discipline of team learning starts with 'dialogue,' the capacity of members of a team to suspend assumptions and enter into genuine 'thinking together' (Senge 1990: 10). Green (2007: 248) adds that through techniques like dialogue and skilful discussion,

teams transform their collective thinking, learning to mobilise their energies and ability beyond the sum of individual members' talents.

The discipline of dialogue also involves learning how to recognise the patterns of interaction in teams that undermine learning. The patterns of defensiveness are often deeply ingrained in how a team operates. If unrecognised, they undermine learning. If recognised and surfaced creatively, they can actually accelerate learning. Team learning is vital because teams, not individuals, are the fundamental unit in modern organisations (Senge 1990: 10).

v. Systems thinking: the fifth discipline

Business and other human endeavours are also systems. We focus on the snapshots of isolated parts of the system, and wonder why our deepest problems never seem to get solved. Systems thinking is a conceptual framework, a body of knowledge and tools that has been developed over the past fifty years, to make the patterns clearer, and to help us see how to change them effectively (Senge 1990: 7).

In this discipline, people learn to better understand interdependency and change, and thereby to deal more effectively with the forces that shape the consequences of our actions (Green 2007: 248).

Senge (1990: 12) argues that it is vital that the five elements develop as an ensemble. This is challenging because it is much harder to integrate new tools than simply apply them separately. However, the payoffs are immense.

This is why systems thinking is the fifth discipline. It is the discipline that integrates the disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice. It keeps them from being separate gimmicks or the latest organisational change fads. Without a systematic orientation, there is no motivation to look at how the disciplines interrelate. By enhancing

each of the other disciplines, it continually reminds us that the whole can exceed the sum of its parts (Senge 1990: 12).

Senge (1990: 12) maintains that systems thinking also needs the disciplines of building a shared vision, mental models, team learning, and personal mastery to realise its potential. Building a shared vision fosters a commitment to the long term. Mental models focus on the openness needed to unearth shortcomings in our present ways of seeing the world. Team learning develops the skills of groups of people to look for the larger picture that lies beyond individual perspectives. Personal mastery fosters the personal motivation to continually learn how our actions affect our world. Without personal mastery, people are so steeped in the reactive mindset ('someone/something else is creating my problems') that they are deeply threatened by the systems perspective.

Systems thinking makes understandable the subtlest aspect of the learning organisation – the new way individuals perceive themselves and their world. At the heart of the learning organisation is the shift of mind – from seeing ourselves as separate from the world, to connected to the world, from seeing problems as caused by someone or something 'out there' to seeing how our own actions create the problems we experience. A learning organisation is a place where people are continually discovering how they create their reality and how they can change it (Senge 1990: 13).

Senge (1990: 13) concludes that for an organisation that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future it is not enough to merely survive. 'Survival learning' or what is more often termed 'adaptive learning' is important and indeed it is necessary. However, for a learning organisation, 'adaptive learning' must be joined by 'generative learning,' learning that enhances our capacity to create.

Fletcher (1997: 13) provides the following checklist of Senge's learning organisation:

- The focus is on work as 'learningful'

- It is not acceptable to 'figure it out from the top' and have everyone else follow the orders of the grand strategist
- Effort is made to tap people's commitment and capacity to learn at all levels of the organisation
- Senior managers have a 'stewardship' role for the organisation
- Managers are 'researchers and designers'
- Managers design the learning processes to enable understanding of trends and forces
- Senior managers design the organisation's learning processes.

Pedler et al (1996) identified five dimensions of an organisation's operations with fifteen supporting aspects that would characterise a learning company:

- Strategy would include a *learning approach* with regular reviews, pilot projects and plans modified and built on as progress is achieved. Also within this category would be the notion of *participative policy making*, which would involve all members of the organisation and other key stakeholders, with policy being co-created rather than being driven purely from the top down
- Looking into the organisation would be areas such as the use of information technology to inform and empower people and their actions (*informating*); accounting and control mechanisms which enable learning and freedom to act within less rigid compliance and risk averse regimes (*formative accounting and control*); *internal exchange* covers the idea of their being mutually productive relationships between internal suppliers and customers with a free flow of information across the organisation; and *flexibility of reward* allows for more creative and flexible ways of motivating staff, with a degree of involvement from all
- Structures and how work is organised is flexible enough to allow creativity, innovation, development and responsiveness to occur (*enabling structures*) to meet current needs as well as preparing for the future

- Looking out covers the use of *boundary workers as environmental scanners* and *inter-company learning*. Both these areas allow for permeable borders and are aligned to that of a healthy organism where information flows between customers, suppliers, partners and others with a stake in improving the business
- Learning opportunities address the *learning climate* and the opportunities for *self-development* for all. A climate is fostered whereby people can experiment, take risks, make mistakes and learn through doing. This would be supported by the necessary training and development opportunities. There would be a two-way contract here, with the organisation enabling learning but with individuals encouraged to take responsibility for their development as well (Green 2007: 248).

b. Double loop learning

This concept was developed by G.E. Bateson and is at the heart of the learning organisation. It involves scrutinizing the way in which things are done currently, and questioning the accepted system. It is challenging the organisation, and fostering originality, risk-taking and a multidimensional view of problem-solving and development. It leads to large-scale organisational change (Pugh 2007: 43).

c. Knowledge management

In the context of change management the thesis is that the prime value of knowledge management is managing information. It is a philosophy which is concerned with identifying, collecting, organizing and making available information (Pugh 2007: 44).

In the context of innovation, knowledge management provides the system which allows an organisation to protect and develop its intellectual capital, and supports individuals and groups as they learn to handle empowerment, take decisions, develop their capabilities and play a full part in organisational life (Pugh 2007: 44).

d. Knowledge leadership

Sallis and Jones (2002: 29) state that the main thesis of Peter Drucker's book (1999), *Management challenges for the 21st century,* is that company executives must learn to manage knowledge workers. This is a new art with a new set of skills. Traditionally managers have concentrated on producing an end product; today, they need an alternative focus.

Their primary task is now to nurture and coach those who have ideas, skills, technical ability and brilliance within their organisation. They add that for many managers, this change of tack will represent a culture shock. Many will not be able to cope, and would need to be trained by their organisation in new management skills. Many will not recognise the change and will continue in the old ways (Sallis and Jones 2002: 30).

All too often, organisations see employees as lacking in strategic importance, or as largely expendable. In the quest for greater efficiency, managers too often give their focus to systems and structures. Managing knowledge means managing people, and doing this in a way that allows them to give of their best. Drucker (1999) is of the opinion that almost all companies still manage their employees as though they are in control of the means of production. Today's reality is very different. It is the knowledge workers who exercise control. They are the ones who really know about the product. They make the production process work. Lose them, or demoralise them, and the organisation is in serious trouble (Sallis and Jones 2002: 30).

Recognising this requires enormous changes for managers – in their role as well as their mindset. No longer can they seek to control their organisation in the old ways. They cannot manage knowledge as if it is a physical form of capital. Part of that change of mindset is an understanding that their organisation's intellectual capital is based on the intelligence and skills of its employees. Leadership style has to change as well. Something subtler than command and control is needed, and this requires a high degree of personal mastery and self-awareness. Traditional forms of management have to be

replaced by coaching and care. Managers need to develop the skills of mentoring. Additionally the power base of the organisation shifts. The locus of control moves from corporate managers to the owners of organisational knowledge. In such changed circumstances the leader's role is to create conditions in which knowledge can flourish. Management becomes knowledge management (Sallis and Jones 2002: 30).

Over the past decade, Drucker has focused on the not-for-profit sector as the paradigm case of how to manage successfully in the knowledge age. In successful not-for-profit organisations, making money is not the primary motivation for the people. The job itself provides the interest and motivating. Staff gain satisfaction from why, what, and how they do things. The motivation comes from being challenged and valued, and the role of the leaders is to make the organization's mission the staff's mission. In a successful not-for-profit organisation it is the staff who have 'ownership', in the real if not a legal sense (Sallis and Jones 2002: 31).

Knowledge-age issues:

- The organisation is based around the idea that knowledge is a social construct
- Knowledge, not physical assets, is the important means of production
- Not-for-profit organisations may be the paradigm case for the knowledge age
- Organisational leaders and managers need to understand the psychology of knowledge creation and transfer
- Contemporary organisations must come to grips with the ambiguities of knowledge age organisations
- Leadership nurtures networks of knowledge communities (Sallis and Jones 2002: 31).

e. Openness and the power structure

Organisations that are based on specialisation depend partly on retaining control of a body of knowledge. If an organisation is to become truly innovative it has to redefine its view of authority. This can be done in several ways: by adopting a consensual and consultative approach to managing; by implementing structural change – decentralization; by taking a broader view of motivation; by creating an open communication system, because all power is based on information, and particularly the retention of ownership of information by management (Pugh 2007: 44).

Change management calls for a comprehensive information system which protects only that minimum of information which should remain confidential for personnel reasons; and implementing this open information exchange is a cultural change, moving from a closed organisation to an open one (Pugh 2007: 45).

This is a revolutionary view of communication in many organisations, but it can be justified. The most valuable knowledge in an organisation is often carried round in the heads of individuals, often in the form of lessons learned from work which can be easily lost to the organisation. Even if captured and systemised, the information is only of value if it is disseminated. Once this is done, it improves every aspect of the organisation, including not least the performance of individuals. To disseminate information, people must learn not only what to share, but how to communicate it. Much of the information in contemporary libraries is, if not actually jargon, part of the specialised argot belonging to the technological experts. This attitude needs to be discarded in the interests of open communication (Pugh 2007: 45).

f. Learning systems

The learning system should facilitate how to learn, what to learn, and how to transfer skills and knowledge across the organisation. This again has implications for management styles and motivation. The aim should be to create an information system in

which data flows around the organisation. By doing so, resource and user needs, development proposals and solutions to problems are enriched by the addition of perspectives and knowledge not only from senior management but others. In turn, the learning process is strengthened and finally, all the layers and groups in the organisation gradually acquire the knowledge base which allows an informed input into policy and strategy while still enabling managers to manage. This is how the sharing culture of a learning organisation is laid down (Pugh 2007: 45).

Chaos Theory states that organisations naturally work in a state of uncertainty which is so unpredictable that organisations should accept it as a natural state. To deal with this uncertainty calls for the maximisation of all available resources. The key points about chaos theory are that it affirms the need for environmental sensitivity, and that uncertainty represents opportunities. Modern information services, with a much greater degree of differentiation, complexity and heterogeneity than ever before, provide an excellent seed bed for change management (Pugh 2007: 46).

All theories say something about the need for new ideas. This is why information sharing and broadening the contribution of individuals are important developments – because they create the circumstances in which new ideas can emerge. Uncertainty also fosters creativity, and the idea of organisational creativity is the final piece of the theoretical jigsaw (Pugh 2007: 46).

2.2.11. Management of change and general management theories

The management of change cannot, in itself, be divorced from general management theories. The management style within any organisation will directly influence the success of change programmes. Management style is influenced by the underlying values of an organisation. It is important, therefore to match style, culture and values to the objectives and process of change (Fletcher 1997: 21).

The following table provides an overview of various management theories. Each should be considered in terms of:

- Which is the most prevalent style in the organisation?
- How does this style influence actions for change?
- How do the underpinning values manifest themselves?
- Does this style focus on systems?
- Does this style focus on control and authority?
- Does this style focus on people?

Table 4: Summary of management theories

Taylor, F.W . (1911)	*Scientific Management* This approach expounds that maximum efficiency is obtained by breaking down tasks into each component movement, so finding the best, and the most efficient way of doing each. This was the forerunner of 'work study', or 'time and motion'. In Taylor's model, the relationship between manager and employees is one of master-servant or parent-child.
Mayo, E. (1927-32)	*Hawthorne studies* Perhaps one of the most quoted approaches in respect to people management is Elton Mayo's studies at the Hawthorne Works of Western Electric in Chicago. His findings showed that productivity of workers improved when working conditions were discussed between employees and management – whether or not the conditions were actually improved. His work contributed much to motivational theory. His work (1949) concluded that the difference was the result of feeling part of a team and led to the new idea that workers should be considered to be part of a social organism rather than individual

	cogs in a large wheel.
McGregor, D. (1930s)	*Theory X and Theory Y* This theory suggested two different styles of management, based on the underlying assumptions of employee motivation. Theory X requires a 'carrot and stick' model of motivation; Theory Y places problems of human resources in the lap of management - people will exercise self-direction and self-control in the achievement of organisational objectives, if they are committed to those objectives. Theory Y suggests that authority and control are not appropriate for all purposes and under all circumstances.
Herzberg, F. (1960s)	*Job enrichment* Herzberg differentiated between motivational and hygiene factors, the latter being such things as salary and workings conditions. In his later work (1968) he suggested that 'in attempting to enrich an employee's job, management often succeeds in reducing the man's personal contribution, rather than giving him an opportunity for growth in his accustomed job'. He called this 'horizontal loading', which, he suggested, merely enlarges the meaninglessness of the job.
Maslow, A. (1960s)	*Hierarchy of needs* Maslow proposed that there is a series of needs to be satisfied for all individuals. As each need is satisfied, the satisfaction itself ceases to be important. The implications for management are an awareness of these needs and action to satisfy.
Jaques, E. (1950s)	*Clarity of roles* While Maslow, Herzberg and McGregor led the field in management and motivational theory during the 1960s and 1970s, research undertaken in London at the Tavistock Institute was gaining interest. Elliot Jaques (1976) proposed that the key for management of people was to have clearly defined and agreed roles and responsibilities. He suggested that lack of clear boundaries caused confusion which led to frustration, insecurity and a need to avoid accountability.

Drucker, P. F. (1954)	*Management practice* Drucker has written on virtually every aspect of organisational management and change. In his *Practice of Management* (1954) he says that the function which distinguishes the managers above all others is an educational one. The manager's unique contribution should be 'to give others vision and the ability to perform'. He also proposed 'management by objectives', risk-taking decisions', 'strategic thinking' and 'building an integrated team'.
Boston Consulting Group (1970's)	*Management by objectives* Terms such as 'learning curve', 'growth share matrix', 'stars', 'dogs', 'cash-cows', 'question marks', and the 'Boston Box' will be familiar to users of this approach. Centered again in the 'scientific management' school, the use of 'decision trees' was prevalent, focusing mainly on investment strategies. Decision-making strategies within change programmes are often led by this approach.
Pascale and Athos (1980s)	*Japanese management* Use of the 'Seven S' framework as a performance measurement tool and for comparison between the USA and Japanese management styles. Pascale felt that early management theory was significant for what it left out – for example, total absence of attention to building a corporate team, or to the recruitment and selection of staff, or to training or socialisation within the working teams. He suggested that 'field infantry' value should be acknowledged.
Kanter, R. (1980s)	*Change Management* Kanter's views focus on the flatter hierarchy, the post-entrepreneurial organisation and flexibility of an organisation to respond to change. She feels that the first step in change mastery is 'understanding how individuals can exert leverage in an organisation'. She refers to 'corporate entrepreneurs' who test limits and create new possibilities by directing innovation. She also refers to 'business athletes' who 'know how to compete in a way that enhances rather than undercuts

	cooperation'. Integrative teamwork is an important component in this approach, as is developing a broader understanding of 'what happens at different levels of the organisation' (Kanter 1984).
Peters and Waterman (1982)	*Search for excellence* In this joint publication, Peters and Waterman (1987) suggest that 'leadership is patient, usually boring coalition building'. The key to this approach, however, is built on the 'Seven S' model. In companies which operate with 'superordinate goals and strong cultures' they found that 'people way down the line know what they are supposed to do in most situations because the handful of guiding values is crystal clear'. Another key component of the excellent company is that 'their systems reinforce degrees of winning rather than degrees of losing – targets and quotas are set to allow that to happen'.
Peters, T. (1990)	*Thriving on Chaos* (1988); *Liberation Management* (1992) In *Thriving on Chaos*, Peters suggests that most successful organisations are the impatient ones who will 'reorganise on a dime'. Organisations adopting this approach will follow the guide that 'if you are not reorganising, pretty substantially, once every six to twelve months, you're probably out of step with the times'. In *Liberation Management* Peters stresses the need for more rapid and flexible management responses to the demands of the marketplace with a focus on capturing and retaining the loyalty of customers – going beyond 'satisfied customers' to 'committed customers'.
Waterman (1990s)	*Adhocracy* (1990) In his book *The Renewal Factor* (1987), Waterman says that 'one of the most difficult challenges in management is developing a sense of value and vision'. He also gives 14 guidelines for strengthening team work. In his later book on *The Frontiers of Excellence* (1994) he suggests that a well run total quality programme can be of benefit to middle managers and employees as well as customers.

Harvey-Jones, J. (1990s)	*Managing to Survive* (1993) Harvey Jones feels that the most important personal skill in this decade is that of managing radical change. His view is that no one actually 'manages' change, they 'release and guide it'. He also states that organisations do not change until the people in those organisations have – and people do not change their ideas and values quickly.
Handy, C. (1990s)	*Understanding Organisations* (1976) Handy's 1976 book outlined differences between a 'power culture', a role culture', a 'task culture' and a person culture' in organisations. His later books, including *The Empty Raincoat* have expounded his ideas. He proposed the model of the 'shamrock organisation'.

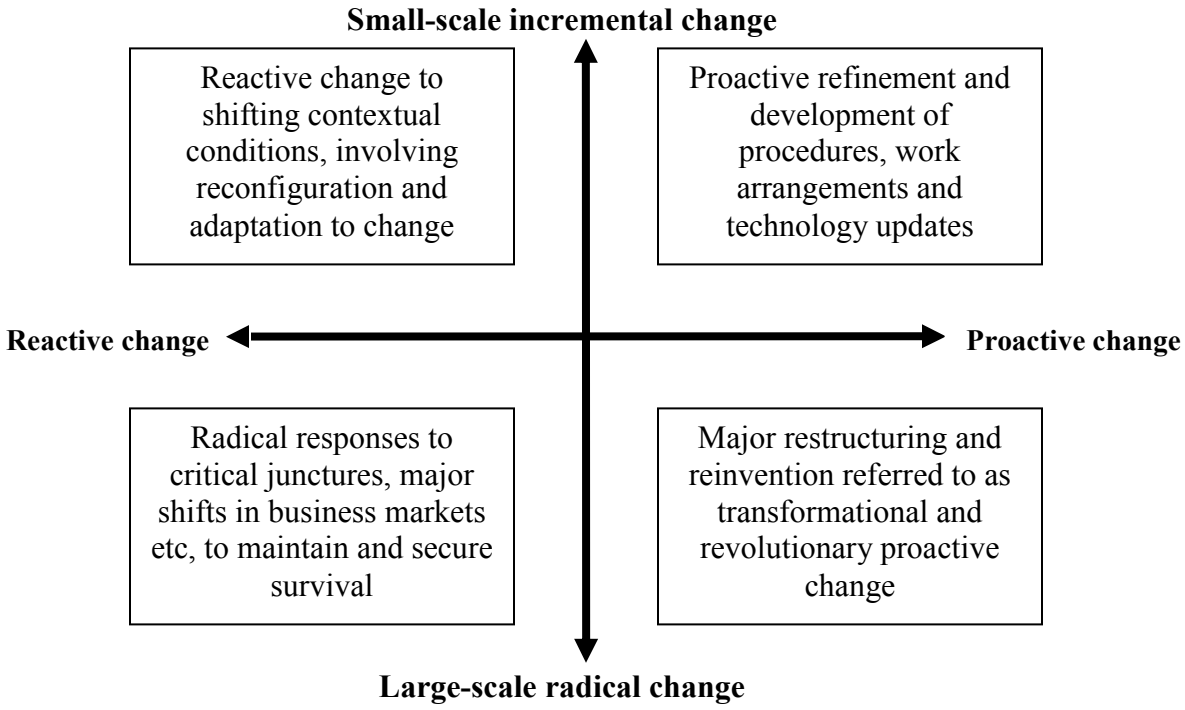
(Fletcher 1997: 22)

Fletcher (1997: 26) states that the above synopsis does not include all the key players in this field. However, the considering of the different views, some building on others, will be a helpful starting point for change in an organisation. An organisation must bear in mind its current type and style.

2.2.12. Types of organisational change

The figure below outlines the different change options available to implement and sustain change agendas. Dawson (2003) highlights the change scenario as emanating from a series of points ranging across small-scale incremental change to the polar opposite of large-scale transformational change. Change is conceptualised as being located on a continuum that moves from disjuncture and discontinuous to evolutionary. The change effort may be reactive to the currents of environmental and organisational change or it may be anticipatory and proactively respond in terms of a long-term or strategic approach to pre-empt issues (Osborne and Brown 2005: 223).

Figure 2: Types of organisational change

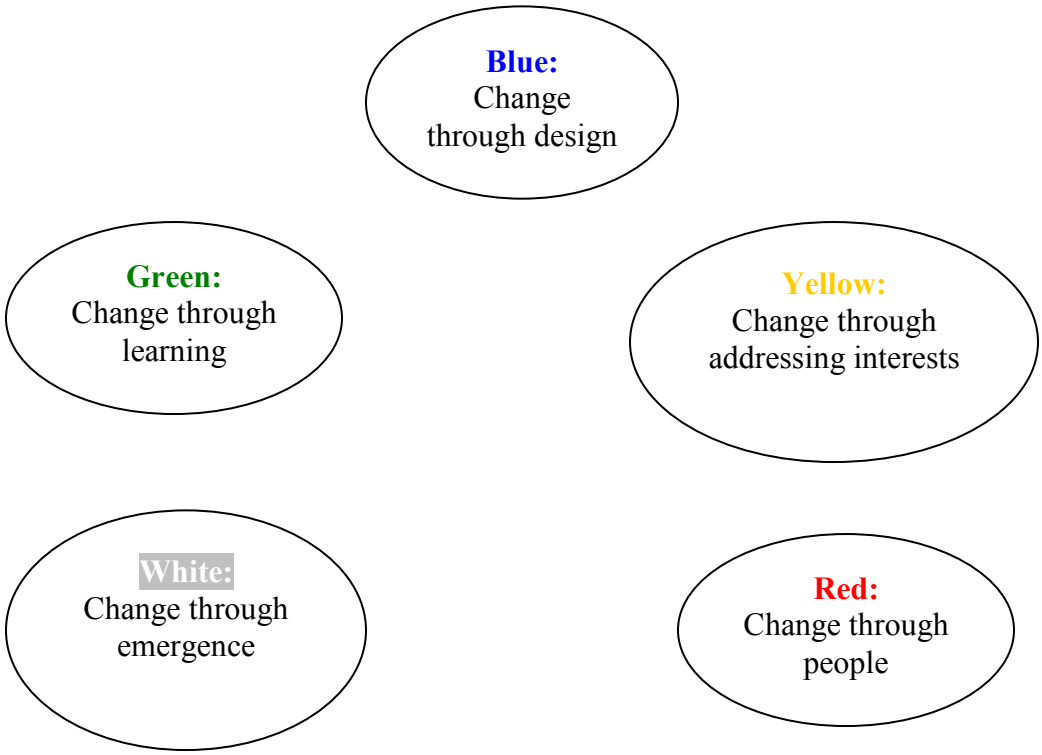


(Osborne and Brown 2005: 223).

2.2.13. Paradigms of change

De Caluwe and Vermaak (2004) have characterised approaches to change in a somewhat different way. In the figure below they identified five different ways in which we can conceptualise what happens when we want to make change interventions. They have given colours to each of these approaches.

Figure 3: Change interventions



(Green: 2007: 19).

- Blue – change through design: this most often occurs in organisations. It is the project management approach to change and involves careful planning and detailed analysis before the change happens. It is about the rational way to enact change. If the initial analysis is done well and if the steps and changes are comprehensively planned then the inputs made will produce the desired outputs.

- Yellow – change through addressing interests: this addresses the political aspects of organisations, recognising that there are winners and losers in all change situations and directly addressing the different wants and needs of the various stakeholders is a necessary element in getting positive movement forward in the driving forces for change and a useful way of attending to those forces that are restraining or against the change.

- Red – change through people: this recognises that change in an organisation is predominately done through people, and for the outcome of and change initiative to be successful it will not only need to have addressed the concerns of the organisation's people but to have engaged with them in order for new attitudes, skills and behaviours to have been acquired or learnt and demonstrated.

- White – change through emergence: this is about creating the conditions for change to occur without specifying the exact nature of the changes. It suggests that we cannot logically and rationally design, plan and manage change in a linear way. What is required is an enabling environment, people to make sense of what is happening, and to spot where the organisational energy is and take steps to removing hindrances and obstacles.

- Green – change through learning: this is concerned with change happening as a direct result of learning. The key focus is on creating an environment necessary for individuals and teams to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and experience to step into the new state and also how collectively the organisation can embed any new knowledge for sustained performance. This also covers single-loop and double-loop learning (discussed above) and ways in which the organisation can monitor and evaluate itself throughout the changes (Green 2007: 18).

2.3. The role of leadership in change management

Leadership is critical to the establishment of a sense of what the organisation is about. The leader is certainly not the only person involved in establishing purpose in the organisation. But someone in the organisation is inevitably critical in this regard. Someone has to initiate the process. Someone has to assess what is going on and project this into a sense of direction and purpose. Someone has to conceptualise, symbolise, and

communicate the meaning and purpose of the organisation. And that quite logically often is the formally designated leader of the organisation (Maehr 1989: 9).
Roberts (2006: 108) observes that in studying successful projects, good leadership and high staff morale are nearly always present. This connection between leadership and morale is a well established factor and one that must not be ignored. It is worth noting that provided that good, strong leadership is given, even when things are not going as planned, staff morale will often still remain high or even improve.

Misumi (1995: 260) adds that according to research on leadership and groups that were conducted, all leadership behaviour is expected to provide both Performance (P) and Maintenance (M) behaviour to a certain extent. Performance-Maintenance (PM) leadership theory is based on two group functions. The first function is oriented towards goal achievement or problem solving and the second function is oriented towards the continuation or maintenance of the group itself. Leadership that fulfils the former is referred as P-type (P standing for Performance) leadership (or behaviour) and leadership that fulfils the second function is called M-type (M standing for Maintenance) leadership.

He further adds that the concepts of meaning of work (MOW) is related not only to values, beliefs and attitudes concerning labour or work, but also directly to people's behaviour in places where they work. While values, beliefs and attitudes hardly change, behaviour changes according to circumstances (Misumi 1995: 256).

Graetz et al. (2006: 240) argue that there is no single recipe for success; what emerges as the principal, immutable ingredient is the need for strong leaders who perform a number of critical roles. These roles include:

- Energising and mobilising the workforce into a state of readiness for change
- Envisioning the future ideal and defining the direction in a way that appeals to, and inspires, all stakeholders on a personal level
- Demonstrating personal commitment and involvement by consistently and relentlessly communicating and modelling the new behaviours

- Providing enabling systems and structures that will sustain the momentum for change.

Maehr (1989: 5) claims that there are three 'pressure points' for change: the person the job, and the organisation.

In the first case, one can view the problem as resting particularly in the individual and work on changing something about him or her. Or, if change is not easy, one can concentrate on selecting the 'right' persons; that is, persons who are judged likely to exhibit high personal investment in the role assigned (Maehr 1989: 5).

The second and third possible pressure points for change involve the situation. In this case the focus is not so much on the characteristics of the individuals but on features of the situation that will bring about the change. Within the broad category of 'situation' one can specify two important subcategories: first there is the task, the specific role played by the person; the job to be done and second, the job situation, the task to be done, or the role to be played, is not the sole determining feature of the context. The nature, structure, policies, goals, and values of the organisation as a whole make a difference (Maehr 1989: 6).

2.3.1. Top management responsibility

Effective change leaders energise an organisation for change, build commitment for new directions, and then put into place a process that will translate such commitment into action (Spector 2007: 169).

a. Vision, mission, and professional commitment

The primary responsibility of top management must be to have a vision of the library's role. Strategic management of information resources is determined both by the vision held by the institution and by the degree to which resources can be, or are committed, to the fulfilment of that vision. It is the commitment of resources that constitutes leadership (Hayes 1993: 20).

b. Institutional mission

Historically, the mission of the library has been twofold: to preserve the record of knowledge and to provide access to that record and its contents. In the past, the two aspects of the mission have been mutually supportive, since the primary concern was with access to the individual library's own collection by its primary constituency. Today, however, while they are still largely mutually supportive, there are growing tensions between them. Increasingly, libraries are facing a crisis in determining their mission and are being forced to make a choice in the commitment of resources between collection development, on the one hand, and information access, on the other (Hayes 1993: 20).

It is this dilemma that today makes the context of strategic management so crucial.

2.3.2. Differences between leadership and management

Some commentators use the terms 'leadership' and 'management' interchangeably as if they are synonymous with one another, while others use them in very deliberate sense to convey that they are, in fact, quite different. Still others regard one (leadership) as a subset of the other (management). Organisational effectiveness, it is broadly accepted, is dependent upon both capable leadership and sound management. However, there is indeed a very real difference between the two. Turner (1998) argues that this is exemplified not only in the characteristics and activities of managers and leaders, but also

in the perceptions of them in the workplace, as well as, indeed, in the origins of the words themselves (McCaffery 2004: 58).

The word 'manager' is derived from the Latin term *manus* (or hand) which is the root of the sixteenth-century Italian word, *maneggiare*, a reference to handling, training and control of horses. British soldiers subsequently brought the word back from Italy and applied it to the handling of armies and the control of ships - vital duties performed by people who became known as 'managers'. The word gradually came to be applied to anyone who had a responsibility for organising activities and controlling their administration. The activities or functions associated with it - planning, staffing, budgeting, coordinating, decision-making, and so on - came to be the guiding principles (and organisational theory) on which classic business cooperation was later formed (McCaffery 2004: 58).

Leadership by contrast is portrayed as a difficult and noble act. The word 'leader' is derived from *laed*, a word common to all the Old North European languages, meaning 'path', 'road', 'course of a ship at sea' or 'journey'. A leader is therefore someone who accompanies people on a journey guiding them to their destination, and by implication who holds them together as a group while steering them in the right direction. Present-day dictionaries typically define a leader as *one who rules, guides or inspires others* (McCaffery 2004: 59).

Kotter (1999: 53) states that both managers and leaders have to attend to three functions: deciding what needs to be done, developing the capacity to do it, and ensuring that it is done.

However, there is a marked difference in the way that managers and leaders attend to these functions. Managers decide what needs to be done through a process of goal setting, establishing detailed steps for achieving these goals and identifying and allocating the resources necessary for their achievement - through planning and budgeting. Leaders, on

the other hand, focus on setting a direction and developing the strategies necessary to move to that direction - creating a vision (Hayes 2007: 168).

Management is more focused on developing plans to do things better, whereas leadership involves more double-loop thinking about what is the right thing to do. It involves attending to a wide range of cues that might signal emerging opportunities or problems and setting a direction that will maximise future benefit (Hayes 2007: 168).

Managers develop the capacity to accomplish their agenda by organising and staffing. Leaders focus on aligning people, communicating the new direction and creating coalitions committed to getting there. Successful leaders empower others to make the vision happen. Kotter (1999: 169) argues that a central feature of modern organisations is interdependence, where no one has complete autonomy, and where most members of the organisation are tied to many others by their work, technology, management systems and hierarchy. He goes on to state that these linkages present a special challenge when organisations attempt change.

Table 5: Contrast of roles of leaders and managers (Rosh 1991).

Leadership	***Management***
Influence relationship	Authority relationship
Leaders and followers	Managers and subordinates
Intend real changes	Produce and sell goods and/or services
Intended changes reflect mutual purposes	Goods/services result from coordinated activities

(Simmons-Welburn 2004: 103).

Hellriegel et al. (2002: 10) states that the basic managerial tasks are planning, organising, leading and controlling.

Planning involves defining organisational goals and proposing ways to reach them. They go on to argue that managers plan for three reasons:

- To establish the overall direction of the organisation's future.
- To identify and commit the organisation's resources to achieving its goals.
- To decide which tasks must be done to reach those goals.

Gilley (2005: 7) adds that planning involves systematically making decisions about the goals and activities that an individual, group, work unit, or organisation will pursue. Planning activities include analysing, forecasting, setting objectives, allocating resources, crafting strategies and determining activities in which the organisation will engage to achieve its goals.

Stueart and Moran (1998: 31) mention that despite the need for it, a systemic planning process remains one of the most elusive and easily avoided activities in libraries. They go on to add that keeping the whole organisation informed about the plans is very important. With this type of communication the greatest commitment is likely to be achieved (Stueart and Moran 1998: 37).

Whereas the planning process defines the goals and objectives of an organisation, organising involves the process of creating a structure of relationships that will enable employees to carry out management's plans and meet organisational goals. Hellriegel et al. (2002:10) add that by organising effectively, managers can better coordinate human, material, and information resources. This involves determining the specific activities necessary to accomplish the planned goals, grouping the activities into a logical framework or structure, assigning these activities to specific positions and people, and providing a means for coordinating the efforts of the individuals and groups (Stueart and Moran 1998: 87).

Gilley (2005: 7) adds that organising entails assembling and coordinating the resources (human, financial, informational and other) and activities needed to achieve goals.

Organising also includes specifying job responsibilities, scheduling work assignments, grouping jobs into work units and creating conditions for people to achieve success.

Leading is concerned with and motivating others to perform the tasks necessary to achieve the organisation's goals. Hellriegel et al. (2002: 10) emphasise that leading is not done only after planning and organising ends; it is a crucial element of those tasks.

Controlling is a process by which a person, group, or organisation consciously monitors performance and takes corrective action. In the control process managers:

- Set standards of performance
- Measure current performance against those standards
- Take action to correct any deviations
- Adjust the standards if necessary (Hellriegel et al. 2002: 11).

The controlling function ensures that goals are met by monitoring progress and comparing actual outcomes to goals (Gilley 2005: 7).

Jordan and Lloyd (2002: 3) state that the management of staff does not take place in a vacuum. It requires a clear idea of what has to be done, and therefore a cyclical nature of effective management. The starting point has to be the objectives of the library, which will have to be derived from an analysis of its role in relation to the objectives of the organisation of which it is a part and an examination of the needs of the community it is serving. Ifidon (1992: 10) agrees with this view and goes on to state that this step is closely followed by the formation of the institution's educational objectives which will guide the librarian in acquisition policies.

Hayes (1993: 8) argues that the most dramatic objective surely is the need to deal with an accelerating rate of change and to increase the ability of management to anticipate crises. In this respect, strategic management, as a continuing process, provides the basis for the organisational response to the environment.

Managers need to continually monitor the environment. A good manager is constantly talking to people at every level of operation, internally and externally, thus assuring an understanding of what is happening and what the effects of change in that environment will be. The results will be that decisions will be made that prevent problems, rather than having to solve them, because there is an intuitive grasp of what is happening. When a problem cannot be prevented, the same intuitive understanding provides the basis for immediate, effective decision making because necessary information already is embedded in that understanding. This truly is what strategic management is all about and it has the supporting role in such management by providing the formal basis for continually acquiring, analysing, and integrating, information into systemic decision making (Hayes 1993: 9).

Today a manager is seen as someone who responds to situations with rapidity and decisiveness. Hellriegel et al. (2002: 15) identify six competencies as been particularly important for managers today:

- Communication
- Planning and administration
- Teamwork
- Strategic action
- Global awareness
- Self-management.

Paton and McCalman (2008: 40) add that managing change is a multi-disciplinary activity. Those responsible, whatever their designation, must possess, or have access to, a wide range of skills, resources, support, and knowledge, for example:

- Communication skills are essential and must be applied both within and outside the managing team
- Managing motivation and providing leadership to all concerned

- The ability to facilitate and orchestrate group and individual activities is crucial
- Negotiation and influencing skills are invaluable
- It is essential that both planning and control procedures are employed
- The ability to manage on all planes, upward, downward and within the peer group, must be acquired
- Knowledge of, and the facility to influence, the rationale for change is essential.

Because managing involves getting work done through other people, communication competency is essential to effective managerial performance. Communication competency includes:

- Informal communication
- Formal communication
- Negotiation.

Fletcher (1997: 131) notes that the involvement of all employees must be generated through the provision of information. A company-wide briefing is a valuable means of informing, motivating and surveying the current picture. The critical communication should let everyone know:

- What is going to be developed
- Why it will be developed
- How employees can be involved
- What benefits will accrue for: 1. the organisation and, 2. individuals
- When developments will start
- Who has the project management responsibility
- Who the project champion is.

Planning and administration competency involves which tasks need to be done, determining how they can be done, and then monitoring the process to ensure that they are done. Included in this process are:

- Information gathering, analysis, and problem solving
- Planning and organising projects
- Time management
- Budgeting and financial management.

Fletcher (1997: 132) states that critical aspects to keep in mind when planning are:

- Clarify mission/values/culture
- Prepare strategy to achieve mission
- Identify/plot current initiatives and their contribution to strategy.

Newton (2007: 87) suggests that the aim of planning is to develop a document which describes the tasks that need to be done, the order that they must be done in and who does what task. He further states that the plan enables one to:

- Understand how long a change initiative will take, and how much it will cost
- Explain the change initiative to other people
- Allocate work to different people in the change team
- Manage the change initiative to successful completion.

Teamwork competency is associated with accomplishing tasks through small groups of people who are collectively responsible and whose work is interdependent. Teamwork can become more effective when managers:

- Design teams properly
- Create a supportive team environment
- Manage team dynamics appropriately.

Strategic action competency involves an understanding of the overall mission and values of the organisation and ensuring that the manager's action and those of the people s/he managers are aligned with them. This competency includes:

- Understanding the industry
- Understanding the organisation
- Taking strategic action.

Global awareness competency is required by managers who draw on human, financial, information and material resources from different countries. Library managers will need to develop this competency when interacting with international book publishers and suppliers.

This will be reflected in their:

- Cultural knowledge and understanding
- Cultural openness and sensitivity.

Self-management competency involves managers taking responsibility for their life at work and beyond. This competency includes:

- Integrity and ethical conduct
- Personal drive and resilience
- Balancing work/life issues
- Self-awareness and development.

2.3.3. Stages of staff management

Jordan and Lloyd (2002: 1) stress that human resources are a key resource for a library and it is necessary to get the most value from this key resource. This can be achieved by giving careful and well-informed attention to each stage in staff management.

They refer to the different stages as:

- Job descriptions
- Job/person specifications, entailing a description of the skills, knowledge, and qualities needed to perform a particular job
- Human resource planning
- Recruitment and selection of staff
- Staff appraisal
- Staff training and development.

They go on to argue that all these phases in staff management can only be put into practice successfully by people with a range of communication skills, and an understanding of motivation at work.

Similar stages for staff management are provided by Creth and Duda (1981: viii), Simmons-Welburn and McNeil (2004: xii), Hunter (2000: 64) and Stueart and Moran (1998: 180). Stueart and Moran (1998: 180) also include job analysis and job evaluation.

2.3.4. Management levels

Hellriegel et al. (2002: 12) outline basic levels of management:

- First-line managers
- Middle managers
- Top managers.

First-line managers are directly responsible for the production of goods and services. They are also responsible for implementing middle managers' operational plans. They generally report to middle managers (Lussier 2003: 15). First-line managers do not supervise other managers; they supervise operative employees. By examining the job descriptions of the sections heads of the different departments (periodicals, acquisitions,

cataloguing, inter-library loan, issue desk and short loan / reserve) of a university library, this group of managers can be equated to first-line managers.

Middle management usually receive broad, general strategies and policies from top management and translate them into specific goals and plans for first-line managers to implement. They tend to be removed from the technical aspects of work (Hellriegel et al. 2002: 13). Lussier (2003: 14) adds that middle managers generally report to executives and supervise the work of first-line managers. Given the nature of their jobs, deputy librarians and library administrators occupy the middle management level in libraries.

The overall direction of an organisation is the responsibility of the top manager. Top managers develop goals, policies, and strategies for the entire organisation (Hellriegel et al. 2002:13). In a library the top manager will be the Director of the Library or Chief Librarian.

Kuhl, Schnelle and Tillman (2005: 178) suggest that managers throughout the organisation have to engage in 'lateral leadership' to create a shared understanding, influence the political process and develop trust. They state that three mechanisms interlock in the concept of lateral leadership. The first objective is to create a common conceptual framework. This is a prerequisite for creating a shared understanding. The second objective is to form viable connections between the participants' divergent interests. The third objective concerns trust.

Transformational leaders have the ability to identify those who might be able to support or sabotage an initiative, network with them and communicate in a credible way what needs to be done. Aligning people in this way empowers them, even people at lower levels of the organisation. When there is clear (and shared) sense of direction, committed stakeholders, including subordinates, are more likely to feel able to take action without encountering undue conflict with others or being reprimanded by superiors (Hayes 2007: 169).

Managers ensure that people accomplish plans by controlling and problem solving. Leaders are more concerned with motivating and inspiring. For leaders the most practical role to play in managing personal investment relates to changing the organisational context.

A leader's role in eliciting motivation and commitment begins and ends with an attempt to make work meaningful. A major function in this regard is to convey the purposes of the organisation - where it is going - and how the individual contributes to and is a part of this overall direction of the organisation (Maehr 1989: 6).

Kotter (1999: 60) believes that inspiring others and generating highly energized behaviour can help overcome the inevitable barriers to change that they will encounter as the initiative unfolds. He identified four ways in which leaders can do this:

- Articulating the vision in ways that are in accord with the values of people they are addressing
- Involving people in deciding how to achieve the vision, thereby giving them some sense of control
- Supporting others' efforts to realise the vision by providing coaching, feedback and role modelling
- Recognising and rewarding success (Hayes 2007: 169).

Maehr (1989: 7) argues that managers need to view the health of the organisational culture. He adds that motivation might be significantly determined by organisational culture, the necessity to systematically identify, assess, and evaluate this variable rightly becomes a significant concern at the highest levels of the organisation.

He mentions that goal setting clearly must be a focus of an organisation if it is to exhibit the kind of sense of purpose that is critical. Meetings with staff are proper venues for goal concerns. In order to establish goals, purpose and a mission, one first has to engage the

organisation in goal talk. Secondly, one has to get a significant number of persons involved in specifying what the organisation is about (Maehr 1989: 8).

Maehr (1989: 8) further asserts that there are few better ways of expressing what is expected than through the evaluation process and the reward and recognition that accompany this process. In attempting to foster organisational change the domain of reward and recognition must be extensively considered.

Managers can choose to concern themselves with setting up systematic evaluation procedures and stress certain criteria. The mere fact that s/he establishes a group to do this and gives it some visibility may itself be sufficient to make it clear that there is concern and interest not only in evaluation but in certain performance criteria. Most important of all is that managers must be seen to act in terms of the evaluation information. They must take it seriously and be recognised for doing so (Maehr 1989: 9).

Evaluation and assessment are integral parts of management style. Evaluation implies a caring and an interest in what is being accomplished. Not to evaluate is to imply indifference. Evaluation, although at times painful and difficult to do, has several important consequences. It provides an occasion for articulating the goals and mission of the organisation for specific programmes, persons and units. The mere fact that evaluation occurs indicates that the organisation cares about what is done. Properly done, evaluation can also reflect a concern for the growth of the individual worker as a contributor to the organisation and suggest a stance that is generally growth-oriented rather than static. It is through a concern with evaluation that leaders affect the organisational culture (Maehr 1989: 9).

Kotter (1996: 21) adopts a process perspective on change management and highlights, in terms of leadership, what needs to be done to ensure success at each stage of the process:

- Establish a sense of urgency - ensure that the level of current dissatisfaction or future threat is sufficient to kick-start the change and maintain momentum

- Form a powerful coalition – Kotter argues that unless those who recognise the need for change put together a strong enough team to direct the process, the change initiative is unlikely to get off the ground. They have to ensure that key stakeholders are engaged and that the change team has the necessary sponsorship, power and authority
- Create a vision. Leaders must have a clear understanding of what is needed to be achieved from change and for it to be lofty, strategic and motivational. Kotter (1996: 72) summarises six criteria for an effective vision:

    - imaginable
    - desirable
    - feasible
    - focused
    - flexible
    - communicable.

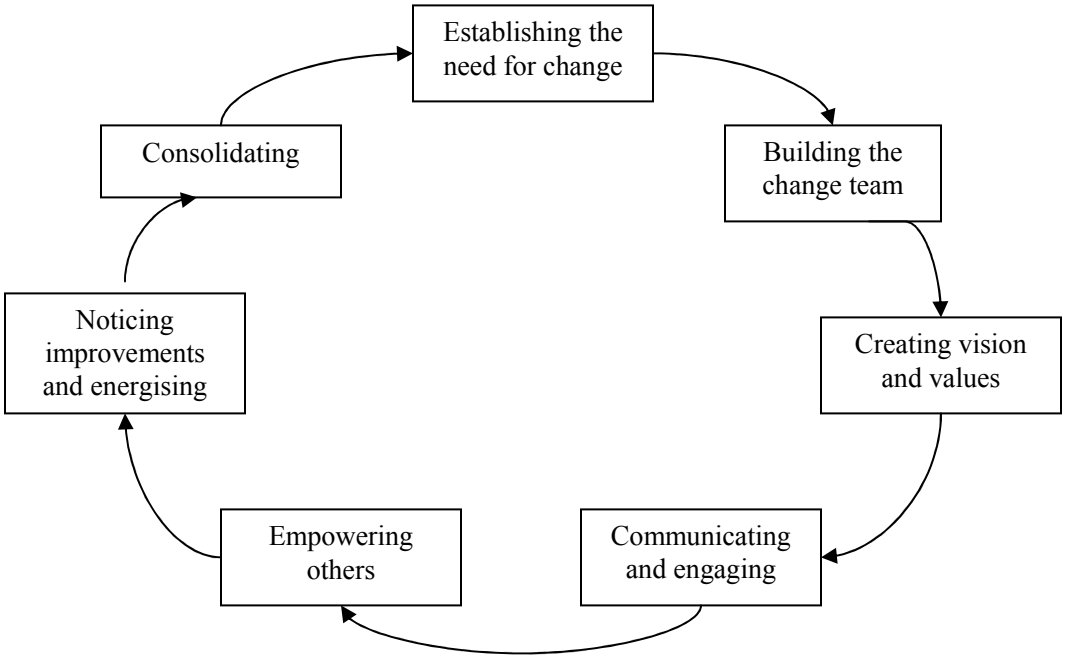
- Communicate the change vision - ensure people are informed and hopefully engaged with the change by having a shared understanding of and commitment to the direction of the change
- Empower others to act on the vision e.g. by removing obstacles - ensure that those people who are needed to make the change happen have the necessary resources, mandates and enabling mechanisms to achieve their goals
- Plan for and create short-term wins e.g. plan for visible improvements in performance or wins - be clear that progress is being made towards the ultimate goals through the achievement of smaller goals along the way, thus demonstrating success and maintaining momentum (Green 2007: 198)
- Consolidate improvements and produce still more change – this means capitalising on early wins to motivate others to introduce further changes to systems and structures that are consistent (aligned) with the transformation vision.

- Institutionalise new approaches – leaders need to ensure that changes are consolidated. They can help achieve this by showing others how the changes have improved performance.

This eight-step model is one that appeals to many managers. However, Cameron and Green (2004: 101) argue that what it appears to encourage is an early burst of energy, followed by delegation and distance. The eight steps do not really emphasise the need for managers to follow through with as much energy on Step 7 and Step 8 as was necessary at the start. Kotter peaks early, using forceful concepts such as 'urgency' and 'power' and 'vision'. Then after Step 5, words like 'plan', 'consolidate' and 'institutionalise' seem to imply a rather straightforward process that can be managed by others lower down the hierarchy. In their experience, Cameron and Green (2004: 101) state that the change process is challenging and exciting and difficult all the way through.

They developed the model below which is based on their experiences of change, but has close parallels with Kotter's eight steps. They prefer to model the change process as a continuous cycle rather than a linear progression. They also emphasise the importance of management attention through all phases of the process (Cameron and Green 2004: 101).

Figure 4: Cycle of change



(Cameron and Green 2004: 102).

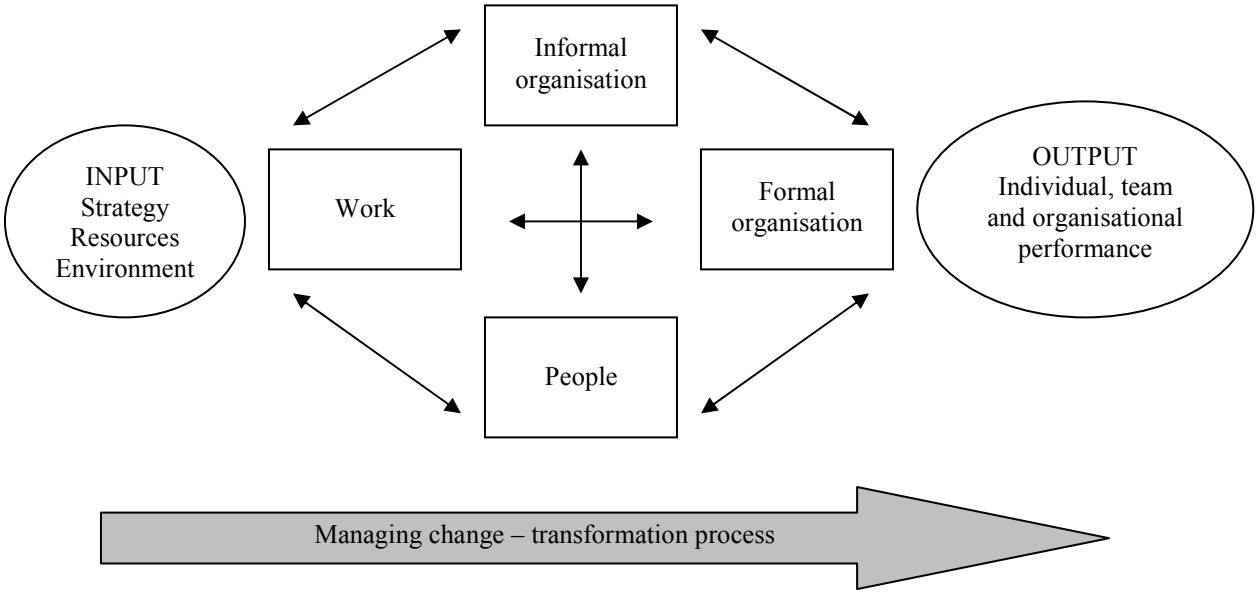
Nadler and Tushman's (1997) congruence model takes a different approach to looking at factors affecting the change process. This model provides an understanding of the dynamics of what happens in an organisation when change is introduced. The model is based on the belief that organisations can be viewed as a set of interacting sub-systems that scan and sense changes in the external environment. This model sits firmly in the open systems school of thought, which uses the organism metaphor to understand organisational behaviour (Cameron and Green 2004: 104).

This model views the organisation as a system that draws inputs from both internal and external sources (strategy, resources, and environment) and transforms them into outputs (activities, behaviour and performance of the system at three levels: individuals, group and total). The heart of the model is the opportunity it offers to analyse the transformation process in a way that does not give perspective answers, but instead stimulates thoughts on what needs to happen in a specific organisational context. David Nadler (1997) writes.

‘It’s important to view the congruence models as a tool for organising your thinking… rather than as a rigid template to dissect, classify and compartmentalise what you observe. It’s a way of making sense out of a constantly changing kaleidoscope of information and impressions’ (Cameron and Green 2004: 104).

The model draws on the sociotechnical view of organisations that looks at managerial, strategic, technical and social aspects of organisations, emphasising the assumption that everything relies on everything else. This means that the different elements of the total system have to be aligned to achieve high performance as a whole system. Therefore the higher the congruence, the higher the performance (Cameron and Green 2004: 105).

Figure 5: Nadler and Tushman’s congruence model



(Cameron and Green 2004: 105).

In this model of the transformation process, the organisation is composed of four components, or sub-systems, which are all dependent on each other. These are:

- The work: this is the actual day-to-day activities carried out by individuals; process design, pressures on the individual and available rewards must all be considered under this element
- The people: this is about the skills and characteristics of the people who work in the organisation and what their expectations and backgrounds are
- The formal organisation: this refers to the structure, systems and policies in place and how things are formally organised
- The informal organisation: this consists of all the unplanned, unwritten activities that emerge over time such as power, influence, values and norms.

This model proposes that effective management of change means attending to all four components and not just one or two components (Cameron and Green 2004: 105).

Cameron and Green (2004: 107) view the Nadler and Tushman's congruence model as useful because it provides a memorable checklist for those involved in making change happen. They observed that this model is particularly good for pointing out in retrospect why changes did not work, which although psychologically satisfying is not always a productive exercise. They further note that this model is problem-focused rather than solution-focused, and lacks any reference to the powerful effects of a guiding vision, or the need for setting and achieving goals.

Cameron and Green (2004: 107) have found that the McKinsey seven 'S' models is a more rounded starting point for organisations facing change. This model of organisations uses the same metaphor, representing the organisation as a set of interconnected and interdependent sub-systems. It is also acts as a good checklist for leaders setting out to make organisational change, laying out which parts of the system need to adapt, and the knock-on effects of these changes in other parts of the system. The seven 'S' categories are:

- Staff: important categories of people
- Skills: distinctive capabilities of key people
- Systems: routine processes

- Style: management style and culture
- Shared values: guiding principles
- Strategy: organisational goals and plan; use of resources
- Structure: the organisational chart.

Leban and Stone (2008: 136) add that the direction a leader provides during the planning and implementation of a strategic change initiative must be focused on a number of critical factors which they termed the four 'Cs' (coordination, competencies, commitment and communication). Coordination or teamwork is required to identify, develop and implement strategic project plans. Required competencies must be defined and compared to existing resources so that any gaps can be identified and appropriate resources acquired. A commitment or buy into the established direction of change must be made by individuals and teams. Communication of the new vision and strategic direction must be appropriately defined and consistently communicated. A change agent's ability to lead with a focus on these factors will help increase the probability of successful change.

Gilley (2005: 57) states that seven broad dimensions form a framework of the specific skills, experiences and requirements of change leadership. These are similar to the skills mentioned above and are leadership skills, management skills, problem solving and decision making skills, interpersonal skills, communication skills, change-process and implementation skills, and business and general knowledge.

Table 6: Roles, responsibilities, skills and competencies of a change leader:

Roles	***Responsibilities***	***Knowledge/Skill/Competency***
Visionary	Challenge the Status Quo	Risk-taker. Business Knowledge (industry, company, people, products). Problem solver. Persuasive. Confident.

		Adaptable. Results-driven.
	Imagine the future	Ability to visualise. Creative. Tolerant of ambiguity.
	Philosophy of Stewardship	Accountable. Ability to put the needs of others above your own.
	Align the Change	Strategic. Alliance builder.
	Share the Vision	Articulate.
Inspirer	Sell the Change	Persuasive. Sell the benefits. Passionate.
	Involve Others	Build alliances. Engaging.
	Model the Change	Genuine. Walk the talk.
Supporter	Create a Culture of Change	Identify and remove barriers to change. Trust others. Allow mistakes. Flexible. Open-minded. Encourage feedback.
	Secure Resources	Business acumen. Understand organizational politics, processes, policies.
	Involve Others	Collaborative. Build alliances. Trust. Delegate.

		Coach.
	Encourage Creativity and Innovation	Trust. Provide resources and a safe environment.
	Communication	Articulate. Knowledge of communication processes. Active listening. Feedback.
	Own the Change	Visibly responsible. Accountable.
	Model the Behaviour	Genuine. Walk the Talk.
	Enhance Own Behaviour	Lifelong learner. Adaptable. Understand own limitations.
	Recognise and Reward	Understand motivation techniques; human behaviour.
Problem Solver	Analyse the Situation	Ability to gather data via multiple means. Analytical. Generate and evaluate alternatives.
	Craft Solutions	Creative, innovative. Resourceful. Results-driven.
	Monitor	Personal involvement. Evaluate.
Change Manager	Coordinate Change	Knowledge of change processes (planning, facilitation, management). Able to identify and remove barriers to change.
	Communicate	Articulate.

		Knowledge of communication methods. Active listening. Feedback.
	Establish Clear Goals and Expectations	Results-driven. Knowledge of goal setting and motivation techniques.
	Involve Others	Trust others. Delegate. Value the contributions of others.
	Anticipate and Address Personnel Problems	Knowledge of human behaviour. Manage resistance.
	Manage Conflict	Conflict management. Negotiate. Mediate.
	Recognise and Reward	Understand motivation techniques. Knowledge of human behaviour.
	Make Change Last	Knowledge of human behaviour and motivation techniques.

(Gilley 2005: 58).

Graetz et al. (2006: 247) list the following key attributes for effective change leadership:

- Strong self-image and belief in oneself:
    - Self-confidence: willingness to step into the unknown (needs to be combined with humility, capacity to listen)
    - Ability to draw others to a vision
    - Ability to take decisive action
    - Awareness of own strengths and weaknesses.

- High energy levels:
    - A passion for the job
    - Energy and focus, combined with an awareness of other worlds and moving outside the circle
    - Contagious enthusiasm and commitment.

- A love for people:
    - Belief in, and sensitivity to, followers
    - Genuine interest in followers' needs concerns and views
    - Behave as a friend
    - Theory Y leaders: subordinates who are capable and willing to work to their potential and take on responsibilities
    - A capacity for 'aloneness', the ability to walk alone and gain satisfaction from others' achievements.

- Functional competence:
    - Knowledge, experience and credibility that are key factors in gaining support and commitment of others for the change effort.

- Knowledge of the organisation:
    - An understanding of the operational context: the organisation's culture and history, including the background and personalities of key individuals who may help or hinder the change process.

- Strong drive:
    - Ambition; desire to make an impact
    - Challenge status quo: strong sense of self-control, purpose and competence.

Peters and Waterman (1982) and Kanter (1983, 1989) suggest that there are common culturally-related attributes associated with organisations recognised as being masters of change. The attributes are:

- A clear and communicated strategic vision: people must know where they are going and why. Suppliers, customers and stakeholders obviously benefit from a clear understanding of the organisation's philosophy, purpose and strategic undertakings. The vision, based on a thorough understanding of the operating environment and organisation capabilities, sets the context for strategic developments, organisational cultures, management approaches and lays the foundation of the desired means of sustaining competitive advantage
- Visible senior management involvement: sustainable change can only be achieved when senior management becomes visibly involved in the process. Executives must exhibit, and encourage within others, a bias for action (Peters and Waterman, 1982). The levers of change must be connected from the top to the bottom of the organisation (Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993). The executive grouping, led by the chief executive, must support their change agents in their endeavours (Sminia and van Nistelrooij, 2006)
- People-based competitive edge: in an increasingly bland corporate world, where products, technology, packaging and image, are cloned and replicated, enterprises are finding it more difficult to identify a truly sustainable competitive edge. The people they employ and develop offer a means of sustaining a competitive advantage that is dynamic, potentially unique and difficult to emulate. An empowered, autonomous, knowledgeable and participating workforce, encouraged to exhibit entrepreneurial tendencies, is more likely to respond to change and exploit potential opportunities
- Marketing ethos: no matter the nature of an enterprise's business, nor the sector to which it belongs, it would be wise to maintain a watchful eye on the market place it serves. If it does not take care of its customers then someone else will. Everyone in an organisation has a customer, satisfy the internal customer and

build a 'marketing ethos' throughout the organisation. Focus on the customer's needs and develop a culture designed to meet them

- Consensus-driven management: driven by the previous four attributes, an organisation would be wise to foster a shared view of the corporate ethos, to strive to establish a consensus on the best course of action and the optimal means of achieving the desired outcomes. A shared perception is not easy to achieve, as there is always a tendency, especially for those in positions of power, to dictate rather than communicate. Gaining a consensus takes time and commitment. It involves the re-engineering of the cultural web and in extreme cases may require the wholesale dismantling of existing organisation structures and procedures in an effort to jettison 'baggage'
- Awareness and reflection of social responsibility: Martin and Hetrick (2006) note that by widening the definition of corporate stakeholder to include society in general, who after all in some shape or form may be regarded as the market place, corporations are now attempting to reflect societal expectations. In addition, regulatory bodies again seeing society as their market are endeavouring to ensure that enterprises, of all types, conduct their business in accordance with society wishes. The cultural web is now, more than ever before, reflecting, in a tangible way, its responsibility to the environment, consumers, employees and the wider public (Paton and McCalman 2008: 48).

Table 7: Leadership styles and their appropriate use in change situations:

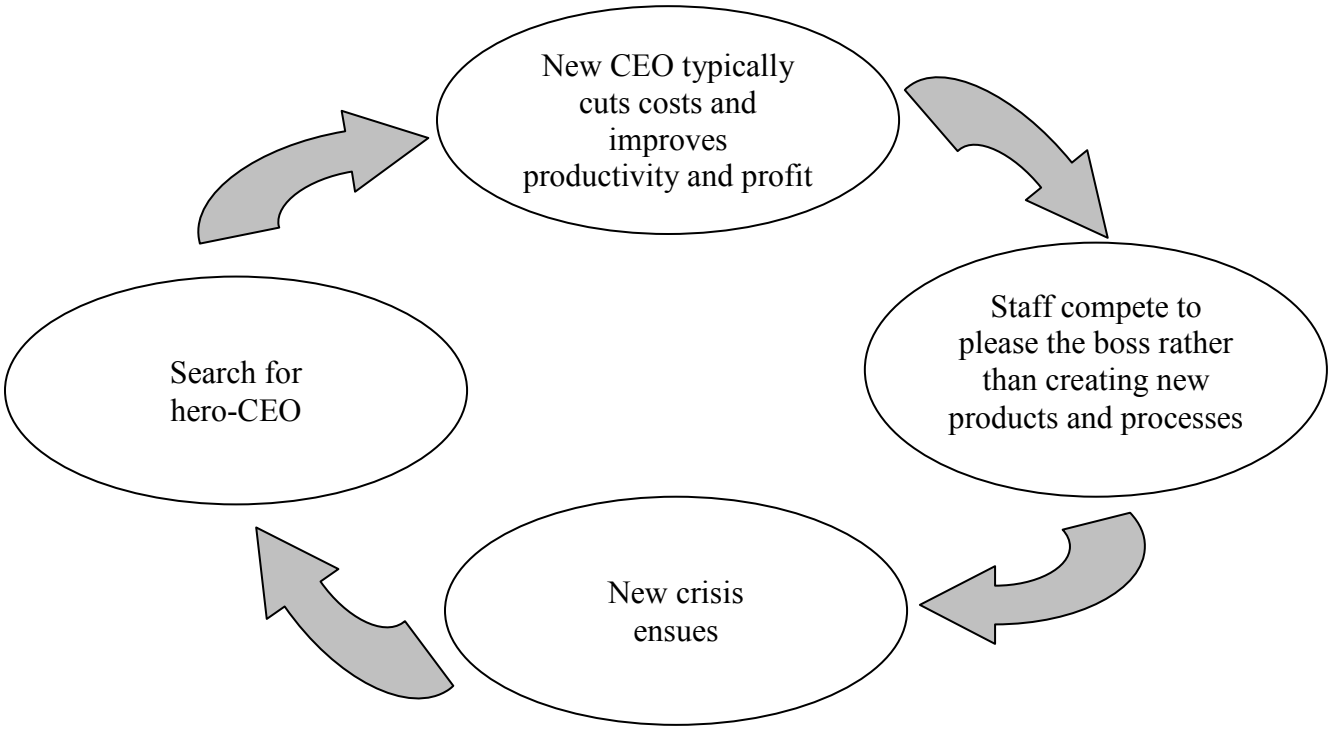
Leadership Style	***Change situation***
Coercive	When there is an organisational crisis and action needs to be taken immediately. The leader needs to have the necessary competencies to make the right decision.
Authoritative	When a vision needs to be articulated and moved forwards. People need to be engaged and the leader needs to have credibility.
Affiliative	When people are going through transition and need support.

	When different interest groups need conflict resolution or coalition building.
Democratic	When stakeholders need to be engaged in creating the solution or when the complexity of the change is such that solutions will be achieved through collective endeavour and collaborative problem solving.
Pacesetting	When the change needs kick-starting and there is a the willingness and enthusiasm to initiate and implement the changes. When there is a community of change champions.
Coaching	When the underlying ethos is one of learning, growth and development. When the organisation needs to build its leadership capability and is willing to invest in it.

(Green 2007: 237).

Senge (1999) argues that successful change does not have to come from the top of an organisation. It comes from within an organisation. He remarks that senior executives do not have much power to change things as they would like to think. He goes on to attack an organisation's dependence on the 'hero leader'. Senge (1999) claims that this results in a vicious circle. The circle begins with a crisis, which leads to the search for a new CEO in whom all hopes are invested. The new CEO acts proactively and aggressively, and makes some dramatic short-term improvements such as cutting costs and improving productivity. Everyone then falls in line to please the new CEO. Employees comply rather than work hard to challenge the status quo, and a new crisis inevitably occurs. This vicious circle does not result in new thinking or organisational learning or renewal, or even growth, and in turn feeds the organisation's desire to find new hero-leaders.

Figure 6: The search for a hero-CEO.



(Cameron and Green 2004: 135).

Senge (1999) offers some stark truths about organisational change:

- Little significant change can occur if it is driven from the top
- CEO programmes rolled out from the top are a great way to foster cynicism and distract everyone from the real efforts to change
- Top management buy-in is a poor substitute for genuine commitment and learning capabilities at all levels of the organisation (Cameron and Green 2004: 134).

Senge (1999) claims that organisations need to think about developing communities of interdependent leaders across organisations. Different types of leaders have different

types of roles. He identified three important, interconnected types of leader: local line leaders, executive leaders and network leaders:

- Local line leaders: these are front-line managers who design products and services and make the core processes work. Without the commitment of these people, no significant change will happen. These people are usually very focused on their own teams and customers. They rely on network leaders to link them with other parts of the organisation, and on executive leaders to create the right infrastructure for good ideas to emerge and take root
- Executive leaders: these are management board members. Senge (1999) does not believe that all change starts here. Rather, he states that these leaders are responsible for three things: designing the right innovation environment and the right infrastructure for assessment and reward, teaching and mentoring local line leaders, and serving as role models to demonstrate their commitment to values and purpose
- Network leaders: Senge (1999) makes the point that the really significant organisational challenges occur at the interfaces between project groups, functions and teams. Network leaders are people who work at these interfaces. They are guides, advisors, active helpers and accessors (helping groups of people to get resource from elsewhere), working in partnership with line leaders. They often have the insight to help local line leaders to move forward and make changes happen across the organisation (Cameron and Green 2004: 135).

Senge's model recognises the need for all three types of leader, and the need for connectivity between different parts of the organisation if change is desired (Cameron and Green 2004: 136).

2.3.5. The management of strategic planning

Strategic planning is clearly the responsibility of the director of the academic library. Within strategic management, however, planning is an essential element, serving as the

means for acquiring, analysing, and presenting the data needed to make effective decisions (Hayes 1993: 24).

Strategic planning requires a substantial dedication of effort on the part of any responsible person. It requires the ability to establish working relationships with employees at many levels – technical, administrative, professional, and in a wide range of academic contexts. It requires continual discussion with everyone who has a stake in the outcome; it requires both technical skills and political awareness; and it requires some degree of vision about the planning issues, and their relationships, both existing and potential, to the strategic management of the library (Hayes 1993: 25).

a. Process of strategic planning

- Information gathering – environment scanning
- Assessment of current strategy – must be objective
- Forecasting future needs – needs to be long term
- Analysis and evaluation of alternatives (Hayes 1993: 26).

b. The balanced scorecard/strategy map approach

The development of a strategy execution capability is crucial for any organisation, yet the majority of the time that most organisations invest in strategy is around the strategy development process. There has to be a balance between the content of the strategy and the capability to execute it. The University of Leeds (UofL) addressed the development of its corporate strategy using the 'balanced scorecard' and 'strategy map' approach (Donoghue 2007: 42).

The 'balanced scorecard' framework adopted by UofL was designed to provide a way of describing, measuring and managing strategy. At the centre of this model are five basic principles of a 'strategy-focused' organisation:

- Mobilise change through leadership: ensuring that the project had top leadership sponsorship, further to working with the senior management of the University to define a long-term change agenda – articulated through a vision and strategy
- Translate the strategy into operational terms: this part of the project was concerned with the development of a 'strategic map' supported by a 'balanced scorecard', supported by a number of key initiatives to deliver the key strategic priorities
- Align the organisation to the strategy: alignment is a key part of the implementation challenge, concerning the process of effectively cascading the strategy throughout the University
- Motivate to make strategy everyone's job: this part of the project was concerned with ensuring that the strategy connected with the entire University through effective communication and objective setting
- Govern to make strategy a continual process: the final element of the approach was about ensuring that the strategy was integrated into the governance of the University, establishing regular reviews and reporting processes to ensure ongoing focus upon the strategy (Donoghue 2007: 43).

These basic principles provided the high level overview of the priorities for the project. During the early stages of development, considerable work was put into educating and communicating the importance of the overall framework, as there was a tendency for the 'performance measurement' aspects to dominate the strategic agenda. This was a particular challenge, as the culture of the organisation would not have responded to the framework being predominately measures-driven (Donoghue 2007: 44).

Donoghue (2007: 46) lists the following as some of the keys to success:

- Develop an embedded understanding (through education and engagement) of strategic priorities. This allows leaders to direct, influence and lead. The latter is essential to the development of a sustainable strategic capability

- Cascade an effective framework and make it meaningful. The University's ability to transfer skills from within a central project team into the wider organisation is essential
- Use a variety of communication approaches to engage members of staff at all levels and encourage them to think about how they make a difference in their role
- Ensure information to support strategic review is in a form that is useful, accurate and easily digestible, and that it helps to reinforce focus.

2.3.6. Leadership of knowledge communities

Sallis and Jones (2002: 32) contend that knowledge requires leadership to predominate over management. More importantly the style of leadership needs to encourage trust and sharing. The style that can take collaboration forward, can be called 'network leadership'. It recognises that organisations are professional and composed of intelligent and motivated people. Once this is appreciated, style needs to follow function and the new breed of leaders will engage in entrusting and encouraging communities of experts and professionals.

Organisations now require leaders who are sensitive to the psychology of knowledge creation and whose purpose is to nurture knowledge-creating communities.

Issues in network leadership:

- Requires leadership not management
- Recognises that tacit knowledge is not strictly manageable
- Nurtures knowledge workers
- Recognises that knowledge is a social construct
- Requires leaders to encourage and enthuse knowledge workers (Sallis and Jones 2002: 33).

a. Structure and hierarchy of knowledge organisations

Knowledge organisations require a structure that is capable of accommodating learning organisations and knowledge communities. They need multi-directional communication channels and plenty of interactions in decision making. Network leadership needs to create structures and climates that allow learning and innovation to flourish.

What is needed is knowledge management structures that:

- Are multi-layered network organisations;
- Develop a climate of trust;
- Recognise the needs of free-nation knowledge workers;
- Promote sharing and collaboration;
- Have organisational policies that promote working together;
- Use middle managers as the knowledge conduit;
- Have flexible teamwork structures that can generate the creative context;
- Have a middle-up-down structure of communication;
- Develop knowledge communities and communities of practice;
- Become network organisations;
- Combine formal hierarchy with voluntary knowledge communities (Sallis and Jones 2002: 39).

b. The role of the middle managers

Sallis and Jones (2002: 40) argue that middle managers are central to the process of knowledge creation. They are at the very heart of the organisation. Middle managers play a mediation role, interceding both between top and bottom, and between internal and external forces. More importantly, they are often the main knowledge creators. They act as team leaders and group coordinators. They are at the centre of knowledge management, as their role puts them in a position that intersects both the vertical and the

horizontal information flow. They often lead knowledge communities and promote the sharing of knowledge.

Middle managers:

- Are knowledge engineers
- Are the centre of horizontal and vertical information flows
- Are the motivators of knowledge workers
- Are the knot and the bridge of knowledge creation
- Link the hierarchical and voluntary structures
- Build trust in teams
- Develop team and knowledge communities (Sallis and Jones 2002: 41).

In fact in *Management Extra* (2005: 101) it is argued that if a change management process fails, it is most likely to be with middle management as they generally have most to lose and the least to gain. They will initially see the change proposals in negative terms. Middle managers are also more used to being measured by short-term, internal performance measures and may be unsettled by the more fluid style of management required during the period of flux. Change programmes are often about empowering the workforce, but where does this leave middle management? They must be persuaded that there will be plenty of scope for building a career after the programme and that proving abilities during the transition process will build their credibility. Middle management need to feel that they are still in control during the transition period and must be fully involved as members of different steering groups and working parties.

The workforce may feel a great sense of liberation during the change management process. They may feel that for the first time their views are being noted and that they have a contribution to make. The temptation all the time during the change process is for middle management to continue managing at the micro-level. This will kill the workforce's new found energy and commitment. This is a period to take risks and allow the workforce discretion and control. What is perhaps most difficult is to maintain this

new way of doing things once the change management process is over and it is time to refreeze the organisation (*Management Extra* 2005: 101).

2.3.7. Librarians as leaders

Academic libraries are operating in an era of increasing competitiveness, limited resources, a need for greater accountability to a number of stakeholders, and a technologically astute and demanding user population. While these broad issues have a direct impact on the human resource (HR) needs of libraries, organisational changes, such as greater use of teams in decision making and matrix organisational structures, have led to increasing complexity associated with managing human resources issues in academic libraries. The range and complexity of these HR issues, including: the changing roles associated with shared leadership; greater communication challenges in team-based organisations and evolving job descriptions; reflecting broad organisational considerations; influence the knowledge and skill sets required by new employees; the professional development needs of library faculty and staff; and the HR issues associated with managing change in complex organisations. Thus, the range of HR activities is represented by a number of broad areas of responsibility, such as leadership and coordinating activities, data gathering, analysis, and decision making; advertising; recruitment and retention, including issues of diversity; and professional development and training (Simmons-Welburn and McNeil 2004: 125).

Simmons-Welburn and McNeil (2004: 109) further state that the librarians and/or professional staff of the academic library have a fundamental responsibility to provide leadership and direction in shaping the future of the library. In general, there is an expectation of outreach to all constituents served, such as, faculty, students, and the larger community, plus an expectation to consider and implement new approaches and ideas in services while maintaining the familiar traditional activities of the library. For example, at University of KwaZulu-Natal's (UKZN) Pietermaritzburg campus library, subject librarians are expected to initiate and seek out academic staff and students to offer user education sessions so that individuals learn about library resources and how to

access and evaluate these resources. Librarians are also expected to work more cooperatively and in conjunction with academic departments in developing services offered. In addition, librarians are expected to seek ways to cooperate with other libraries within their region. This involvement in cooperative ventures requires leadership from various librarians to shape services in new and different ways and to reach agreement on complex issues.

In considering distributed and shared leadership, an organisation cannot have everyone pulling in opposite directions and expect to move forward. The challenge for library administrators is to establish a balance between their managerial and leadership responsibilities and those of staff to play an active role in defining library directions and innovative services. Leadership at the top of the organisation has a responsibility to describe the vision and directions, involve others in refining this vision and then identify an organisational design with a values and reward/recognition system that will support expanded leadership and staff involvement throughout the organisation (Simmons-Welburn and McNeil 2004: 110).

In most academic libraries, it may not be sufficient that leadership exercised by non-managerial staff is desired. It may be necessary to alter the basic organisation of the library to remove barriers and to facilitate ways in which all staff members can interact and work more openly and effectively together and thus demonstrate leadership. To provide opportunities for individuals and groups to take on the role of leaders, consideration should be given to creating and encouraging more fluid and spontaneous working relationships among library staff (Simmons-Welburn and McNeil 2004: 110).

Shaughnessy (1996: 47) states that one of the chief tasks of a library director is to create a new mental model of the library organisation. As Peter Senge observed, all too frequently the best ideas never get put into practice, creative insights never find their way into operating policies because they conflict with deeply held internal images of how the organisation works, images that limit us to familiar ways of thinking and acting. In changing this culture, the library director needs to help the organisation develop a new

and powerful vision of its future, a vision with the power to propel it forward, both individually and organisationally. The vision must be positive and inspiring; it must be worth the effort and lead to action. The development of a new vision for research libraries is a major challenge for all directors because most faculty and many library staff are satisfied with the existing model.

The transition from one mental model to another represents and institutional or corporate 'passage' of sorts – a change far more complex than, for example, the changes that staff are required to make in accommodating new equipment and in adjusting to new service demands. The redefinition or re-envisioning of research libraries will probably affect the job content of each and every staff member, will significantly redefine staff roles and functions, and will lead to organisational structures that are quite different from present ones. While the process of re-envisioning the research library is bound to cause discomfort and tension, it should not become threatening or personalised (Shaughnessy 1996: 48).

2.3.8. Getting the spirit of change into an organisation

Chester Barnard (1938) proposed that: 'Organisations are a system of cooperative activities and their coordination requires something intangible and personal that is largely a matter of relationships' (Fletcher 1997: 26).

In 1954, Peter Drucker proposed five areas in which practices are required to 'ensure the right spirit throughout management organisation':

- There must be high performance requirements; no condoning of poor or mediocre performance and rewards must be based on performance
- Each management job must be a rewarding job in itself rather than just a step on the promotion ladder
- There must be a rational and just promotion system

- Management needs a ‘charter’ spelling out clearly who has the power to make ‘life and death’ decisions affecting a manager; and there should be some way for a manager to appeal to a higher court.

In its appointments, management must demonstrate that it realises that integrity is the one absolute requirement of a manager, the one quality that s/he has to bring with her/himself and cannot be expected to acquire later on (Fletcher 1997: 26).

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1989) suggests that there are seven skills and sensibilities that managers need to cultivate in order to become ‘true business athletes’:

- Learn to operate without the might of the hierarchy behind you
- Know how to compete in a way that enhances rather than undercuts cooperation
- Operate with the highest ethical standards
- Have a dose of humility
- Develop a process focus
- Be multifaceted and ambidextrous
- Gain satisfaction from results (Fletcher 1997: 26).

2.4. The nature of change in information services

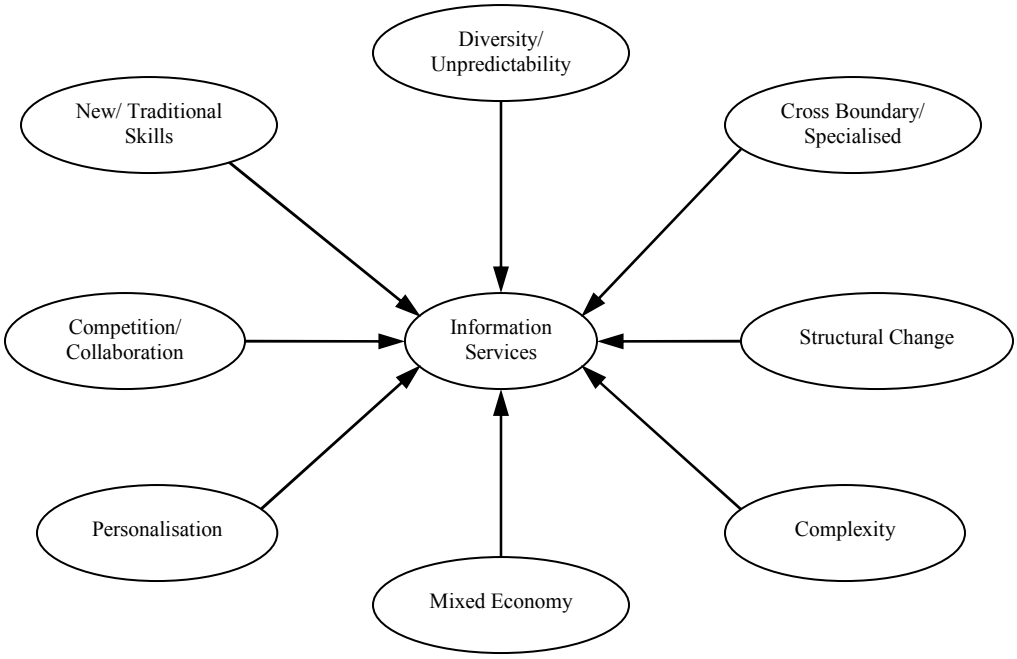


Figure 7: The nature of change in information services (Pugh 2007: 2).

Some libraries are now amongst the most highly diversified organizations in the world. Staff in academic libraries includes librarians, technology specialists and other professionals; support staff; and a large number of student assistants seeking degrees at the very institution the libraries serve (Simmons-Welburn and McNeil 2004: 119).

In fact, new configurations have brought libraries into relationships with other services. This has resulted in the influx of staff from different disciplines, with different traditions of training and education and different perspectives. Most libraries now exhibit considerable variety in their services and their staffing. These conditions have been created, at least in part, by the development of technology. It is because of technology that libraries can now be staffed by combinations of:

- Librarians
- Technologists

- Graphic designers
- Media technicians
- Other non-librarians of various types (Pugh 2007: 3).

Simmons-Welburn and McNeil (2004: 120) add that Library and Information Science (LIS) graduates are now expected to be as comfortable with web development and systems as they are with reference, collection development and cataloguing. There is also a growing number of management responsibilities assumed by library professionals, which include public relations and strategic communication, fund raising and development activities, assessment, and managerial skills development. All are crucial areas of development for LIS curricula geared towards responding to the needs of employees in libraries.

Pugh (2007: 3) argues that libraries can now be managed by non-librarians, and by imports from business and industry. Technology has increased the physical reach of information services and facilitated the entry of information workers into organisations, and areas within organisations, where they would not traditionally have been found.

Technology has contributed much to the broadening of the scope of library operations. It is technology which has created a requirement for library staff who have matured in different environments and bring different viewpoints, skills and experience to the task of managing and operating in organisations. This multiplicity of perspectives is an important factor in change management (Pugh 2007: 3).

Diversity also stems from the mix of technological and political influences which have been at work on libraries since before the early days of electronic collections and digitisation. Political and economic factors led to mergers in academic institutions (Pugh 2007: 3). UKZN is an example of this.

Johnson (1996: 84) claims that the automation of library processes affects the type of tasks and the level of responsibility assigned. Technology absorbs many routine tasks and

causes previously non-routine tasks to become routine. As many clerical tasks are absorbed by computer systems, support positions at all levels assume greater job responsibilities. Increased educational and experience requirements are becoming the norm for staff in every level.

Many tasks previously done by professional librarians have been transferred to members of the paraprofessional staff. Henshaw (1986) observes that workflow is far less segmented than previously. All staff members must understand nearly all aspects of a system or, at a minimum, how various functions interact and affect each other and system data. Cross training and integrated duties are becoming the only efficient way to maximise the utilisation of on-line systems. For example, many libraries have implemented 'on-receipt cataloguing,' a process that combines receipting and cataloguing as a series of continuous steps handled by the same staff person (Johnson 1996: 85).

The organisational structure appears as more horizontal rather than vertical or hierarchical as responsibilities are redistributed. Staff members work across divisional lines to solve problems instead of up and own the organisational hierarchy. Integrated systems have led to questions about the historical compartmentalisation, separation of work units, and division of workflow. Veaner (1984) calls this levelling one aspect of the 'technological imperative': once a technology is applied to carry out very complex , routine mental work, that work is driven downward in the work hierarchy, away from professionals. Paraprofessionals are being assigned more and more tasks that were previously solely the responsibility of professional librarians (Johnson 1996: 85).

This downward shift in responsibilities is quite clear in the area of cataloguing. Previously nearly all cataloguing – 'copy' cataloguing as well as the creation of original records – was handled by professional librarians. The belief was that the intellectual exercise of loading and modifying catalogue records required professional expertise. The use of online bibliographic records has made this process more routine. Placing responsibility for copy cataloguing with paraprofessionals is now seen as appropriate. Similar transfer of duties to paraprofessionals occurs in other departments as well. For

example, interlibrary loan departments cover all aspects of the work from bibliographic verification to assisting users locate materials; in reference sections, paraprofessionals use online tools or ready reference and conduct database searches (Johnson 1996: 86).

The roles of library professionals are changing too. They are holding an expanded role in university teaching and in the university research process and in information policy planning. Creth (1991) mentions that librarians are working on the development of strategic plans for the campus information environment, including the integration of communication and information systems (Johnson 1996: 86).

2.4.1. Managing rapid change

Library administrators need to help staff in the process of dealing with change, of developing new models for future and devising strategies for setting priorities, and dealing with the ever increasing demands for service. Added to these factors are the extraordinary changes that have already occurred in the libraries over the past few years. Libraries have moved from the paper-based to the automated library over the past few decades and many libraries are now completely electronic (Shaughnessy: 1996: 49).

Shaughnessy (1996: 49) poses the question as to how to create a new library organisation. He believes that the future is not predetermined and that present plans and actions will influence the future of the organisation. If libraries are to become learning organisations then staff members throughout the library need to have an investment in staff training and development.

2.4.2. Managing changing roles

The roles of professionals and paraprofessionals in libraries are changing. This is largely due to technology, user expectations and budget constraints. Michael Gorman (1987) suggested that the number of tasks deemed to be professional should not exceed the number of tasks which need to be performed by professionals. No professional should do a task which can be performed by a paraprofessional, no paraprofessional should do a task which can be performed by a clerical staff member, and no human being should do a task which can be performed by a machine. While this advice may be simplistic, it also carries weight as a simple truth. McCombs (1992) proposes that librarians, particularly administrators, must assume responsibility for objectively looking at system capabilities and revising library workflow and responsibility to meet local service goals (Johnson 1996: 93).

Being responsible means making conscious choices about how technology will be introduced and applied and conscious decisions about how it will affect work and those who do it. A proactive approach by library management increases credibility and fosters staff confidence as it shows that someone knows what is happening and exercises some control. As library administrators analyse the structure and seek improved models, they should also examine carefully the individual assignment of library work. Kreitz and Ogden (1990) state that in times of rapid and constant change, ensuring that tasks are done by appropriate personnel and rewarded at an appropriate level is critical. Audits of paraprofessional staff members should be conducted regularly by the appropriate personnel unit or officer. Library administrators in unionised libraries must remember to consider union rules that often mandate how changes in classification and work assignment are handled (Johnson 1996: 93).

Johnson (1996: 94) adds that part of managing planned change is monitoring the organisational culture. Library management has responsibility to assess and understand the library's culture. Since local culture provides continuity, it is important to understand that culture when seeking to modify the status quo. Long-held assumptions are associated

with the greatest tension and stress as libraries undergo change. When any time norms, values, beliefs, and assumptions within libraries and their parent institutions are challenged, people resist and complain. As administrators plan and implement change, they must exercise leadership and make clear their reasons and intended outcome.

Oberg et al. (1989) argue that enhancing and articulating the role of professional librarians is a critical part of managing changing roles. If librarians are to be major contributors on the larger institutional and national scene, they need to communicate a clearer image of who they are and what it is they do. Otherwise, they perpetuate their isolation from institutional decision-making councils, ensure the continued underutilisation of their abilities and knowledge, impoverish both client-librarian and client-collection contacts, and hinder their own efforts to become more involved in undergraduate and graduate education. Librarians need to clarify their own ambivalent status to their user community, within their libraries, and to themselves (Johnson 1996: 95).

Librarians also need to make clear the scope of their responsibilities and obligations as professionals in the academy. They need to be more aggressive in communicating to library paraprofessionals, the very real differences in peer review and performance expectations between librarians and paraprofessional staff members. Kreitz and Ogden state that many library assistants have little idea of the true nature of librarians' work. Paraprofessionals need to know that participation in national fora is essential for keeping up with changing information technology and the complex and challenging profession of librarianship. Librarian involvement in institutional committees and task forces is an important part of their expanding role. These distinctions in responsibilities and performance expectations between professionals and paraprofessionals should not be minimised (Johnson 1996: 96).

Veaner (1994) acknowledges that managing the changing roles of professionals and paraprofessionals is not easy. The first step is recognising how each is changing and the causes. The second is planning, clarifying and articulating the changes and differences.

Professional and paraprofessional library positions cannot be seen as floating points on the same continuum. They are different in authority, scope of responsibility and pay. This is not to say that one is 'better' or more valuable to the library than the other. All library staff are essential in meeting the library's mission and should be treated with respect. Nevertheless, librarians should not be shy, modest, or ashamed that they have unique roles, responsibilities, and performance expectations in their libraries and institutions. Librarians and library administrators have a responsibility to make sure all understand these roles, responsibilities, and expectations (Johnson 1996: 97).

2.5. Human factors

Organisations are more about people – their work habits, attitudes and relationships – than about anything else. An effective manger perceives an organisation not as an entity, but as a network of people whose abilities, talents, and feelings combine to bring about library service. A manager looking at the structure of the organisation should not see square blocks of units and departments, but instead people's names and faces – those of the same people who will be affected by change (Curzon 2006: 57).

Several factors have led to changes in the role of professional staff in libraries. With the migration towards a more flattened organisational structure, more academic libraries have begun to adopt team leader and coordinator models in place of the traditional hierarchies. An increase in the use of new technologies to deliver and expand services has necessitated an enhanced skill set that meshes knowledge of new and emerging technologies. Casserly (2002) adds that the desire to utilise electronic resources and to develop web portals has also profoundly affected collection development by requiring more web development competency among collection developers and bibliographers (Simmons-Welburn and McNeil 2004: 117).

However, Roberts (2006:108) argues that the people involved in a project always matter more than the technicalities of the project itself. No matter how clever the technology is, if you cannot get people to buy into the project goals, then the project will certainly fail.

Often the human factors are the most difficult to manage effectively. Changing people's ways of working and indeed their ideas about working practices, takes time and effort. Throughout the period of change, staff morale must be maintained and/or improved. In order for a project to be deemed successful, human factors must be carefully assessed, and an effective strategy for change developed. This should always be supported with a dedicated set of Critical Success Factors (CSFs), always remembering that there really is nothing more critical within a project than proficient management of human factors (Roberts 2006: 108).

Newton (2007: 112) states that change will only happen if the pressure of change is greater than the resistance to it. By working to understand the resistance and taking action to minimise it, the likelihood of successful change is increased significantly. Reactions to change can be infinitely varied, but can be summarised as three main types:

- Staff may be more or less positive about a change, which will typically make the process of implementation easier
- Staff may be more or less negative, which will typically make the process of implementation harder
- Staff may be neutral to change.

Sometimes the biggest problem in a change situation is a lack of reaction. If people are completely passive it can be difficult to implement some types of change, as some change requires the active involvement of staff to be successful.

Simmons-Welburn and McNeil (2004: 119) argue that as types of positions in academic libraries change, so have the selection criteria and requirements articulated in job descriptions. The distinction between public services versus technical services versus collection management is becoming less clear.

The successful integration of change in a library rests on the manager's ability to manage people during change. In fact, the reason why most change fails is because managers do

not take people into account. In order to effectively manage people, the manager must understand the sequence of feelings that a person experiences when confronted with change. These feelings will control much of the person's subsequent actions. When these feelings are known, they will explain a great deal of the individual's behaviour. Instead of seeing anger, resentment, or depression as an abnormality on the part of the employee, the manager will know that this is part of the normal sequence of an individual accepting change. Of course, not all change is negative. Positive change also awakens feelings that must be treated with respect and care. Managers have to know how to help people work through their feelings. Often, hostility to change occurs at the moment the employee is informed about change. Many managers, because of nervousness or ignorance, handle this badly and aggravate an already difficult situation (Curzon 2006: 57).

In situations where employees are required to change values and beliefs, sufficient time must be allowed for the process of change to occur. Rarely does such a change happen quickly in a few days or weeks. More often, change takes place over months or years and is a complex process to understand and manage. Unfortunately, morale is rarely improved just because the senior management think that the change happens to be a good idea. Employee morale can at the best of times be fragile but when change is in the air it can become very unpredictable unless positive action is taken to support it. Uncertainty is perhaps the most effective destroyer of morale. Thus the starting time of any action-plan to maintain or to improve morale must be set well in advance of the commencement of the project itself. By creating an environment in which staff attitude is seen to be given due consideration, staff morale usually improves. Maintaining this throughout the project's life-cycle requires commitment and constant monitoring (Roberts 2006: 108).

Newton (2007: 114) warns that change will be resisted if management presents the change, either deliberately or accidentally, as a criticism of past ways of working. Change brings in new ways of working, but it also means stopping some existing ways of working. Often people resist change because they have pride in their work, and being asked to do something differently is perceived as criticism. This can be avoided by respecting people's need to feel valued, and ensuring that it is clear that the change is not

a criticism of past work. The past ways of working were appropriate for yesterday, but are no longer appropriate for the requirements of today. Individuals' skills and efforts are still needed, just in a different way.

Resistance often comes about through a lack of involvement in change. People are more likely to accept change when they have a sense of ownership for the change, which is developed through involvement in the design and implementation of change. This is a good reason to have as broad a change team as possible. Where change is designed separately from the staff working in current ways, staff are much more likely to reject the change, even if it is fundamentally good. In contrast, even the most difficult to accept change will be accepted with sufficient staff involvement (Newton 2007: 114).

One of the underlying principles of psychology which is associated with the process of change is concerned with our 'state of mind'. Briefly it states that if we are in a 'negative state of mind' we are going to be more resistant to new ideas than when we are in a 'positive state of mind'. Therefore, ensuring that staff are in a positive state of mind in advance of the introduction of new ideas is a vital prerequisite is success is to be achieved (Roberts 2006: 109).

Curzon (2006: 59) lists the following individual responses to negative change:

- Shock: when employees are informed of change that will have a negative impact upon their working life, the first reaction is shock. Unpleasant surprise has overtaken them. They will initially be unbelieving and will doubt what they have heard. The manager should be prepared to explain the situation several times and to respond to the employees' urgent request for reasons
- Fear: shock is rapidly followed by fear. Depending upon the degree of threat, employees will first of all fear a loss of pay, power and status. Their basic security will be threatened. They also fear what others will think of them. If the change involves a transfer, which tends to be the most negative change, employees may fear a loss of control over their own destiny. It is very

possible that some staff members may have been building a career in a certain area or need to retain a certain position in order to move into another job. A transfer out of that position can mean that those years of work will be laid to waste. Employees will also fear that they will be transferred to a place and position that they do not like. It the library has branches, they may also lose money and time through increased travel. They also will fear losing the work group that may have surrounded them for years and they may fear building new relationships. The fear that employees experience is very unpredictable. As knowledge of the situation increases, different fears will emerge. Managers must never assume that they will have a handle on the situation

- Anger: before employees have fully articulated their fears, they will experience anger. Employees will demonstrate a 'they can't do this to me' attitude and will speak widely and negatively about the person who has brought about the change. The most destruction to the organisation comes about in this phase. Angry employees file grievances, everyone takes sides, and the credibility of management can be damaged. Worse, this anger and this event will be remembered for a long time, and managers can be reminded years later of their treatment of employees. The main difficulty with this phase is that, unlike shock, anger will surface and resurface for an extended period of time, depending upon the employees' ability to adapt and the manager's skill
- Depression: closely intertwined with anger is depression. It is often said that depression is anger turned inward. Once employees conclude that they are powerless over the situation and realise that they must make the change, they will become unhappy and listless. There will be a period of withdrawal as they adjust to the new situation. Sometimes this will translate into sullenness and it will always be interspersed with anger and fear
- Outcome – integration or alienation: these are two extreme outcomes on a spectrum of employees' responses to negative change. If employees can rescue themselves from non-productive behaviour and the manager can help

them, they can move to a state of integration. This state refers to an employee's ability to adjust fully to the change, to look forward to what benefits the change will offer, and to gain important knowledge about themselves and the organisation. The alternative is an alienated state. Here employees exhibit permanently indifferent or hostile behaviour towards the library. This state is characterised by an '8 to 5' attitude, an absence of serious contribution and a general suspicion of management.

Since this is a spectrum, people may exhibit varying degrees of positive or negative behaviour. Moreover, managers should know that it is quite common for employees to start out in an alienated state and eventually move to an integrated state. Good employees will struggle against alienation if they feel the organisation is intrinsically worthwhile. However, they will always retain the feeling of being 'burned,' and it is doubtful that the organisation will ever have such power over them again.

This sequence is surprisingly like a state of grief. This sequence can become particularly intense in the loss of a position or a favourite assignment. They key word here is 'loss.' Employees suffer a separation from something to which they were attached. A manager must not minimise, nor casually overlook, the depth and range of these feelings.

People often become de-motivated when things start to deviate from the plan or simply go wrong. Once this occurs de-motivation can spread like a plague through the whole organisation and bring the project down. However, if there is a strong culture which is committed to success, often such problems are dismissed as 'just another challenge to overcome' rather than 'a road block to further progress' (Roberts 2006: 111).

Newton (2007: 112) states that from a practical perspective, staff must be motivated to feel positive. Motivated staff are more creative, productive and reliable; aggravated staff

tend not to be. At the extreme, unhappy staff can strike, but more often dissatisfaction results in other, more subtle losses in productivity.

Bringing about changes of belief is rarely easy and requires a considerable amount of skill. Few managers possess these skills. Therefore if radical changes are required, a first priority must be to ensure that the people who will be expected to bring about these changes have sufficient training to enable them to complete their task effectively. Roberts (2006: 112) states that in his experience the greatest source of resistance to change has come from the very people who will bear the brunt of such re-education programmes, the middle managers. It is often this group that feels rightly or wrongly, that it has the most to lose from change. Winning the battle for the hearts and minds of these individuals is a prerequisite in any change scenario. Failure to convince this group and the project is as good as doomed before it really gets under way.

He goes on to add that in all change projects it is vital therefore that the employees' attitudes towards the change are constantly checked as the project proceeds. Staff feedback sessions which encourage two-way communication fulfil a useful function in providing information in addition to a normal project – management reporting system. A further check on real progress can be obtained through facilitating feedback using anonymous comment slips or suggestion boxes. In fact anything that encourages open dialogue is likely to prove helpful in avoiding problems. Incorporating these methods in a change management project provides the necessary assurance that change really is occurring at all levels and not just a tick on a project chart (Roberts 2006: 113).

Newton (2007: 115) concurs and adds that the underlying principle is that for change to work, the organisation must be ready and capable of changing. In order for people to be fully prepared for change, the following tasks should be undertaken:

- Communicate regularly to ensure staff are aware of change. Unexpected change, even if completely benign, will result in unnecessary resistance

- Explain the change to ensure that staff fully understands the change. It is one thing to know about change, it is quite another to really understand it
- Analyse and assess the impact of change of the change upon staff – have an understanding of how the change will affect the working life of every member of staff. Following the change, will they have to work differently? Will they have to have new knowledge? Will they need different IT systems and tools? Will they have to behave differently or interact with customers in a different way
- Adapt any working practices, processes or policies to be consistent with the change. The change may be about new processes, but even if it is not, it will often result in a need to change processes or procedures
- Make sure that everyone can work with the new practices, processes or policies and whatever else is changed. This is normally about education and training, but it is also may be about replacing staff if the skills required to perform a role change significantly.

Jellision (2007:4) introduces the J Curve that provides a platform for dealing with the human dimensions of change. The letter J approximates the path that most major changes follow. First there is a precipitous drop in performance followed by a ragged period of limited progress, and then a steep climb in performance improvement. If one understands where one and ones employees are on the J Curve, one can make sense of all changes, past and present. The J Curve gives leaders a new perspective into the human side of change.

2.5.1. The five stages of change

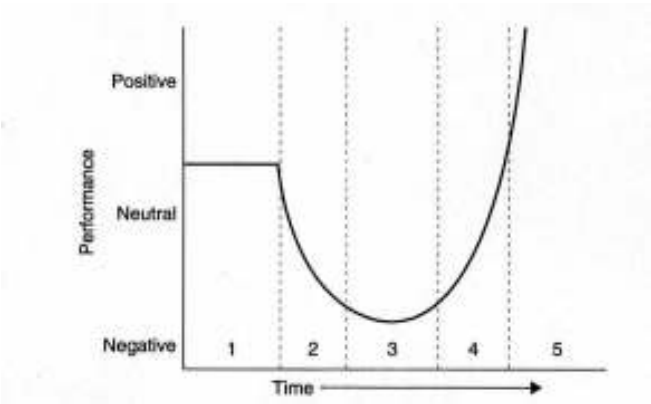


Figure 8: The J curve of change (Jellison 2007: 5).

Stage 1: The Plateau

At the beginning, before the new effort gets under way, employees are on a performance plateau. Before the actual change begins, they are following established patterns. They often have a high degree of mastery of their work. They are comfortable with the routine. When news of change reaches them it produces excitement as well as apprehension (Jellison 2007: 6).

Reaction to the news will vary, depending on its perceived effect. The execution of change comes down to getting particular individuals to begin doing things differently. Therefore, one needs to gain insights into what is happening at the psychological level for the people who are apprehensive about the change. There may be some people who are excited about change, and they are easy to manage. It is those that are hesitant and resistant that one needs to understand (Jellison 2007:7).

Resistance often appears with the announcement in the first stage and continues to grow as implementation moves into Stage 2. Its intensity can vary from levels of doubt, to defiance, to raw hostility (Jellison 2007:7).

In this stage, concerns about the impending change will take a toll on the performance of workers who are the most resistant, though the work of most employees will continue at the same level (Jellison 2007:7).

Not all questions or disagreements are exclusively fear-based. Some may be reasonable and worthy of being treated seriously and it is important that one remains alert to the motive behind the question (Jellison 2007:3).

Stage 2: The cliff

The second stage begins when employees, many feeling as if they are got a gun in their back, step into the abyss and actually try to start to do things the new way. Performance drops sharply. The Stage 1 pattern is reversed: failures now outpace successes. During this stage, employees make one error after another. The net effect is that performance and productivity go down. This is also the stage where the resistance becomes intense. Dissent is now open and vociferous (Jellison 2007: 12).

Stage 3: The valley

As employees enter this stage, things start bottoming out. Errors are not as frequent or as large, and workers are starting to do things correctly. Stage 3's valley may be short and jagged, more like a gorge. If change is a good one, the curve eventually turns up and continues to climb. In the first half of Stage 3, net performance is still decreasing but at a much slower rate than before. The negativity of employees' emotions also decreases. Though their worst fears are quelled, they still feel uncertain. As time goes by, successes accumulate and workers feel relieved that the freefall has stopped (Jellison 2007:15).

In the second half of Stage 3, workers begin to achieve some consistency. As successes begin to outnumber failures, employees turn cautiously optimistic (Jellison 2007:15).

Stage 4: The ascent

In this stage, performance improves impressively. The curve rises almost as rapidly as the earlier descent. This happens because workers sharpen their skills, establish new procedures, eliminate inefficiencies, and coordinate better with one another. Not only are they doing things better but they are getting a psychological boost from their new-found proficiency. Their success becomes self-reinforcing and motivating. Employees' attitudes about the new way of doing things changes dramatically as their performance climbs in this stage (Jellison 2007: 15).

Stage 5: The mountaintop

During Stages 2, 3, and 4, performance was below the level it was in Stage 1. In Stage 5 it has at last climbed to the same height as the old way of doing things. The workers are now proficient in the new way of doing business. During this stage, performance continues to shoot upward as success piles upon success, errors are virtually eliminated, and costs are reduced. Change has been achieved (Jellison 2007:16).

2.5.2. Differences between linear and nonlinear change

People are more familiar with change that progresses in a linear fashion, going step-by-step until what was started is finished. However, moving linearly is not the only way to work through a change process. In fact, Thomas (2002: 3-1) argues it is probably not even the best way. He emphasises that it is important to recognise the difference between linear and nonlinear change. The table below summarises the differences between the two types of change.

Table 8: The difference between linear and nonlinear change

Linear	**Nonlinear**
1. The end result is most often known before one begins.	1. The end result is envisioned. However, other endings may result from things learned along the way.
2. Each succeeding step can be predicted before it is taken.	2. The steps in the current spiral (refer below) are known, but what will happen in the next spiral is not.
3. The steps can be drawn as a straight line with one step following the next in succession.	3. The steps are not essential; they are represented by a learning spiral.
4. The steps are developed from past experience or learning about how to perform the task.	4. Going through the spirals may have a degree of past experience, but the results are more often new and different.
5. There is minimal learning as each of the steps is completed.	5. Learning is maximised in the process.
6. The process does not generate a great deal of creativity or learning as one works through it.	6. The process requires a high degree of creativity. Although one can envision an outcome, the actual outcome is for one to create.
7. The process can be taught and replicated.	7. The process is strategic and often a leap of faith.

(Thomas 2002: 3-2).

a. Learning spiral definitions

- Original concept: this is the original idea that was developed for the change initiative. It is usually based on the dissatisfaction with the current state and a desire to move to a new and improved state.

- Planning: once the original concept has been finalised, the first step is to plan how the work design will be executed.
- Execution: the next step is to actually work through the process of change designed in the original concept.
- Review/Redefine: once the execution of the spiral has been completed, it is time to review what took place. Thereafter redefine the original concept into something that still addresses the desired end, taking into account the changes made in the previous spiral and what was learned.
- Revised concept: the outcome of the review/redesign step is a revised concept for the new spiral. These steps repeat themselves through all spirals in the process (Thomas 2002: 3-4).

2.5.3. Possible responses to positive change

Change can also have a positive effect on an employee. Often, this comes in the form of a promotion or a much-desired transfer or a special assignment. It can also be adequate funding for a new branch, monies for a special collection, or additional staff for their unit. The manager generally knows in advance that the information will be well received. However, as with negative change, staff going through positive change also experience a series of feelings of which the manager needs to be aware. They may also exhibit changes in behaviour that a manager must anticipate and observe. Curzon (2006: 61) lists three individual responses to positive change.

- Surprise: some news of a positive change often precedes its official announcement, so an employee, upon hearing the good news, will experience surprise that is tempered by their previous knowledge. Staff taken completely by surprise may be a little puzzled as to why they did not know before. Too much surprise can also bring resentment, as people's need to be 'in the know' will frequently supersede other emotions. However, all of this will quieten down quite rapidly as employees see the advantage of the change and begin to feel the pleasure that the benefits will bring.

- Trepidation: the next stage is trepidation. Employees wonder if they are equal to the new assignment, can learn the new skill, or are ready for the level of responsibility. This phase will be coloured by mild feelings of regret as these employees also face the loss of the known. They may be sad at leaving a work location or a work group if that is what the change calls for. Usually, negative aspects are not substantial enough to upset the benefits of the change in the employee's mind. A manager must be aware, however, that occasionally negative factors will offset the benefits of a change to an employee. It is not uncommon for employees to turn down new opportunities because they do not want to leave their work group or responsibilities. A manager in such a situation should explain the long-term benefits of the change and help the employee to see how advantageous the new situation is. Even then, some employees will still resist.
- Acceptance: employees typically move rapidly to the final stage, which is acceptance. They will prepare eagerly for what is about to come and will demonstrate positive vitality towards the change. Managers, however, must be aware that there will be mood swings even with positive change. Even though employees may feel generally positive toward their new position, they may also be unhappy about giving up the mastery they had in their former position or the social network that was there. Any depression here should be mild and should pass quickly. If a manager feels that an employee is having trouble accepting a new position, counselling the employee should help to move the employee along.

2.5.4. How can change be enjoyed rather than endured?

The best change management programmes are periods when individuals feel a great sense of creative energy. Possibly for the first time, they have been asked to contribute ideas and become involved. Working together as a member of a team drawn from a number of departments can also provide its own new, invigorating experience.

The following table sets out questions that need to be considered in order to set up a change programme where everyone will enjoy, rather than endure, the experience.

Table 9: How change can be enjoyed rather than endured.

1. What personal benefit will be gained by individuals involved?	*Active participation in the change process depends on the extent to which the needs, attributes and beliefs of individual employees are taken into account.*
2. What is the view of the official/unofficial leader/s of the workgroups involved?	*The expectations and opinions of those in prestige positions tend to carry more weight than members of their work groups and/or the influence of the staff 'trainer'.*
3. What fresh objective information is available about the need for change?	*Data centered on one's own organisation or group is more meaningful and influential than more generalised information about attributes and behaviour.*
4. To what extent are facts pertinent to the change process generated from within the workgroup?	*The planning, gathering, analysis and interpretation of diagnostic data by the individuals and groups involved are more likely to be understood and accepted than those presented by outside experts.*
5. To what degree can those involved in the change influence the change?	*Complete participation by all the members of the affected workgroups is likely to be most effective. However, participation by representatives of the group and/or the supervisor only can reduce the amount of overt opposition.*
6. How attractive is the workgroup to its members?	*When change is being proposed, group cohesiveness (which will be high if the group satisfies the needs of its members) will operate to reduce resistance to change if the group sees the changes as beneficial. This is because strong group membership tends to lead to greater individual conformity to group norms.*

7. Does the change process involve taking individuals away from their job into temporary groups, or does it involve individuals in their usual workgroup setting?	*Change programmes that involve individuals within the context of their immediate job situation are likely to be more successful because this group has more psychological meaning to an individual than does a group with only temporary membership.*
8. How open are the communication channels relating to the need for, plans for and consequences of change?	*Change processes that provide specific knowledge on the progress to date, and specify the criteria against which improvements is to be measured, are most successful in establishing and maintaining change.*

(Management Extra 2005: 110).

2.6. Training and development

To meet the demands of change, the organisation must put in place human development strategies to ensure individual, team and organisational learning. HR development is a broad set of activities operating across all levels of the organisation, concerned with investment in learning and improving performance of its human resources as a whole. HR development activities include education, training and development, career management and planning, and organisational learning. A critical focus of a human resource development strategy is to make certain the initiatives support and deliver the organisation's change objectives (Graetz, et al. 2006: 202).

Spector (2007: 119) adds that because change requires new competencies and behaviours on the part of current employees, organisations will need to look at training as part of the implementation process.

Organisational change is typically associated with some degree of individual change. Often this individual change is the outcome of an informal and natural process of learning

and development. However, there may be occasions when those responsible for managing an organisational change decide that some form of deliberate training intervention is required in order to help individuals develop new knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours. Such interventions can be highly structured and very focused on the achievement of closely specified outcomes, or they can be designed to help organisational members learn how to learn and encourage them to actively involve themselves in a self-directed process of professional development (Hayes 2007: 193).

Training interventions tend to be targeted at two main types of organisational member. On the one hand, there are those who are required to perform new roles associated with managing the change. They may require training, for example, in order to lead a task force charged with diagnosing organisational problems and identifying what needs to be changed (Hayes 2007: 193). Spector (2007: 119) refers to this as the knowledge component which involves awareness of the forces demanding strategic renewal and change and the options available to the organisation in response to those forces. Questions regarding the relevant changes in the external environment and the design choices available to the organisation and the strengths and weaknesses of those choices can be considered. Understanding both the reasons for abandoning the status quo and the options available to the organisation in the future, helps motivate employees to change.

On the other hand there are those who, as a result of change, will be required to behave differently and may require training in order to be able to achieve new standards of performance (Hayes 2007: 193). When change calls for new behaviours on the part of organisational members, a number of factors will determine whether or not these new behaviours will be forthcoming. These include the quality of the 'match' between competencies and task demands, the effect of reward systems on the motivation to deliver revised performance outcomes and the availability of feedback to enable individuals and their managers to assess whether the new performance standards are being achieved (Hayes 2007: 193).

Sometimes organisational members will already possess all the competencies they require in order to achieve the new performance standards. All that such people will need (in terms of their ability to perform in new ways) is information about revised performance outcomes that they will have to achieve (Hayes 2007: 194).

At other times the people affected by the change may not possess the competencies they need. In these circumstances, a number of options may be available to those managing the change. They may explore ways of redesigning the task to match the existing competencies of the organisational members, they may replace existing staff with others who already have the required competencies, or they may help existing staff to acquire the required competencies (Hayes 2007: 194).

As a way of impacting behaviour, organisations can supplement traditional knowledge-based training with experiential training. Traditional training programmes emphasise the delivery of knowledge from the instructor to the learner. Experiential learning, on the other hand, focuses on behaviours while allowing participants to try out the new behaviours required for the change effort. Experiential learning occurs in a protected environment, allowing participants to experiment with new behaviours (Spector 2007: 119).

The problem with experiential learning is that new behaviours acquired in a training programme often disappear quickly once the participants return to their jobs. This is known as training fade-out. The extent to which the learning gained from a training opportunity is transferred back into the work environment is impacted by three factors:

- Supervisory/managerial support – does the employee's supervisor/manager endorse, encourage, provide feedback, and reward new behaviours, or does the supervisor/manager discourage or oppose the application of new skills and behaviours?
- Peer support – do the employee's peers support the application of new skills and behaviours, inquire about that learning, provide feedback, and encourage, or do

they ignore, discourage, and even attempt to prevent the application of new skills and behaviours?

- Work conditions – does the employee have the opportunity to use new skills and behaviours when back on the job, or are new skills and behaviours overtly or covertly discouraged by time pressures, inadequate resources, and/or unchanged responsibilities (Spector 2007: 120) ?

Spector (2007: 120) adds that an organisational context that encourages, even demands, the use of new behaviours will lead to greater peer and supervisory support and help to prevent fade-out. Most importantly, to avoid the fade-out problem, participants need to understand and believe that the competencies transferred as part of the training process, are required to enact behaviours required of the new strategy.

2.6.1. A systemic approach to training

Effective training involves three main steps: the analysis of training needs, the design and delivery of training and the evaluation of training effectiveness.

a. Training needs analysis

A training needs analysis starts with a system-level review to determine how the proposed change will affect organisational goals, objectives and task demands.

Specific task and person analysis is required.

Task analysis, focuses on specific jobs or roles and examining how modifications to the task of a unit will affect the nature of the performance that will be demanded from members of that unit. It also points to the competencies (knowledge, skill, attitude or behaviour) that people performing theses new or modified roles will require in order to perform to the new standard (Hayes 2007: 194).

The person analysis seeks to identify discrepancies between the required competencies, as determined by the task analysis, and existing competencies of the organisational members available to perform these revised tasks. This analysis provides the information necessary to (a) identify which individuals or groups will require training and (b) specify training objectives in terms of what trainees needs to know and how they will be require to behave (Hayes 2007: 195).

The most useful way of expressing training objectives is in terms of behavioural objectives that specify what trainers will be able to do after training (Hayes 2007: 195).

b. The design and delivery of training

Smith (1991) suggests that the choice of training method should, at least in part, be determined by the kind of competencies that the training is designed to impart. Where the focus is on attitudes, role play or informal discussion groups might be selected. Where the aim is to develop cognitive strategies, case studies or simulations or projects or mentoring might be used. Where the focus is perceptual involving motor skills, a variety of methods could be considered including the discrimination method that is designed to help trainees detect differences between items that are very similar, and the progressive parts method which is a schedule for organising the practice of complex motor skills (Hayes 2007: 195).

Reid and Barrington (1999) classify training strategies under five main headings: training on-the-job, planned organisation experience, in-house courses, planned experience outside the organisation, and external courses. They also recommend four criteria that can be used to determine which of these strategies will be most appropriate:

- Compatibility with training objectives
- Estimated likelihood of transfer of learning to the work situation
- Availability of resources (such as time, money and skilled staff)
- Trainees related factors (Hayes 2007: 195).

The objectives of the training for team members might include:

- Imparting knowledge (so that trainees will understand, be able to describe to others and recognise actions that will help achieve the aims of the change programme)
- Developing positive attitudes (so that trainees will be committed to the aims of the programme and to working constructively with other members of the team to achieve these aims)
- Developing group process skills (so that trainees will be able to diagnose what is going on in the group and act in ways that will contribute to group effectiveness) (Hayes 2007: 196).

c. Organisational learning

Organisational learning requires the adoption of a proactive learning process in which the company makes a continuous effort to strive for perfection. It is premised on having organisation-wide systems and processes in place that allow the exploration and sharing of mental models (which are the values and assumptions that underpin how people view and interact with the world, and also allow the acquisition of new knowledge). It requires specific integrated characteristics, including appropriate organisational structures, a culture that encourages innovation and learning from mistakes, and reinforces continual learning and sharing of knowledge. These processes help employees to shed outdated knowledge, techniques and beliefs, as well as learn and deploy new ones, thus helping firms to deliver particular strategies successfully. The organisation is also required to reflect on successes and failures; apply and disseminate the insights gained, and have appropriate systems to measure and evaluate the extent of the learning (Graetz, et al. 2006: 204).

i. Characteristics of organisational learning

Graetz et al. (2006: 204) argue that an organisation that is employing an organisational learning model to leverage change has systems that are underpinned by the following elements:

- A clear picture of where the organisation wants to be and a vision for how it should operate, strategic objectives that defines the learning that must occur for them to be achieved, and a strategic planning process that is about 'learning' as well as 'doing'. It helps key people to learn, change their mindsets and develop a future focus
- A communication policy and approach that keep learning as a primary and visible objective
- A clear understanding by employees at all levels of the importance of both learning and doing, knowing that learning how to learn is an important part of the process
- Understanding that learning can be derived from successes and failure, and used to shape future behaviour
- Understanding that learning is a continuous process and at its most powerful when it becomes habitualised and internalised
- Learning from both the internal and external environment at all levels of the organisation, and placing a premium on sharing knowledge across organisational boundaries
- A system of rewards that encourages all employees to ask questions and challenge the current ways of working as well as encouraging entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour; bonuses and incentives are balanced across rewarding current performance, innovation, courage and risk
- Performance reviews and career development programmes that are both action- and learning oriented and that reinforce the organisation's values. Multidirectional personal feedback on performance, both positive and negative, should be frequently sought and given

- Unlearning and reconstruction and adaptation of an organisation's knowledge base is a key managerial task
- Feedback systems that guarantee ongoing system-wide communication about what has been learned - improvement is as important as results. Information systems are designed to support this balance between learning and doing. Information on both lessons and results is widely available.
- Training and education programmes that support the change strategies and place value on learning and which maximise the balance between learning and doing.

2.7. Communicating change

One of the principal causes of failure in many change management projects has been not to fully understand the needs of the clients or, in other words, lack of adequate communication skills (Roberts 2006: 18).

Hayes (2007: 177) lists four features of communication.

- Directionality – the management of change is often experienced as a 'top-down' process, with those responsible for managing the change informing others lower down the organisation about the need for change, what is going to happen and what is required of them. However, it also requires a stream of upward communication that provides change managers with the information they require in order to clarify the need for change, and develop and implement a change programme
- Role – the nature of what is communicated can be affected by the roles that organisational members occupy. The nature of inter-role relationship is important; a person may communicate certain things to a colleague that he or she would not communicate to an external consultant, an auditor, a member of another department or their boss. The nature of the role can be an important determinant of whether the role occupant will be an isolate or a participant in the organisation's affairs. Some roles are potentially more isolated than

others: a finance officer may be better networked within the organisation than a salesperson who is responsible for a remote territory

- Content – organisational members tend to prefer the more familiar internal information than is easier to integrate into the prevailing mental models and paradigms that are used for making sense of the situation that confronts them. Other important aspects of content are whether it is perceived as good news or bad news, and how the senders expect it to be received. Change managers need to be alert to content issues and especially to the need to give careful consideration to the potential relevance of information that at first sight may appear to be of little consequence
- Channel – information and meaning can be communicated in many different ways: written via hard copy, electronic communication via e-mail, video-conferencing, telephone, face-to-face communication on a one-to-one, one-to-group or group-to-group basis and so on. O'Reilly and Pondy (1979) suggest that written communication may be less effective when the sender and receiver have different vocabularies or problem orientations, and that oral communication may be most effective when there is need to exchange views, seek feedback and provide immediate opportunity for clarification.

2.7.1. Communication strategies

Communication plays a vital role in the change process. It is an essential prerequisite for recognising the need for change, and it enables change managers to create a shared sense of direction, establish priorities, reduce disorder and uncertainty and facilitate learning. However change managers often give insufficient attention to the role of communication (Hayes 2007: 180).

It is vital to remember that all communication is open to interpretation by the recipient. Thus if ambiguous statements are made they are not always likely to be interpreted in a beneficial manner (Roberts 2006: 112).

Green (2007: 181) adds that the purpose of communication is to move people from one position to another in terms of their awareness, knowledge, support or commitment to the change.

Clampitt, Dekoch and Cashman (2000: 47) suggest that communication strategies emerge from existing practices with little hard thinking about communication objectives or processes and little, if any, attention to reviewing the consequences of their approach to communicating with others.

Roberts (2006: 32) argues that language is the main medium which we use to communicate our views of reality to others. The way we use language can provide much more information than just the content of the words itself. We must develop skills that help us to magnetise the attention of our audience whilst ensuring that they fully understand the content of what we are saying to them. Two checks are implicit here. The first is to develop a high level of sensory acuity. Here we look for signs of rapport with the person with whom we were attempting to communicate. The second is to check constantly for understanding from your audience. Sensory acuity is acquired by watching your audience closely just as you would in one-to-one communication.

Clampitt, Dekoch and Cashman (2000: 47) have identified five basic strategies for communication. Sometimes the communication strategy in any particular setting closely resembles one of these, but sometimes it is a hybrid and includes a blend of elements from more than one.

- Spray and pray – they use this term to describe a communication strategy that involves showering employees with all kinds of information in the hope that they will feel informed and have access to all the information they require. It is based on the assumption that more information equals better communication, which in turn contributes to better decision making. It is also based on an implicit assumption that all organisational members are able to differentiate between what is significant and what is insignificant. In practice, some employees may attend

only to the information that is related to their own personal agendas, while others may be overwhelmed by the amount of information they are confronted with – unable to sort the wood from the trees

- Tell and sell – this approach deals with change managers communicating at a more limited set of messages that they believe address core issues related to the proposed change. Managers first tell all the employees about these key issues and then sell them the wisdom of their approach to managing them. Clampitt, Dekoch and Cashman observed that change managers who adopt this kind of strategy often spend a great deal of time planning sophisticated presentations but devote little time and energy to fostering meaningful dialogue and providing organisational members with the opportunity to discuss their concerns. They also assume that they possess much more of the information they need and they tend to place little value on input from others
- Underscore and explore – like the tell-and- sell approach this strategy involves focusing attention on a limited set of fundamental issues linked to the change, but unlike the tell-and-sell approach, change managers give others the creative freedom they need to explore the implications of these issues. Those who adopt this approach are concerned not only with developing a few core messages but also with listening attentively for potential misunderstandings and unrecognised obstacles
- Identify and reply – this strategy is different from the first three in that the primary focus is the concerns of organisational members. It is a reactive approach that involves a lot of listening in order to identify and then respond to these concerns. It is essentially directed towards helping employees make sense out of the often-confusing organisational environment, but it is also attentive to their concerns because it is assumed that organisational members are in the best way position to know what the critical issues are. However, this may not always be the case. Clampitt, DeKoch and Cashman suggest that often they may not know enough to even ask the right questions
- Withhold and uphold – this strategy involves withholding information until necessary. When confronted by rumours, change managers uphold the party line.

> There may be special circumstances where commercial or other considerations require information to be shared on a need-to-know basis but there are also change managers whose implicit values are secrecy and control whatever the circumstances. Some of those who adopt this strategy assume that information is power and they are reluctant to share it with anyone. Others assume that most organisational members are not sophisticated enough to grasp the 'big picture'.

Green (2007: 181) sees the communication of change as a marketing challenge and introduces the AIDA(S) framework which highlights the generic stages that someone would typically go through when experiencing a change.

- A is the need to capture their Attention and increase their Awareness of the change
- I is the need to gain their Interest in the change usually through highlighting the features, qualities, and benefits of change
- D is for Desire. Having gained their attention and interest there is the need now for them to be positively inclined to the change; the more they can want it and see the benefits of it the more they will be drawn towards it
- A is for Action that will happen. Change involves changes in behaviour with people doing things differently; if the communication doesn't have this effect then it has probably failed
- S is for Satisfaction or realisation of the benefits that the person experiences. This becomes a link into the person's propensity for further change or, if there is satisfaction arising from short-term wins, then this will encourage further commitment to this change.

Paton and McCalman (2008: 50) add that it is worth noting from a change perspective, that there are a few well-defined guidelines or rules that have been developed over the years, which should assist individuals and organisations when communicating change events.

- Customise the message: the key here is understanding. Who is the audience? How will they react? Ensure that the message has been encoded in a manner appropriate to the skills and knowledge level of the audience. Try not to use jargon, and if possible, place yourself in the recipient's seat. How would you react to the 'message'?
- Set the appropriate tone: the interpretation of a communication depends upon both the content and the tone. Offence can often be caused if the tone has been perceived to be inappropriate, for example, patronising, flippant, condescending or impudent. One must think before one acts and one must always remember that the whole body sends the message: dress, body language, medium and words set the tone
- Build in feedback: communication is a two-way process. Assuming the message to be conveyed is not simply an instruction, statement or a 'news item', then the sender must consider how responses are to be made and noted. In change situations, given the need to allay fears and uncertainties, it is essential that the manager has some means of ensuring that the message was received, believed, accepted and understood. Managers must both plan and control the communication process. In change situations one must exercise some control by seeking feedback and maintaining effective dialogue
- Set the example: if one is asking others to respond to the communication, or brief their staff, ensure that as the sender, one has done as requested. One must be consistent and at all times practise what one preaches
- Ensure penetration: the media selected to deal with the communication must be capable of achieving the required penetration within the organisation. It must also reflect the time horizons for change. Is real time communication required? Is written feedback expected?

2.7.2. The role of rapport in communication.

During their early exploratory work in communication, the originators of Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), Richard Bandler and John Grinder, discovered that in

order to communicate well, one first had to develop a high level of rapport with the person or persons one wished to communicate with. They came to realise that even when we are not in rapport we are still communicating something, but it may not be the message we intend. It may be something of a different nature. This phenomenon has given rise to one of the early 'laws' of NLP which states , 'whatever we are doing, we cannot not communicate' (Roberts 2006: 19). A large portion of what we are communicating is not contained in the words that we use but in our body language, facial expression and tone of voice amongst other factors.

When people are in rapport they will display similar body posture. They tend to retain much eye contact. They are also likely to have similar expressions on their faces. In NLP terms this is known as increasing our 'sensory acuity'. This simply means we are becoming more observant of other people and taking in more detail about the way they move and use their bodies (Roberts 2006: 20).

The next level at which we can build rapport is in the language we use. It is about the words we choose to use and the tonality and expression that we put into delivering them. All our language is affected by some degree of our emotions all the time. We have to become more aware of the changes of rhythm, pitch, volume and speed of delivery of voice of the people we are communicating with. This can also be used on the telephone to great effect (Roberts 2006: 22).

Roberts (2006: 23) adds that liking the other person is not a prerequisite for the establishing rapport, but mutual confidence in one's competence for the task in hand is. So, personal credibility is likely to play a key role at an early point in establishing rapport.

It is also vital that one understands precisely what the other is expecting of one. It helps a great deal if one can develop a high degree of behavioural flexibility. Behavioural flexibility involves the actual role that one is fulfilling. By this is meant the way one is perceived by those around one. Sometimes an employee will expect one to take charge of

a situation, and this places the person in a leadership or guiding role where they are seen as the expert and are expected to tell people what to do. In other situations you may be seen as playing an advisory role where one will offer opinions which may or may not be acted upon. In other situations one may be seen as a more junior member of a team taking instructions from the team leader. All these situations require one to behave in different ways. Having the ability to react like a chameleon in changing circumstances instead of having one mode of behaviour can certainly be beneficial to the communication process (Roberts 2006: 25).

2.7.3. Auditing of communication

Hargie and Tourish (2000: 26) recommend the regular auditing of communications. This requires change managers to have a clear idea about their communication objectives in order to access the extent to which they are being achieved. Some questions they might need to ask are:

- Who is communicating with whom?
- What issues are they talking about?
- Which issues receive most attention and arouse most anxiety?
- Do people receive all the information they require?
- Do people understand and use the information they receive?
- Do people trust and have confidence in the information they receive?
- From what sources do people prefer to get their information?
- Which channels are most effective?

They add that audits tell managers and organisations:

- Who they are talking to
- Who they should be talking to
- What issues people are talking about
- From which sources most people get their information

- Whether information reaches people through the media, face to face discussions with managers, internal publications or other communication channels
- The impact of all this on working relationships.

A communication audit strips away myths, fears and illusions about the communication climate within organisations, and about the wider culture within which the organisation works. In their place, it provides an accurate diagnosis of the organisation's communication health (Hargie and Tourish 2000: 26).

2.7.4. Organisational silence: a major barrier to change

Morrison and Milliken (2000: 707) argue that many organisations are caught in an appearance paradox in which most employees know the truth about certain issues and problems but are afraid to voice that truth to their superiors. They refer to widespread withholding of opinions and concerns as 'organisational silence' and assert that it can be a major barrier to organisational change and development and is likely to pose a significant obstacle to the development of a truly pluralistic organisation. They define a pluralistic organisation as one that values and reflects differences among employees and that allows for the expression of multiple perspectives and opinions.

According to Morrison and Milliken, a climate of silence in organisations will develop when:

- Senior managers fear negative feedback from subordinates and try to avoid it, or, if this is not possible, dismiss it as inaccurate or attack the credibility of the source
- Senior managers hold a particular set of implicit beliefs about employees and the nature of management that make it easy for them to ignore or dismiss feedback; these beliefs are that:
    - Employees are self-interested, untrustworthy and effort averse

- Management knows best and therefore subordinates should be unquestioning followers (especially since they are self-interested and effort averse and therefore unlikely to know or care about what is best for the organisation)
- Unity is good and dissent is bad. (Morrison and Milliken 2000: 709).

Hayes (2007: 183) adds that dissent is unhealthy and should be avoided and unity, agreement and consensus are indicators of organisational health.

a. The creation of shared perceptions that lead to organisational silence

A climate of silence exists when employees believe that speaking up about problems is not worth the effort and that if voicing one's problems and concerns is dangerous (Hayes 2007: 185).

Morrison and Milliken (2000: 715) argue that it is through the sharing of perceptions and experience that employees engage in a process of collective sense making and develop a common understanding and a set of shared beliefs. They go on to argue that centralised decision making, a lack of upward feedback mechanisms, managerial resistance to employee input and a lack of downward feedback-seeking behaviour are more likely to lead to a climate of silence when there is a relatively high level of interaction and communication between mid-to-lower-level employees. The amount of interaction that takes place is related to several factors. These include:

- Similarity between direct co-workers, because there is evidence that people are more open when communicating with people they perceive to be similar to themselves
- Relatively stable organisational membership, because this increases the likelihood that shared perceptions will persist over time

- Workflow interdependence that necessitates regular communication, coordination and teamwork
- Informal social networks and strong ties that promote intense and frequent contact.

b. Implications of organisational silence

Organisational silence can compromise decision making and elicit undesirable reactions from employees. It deprives decision makers of the opportunity to consider alternative perspectives and conflicting viewpoints. Blocking negative feedback can also inhibit organisational learning because it affects the ability of managers to detect and correct the causes of poor performance (Hayes 2007: 186).

Organisational silence can have destructive outcomes for employees, with knock-on effects for organisations.

- Employees may feel undervalued, and this may affect their commitment and lead to lower motivation, satisfaction, psychological withdrawal or the decision to quit
- When discouraged from speaking up, employees may feel that they lack sufficient control over their working environment. This also leads to low motivation, low satisfaction and, possibly, attempts to regain some control through acting in ways that are destructive to the organisation, such as engaging in sabotage
- Employees may also experience cognitive dissonance because of the discrepancy between their beliefs and behaviour, leading to anxiety and stress (Hayes 2007: 187).

Morrison and Milliken (2000: 719) state that top managers may not recognise that they are lacking important information and may interpret silence as signalling consensus and success. They further argue that when top management adheres to the assumptions that

foster silence it makes it difficult for organisations to respond to the diversity of values, beliefs and other characteristics that are the features of pluralistic organisations.

Hayes (2007: 187) states that the more these differences 'pull' the organisation in divergent directions, the more senior managers may 'push' against these forces because they view differences as a threat that has to be suppressed. Despite top management knowing that they should encourage upward communication, organisations' dominant tendency may be just the opposite – namely, to create a climate of silence.

To paraphrase Tony Blair, the former Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, 'communication, communication, communication' and 'education, education, education'. Communication must be a two-way process and encourage feedback if it is to be effective (Roberts 2006: 113).

In the words of librarian Joan Bechtel, when we are able to 'turn communication into conversations,' we will have a successful model of 'communicating for a change.' Conversation involves listening. This is perhaps the most important aspect of communication, but it is the one that is often not discussed. It is necessary to be continually mindful of the importance of listening as well as of making our individual voices heard. All future organisations, whatever structure they take, can only benefit from having healthier models for both interpersonal and organisational communication (Bowers et al. 1996: 144).

2.8. Using Kaizen in the change process

Kaizen is a Japanese word constructed from two ideologies, the first of which represents change and the second goodness or virtue. Kaizen is commonly used to indicate the long-term betterment of something or someone (continuous improvement). In change management, Kaizen is used as a method that strives towards perfection by eliminating waste. It eliminates waste by empowering people with tools and methodology for uncovering improvement opportunities and making change. Kaizen understands waste to

be any activity that is not value-adding from the perspective of the customer. Value-adding means any work that is done right the first time that materially changes a product or service in ways for which a well-informed and reasonable customer is willing to pay (Goncalves 2007: 95).

The Toyota production system is known for Kaizen, where all line managers are expected to stop their moving production line in the case of any abnormality. Suggestions for improvements are rewarded. Goncalves (2007: 95) used Kaizen as a process of change when consulting at MGCG. Change was implemented as an ever-increasing and gradual practice to promote process improvements over time. He adds that this methodology suits organisations well because change is introduced slowly but consistently, a little bit at a time, step-by-step, thus minimising resistance and allowing the organisation to realise small benefits resulting from their changes. This in turn motivates the organisation to continue to move forward in their change process. In Kaizen, improvement is realised and maintained with a certain degree of stability and without slacking back to the previous condition. Kaizen provides the conditions to make gradual process changes over time throughout the organisation at several levels.

Kaizen may also refer to different types of improvement activities. In Japan, many use the term to refer to a process that gathers suggestions for improvements from employees, while others use the practice to refer to periodic brainstorm sessions designed to improve ideas, and then select and make improvements (as in quality circles). In addition some practitioners use the term to refer to special events (up to five days in length) where team members systematically detect and eliminate wasteful procedure or task in a targeted work process (Goncalves 2007: 98).

The following steps are recommended by Goncalves (2007: 99) for successful Kaizen events:

Step 0: Event preparation – select event area, team and create team package.
Step 1: Define the scope and goals of the event

Step 2: Train the team; review the world class tools and techniques that support the team's goals.

Step 3: Walk the event area; observe the physical layout; review videos if available to the idea creation process.

Step 4: Collect data on the event area (scrap, production, time studies, videos, etc.) to develop/obtain the baseline performance measurements.

Step 5: Brainstorm ideas: Thinking outside the box and piggy-backing are important here.

Step 6: Use multi-voting to prioritise the top 8 to 10 ideas that will be worked on immediately.

Step 7: Form sub-teams to go out and try or implement ideas.

2.9. Conclusion

Effective change implementation requires high levels of commitment among employees, a strong sense of shared purpose and partnership, and a climate of trust that supports candid communication, open inquiry and joint problem solving. For effective management of change, managers must begin with an ethical framework that creates a supportive, cooperative, and harmonious organisation. There has to be commitment from staff. Staff should be committed to building an organisation that is a decent place to work.

Managers must manage change with control and foresight. They must be sensitive to people. Change awakens many feelings that a manager must acknowledge. Comfort, compassion and direction must be exercised to manage people in change.

Hiatt and Creasey (2003) looked at change management in more than four hundred companies and found that the greatest contributors to success were:

- Effective sponsorship from senior management in terms of active visible support; ongoing support throughout the life of the initiative; acting as role models for the change; communicating and being ambassadors for change
- Buy-in from front-line managers and employees, which got the change moving and kept the momentum going
- Continuous and targeted communication throughout the project, tailored in depth and breadth to the different interested communities
- An exceptional change management team taking the form of an experience credible team which maintained good internal working relations and also networked into the organisation
- A well planned and organised approach that is best fitted to the type of change being managed (Green 2007: 255).

The major factors that contributed to change failure were:

- Poor executive sponsorship
- Employee and staff resistance
- Middle management resistance
- Corporate inertia and politics
- Limited budget, time and resources (Green 2007: 256).

While change is challenging, it is also invigorating, interesting, and exciting. New vitality is often a delightful by-product of change. Change managed effectively has the power to renew (Curzon 2006: 106).

Change should not be viewed as an individual event but as a constant series of activities. Change is a conveyor belt, not a once–off situation. Change management challenges continually expand, and the discipline does as well. Change management is not just a part of an organisation's skill set, but a core part of it (Newton 2007: 214).

Libraries have experienced great change in recent years. Although the library landscape has shifted a great deal, librarians are still in the business of negotiating with users and helping them find what they need. The electronic environment may cause a shift in the tools librarians use and the speed at which they change; it may also allow librarians to look more closely at their users' needs and deliver what they request more quickly and in a wider variety of forms. According to Trombatore (1990) the business librarians are in is consultation, facilitation and organisation although the tools and products may change over time (Kelly and Robbins: 1996: 120).

Thompson et al. (2003) conclude that it is not enough just to implement change, there is a need to institutionalise change and for the 'architects of change to mobilise the willing cooperation of staff' in order to orient successfully to the change agenda (Osborne and Brown 2005: 234).

CHAPTER 3 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

What is research? It has been defined as 'the disciplined and ethical observation of phenomena coupled with an unceasing and imaginative quest after explanation, in short, scientific enquiry' (Shell 2007: 29). *The Online Oxford Dictionary* (2004) defines research as 'a search or investigation directed to the discovery of some fact by careful consideration or study of a subject; a course of critical or scientific inquiry.' Babbie and Mouton (2003: xxi) go further and state that social research is the systemic observation of social life for the purpose of finding and understanding patterns in what is being observed. They add that empirical social research is organised around two activities: observation and interpretation. Social researchers observe aspects of social reality and then draw conclusions about the meanings of what they have observed.

Miller and Brewer (2003: 192) state that methodology connotes a set of rules and procedures to guide research and against which claims can be evaluated. It is therefore fundamental to the construction to all forms of knowledge. Methodology provides the tools whereby understanding is created. It is as centrally concerned with how we conceptualise, theorise and make abstractions as it is with the techniques or methods which we utilise to assemble and analyse information.

This study determines and examines the managerial competencies required by library managers at different managerial levels in effectively managing change in university libraries in South Africa. In undertaking this research a decision needs to be taken whether to conduct quantitative research, qualitative research or both.

3.2. Quantitative versus qualitative research

Quantitative and qualitative methods are two general approaches in the social sciences (Miller and Brewer 2003: 192). While they are not totally understandable as opposing approaches, they do adopt a very different position of the fundamentals of the relationship between ideas and evidence.

The departure point of quantitative research is numerical measurement of specific aspects of phenomena. It is a very structured approach. Competing explanations must be formulated in terms of the relationship between variables (Miller and Brewer 2003: 192). The ultimate goal is to find as small a set of variables as possible which explain as much as possible. The broader philosophical thinking which informs this approach is that to know something one must establish general sets of relationships which are robust across as many instances or cases as possible - generalisation is the goal (Miller and Brewer 2003: 193).

Maykut and Moorehoouse (1994: 2) explain that quantitative research is based on observations that are converted into discrete units by using statistical analysis. While there may be modifications and variations on this general picture of quantitative research, statistical analysis is an essential part of quantitative research. Ragin points out that this type of approach is well suited to testing theories, identifying general patterns and making predictions. It is therefore deductive in nature (Miller and Brewer 2003: 193).

Qualitative research, on the other hand, generally examines people's words and actions in narrative and descriptive ways more closely representing the situation as experienced by the participants (Maykut and Moorehoouse 1994: 2). Miller and Brewer (2003: 193) go on to argue that the qualitative approach is based on intensive study of as many features as possible of one or a small number of phenomena. Instead of condensing information, it seeks to build understanding by depth. Qualitative research seeks meaning (rather than generality as with its quantitative counterpart) and contributes to theory development by proceeding inductively. Meaning is achieved not by looking at particular features of

many instances of a phenomenon but rather by looking at all aspects of the same phenomenon to see their inter-relationships and establish how they come together to form a whole.

The brief discussion above reflects that the quantitative and qualitative approaches are not mutually exclusive. The use of both approaches can be beneficial. However using both approaches for a single study will be time consuming and expensive. Leedy (1989: 139) states that the nature of the data dictates the methodology. If the data are verbal, the methodology is qualitative, if the data are numerical, the methodology is quantitative.

This study is exploratory in nature. Burns and Bush (2000: 130) state that if the research objective is to gain background information, to define terms, to clarify problems and hypotheses and to establish research priorities, then the appropriate research design will be exploratory in nature. This study will attempt to determine and examine the managerial competencies required by library managers at different managerial levels in effectively managing change in university libraries in South Africa; therefore the most appropriate methodology for this study would be to conduct a survey. Babbie and Mouton (2003: 132) add that surveys may be used for descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory purposes. They are chiefly used in studies that have individual people as units of analysis. Sapsford (1999: 5) goes on to state that standardisation lies in the heart of survey research, and the whole point is to get consistent answers to consistent questions. The questionnaire is a standardised measuring instrument.

Bright (1991: 36) argues that there are generally two kinds of surveys:

- Population survey - this involves using the whole of a specified population, and

- Sample survey - this involves only using a subset / proportion of the total population. This involves sampling techniques by which the sample is drawn from the population.

This study will entail a survey of library managers at the three levels (first-line managers, middle managers and top managers) in university libraries in South Africa. (Powell (1997: 58) adds that surveys are better suited to studying a large number of geographically dispersed cases. Also, surveys are more appropriate for studying personal factors and exploratory analysis of relationships. So, a survey will be appropriate for this study which attempts to conduct an investigation within libraries located in different parts of South Africa.

3.3. Data gathering instruments

Bright (1991: 36) states that surveys can involve the use of interviews and questionnaires.

For practical purposes this study has adopted the use of questionnaires to gather data (Appendix 1). The questionnaire was structured using the Likert scale. Questionnaires were accessed via the Worldwide Web (www).

If required, on receiving completed questionnaires, a follow-up telephone interview would be conducted to gain more in-depth information on issues.

3.4. Population

A population is defined as the entire group under study as specified by the objectives of the research project (Burns and Bush 2000: 384).

The population surveyed in this study is the three levels of library managers within university libraries in South Africa. A contact list of university managers was obtained from the Forum for University Librarians of South Africa (FULSA). The FULSA list is a list by institution of the names of university directors or chief librarians.

Since the population of the proposed study is within the 17 Universities in South Africa, no sampling was necessary. Gay and Airasian (2003) state that for small populations

there is no need for sampling, the entire population should be surveyed (Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 207). The population would be clustered according to the different levels of management in the libraries.

Hellriegel et al. (2002:12) provides an outline of the basic levels of management:

- first-line managers
- middle managers
- top managers

As discussed in the literature review, first-line managers in a university equate to the section heads of the different departments of a library.

The deputy librarian and library administrator occupy the middle management level in libraries.

The top manager will be the director of the library or the chief librarian.

3.5. The general research problem

As discussed in Chapter 1, libraries are made up of a number of inter-dependent departments that contribute to their efficient functioning. The primary function of a university library is to support the teaching, learning and research of its institution. Walker (2003) adds that the library is central to a university's function of advancing knowledge by research and teaching. It is also vital for the application of knowledge to the needs of society. In order to contribute effectively and add value to the services offered to its community, the university library will need to have a number of resources to achieve this. One of these resources is its human resources. The management of this

resource becomes more critical when an organisation is going through a process of change.

If human resources are not managed effectively, the library's goals will not be met. The management of people is one of the most challenging aspects of a manager's job. To meet these challenges, managers will need to be equipped with a wide range of human management skills. If managers were appointed by the Peter Principle then they would be lacking in these skills. The challenges confronting library management are further compounded by the merging of some universities.

Levine (1984) adds that at times of change, employees become anxious that their jobs are at risk and their career development will come to a halt (Goulding 1996: 7). Goulding (1996: 8) goes on to argue that employees may be subjected to various forms of work-related stress including uncertainty, instability, insecurity, increased workload, role conflict and ambiguity, pressure to cut costs, and strains between management and staff. Jayaram (2003: 89) agrees and goes on to state that merger issues brought about a deep sense of insecurity among staff.

It is evident that mergers bring with them a number of complex human managerial problems. They also create new challenges for managers. Edwards and Walton (2000) stress that in academic libraries an atmosphere of openness, good communication, clear vision, leadership and training engenders good change management. Consultation, communications, transparency and informality minimise fear and suspicion. They add that staff resent the sense that changes are imposed on them and that they are powerless - they need to be involved. Staff need to understand the rationale behind decisions which are been made, even if they do not agree with them.

Clearly in an environment characterised by change, additional pressures are brought to bear on the organisation's managerial structure. However, a management qualification is not a requirement when library managers are appointed. This is evident when perusing through job advertisements for library managers.

Given the above the immediate problem is that managers in university libraries are not prepared for change.

3.6. Research objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

Objective 1: Establish the leadership strategy and vision used by library managers to guide a library through a process of change.

Objective 2: Determine the management competencies required by library managers in university libraries in South Africa.

Objective 3: Cluster these competencies according to the different managerial levels, as defined by Hellriegel et al. (2002:12).

Objective 4: Determine human resources competencies required by management in a change management environment.

Objective 5: Determine training and development needs of existing and potential managers.

Objective 6: Suggest core change management content for library information schools curricula.

Objective 7: Make recommendations on how change can be managed effectively.

3.7. The research questions

In particular the main questions that this study attempts to answer are:

Question 1: What leadership strategies and vision are used by library managers to guide a library through a process of change?

Question 2: What management competencies are required by library managers in higher education libraries to guide a library through a process of change?

Question 3: What managerial competencies are required by managers in the different managerial levels, in a change management environment?

Question 4: What human resources competencies are required by management in a change management environment?

Question 5: What training and development needs are required by managers in a change management environment?

Question 6: What management courses can library schools provide that will better equip library managers with the management of change?

Question 7: What recommendations can be made and how can change be managed effectively?

3.8. The research hypotheses

The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 2: H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 3: H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 4: H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 5: H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 6: H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 7: H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 8: H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 9: H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 10: H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 11: H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 12: H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 13: H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 14: H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 15: H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

Hypothesis 16: H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

Hypothesis 17: H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

Hypothesis 18: H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

3.9. The development of the research model

3.9.1. Introduction

The research model used in this study was based on the main findings of the literature study. Each of these aspects are discussed briefly below.

3.9.2. Competencies identified in the literature study

a. Strategic action

This is primarily the responsibility of top management. Hayes (1993: 20) states that they must have a vision of the library's role. Strategic management of information resources is determined both by the vision held by the institution and by the degree to which resources can be, or are committed, to the fulfillment of that vision. It is the commitment of resources that constitutes leadership. Leaders provide a vision, give direction and inspire others to deliver on the institutional mandate.

Effective change leaders energise an organisation for change, build commitment for new directions, and then put into place a process that will translate such commitment into action (Spector 2007: 169). They obtain information and identify key issues and relationships relevant to achieving a long-term goal or vision. They commit to a course of action to accomplish the vision after developing alternatives based on logical assumptions, facts, available resources, constraints and the organisation's values.

b. Communication

Because managing involves getting work done through other people, communication competency is essential to effective managerial performance. Communication competency includes:

- Informal communication
- Formal communication
- Negotiation.

Leaders have to demonstrate the ability to provide guidance by means of oral and written communication.

c. Planning and administration

Planning and administration competency involves which tasks need to be done, determining how they can be done, and then monitoring the process to ensure that they are done. Included in this process are:

- Information gathering, analysis, and problem solving
- Planning and organising projects
- Time management
- Budgeting and financial management.

d. Teamwork

Teamwork competency is associated with accomplishing tasks through small groups of people who are collectively responsible and whose work is interdependent. Teamwork can become more effective when managers:

- Design teams properly
- Create a supportive team environment
- Manage team dynamics appropriately.

Teamwork involves co-operating with others, sharing knowledge and information, promoting harmony and contributing to collective efforts.

e. Global awareness

Global awareness competency is required by managers who draw on human, financial, information and material resources from different countries. Library managers will need to develop this competency when interacting with international book publishers and suppliers.

This will be reflected in their:

- Cultural knowledge and understanding
- Cultural openness and sensitivity.

f. Self-management

Self-management competency involves managers taking responsibility for their life at work and beyond. This competency includes:

- Integrity and ethical conduct
- Personal drive and resilience
- Balancing work/life issues
- Self-awareness and development.

It also involves identifying and pursuing opportunities to develop new skills to broaden current effectiveness and to make progress towards career goals.

3.9.3. Grouping of the different skills

Skills can be grouped as follows:

a. Primary-level leadership skills:

- job specific skills - these will include; job descriptions, job analysis, job specifications, recruitment and selection of staff and staff appraisal
- problem solving and decision making skills
- project management
- training and development

b. Relationship skills:

- communication
- teamwork
- motivation
- conflict resolution

c. Strategic skills:

- vision
- strategy
- change management

3.10. Pilot Study

Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 110) recommend that a researcher may sometimes need to do a brief exploratory investigation, or pilot study, to try out particular procedures, measurement instruments, or methods of analysis. They state that a pilot study is an excellent way to determine the feasibility of a study. Fourteen employees of UKZN, representing the three managerial levels, were chosen for the pilot study. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine the following:

- to determine the clarity of instructions
- to determine the time taken to complete the questionnaire
- to determine that the questions were clear and not ambiguous
- to ensure that questions were appropriate.

3.11. Data analysis

Data were analysed using The Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 15. Graphical and descriptive statistics were carried out. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 30) state that descriptive statistics summarise the general nature of the data obtained, for example, how certain measured characteristics appear to be 'on the average,' how much variability exists among pieces of data and also how closely two or more characteristics are interrelated. Bar graphs and frequency tables were calculated using SPSS (version 15) to gain an overview of the perceptions of senior, middle and first line managers of managerial competencies. The descriptive statistics also include the mean, mode, median and standard deviation. Cooper and Schindler (1998: 427) describe the mean as the arithmetic average, the median as the midpoint of the distribution, the mode as the most frequently occurring value and standard deviation as the positive square root of the variance which is the average of the squared deviation scores from the distribution's mean. These statistics serve to confirm the results of the graphical statistics and frequency tables. The respondents' scores were analysed in this manner.

To test if the data comes from a normal distribution or not, the Kolmogorov- Smirnov (KS) test was used. Cooper and Schindler (1998: 675) state that the KS test is appropriate when the data are at least ordinal and the research situation calls for a comparison of an observed sample distribution with a theoretical distribution. Once this was established, the type of statistical tests that is permitted to be used was determined. For example, the parametric tests such as the independent sample t-tests can be used to check for differences between the mean scores of the trained and untrained group with respect to managerial competencies since this group has only two categories; alternatively the analysis of variance (ANOVA) can be used to test for a difference between the average scores with respect to a group with more than two categories such as the group comprising senior managers, middle managers and first line managers with respect to their managerial competencies. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 274) state that ANOVA looks for differences among three or more means by comparing the variances both within and across groups.

The non-parametric counterparts of these tests are the Mann Whitney U test and the Kruskal Wallis test. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 274) state that the Mann Whitney U test compares two groups when the data are ordinal (e.g. ranked) rather than interval in nature. They further mention that the Kruskal Wallis test compares three or more group means when the data are ordinal (e.g. ranked). This procedure is the nonparametric counterpart of ANOVA.

Factor analysis, which, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 274) examines the correlations among a number of variables and identifies clusters of highly interrelated variables that reflect underlying themes or factors within the data, was also used to reduce the large number of managerial competency questions to smaller groups or factors that are contributing towards the overall variation in the data set and thus the most salient and important groupings of managerial competencies were determined.

The one sample t-test was also carried out to test the hypotheses as to whether certain managerial competencies are required by managers. Cooper and Schindler (1998: 480) state that one-sample tests are used when there is a single sample and the need to test the hypothesis that it comes from a specified population. The results of the hypothesis tests were also confirmed by the descriptive and graphical statistics. The difference between the educational group management competency scores was tested using the Kruskal Wallis test.

3.12. Validity and reliability

In order for the research methodology to have any integrity, there is a need for the data quality to have the following characteristics: validity and reliability.

The validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure while reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed (Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 28 and 29).

The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for the questions that have the same scales. Cooper and Schindler (1998: 173) mention that Cronbach's Alpha has the most utility for multi-item scales at the interval level of measurement. A value of 0.7 or higher is deemed to conclude a good internal consistency and reliability amongst the questions. All values of the study were above 0.7 which indicates that there was a good internal consistency amongst the responses. This is reported in Chapter 4.

3.13. Data collection

Participants accessed the questionnaire via a link e-mailed to them. Library directors were contacted regarding permission to administer the questionnaire to their staff. Once permission was received, directors were requested to forward the link to all managerial staff in their library. Directors were later contacted to provide the number of participants

that they had forwarded the link to. The link was forwarded to 124 library staff and 86 (69.35%) of them responded. A study conducted by Baruch (1999: 421) to explore what could and should be a reasonable response rate in an academic study indicated that the average response rate was 55.6% with a standard deviation of 19.7. One hundred and forty-one papers which included 175 different studies were examined. This demonstrates that a return rate of 69.35% for this study is an adequate response rate. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 209) concur and state that a response rate above 50% is a good representation of the population and a response rate of below 50% can potentially lead to bias.

3.14. Ethical considerations

In this study ethical considerations included voluntary participation and confidentiality. An informed consent document was sent to all research participants (Appendix 2).

All participants were informed that their participation in completing the questionnaire was completely voluntary and that they were in no way forced to complete the questionnaire. They also had the right to withdraw at any time during the study.

3.15. Conclusion

This chapter described the research process of the study. The merits of the measuring instruments in the data analysis and data collection were also discussed. Validity and reliability of the research reflects the credibility of this research. The data gathering instrument, the research population, research objectives, research hypothesis and the development of the research model were also discussed.

The following chapter will provide the results, analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4. - RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the study and deals with:

a. Responses to the questions from the questionnaire

The responses to the questions from the questionnaires will be analysed using bar graphs and frequency tables. This will allow for the identification of the breakdown of responses as well as for comment on the modal responses to the questions. Certain trends in the data will also be identified using the bar graphs and the frequency tables. The bar graphs will also help ascertain any skewness towards certain responses in the questions.

b. Descriptive Statistics

The mean, the mode, the median, the sample variance and the sample standard deviation are discussed. The mean or the arithmetic mean is the sum of all the values divided by the sample size, the mode is the most frequent response given by the respondents and the median is the middle most value when the data (per variable/question) is arranged from highest to lowest. The sample variance is the degree or quantity by which each observation varies one from another. The sample standard deviation is the square root of the sample variance. The descriptive statistics will also serve to confirm the results from the bar graphs and the frequency tables.

c. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, tests the hypotheses to determine whether the data comes from a normal distribution or not. This enables one to determine the type of statistical test that is permitted to be used on the data. For example, the parametric tests, such as the

independent sample t-tests, can be used to check for differences between the mean scores of the trained and untrained group with respect to managerial competencies since this group has only two categories. Alternatively ANOVA can be used to test for a difference between the average scores with respect to a group with more than two categories. The non-parametric counterparts of these tests are the Mann Whitney U test and the Kruskal Wallis test. To test for significant relationships between variables, the Pearson correlation, Spearman's rank correlation or the Chi-square test can be used, depending obviously on the nature of the data.

d. Reliability analysis

Coakes and Steed (2003: 140) state that there are a number of different reliability coefficients. One of the most commonly used is the Cronbach's alpha, which is based on the average correlation of items within a test if the items are standardised. If the items are not standardised, it is based on the average covariance among the items. The Cronbach's alpha can range from 0 to 1. Cronbach's alpha was also calculated as part of the reliability test to assess how consistent the results were and if similar results were received, to generalise, if the sample size was increased. A value of 0.7 or higher is a very good value that can lead the researcher to be satisfied that the same results will be received if the survey were conducted with a larger sample of respondents. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated for all the questions which have the same scales in each section i.e. questions 4.1-5.7 and then on Questions 3.1-3.2, 5.7.2, 5.8 and 6.1 and then overall for all the questions.

e. Testing for differences in position with respect to managing competencies

The Kruskal Wallis test will be used on the raw scores/responses to test for differences in position with respect to managing competencies. The Kruskal Wallis test is the non-parametric equivalent of the one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA). It therefore allows possible differences between two or more groups to be examined.

f. Hypotheses testing

The hypotheses testing will be carried out using the one sample t-test. The mean scores of the first line, middle and senior managers will be tested against a hypothesized mean value that will allow for the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses. This will then demonstrate which managerial competencies are required for each of the managerial levels.

g. The differences in position in different managerial levels

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the type of manager category i.e. senior manager, middle manager and first line manager is used to check for differences in their mean scores with respect to the managerial competencies. This will identify where the different types of managers differ with respect to the different competencies. The exact differences within the category of the first line, middle and senior managers can then be determined using multiple comparisons.

h. Descriptive statistics for the different managerial levels

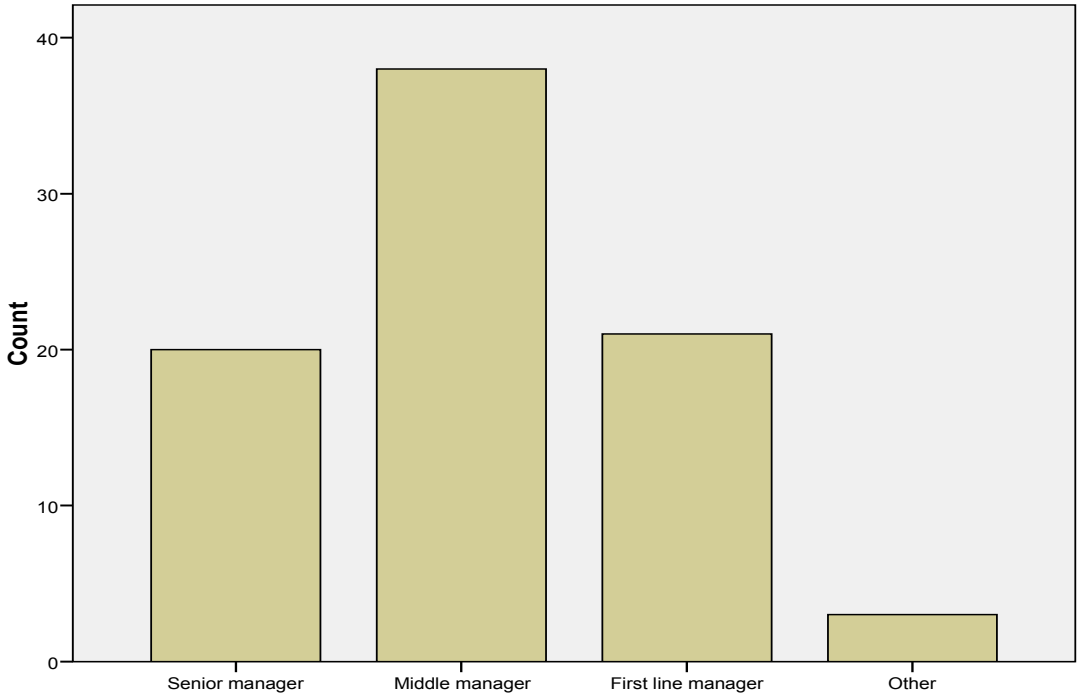
The use of the modes for questions per managerial level i.e. modes for the first line, middle and senior managers will be calculated to aid in the model building for the different levels. The different modes per question help determine which competencies are deemed to be important for each managerial level.

i. Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique used to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of underlying factors that summarise the essential information contained in the variables. This statistical tool is used to check what factors are influencing managerial competencies.

4.2. Responses to the questions from the questionnaire

1. Levels of management.

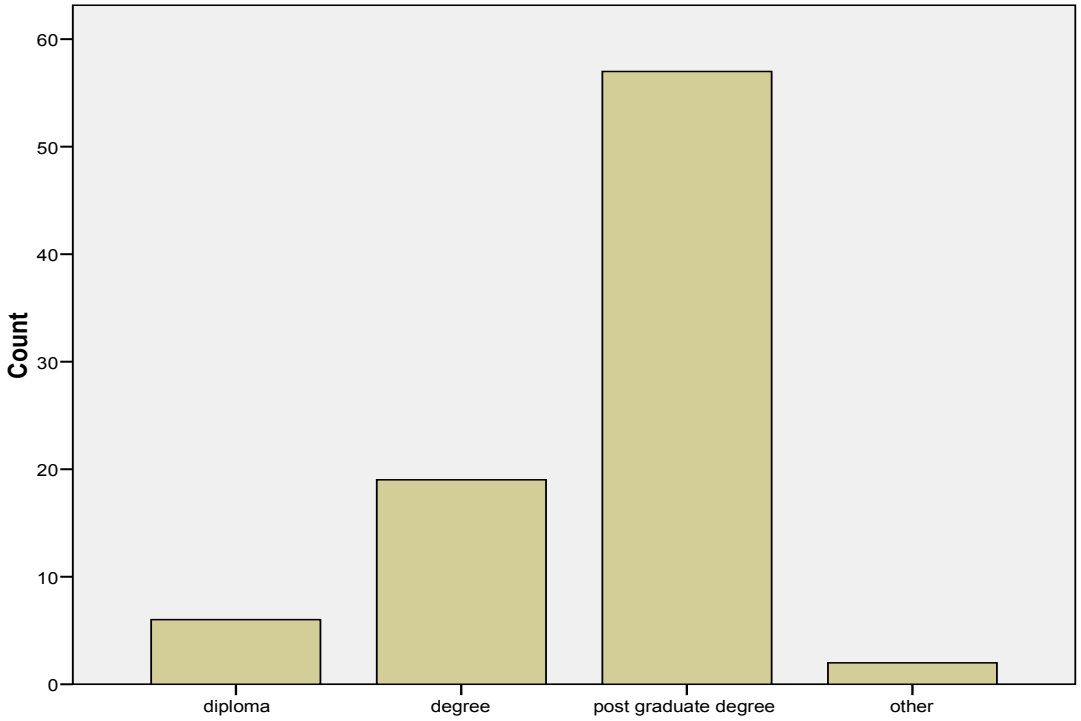


Discussion: Thirty eight middle managers responded, twenty one first line managers and twenty senior managers responded.

Table 10. Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 1.

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Senior manager	20	24.4	24.4
	Middle manager	38	46.3	70.7
	First line manager	21	25.6	96.3
	Other	3	3.7	100.0
	Total	82	100.0	

2. Highest educational qualification: _____

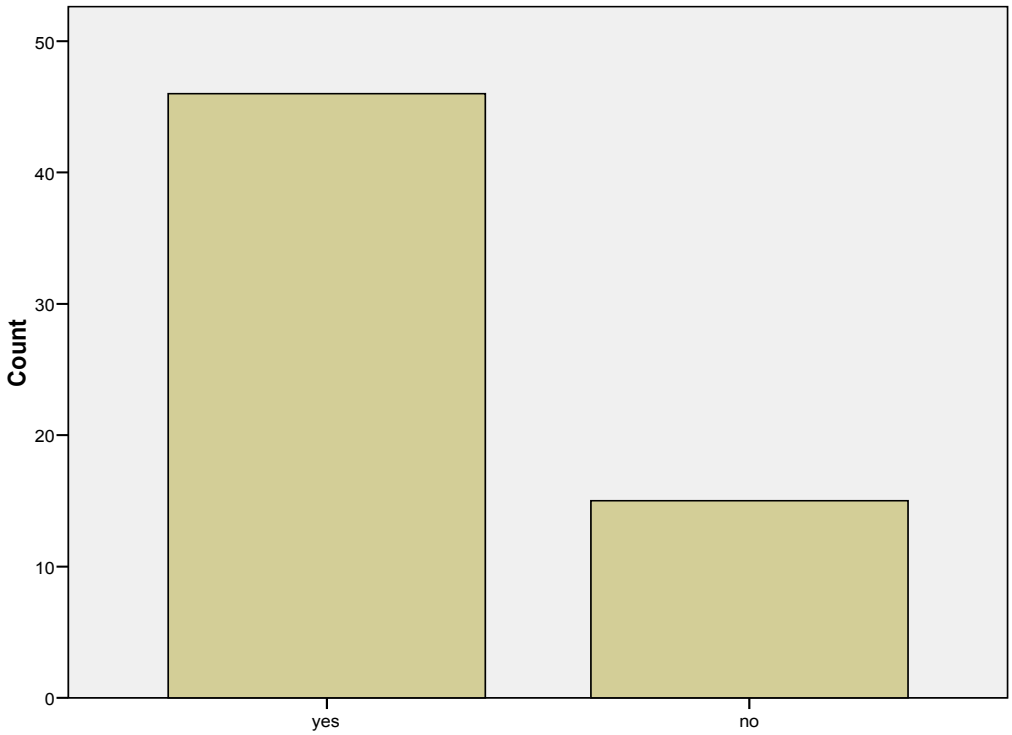


Discussion: Fifty seven respondents had post graduate degrees while nineteen had degrees and six had diplomas.

Table 11. Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 2.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	diploma	6	7.0	7.1	7.1
	degree	19	22.1	22.6	29.8
	post graduate degree	57	66.3	67.9	97.6
	other	2	2.3	2.4	100.0
	Total	84	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.3		
Total		86	100.0		

3. Have you had any management training? (e.g. a management degree, a management diploma, attended management courses or attended management workshops).



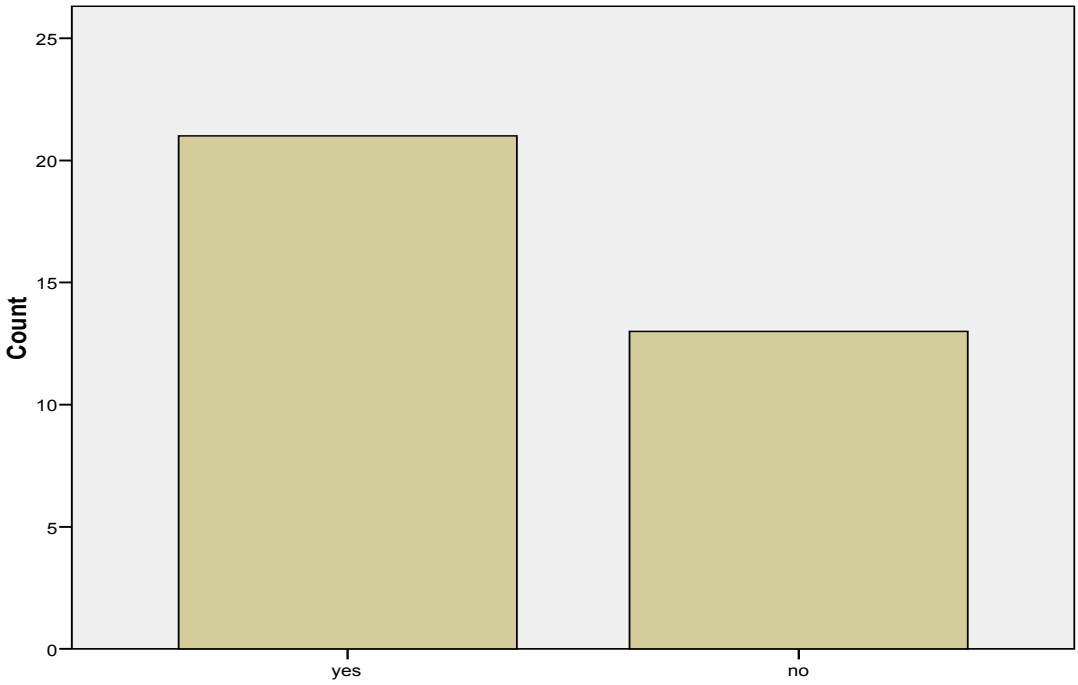
Discussion: Forty six respondents have had management training while fifteen respondents had no training.

Table 12: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 3.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	46	53.5	75.4	75.4
	No	15	17.4	24.6	100.0
	Total	61	70.9	100.0	
Missing	System	25	29.1		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘yes’ (75.4%).

If no, do you require training?



Discussion: Twenty one respondents stated that they required training while thirteen indicated that they don't require training.

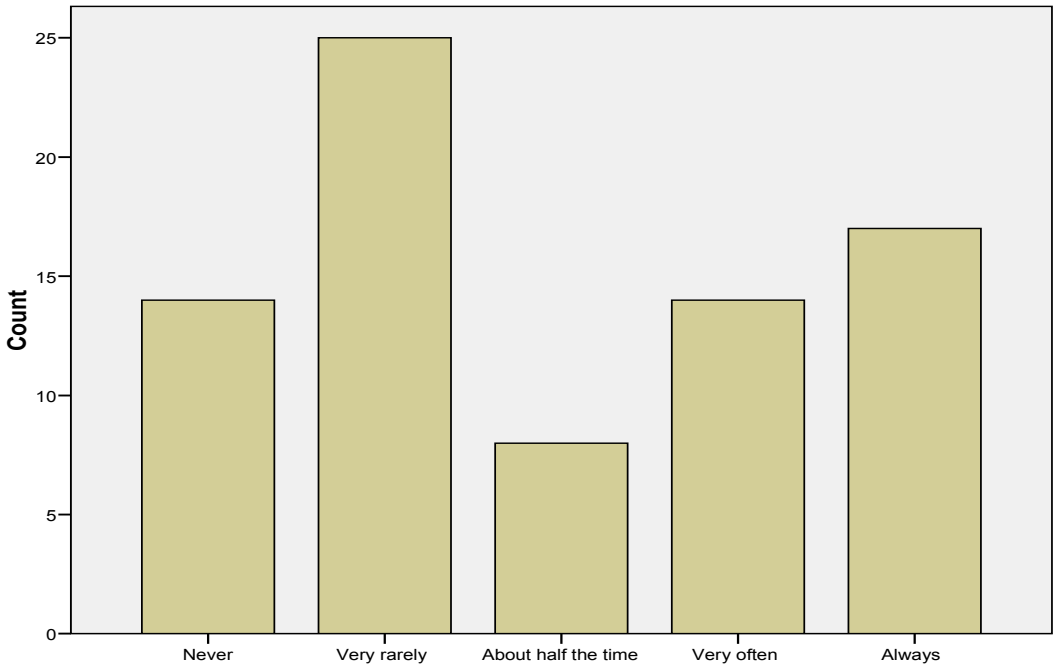
Table 13: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 3b.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	21	24.4	61.8	61.8
	No	13	15.1	38.2	100.0
	Total	34	39.5	100.0	
Missing	System	52	60.5		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was 'yes' (61.8%).

4. Please indicate the extent to which you perform the following activities in your job:

4.1. Write job descriptions.



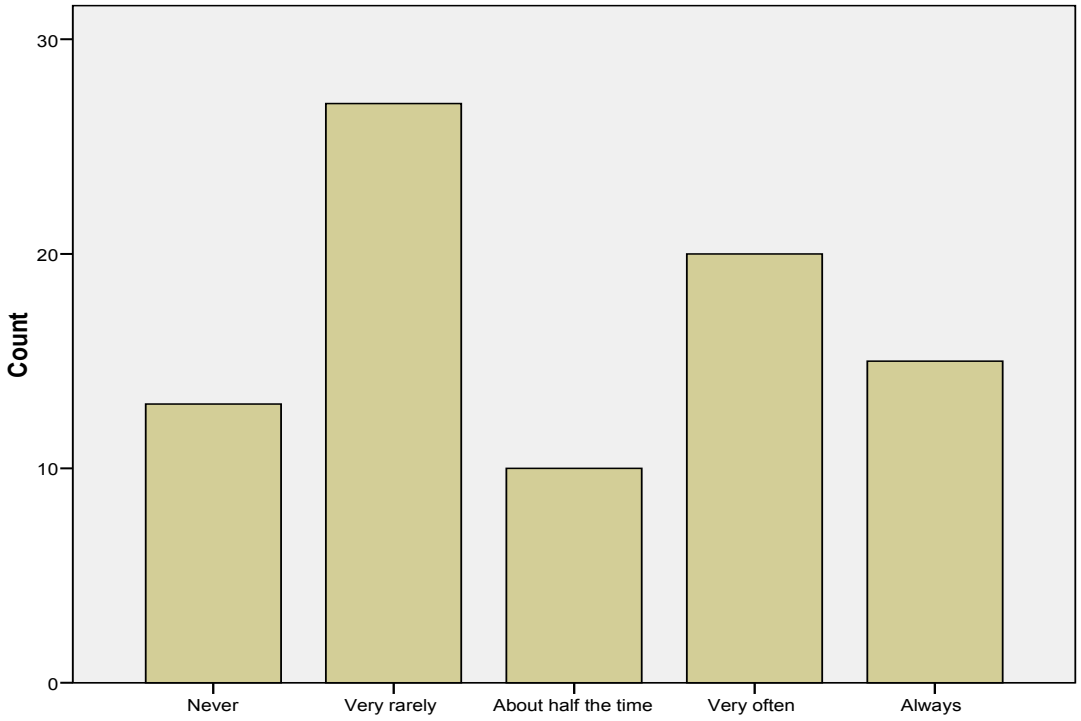
Discussion: Twenty five respondents stated that they 'very rarely' write job descriptions, seventeen indicated that they 'always' write job descriptions, fourteen stated that they either 'very often' or 'never' write job descriptions and eight stated that they write job descriptions 'about half the time'.

Table 14: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.1.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	14	16.3	17.9	17.9
	Very rarely	25	29.1	32.1	50.0
	About half the time	8	9.3	10.3	60.3
	Very often	14	16.3	17.9	78.2
	Always	17	19.8	21.8	100.0
	Total	78	90.7	100.0	
Missing	System	8	9.3		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (32.1%) followed by 21.8% which was ‘always’ and 17.9% which was ‘very often’ and ‘never’.

4.2. Perform job analysis (the process of analysing the content of jobs in order to guide recruitment and selection, identify training needs, or for the purpose of job evaluation).



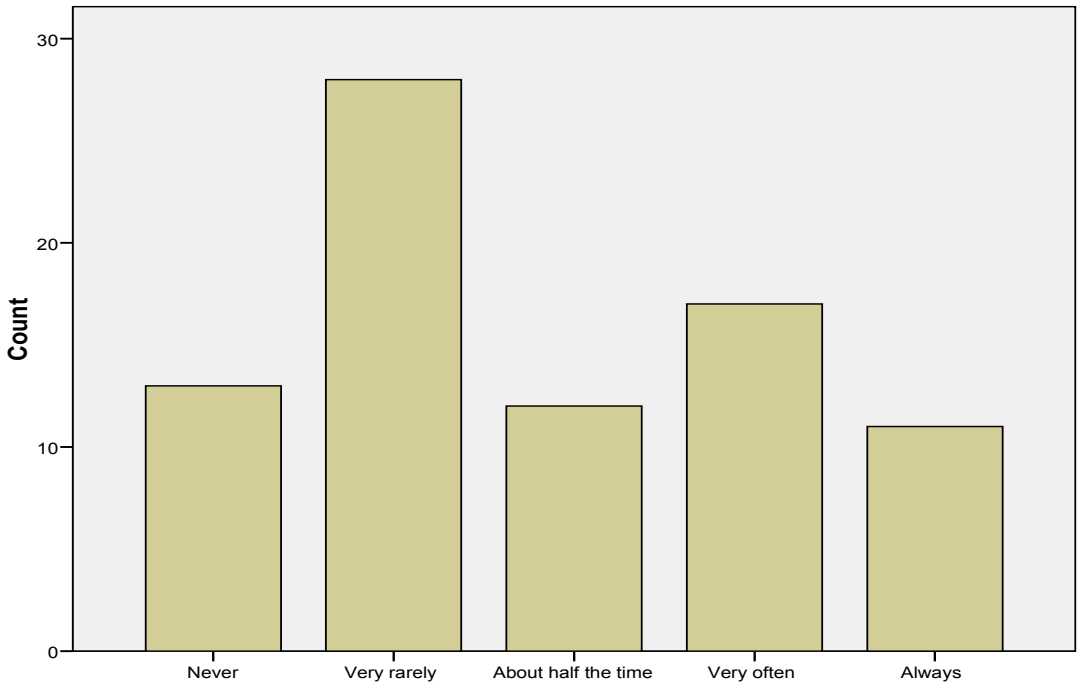
Discussion: Twenty seven respondents stated that they 'very rarely' performed job analysis, twenty stated that they 'very often' perform job analysis, fifteen stated that they 'always' perform job analysis, thirteen stated that they 'never' perform job analysis while ten indicated that they perform job analysis 'about half the time'.

Table 15: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.2.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	13	15.1	15.3	15.3
	Very rarely	27	31.4	31.8	47.1
	About half the time	10	11.6	11.8	58.8
	Very often	20	23.3	23.5	82.4
	Always	15	17.4	17.6	100.0
	Total	85	98.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was 'very rarely' (31.8%) followed by 23.5% which was 'very often' and 17.6 % which was 'always'.

4.3. Write job specifications (the document that describes the skills, knowledge, and qualities needed to perform a particular job).



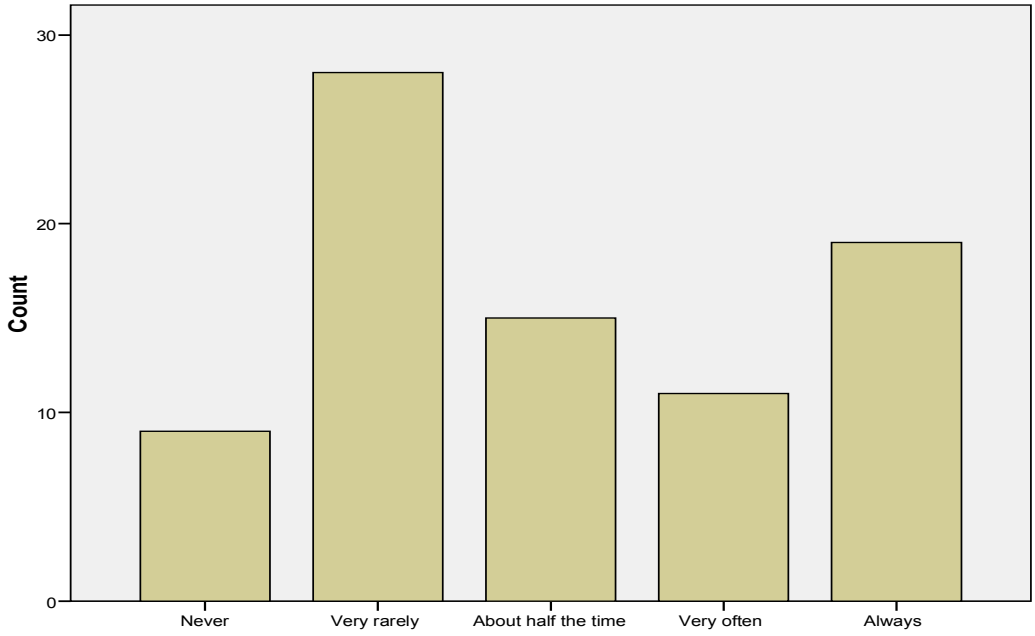
Discussion: Twenty eight respondents 'very rarely' write job specifications, seventeen indicated that they 'very often' write job specifications, thirteen stated that they 'never' write job specifications, twelve stated that they write job specifications 'about half the time' and eleven stated that they 'always' write job specifications.

Table 16: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.3.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	13	15.1	16.0	16.0
	Very rarely	28	32.6	34.6	50.6
	About half the time	12	14.0	14.8	65.4
	Very often	17	19.8	21.0	86.4
	Always	11	12.8	13.6	100.0
	Total	81	94.2	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.8		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (34.6%) followed by 21% which was ‘very often’ and 16% which was ‘never’.

4.4. Undertake recruitment and selection of staff.



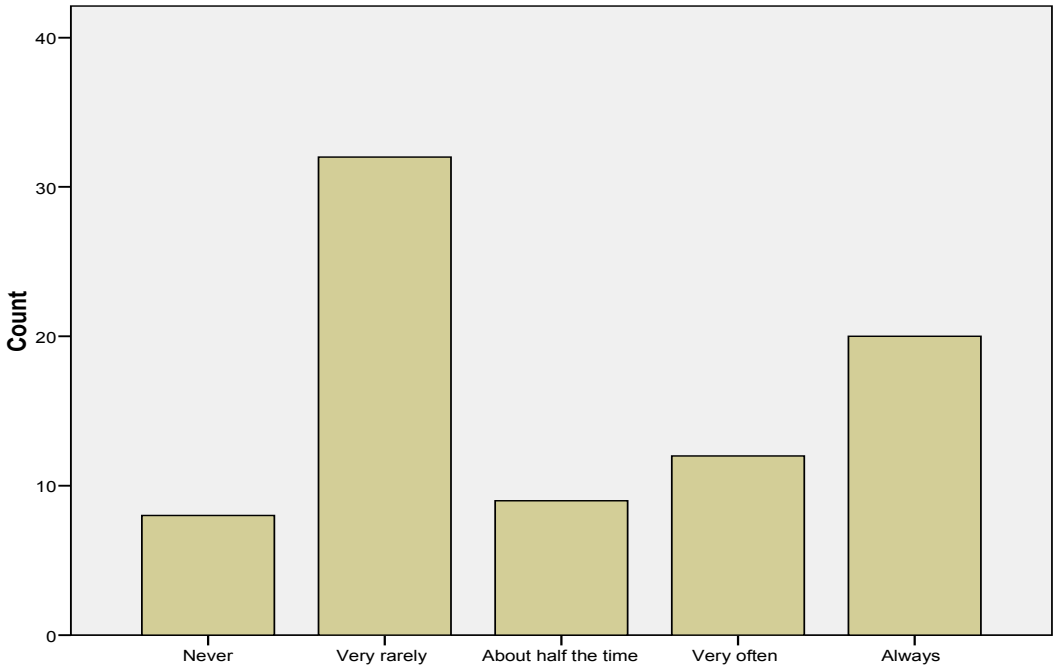
Discussion: Twenty eight respondents stated that they 'very rarely' undertake recruitment and selection of staff, nineteen responded that they 'always' undertake recruitment and selection of staff, fifteen indicated that they undertake recruitment and selection of staff 'about half the time', eleven stated that they 'very often' undertake recruitment and selection of staff and nine stated that they 'never' undertake recruitment and selection of staff.

Table 17: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.4.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	9	10.5	11.0	11.0
	Very rarely	28	32.6	34.1	45.1
	About half the time	15	17.4	18.3	63.4
	Very often	11	12.8	13.4	76.8
	Always	19	22.1	23.2	100.0
	Total	82	95.3	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.7		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was 'very rarely' (34.1 %) followed by 23.2% which was 'always' and 18.3% which was 'about half the time'.

4.5. Perform staff appraisal (the process of evaluating the performance and assessing the development/training needs of an employee).



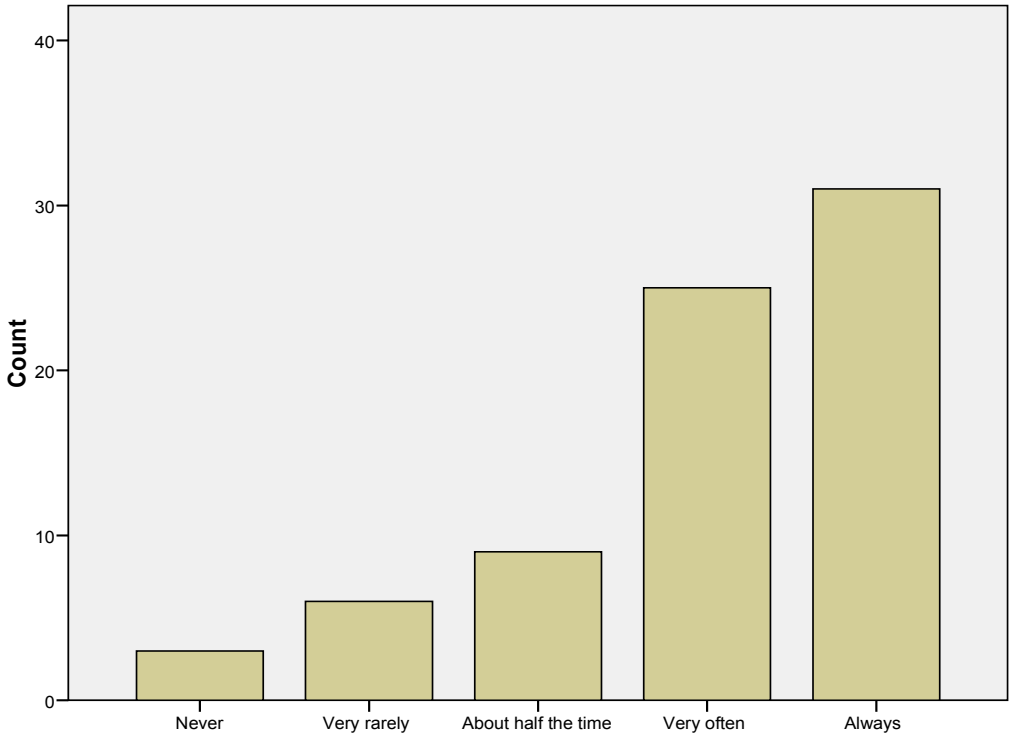
Discussion: Thirty two respondents stated that they 'very rarely' perform staff appraisal, twenty indicated that they 'always' perform staff appraisal, twelve stated that they 'very often' perform staff appraisal, nine stated that they perform staff appraisal 'about half the time' and eight stated that they 'never' perform staff appraisal.

Table 18: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.5.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	9.3	9.9	9.9
	Very rarely	32	37.2	39.5	49.4
	About half the time	9	10.5	11.1	60.5
	Very often	12	14.0	14.8	75.3
	Always	20	23.3	24.7	100.0
	Total	81	94.2	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.8		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (39.5%) followed by 24.7% which was ‘always’ and 14.8% which was ‘very often’.

4.6. Solve problems.



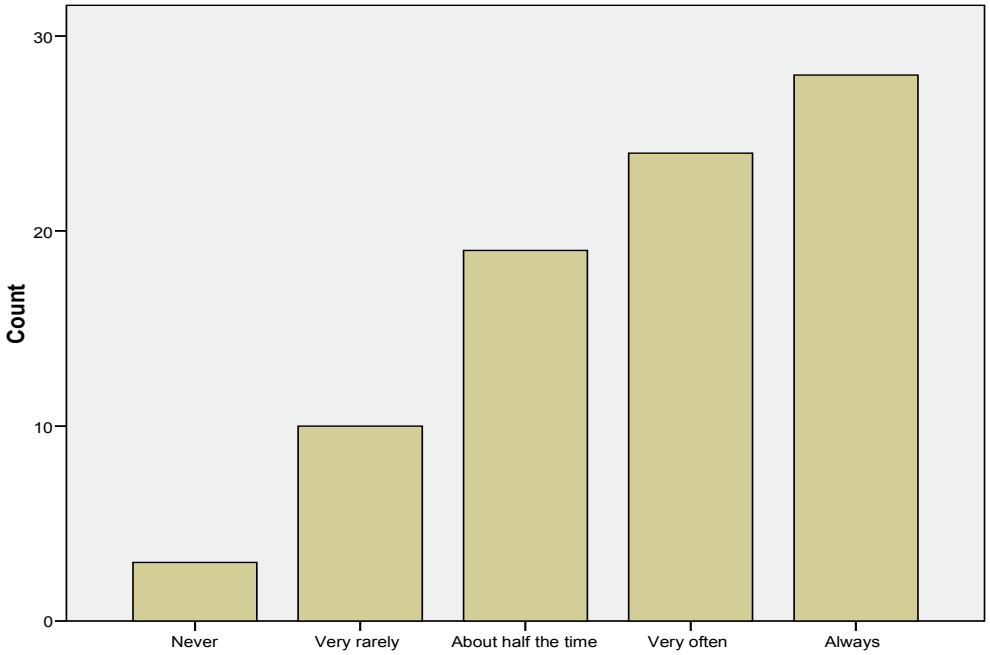
Discussion: Thirty one respondents stated that they ‘always’ solve problems, twenty five indicated that they ‘very often’ solve problems, nine stated that they solve problems ‘about half the time’, six stated that they ‘very rarely’ solve problems and three respondents stated that they ’never’ solve problems.

Table 19: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.6.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	3	3.5	4.1	4.1
	Very rarely	6	7.0	8.1	12.2
	About half the time	9	10.5	12.2	24.3
	Very often	25	29.1	33.8	58.1
	Always	31	36.0	41.9	100.0
	Total	74	86.0	100.0	
Missing	System	12	14.0		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was 'always' (41.9%) followed by 33.8% which was 'very often' and 12.2% which was 'about half the time'.

4.7. Make decisions.



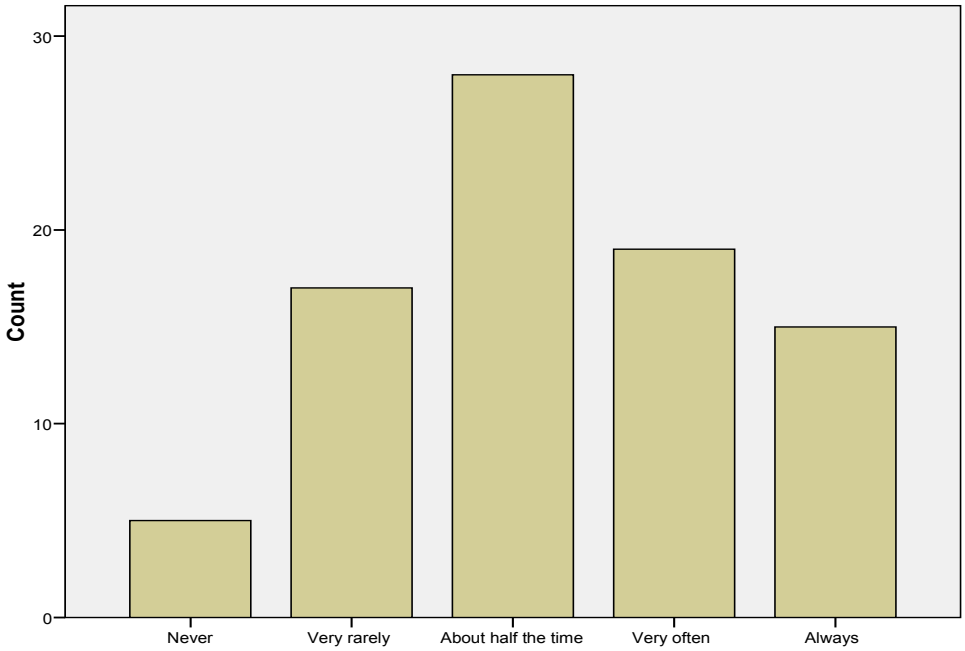
Discussion: Twenty eight respondents stated that they 'always' make decisions, twenty four stated that they 'very often' make decisions, nineteen stated that they make decisions 'about half the time' ten stated that they 'very rarely' make decisions and three stated that they 'never' make decisions.

Table 20: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.7.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	3	3.5	3.6	3.6
	Very rarely	10	11.6	11.9	15.5
	About half the time	19	22.1	22.6	38.1
	Very often	24	27.9	28.6	66.7
	Always	28	32.6	33.3	100.0
	Total	84	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.3		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘always’ (33.3%) followed by 28.6% which was ‘very often’ and 22.6% which was ‘about half the time’.

4.8. Carry out project management.



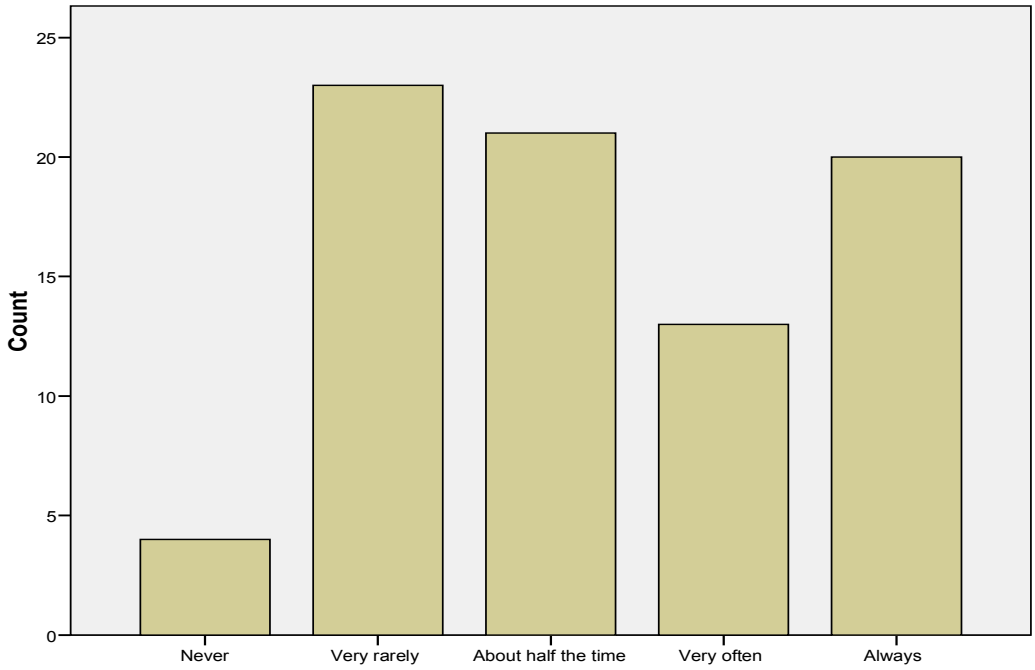
Discussion: Twenty eight respondents stated that they carry out project management 'about half the time', nineteen stated that they 'very often' carry out project management, seventeen stated that they 'very rarely' carry out project management, fifteen respondents 'always' carry out project management and five 'never' carry out project management.

Table 21: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.8.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	5.8	6.0	6.0
	Very rarely	17	19.8	20.2	26.2
	About half the time	28	32.6	33.3	59.5
	Very often	19	22.1	22.6	82.1
	Always	15	17.4	17.9	100.0
	Total	84	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.3		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was 'about half the time' (33.3%) followed by 22.6% which was 'very often' and 20.2% which was 'very rarely'.

4.9. Discuss the training and development needs of staff with them.



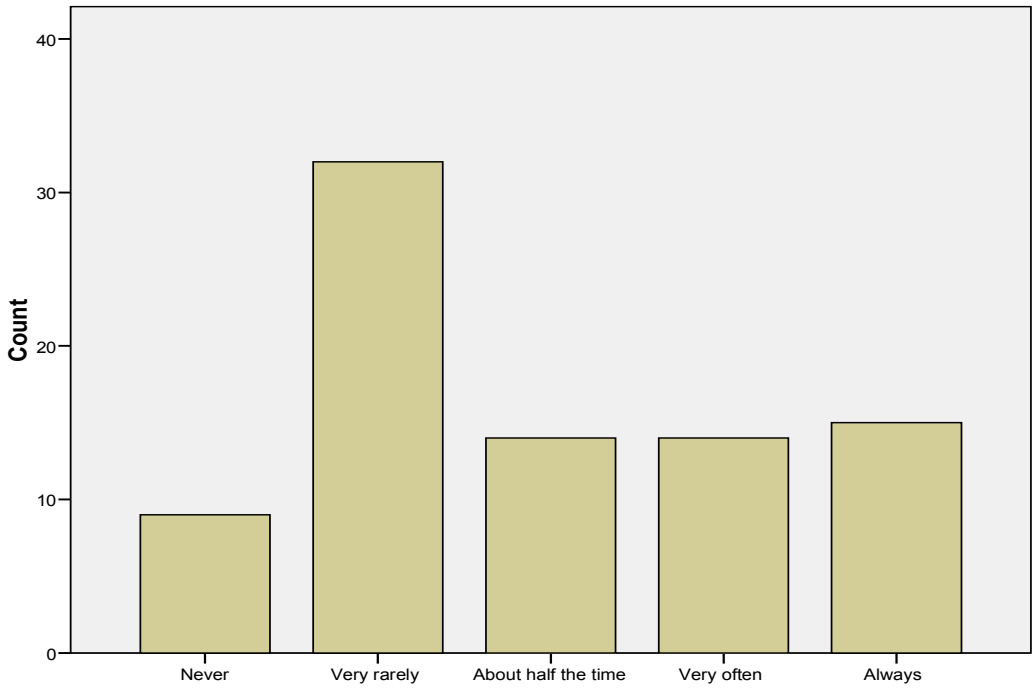
Discussion: Twenty three respondents 'very rarely' discuss the training and development needs of staff with them, twenty one stated that they discuss the training and development needs of staff with them 'about half the time' while twenty indicated that they 'always' discuss the training and development needs of staff with them, thirteen stated that they 'very often' discuss the training and development needs of staff with them and four 'never' discuss the training and development needs of staff with them.

Table 22: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.9.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	4	4.7	4.9	4.9
	Very rarely	23	26.7	28.4	33.3
	About half the time	21	24.4	25.9	59.3
	Very often	13	15.1	16.0	75.3
	Always	20	23.3	24.7	100.0
	Total	81	94.2	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.8		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (28.4%) followed by 25.9% which was ‘about half the time’ and 24.7% which was ‘always’.

4.10. Discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training.



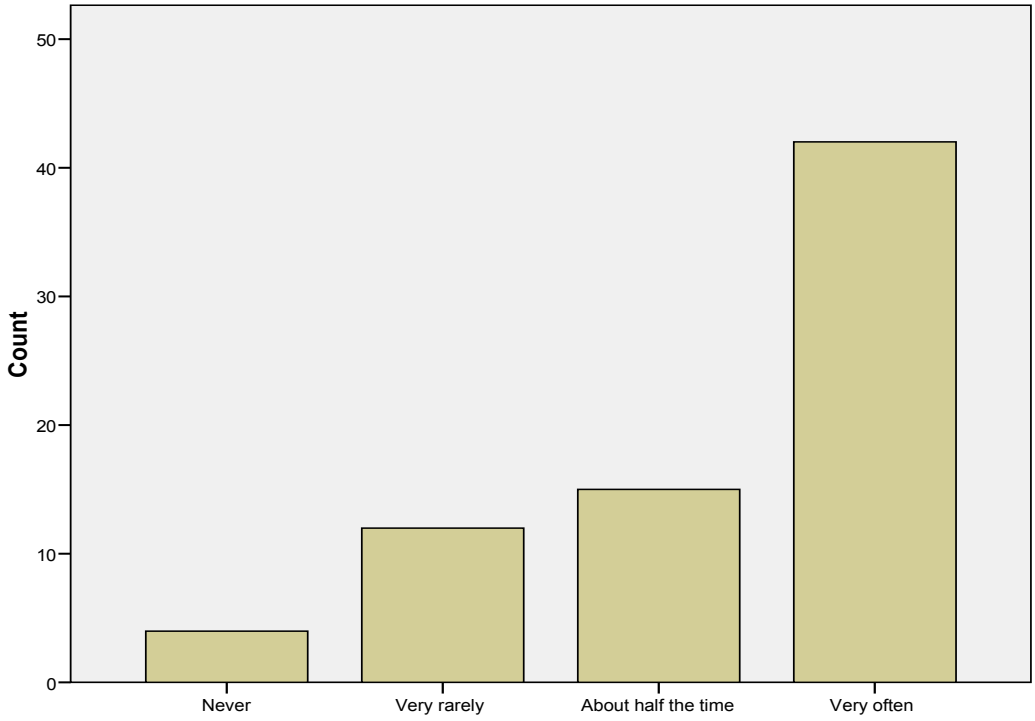
Discussion: Thirty two respondents 'very rarely' discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training, fifteen respondents stated that they 'always' discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training while fourteen indicated that they discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training either 'very often' or 'about half the time' and nine 'never' discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training.

Table 23: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.10.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	9	10.5	10.7	10.7
	Very rarely	32	37.2	38.1	48.8
	About half the time	14	16.3	16.7	65.5
	Very often	14	16.3	16.7	82.1
	Always	15	17.4	17.9	100.0
	Total	84	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.3		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (38.1%) followed by 17.9% which was ‘always’ and 16.7% which was ‘very often’ and ‘about half the time’.

4.11. Encourage staff to undergo training.



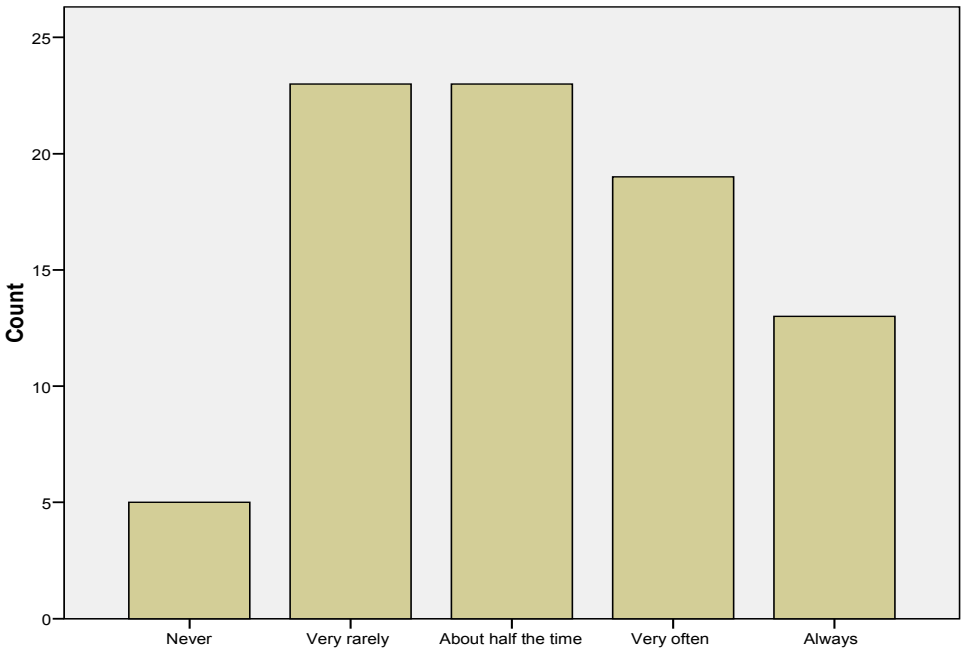
Discussion: Forty two respondents 'very often' encourage staff to undergo training, fifteen respondents indicated that they encourage staff to undergo training 'about half the time', twelve stated that they 'very rarely' encourage staff to undergo training and four 'never' encourage staff to undergo training.

Table 24: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.11.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	4	4.7	5.5	5.5
	Very rarely	12	14.0	16.4	21.9
	About half the time	15	17.4	20.5	42.5
	Very often	42	48.8	57.5	100.0
	Total	73	84.9	100.0	
Missing	System	13	15.1		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very often’ (57.5%) followed by 20.5% which was ‘about half the time’ and 16.4% which was ‘very rarely’.

4.12. Set work goals for staff.



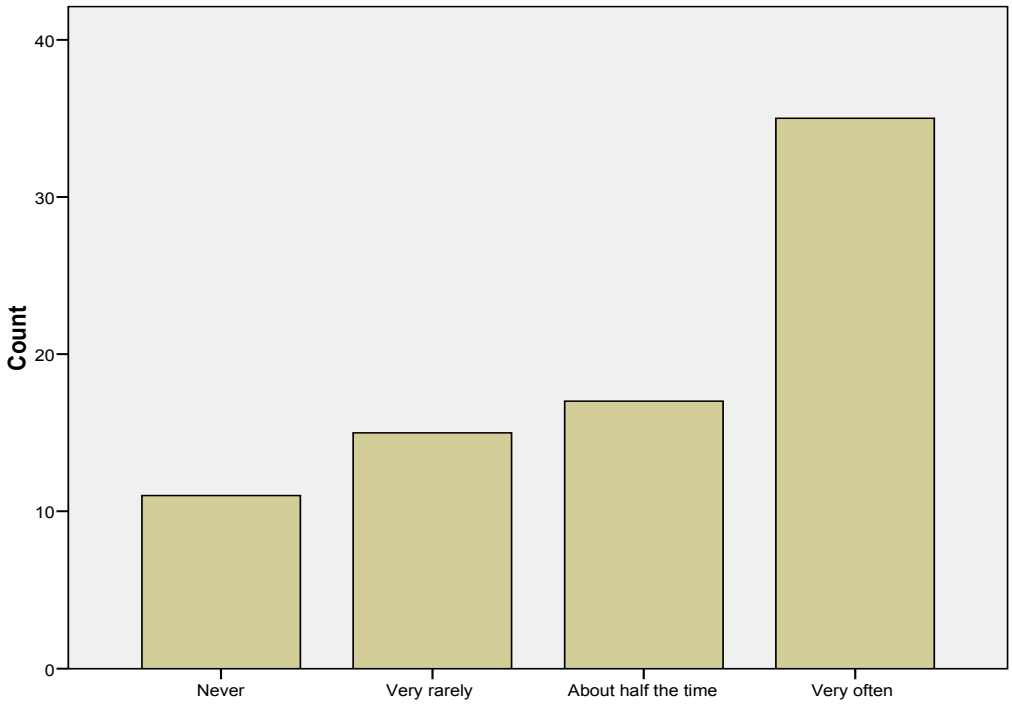
Discussion: Twenty three respondents stated that they either ‘very rarely’ or ‘about half the time’ set work goals for staff, nineteen stated that they ‘very often’ set work goals for staff, thirteen indicated that they ‘always’ set work goals for staff and five respondents ‘never’ set work goals for staff.

Table 25: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 4.12.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	5.8	6.0	6.0
	Very rarely	23	26.7	27.7	33.7
	About half the time	23	26.7	27.7	61.4
	Very often	19	22.1	22.9	84.3
	Always	13	15.1	15.7	100.0
	Total	83	96.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.5		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (27.7%) and ‘about half the time’ (27.7%) followed by 22.9% which was ‘very often’ and 15.7% which was ‘always’.

5.1. Fostering organisational communication.



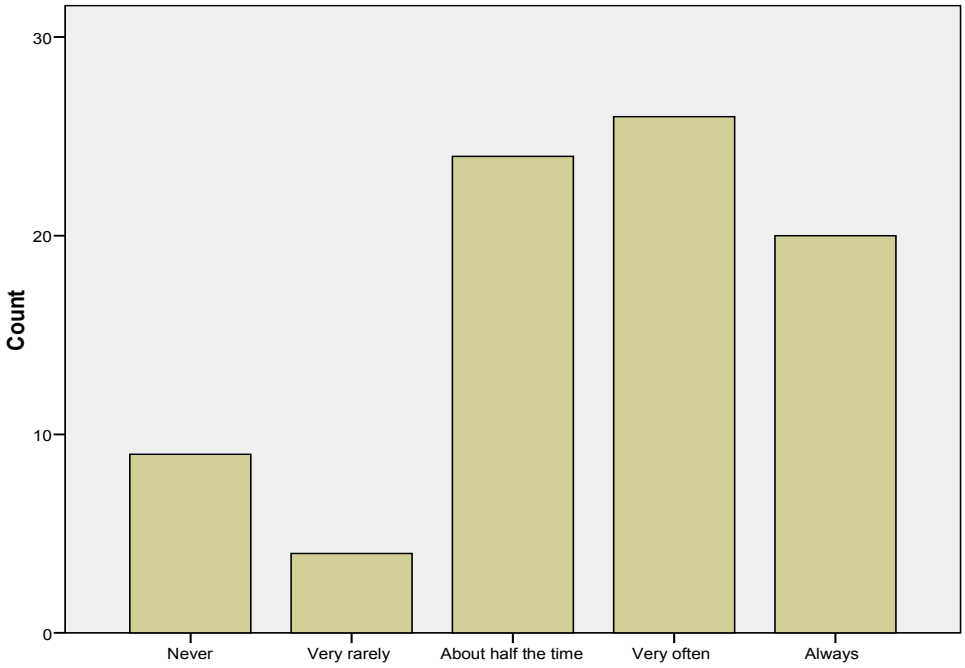
Discussion: Thirty five respondents stated that they 'very often' foster organisational communication, seventeen stated that they foster organisational communication 'about half the time' while fifteen indicated that they 'very rarely' foster organisational communication and eleven 'never' foster organisational communication.

Table 26: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.1.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	11	12.8	14.1	14.1
	Very rarely	15	17.4	19.2	33.3
	About half the time	17	19.8	21.8	55.1
	Very often	35	40.7	44.9	100.0
	Total	78	90.7	100.0	
Missing	System	8	9.3		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very often’ (44.9%) followed by 21.8% which was ‘about half the time’ and 19.2% which was ‘very rarely’.

5.2. Enhancing teamwork.



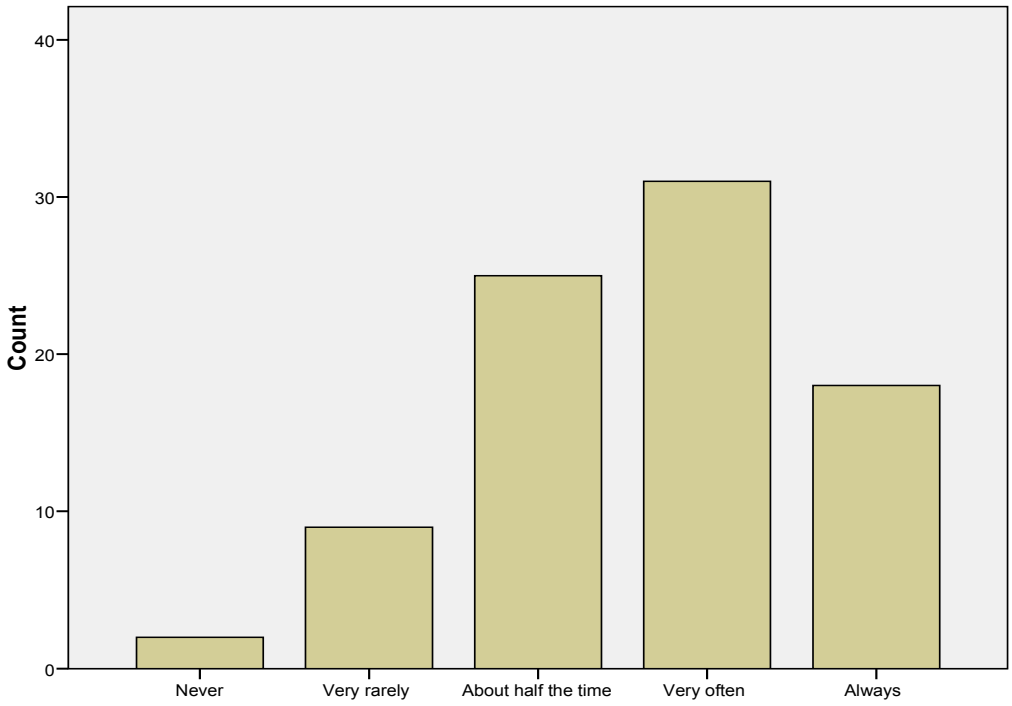
Discussion: Twenty six respondents stated that they 'very often' enhance teamwork, twenty four stated they enhance teamwork 'about half the time', twenty respondents indicated that they 'always' enhance teamwork, nine respondents stated that they 'never' enhance teamwork and four 'very rarely' enhance teamwork.

Table 27: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.2.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	9	10.5	10.8	10.8
	Very rarely	4	4.7	4.8	15.7
	About half the time	24	27.9	28.9	44.6
	Very often	26	30.2	31.3	75.9
	Always	20	23.3	24.1	100.0
	Total	83	96.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.5		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very often’ (31.3%) followed by 28.9% which was ‘about half the time’ and 24.1% which was ‘always’.

5.3. Motivating staff.



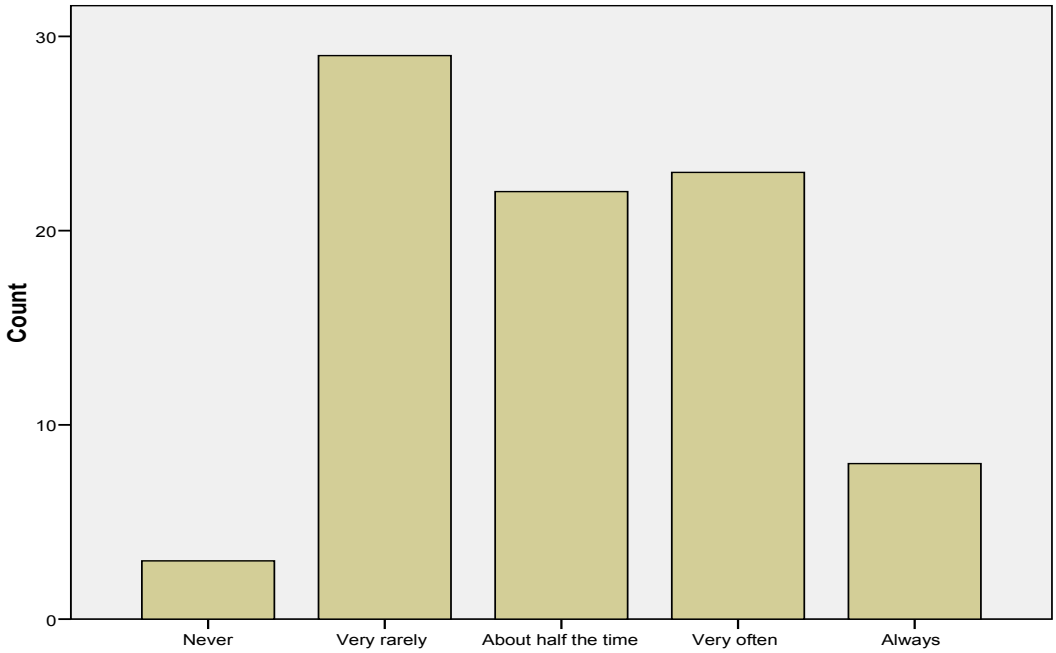
Discussion: Thirty one respondents stated that they 'very often' motivate staff, twenty five respondents indicated that they motivate staff 'about half the time', eighteen respondents stated that they 'always' motivate staff, nine stated that they 'very rarely' motivate staff and two respondents 'never' motivate staff.

Table 28: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.3.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	2	2.3	2.4	2.4
	Very rarely	9	10.5	10.6	12.9
	About half the time	25	29.1	29.4	42.4
	Very often	31	36.0	36.5	78.8
	Always	18	20.9	21.2	100.0
	Total	85	98.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very often’ (36.5%) followed by 29.4% which was ‘about half the time’ and 21.2% which was ‘always’.

5.4. Resolving conflict.



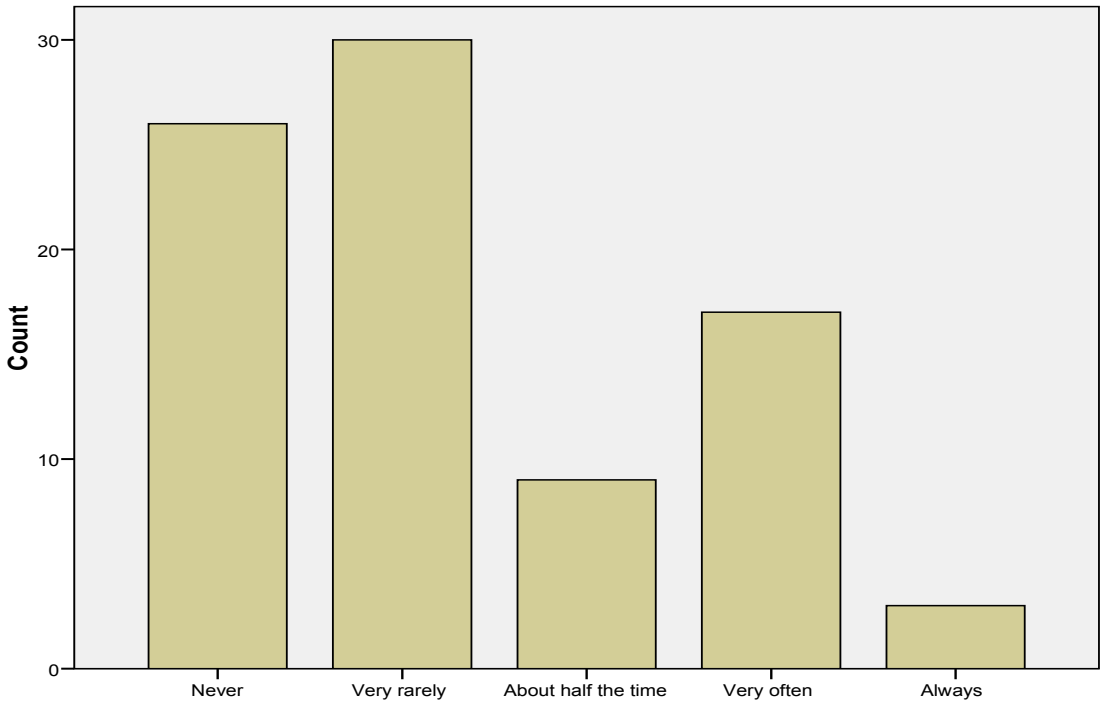
Discussion: Twenty nine respondents stated that they 'very rarely' resolve conflicts, twenty three respondents stated that they 'very often' resolve conflicts, twenty two respondents resolve conflicts 'about half the time', eight respondents stated that they 'always' resolve conflicts and three respondents 'never' resolve conflicts.

Table 29: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.4.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Very rarely	29	33.7	34.1	37.6
	About half the time	22	25.6	25.9	63.5
	Very often	23	26.7	27.1	90.6
	Always	8	9.3	9.4	100.0
	Total	85	98.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (34.1%) followed by 27.1% which was ‘very often’ and 25.9% which was ‘about half the time’.

5.5. Writing the vision and mission of the Library.



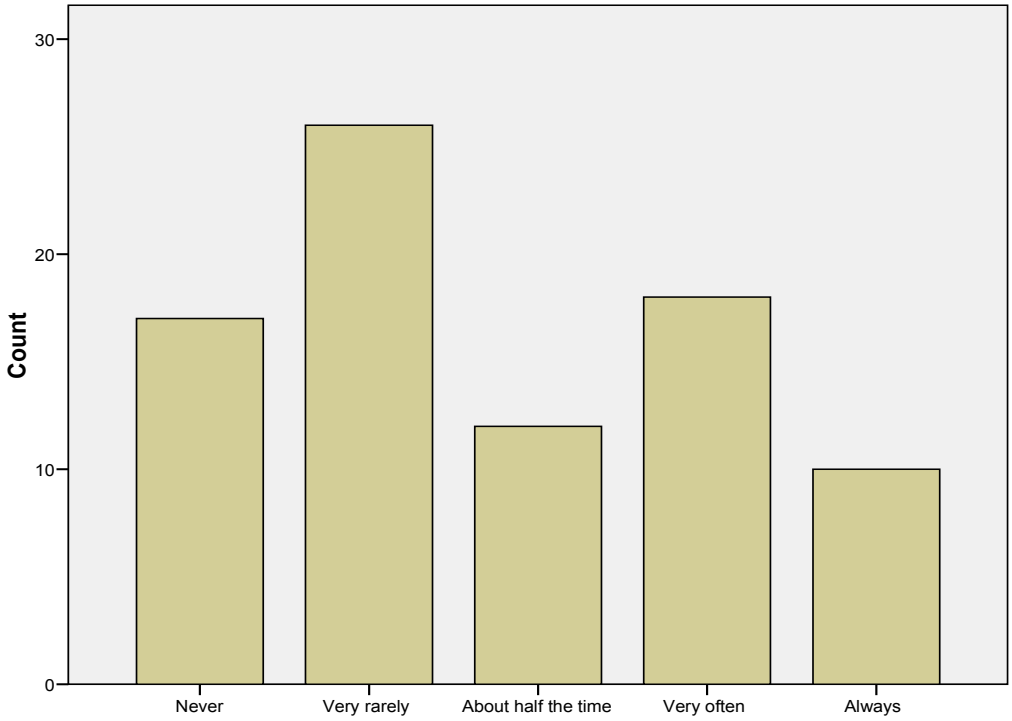
Discussion: Thirty respondents stated that they 'very rarely' write the vision and mission of the Library, twenty six respondents stated that they 'never' write the vision and mission of the Library, seventeen respondents 'very often' write the vision and mission of the Library, nine respondents write the vision and mission of the Library 'about half the time' and three 'always' write the vision and mission of the Library.

Table 30: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.5.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	26	30.2	30.6	30.6
	Very rarely	30	34.9	35.3	65.9
	About half the time	9	10.5	10.6	76.5
	Very often	17	19.8	20.0	96.5
	Always	3	3.5	3.5	100.0
	Total	85	98.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.2		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (35.3%) followed by 30.6% which was ‘never’ and 20% which was ’very often’.

5.6. Assisting with formulating of strategy for the Library.



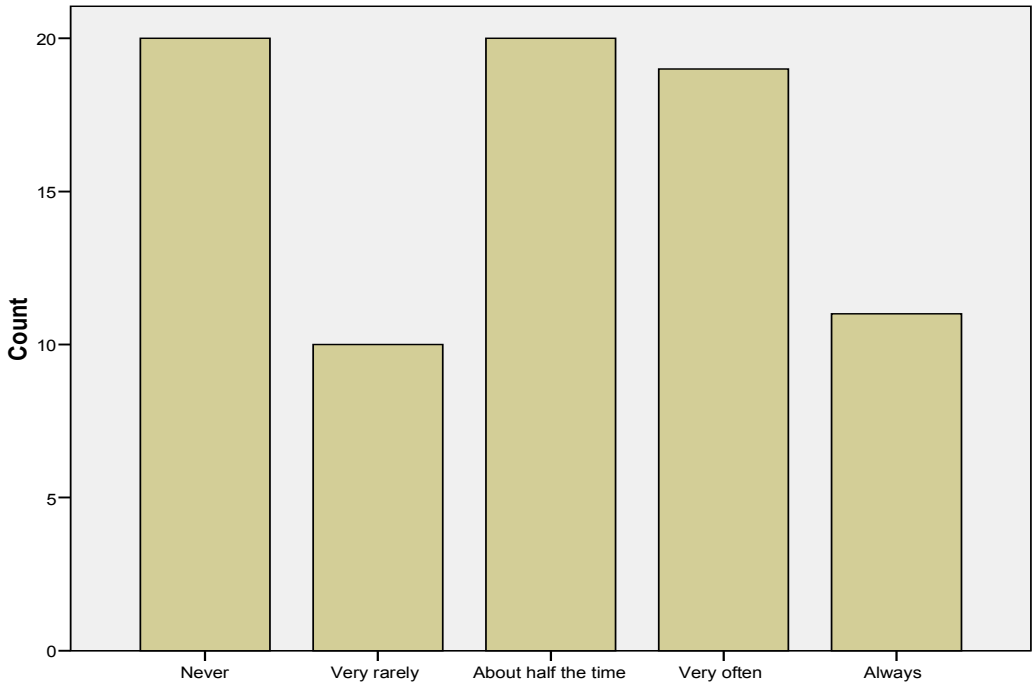
Discussion: Twenty six respondents 'very rarely' assist with formulating of strategy for the Library while eighteen respondents 'very often' assist with formulating of strategy for the Library, seventeen respondents 'never' assist with formulating of strategy for the Library, twelve respondents assist with formulating of strategy 'about half the time' and ten respondents 'always' assist with formulating of strategy for the Library.

Table 31: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.6.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	17	19.8	20.5	20.5
	Very rarely	26	30.2	31.3	51.8
	About half the time	12	14.0	14.5	66.3
	Very often	18	20.9	21.7	88.0
	Always	10	11.6	12.0	100.0
	Total	83	96.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.5		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘very rarely’ (31.3%) followed by 21.7% which was ‘very often’ and 20, 5% which was ‘never’.

5.7. Managing change in the Library.



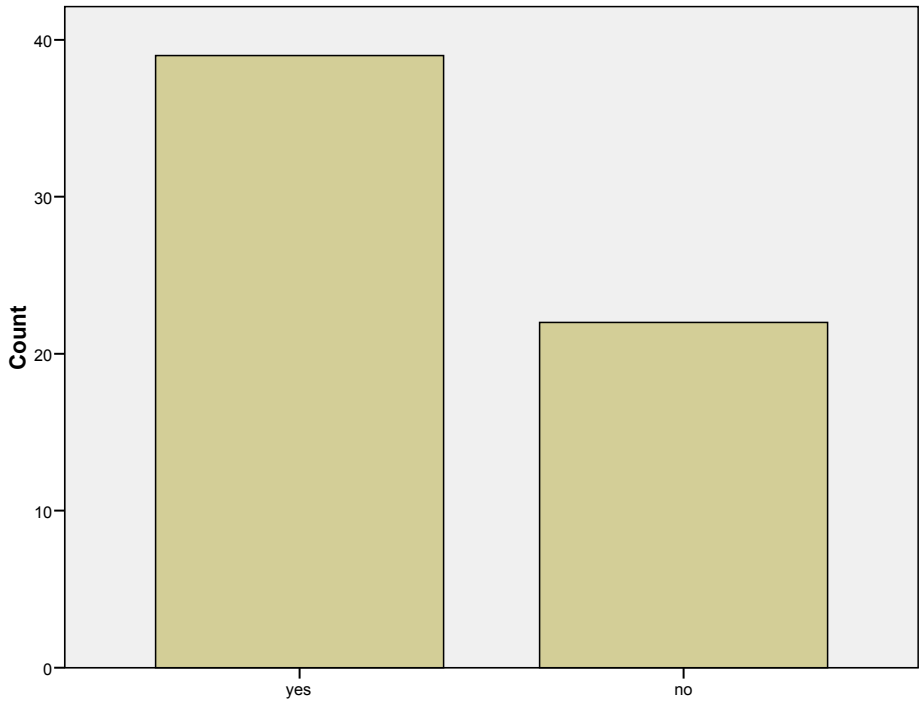
Discussion: Twenty respondents either ‘never’ or ‘about half the time’ manage change in the Library, nineteen respondents ‘very often’ manage change in the Library, while eleven respondents stated that they ‘always’ manage change in the Library and ten respondents ‘very rarely’ manage change in the Library.

Table 32: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.7.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	20	23.3	25.0	25.0
	Very rarely	10	11.6	12.5	37.5
	About half the time	20	23.3	25.0	62.5
	Very often	19	22.1	23.8	86.3
	Always	11	12.8	13.8	100.0
	Total	80	93.0	100.0	
Missing	System	6	7.0		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘never’ (25%) and ‘about half the time’ (25%) followed by 23.8% which was ‘very often’ and 13.8% which was ‘always’.

5.7.2. Were you involved with the planning of this project?



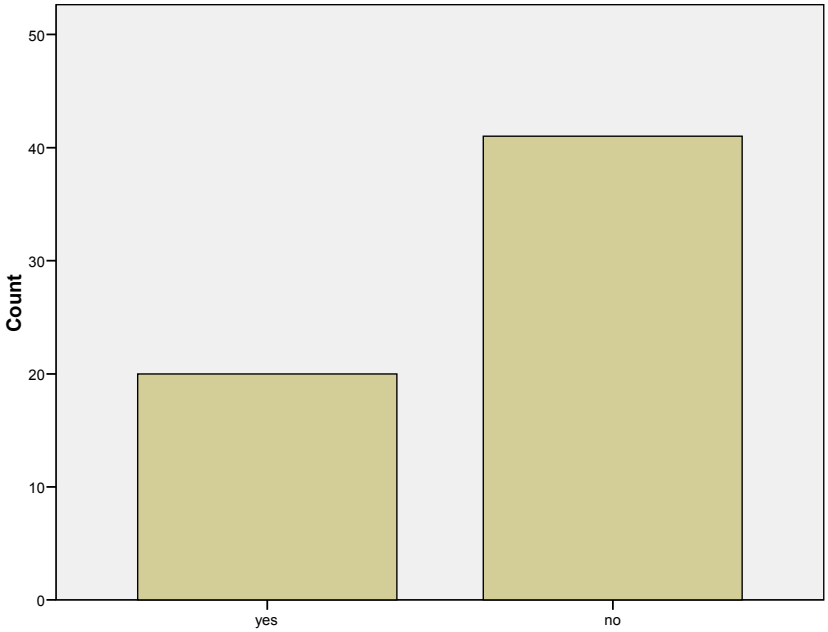
Discussion: Thirty nine respondents were involved with the planning of the project while twenty two were not involved with the planning of the project.

Table 33: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.7.2.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	39	45.3	63.9	63.9
	No	22	25.6	36.1	100.0
	Total	61	70.9	100.0	
Missing	System	25	29.1		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘yes’ (63.9%).

5.7.3. Were you given training to manage this change?



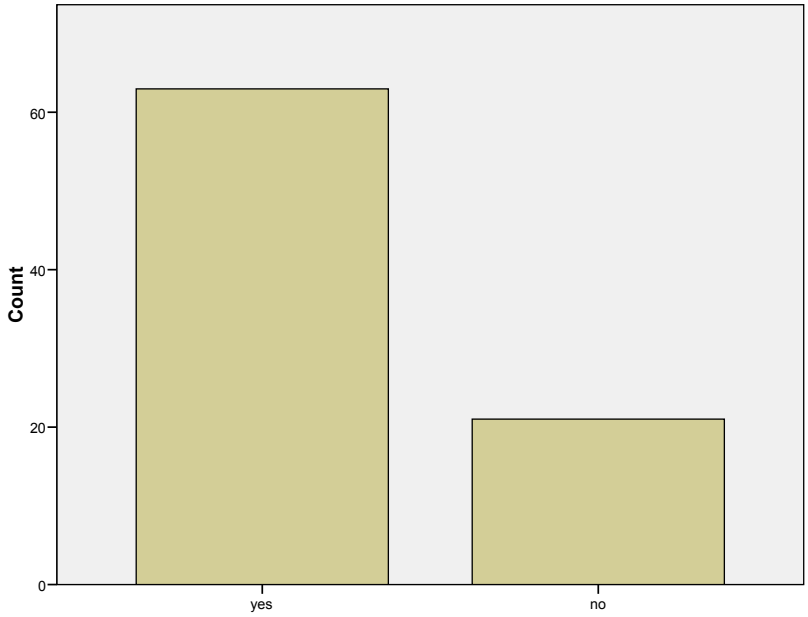
Discussion: Forty one respondents were not given training to manage this change while twenty respondents were given training to manage this change.

Table 34: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.7.3.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	20	23.3	32.8	32.8
	No	41	47.7	67.2	100.0
	Total	61	70.9	100.0	
Missing	System	25	29.1		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘no’ (67.2%).

5.8. Being aware of the global trends for Libraries?



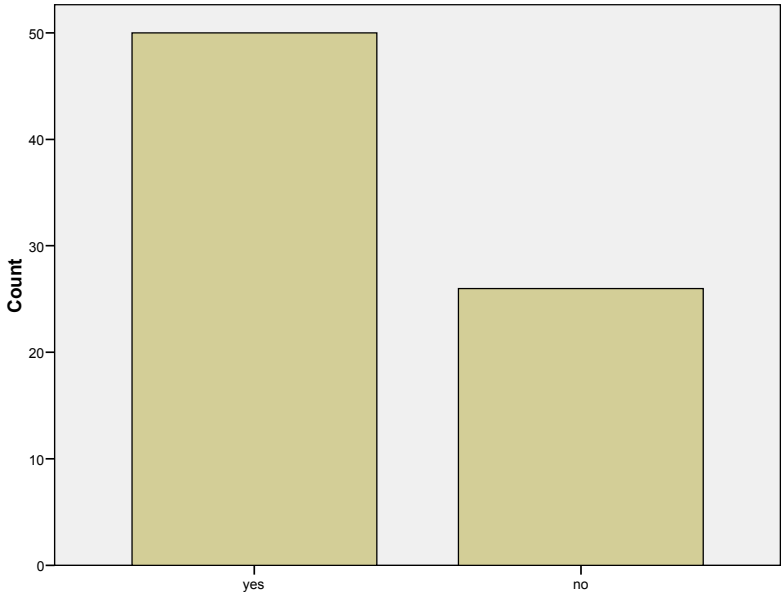
Discussion: Sixty three respondents are aware of the global trends for Libraries while twenty one respondents are unaware of the global trends for Libraries.

Table 35: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 5.8.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	63	73.3	75.0	75.0
	No	21	24.4	25.0	100.0
	Total	84	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	2.3		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘yes’ (75%).

6.1. Have you undertaken any training to develop new skills?



Discussion: Fifty respondents have undertaken training to develop new skills while twenty six respondents have not undertaken any training to develop new skills.

Table 36: Distribution of responses broken down by frequency and percentages for question 6.1.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	50	58.1	65.8	65.8
	No	26	30.2	34.2	100.0
	Total	76	88.4	100.0	
Missing	System	10	11.6		
Total		86	100.0		

The modal response was ‘yes’ (65.8%).

4.3. Descriptive statistics

	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Variance	Range	Minimum	Maximum
Position	2.0854	2.0000	2.00	.80433	.647	3.00	1.00	4.00
neweducat	2.6548	3.0000	3.00	.64926	.422	3.00	1.00	4.00
q3train	1.2459	1.0000	1.00	.43419	.189	1.00	1.00	2.00
q3require	1.3824	1.0000	1.00	.49327	.243	1.00	1.00	2.00
q4.1	2.9359	2.5000	2.00	1.45352	2.113	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.2	2.9647	3.0000	2.00	1.37535	1.892	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.3	2.8148	2.0000	2.00	1.31445	1.728	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.4	3.0366	3.0000	2.00	1.36486	1.863	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.5	3.0494	3.0000	2.00	1.39554	1.948	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.6	4.0135	4.0000	5.00	1.11642	1.246	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.7	3.7619	4.0000	5.00	1.14722	1.316	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.8	3.2619	3.0000	3.00	1.15246	1.328	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.9	3.2716	3.0000	2.00	1.25511	1.575	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.10	2.9286	3.0000	2.00	1.30602	1.706	4.00	1.00	5.00
q4.11	3.3014	4.0000	4.00	.93816	.880	3.00	1.00	4.00
q4.12	3.1446	3.0000	2.00(a)	1.17008	1.369	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.1	2.9744	3.0000	4.00	1.10459	1.220	3.00	1.00	4.00
q5.2	3.5301	4.0000	4.00	1.22312	1.496	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.3	3.6353	4.0000	4.00	1.01003	1.020	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.4	3.0471	3.0000	2.00	1.06800	1.141	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.5	2.3059	2.0000	2.00	1.20538	1.453	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.6	2.7349	2.0000	2.00	1.33512	1.783	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.7	2.8875	3.0000	1.00(a)	1.38704	1.924	4.00	1.00	5.00
q5.7.2	1.3607	1.0000	1.00	.48418	.234	1.00	1.00	2.00
q5.7.3	1.6721	2.0000	2.00	.47333	.224	1.00	1.00	2.00
q5.8	1.2500	1.0000	1.00	.43561	.190	1.00	1.00	2.00
q6.1	1.3421	1.0000	1.00	.47757	.228	1.00	1.00	2.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

The mean or the arithmetic mean is the sum of all the values divided by the sample size, the mode is the most frequent response given by the respondents and the median is the middle most value when the data (per variable/question) are arranged from highest to lowest. The sample variance is the degree or quantity by which each observation varies

one from another. The sample standard deviation is the square root of the sample variance. From the table above, the majority of the questions have modes of '2, 4 and 5' which are 'very rarely', 'very often' and 'always'. The standard deviations are consistently about '1' and this indicates good consistency between the observations due to the low variability. The mean and median values are consistent with modal values. The descriptive statistics will also serve to confirm the graphical statistics.

4.4. The Kolmogorv-Smirnov test

H_0: the tested variables come from a Normal distribution

H_1: the tested variables do not come from a Normal distribution

	Normal Parameters(a,b)		Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Position	2.0854	.80433	2.260	.000
neweducat	2.6548	.64926	3.711	.000
q3train	1.2459	.43419	3.659	.000
q3require	1.3824	.49327	2.324	.000
q4.1	2.9359	1.45352	2.121	.000
q4.2	2.9647	1.37535	2.112	.000
q4.3	2.8148	1.31445	2.147	.000
q4.4	3.0366	1.36486	2.060	.000
q4.5	3.0494	1.39554	2.410	.000
q4.6	4.0135	1.11642	2.167	.000
q4.7	3.7619	1.14722	1.845	.002
q4.8	3.2619	1.15246	1.697	.006
q4.9	3.2716	1.25511	1.604	.012
q4.10	2.9286	1.30602	2.287	.000
q4.11	3.3014	.93816	2.966	.000
q4.12	3.1446	1.17008	1.579	.014
q5.1	2.9744	1.10459	2.404	.000
q5.2	3.5301	1.22312	1.857	.002
q5.3	3.6353	1.01003	2.005	.001
q5.4	3.0471	1.06800	1.964	.001
q5.5	2.3059	1.20538	2.388	.000
q5.6	2.7349	1.33512	2.069	.000
q5.7	2.8875	1.38704	1.465	.027

q5.7.2	1.3607	.48418	3.211	.000
q5.7.3	1.6721	.47333	3.342	.000
q5.8	1.2500	.43561	4.280	.000
q6.1	1.3421	.47757	3.670	.000

At the 5% significance level, we reject H_0 for all of the questions and conclude that the tested variables do not come from a Normal distribution due to the p-values all being less than 0.05. The implication for this is that as far as the scores are concerned, we are required to use Non-parametric statistics. Tests such as the Mann-Whitney U test, chi-square and the Kruskal Wallis test will be used.

4.5. Reliability analysis

4.5.1. Cronbach's Alpha

Coakes and Steed (2003: 140) state that there are a number of different reliability coefficients. One of the most commonly used is the Cronbach's alpha, which is based on the average correlation of items within a test if the items are standardised. If the items are not standardised, it is based on the average covariance among the items. The Cronbach's Alpha can range from 0 to 1. Cronbach's alpha was also calculated as part of the reliability test to assess how consistent the results were and whether increasing the sample size will get similar results to generalise. A value of 0.7 or higher is a very good value, which means that if the survey was carried out with a larger sample of respondents, the same results would have been arrived at. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated for all the questions which have the same scales in each section, i.e. questions 4.1-5.7 (appendix 1) and then on questions 3.1-3.2, 5.7.2, 5.8 and 6.1 (appendix 1) and then overall. The results are as follows:

Reliability Statistics (4.1-5.7)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.935	19

Reliability Statistics(3.1-3.2, 5.7.2, 5.8 and 6.1)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.702	6

The Alpha values indicate that the data are reliable.

4.6. Testing for differences in position with respect to management competencies

i. Kruskal Wallis test

H_0: there are no differences in the management position group with respect to the management competencies.

H_1: there are differences in the management position group with respect to the management competencies.

Test Statistics (a,b)

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
q3train	13.442	3	.004
q3require	.157	3	.984
q4.1	7.207	3	.066
q4.2	5.162	3	.160
q4.3	5.314	3	.150
q4.4	4.793	3	.188
q4.5	2.578	3	.461
q4.6	1.735	3	.629
q4.7	12.475	3	.006
q4.8	4.992	3	.172
q4.9	1.000	3	.801

q4.10	1.022	3	.796
q4.11	.689	3	.876
q4.12	10.301	3	.016
q5.1	12.736	3	.005
q5.2	4.221	3	.239
q5.3	2.325	3	.508
q5.4	.229	3	.973
q5.5	8.271	3	.041
q5.6	13.955	3	.003
q5.7	18.540	3	.000
q5.7.2	12.402	3	.006
q5.7.3	4.481	3	.214
q5.8	5.864	3	.118
q6.1	5.042	3	.169

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Position

At the 5% significance level, we will reject H_0 for all of the questions whose p-values are less than 0.05 (shaded above in the table) i.e. questions 3a, 4.7, 4.12, 5.1, 5.5-5.7.2. (appendix 1) and conclude that for these questions there are differences in the management position group with respect to the management competencies whilst for the rest of the questions whose p-values are greater than 0.05 we will accept H_0 and conclude that there are no differences in the management position group with respect to the management competencies for these questions only.

ii. Kruskal Wallis test

H_0: there are no differences in the education group with respect to the management competencies.
H_1: there are differences in the education group with respect to the management competencies.

Test Statistics (a,b)

	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
q3train	6.135	3	.105
q3require	1.480	3	.687
q4.1	5.102	3	.164
q4.2	9.488	3	.023
q4.3	13.249	3	.004
q4.4	5.397	3	.145
q4.5	4.432	3	.218
q4.6	5.791	3	.122
q4.7	2.796	3	.424
q4.8	3.788	3	.285
q4.9	4.140	3	.247
q4.10	1.503	3	.681
q4.11	2.792	3	.425
q4.12	1.064	3	.786
q5.1	5.816	3	.121
q5.2	3.571	3	.312
q5.3	2.584	3	.460
q5.4	1.305	3	.728
q5.5	1.970	3	.579
q5.6	.434	3	.933
q5.7	8.402	3	.038
q5.7.2	19.710	3	.000
q5.7.3	3.116	3	.374
q5.8	4.451	3	.217
q6.1	1.023	3	.796

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: neweducat

At the 5% significance level, we will reject H_0 for all of the questions whose p-values are less than 0.05 (shaded above in the table) i.e. questions 4.2, 4.3, 5.7 and 5.7.2 (appendix 1) and conclude that for these questions there are differences in the education group with respect to the management attributes whilst for the rest of the questions whose p-values

are greater than 0.05 we will accept H_0 and conclude that there are no differences in the education group with respect to the management competencies for these questions only.

4.7. Hypotheses testing

In order to test the hypotheses, we make use of the one sample t-test i.e. if the null hypothesis is true then the responses should have a mean score of 1 = never and 2 = very rarely i.e. less than 2.5 and less than 3 to highlight the importance of a particular competency. Hence the mean scores of the particular competency is tested against mean values of less than 2.5 and less than 3.

Hypothesis 1: H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
q3train	1.4545	.52223	.15746
q3require	1.3636	.50452	.15212
q4.1	3.2222	1.51679	.35751
q4.2	2.6190	1.35927	.29662
q4.3	2.4211	1.34643	.30889
q4.4	2.7500	1.51744	.33931
q4.5	2.9500	1.31689	.29447
q4.6	3.7143	1.13873	.30434
q4.7	3.0500	1.14593	.25624
q4.8	3.1905	1.24976	.27272
q4.9	3.1579	1.21395	.27850
q4.10	3.0000	1.44914	.31623

q4.11	3.2857	.91387	.24424
q4.12	2.4000	.94032	.21026
q5.1	2.2105	1.13426	.26022
q5.2	3.0000	1.52177	.34028
q5.3	3.5238	.98077	.21402
q5.4	3.0952	.99523	.21718
q5.5	2.2381	1.37495	.30004
q5.6	2.4286	1.59911	.34895
q5.7	2.0000	1.27475	.30917
q5.72	1.5714	.51355	.13725
q5.73	1.8889	.33333	.11111
q5.8	1.3500	.48936	.10942
q6.1	1.5000	.51640	.12910

The descriptive statistics are highlighted in the above table. We now consider the results:

	Test value < 2.5			
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
q5.1	-1.112	18	0.8597	0.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values is greater than 0.05.

	Test value< 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.1	-3.034	18	.9964

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-value is greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 2: H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
q3train	1.2667	.44978	.08212
q3require	1.3750	.50000	.12500
q4.1	2.9444	1.43317	.23886
q4.2	3.0789	1.44037	.23366
q4.3	2.9737	1.32516	.21497
q4.4	3.0000	1.30931	.21822
q4.5	3.2432	1.49825	.24631
q4.6	4.0833	1.18019	.19670
q4.7	3.9737	1.17374	.19041
q4.8	3.1622	1.09325	.17973
q4.9	3.2162	1.33615	.21966
q4.10	2.7838	1.27225	.20916
q4.11	3.2571	1.01003	.17073
q4.12	3.4324	1.14359	.18801
q5.1	3.2286	.97274	.16442
q5.2	3.5000	1.20247	.19507
q5.3	3.6842	1.04248	.16911
q5.4	3.0789	1.17131	.19001
q5.5	2.1842	1.06175	.17224
q5.6	2.6667	1.17108	.19518
q5.7	2.8158	1.33265	.21618
q5.72	1.3200	.47610	.09522

q5.73	1.6071	.49735	.09399
q5.8	1.1842	.39286	.06373
q6.1	1.2500	.43916	.07319

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.1	4.4311	34	.000

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.1	1.3091	34	.0868

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 3: H_0. Communication competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Communication competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
q3train	1.0000	.00000(a)	.00000
q3require	1.4000	.54772	.24495
q4.1	2.9524	1.39557	.30454
q4.2	3.2609	1.21421	.25318
q4.3	2.9565	1.22394	.25521

q4.4	3.4783	1.30974	.27310
q4.5	2.9524	1.32198	.28848
q4.6	4.0952	1.04426	.22788
q4.7	4.0870	.90015	.18770
q4.8	3.6087	1.11759	.23303
q4.9	3.5000	1.22474	.26112
q4.10	3.1304	1.25424	.26153
q4.11	3.4286	.87014	.18988
q4.12	3.3043	1.22232	.25487
q5.1	3.2857	1.00712	.21977
q5.2	4.0000	.75593	.16116
q5.3	3.5652	1.03687	.21620
q5.4	2.9565	1.02151	.21300
q5.5	2.7391	1.21421	.25318
q5.6	3.3478	1.11227	.23193
q5.7	3.8261	.93673	.19532
q5.72	1.1579	.37463	.08595
q5.73	1.6190	.49761	.10859
q5.8	1.2174	.42174	.08794
q6.1	1.4091	.50324	.10729

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.1	3.5751	20	.001

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.1	1.3001	20	.1042

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 4: H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-0.20	20	.580
q5.7	-1.617	16	.937
q5.7.2	-6.77	13	1.00
q5.7.3	-5.55	8	.997

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-1.637	20	0.9414
q5.7	-3.234	16	0.9974
q5.7.2	-10.00	13	1.000
q5.7.3	-15.078	8	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 5: H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	0.8539	35	0.1995
q5.7	1.4607	37	0.0763
q5.7.2	-12.3925	24	1.000
q5.7.3	-9.4995	27	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-1.7078	35	0.9517
q5.7	-0.8521	37	0.8002
q5.72	-17.6435	24	1.000
q5.73	-14.8192	27	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05

Hypothesis 6: H_0. Planning and administration competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Planning and administration competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	3.6556	22	.000
q5.7	6.7892	22	.000
q5.72	-15.6155	18	1.000
q5.73	-8.1128	20	1.000

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05 except for questions 5.7.2 and 5.7.3

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	1.4997	22	.073
q5.7	4.2293	22	.000
q5.7.2	-21.4330	18	1.000
q5.7.3	-12.7173	20	1.00

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05 except for question 5.7

Hypothesis 7: H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for first line managers

H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

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	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.2	1.4694	19	.00794

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are less than 0.05

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.2	0.000	19	.50

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05

Hypothesis 8: H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.2	5.13	37	.000

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.2	2.56	37	.007

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

Hypothesis 9: H_0. Teamwork competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Teamwork competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.2	9.3073	21	.000

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.2	6.2048	21	.000

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

Hypothesis 10: H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-0.20	20	.580

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-1.64	20	.941

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 11: H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	0.8539	35	0.1995

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-1.7078	35	0.9517

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 12: H_0. Strategic action competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Strategic action competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	3.6556	22	.000

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 since the p-values are all less than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.6	-12.7173	20	1.00

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 13: H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.8	-10.5095	19	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.8	-15.0789	19	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 14: H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for middle managers

H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

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	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.8	-20.65	37	1.00

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.8	-28.49	37	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 15: H_0. Global awareness competency is not required for managing change for senior managers.

H_1. Global awareness competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.8	-14.5852	22	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q5.8	-20.2709	22	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 16: H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for first line managers.

H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for first line managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q6.1	-7.746	15	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

	Test value <3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q61	-11.619	15	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 17: H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for middle managers.

H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for middle managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q6.1	-17.0783	35	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q6.1	-23.9096	35	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are all greater than 0.05.

Hypothesis 18: H_0. Self-management competency is not required for managing change for senior managers

H_1. Self-management competency is required for managing change for senior managers.

	Test value < 2.5		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q6.1	-10.1678	21	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05

	Test value < 3		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
q6.1	-14.8281	21	1.000

At the 5% level we will accept H_0 since the p-values are greater than 0.05

4.8. The differences between different managerial levels

The one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the type of manager level, i.e. senior manager, middle manager and first line manager will be used to check for differences in their mean scores with respect to the managerial competencies. This will determine exactly where the different type of managers differ with respect to the different competencies.

H_0: there is no difference amongst the senior manager, middle manager and first line manager mean scores with respect to managerial competencies.

H_1: there is a difference amongst the senior manager, middle manager and first line manager mean scores with respect to managerial competencies.

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
q3train	Between Groups	1.441	2	.721	4.528	.015
	Within Groups	8.594	54	.159		
	Total	10.035	56			
q3require	Between Groups	.005	2	.002	.009	.991
	Within Groups	6.962	27	.258		
	Total	6.967	29			
q4.1	Between Groups	.945	2	.473	.228	.797
	Within Groups	145.000	70	2.071		
	Total	145.945	72			
q4.2	Between Groups	4.114	2	2.057	1.127	.329
	Within Groups	136.873	75	1.825		
	Total	140.987	77			
q4.3	Between Groups	4.525	2	2.262	1.333	.270
	Within Groups	125.605	74	1.697		
	Total	130.130	76			
q4.4	Between Groups	5.089	2	2.545	1.339	.268
	Within Groups	138.700	73	1.900		
	Total	143.789	75			
q4.5	Between Groups	1.981	2	.991	.490	.615
	Within Groups	145.539	72	2.021		
	Total	147.520	74			
q4.6	Between Groups	1.448	2	.724	.544	.583
	Within Groups	86.552	65	1.332		
	Total	88.000	67			
q4.7	Between Groups	15.594	2	7.797	6.417	.003
	Within Groups	91.124	75	1.215		
	Total	106.718	77			
q4.8	Between Groups	4.150	2	2.075	1.581	.213
	Within Groups	98.465	75	1.313		
	Total	102.615	77			
q4.9	Between Groups	1.587	2	.793	.478	.622
	Within Groups	119.533	72	1.660		
	Total	121.120	74			
q4.10	Between Groups	1.859	2	.930	.525	.594
	Within Groups	132.820	75	1.771		
	Total	134.679	77			
q4.11	Between Groups	.209	2	.105	.112	.894

	Within Groups	59.821	64	.935		
	Total	60.030	66			
q4.12	Between Groups	13.933	2	6.966	5.577	.006
	Within Groups	92.431	74	1.249		
	Total	106.364	76			
q5.1	Between Groups	16.393	2	8.196	8.125	.001
	Within Groups	69.607	69	1.009		
	Total	86.000	71			
q5.2	Between Groups	9.037	2	4.519	3.125	.050
	Within Groups	108.450	75	1.446		
	Total	117.487	77			
q5.3	Between Groups	.437	2	.218	.229	.796
	Within Groups	72.399	76	.953		
	Total	72.835	78			
q5.4	Between Groups	.275	2	.137	.119	.888
	Within Groups	87.523	76	1.152		
	Total	87.797	78			
q5.5	Between Groups	4.502	2	2.251	1.595	.210
	Within Groups	107.270	76	1.411		
	Total	111.772	78			
q5.6	Between Groups	13.312	2	6.656	4.032	.022
	Within Groups	122.143	74	1.651		
	Total	135.455	76			
q5.7	Between Groups	26.756	2	13.378	8.926	.000
	Within Groups	107.911	72	1.499		
	Total	134.667	74			
q5.7.2	Between Groups	1.581	2	.791	3.940	.025
	Within Groups	10.633	53	.201		
	Total	12.214	55			
q5.7.3	Between Groups	.658	2	.329	1.430	.248
	Within Groups	12.199	53	.230		
	Total	12.857	55			
q5.8	Between Groups	.484	2	.242	1.418	.249
	Within Groups	12.811	75	.171		
	Total	13.295	77			
q6.1	Between Groups	.911	2	.456	2.002	.143
	Within Groups	15.700	69	.228		
	Total	16.611	71			

At the 5% level we will reject H_0 for the questions whose p-values are all less than 0.05. They are shaded in the above table. The senior, middle and first line managers differ with respect to their managerial competencies with respect to questions: 3a, 4.7, 4.12, 5.1, 5.6, 5.7 and 5.7.2. These are:

Question 3. Have you had any management training? (e.g. a management degree, a management diploma, attended management courses or attended management workshops).

Question 4.7. Make decisions.

Question 4.12. Set work goals for staff.

Question 5.1. Fostering organisational communication.

Question 5.6. Assisting with formulating of strategy for the Library.

Question 5.7. Managing change in the Library.

Question 5.7.2. Were you involved with the planning of this project?

However, since their p-values are greater than 0.05 for the rest of the questions, we will accept H_0 and conclude there is no difference amongst the senior manager, middle manager and first line manager mean scores with respect to these managerial competencies.

One now needs to ascertain exactly where the differences lie for questions q3a, q4.7, 4.12, 5.1, 5.6, 5.7 and 5.7.2. In order to find this out a multiple comparisons test needs to be performed using the Least Squared Differences (LSD) method. The results are as follows:

Multiple Comparisons

LSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Position	(J) Position	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
q3train	Senior manager	Middle manager	-.26667(*)	.12350	.035
		First line manager	-.45455(*)	.15625	.005
	Middle manager	Senior manager	.26667(*)	.12350	.035
		First line manager	-.18788	.14062	.187
	First line manager	Senior manager	.45455(*)	.15625	.005
		Middle manager	.18788	.14062	.187
q4.7	Senior manager	Middle manager	.22632	.30450	.460
		First line manager	1.15000(*)	.34857	.001
	Middle manager	Senior manager	-.22632	.30450	.460
		First line manager	.92368(*)	.30450	.003
	First line manager	Senior manager	-1.15000(*)	.34857	.001
		Middle manager	-.92368(*)	.30450	.003
q4.12	Senior manager	Middle manager	-.28243	.31018	.365
		First line manager	.75000(*)	.35342	.037
	Middle manager	Senior manager	.28243	.31018	.365
		First line manager	1.03243(*)	.31018	.001
	First line manager	Senior manager	-.75000(*)	.35342	.037
		Middle manager	-1.03243(*)	.31018	.001
q5.1	Senior manager	Middle manager	.16032	.29132	.584
		First line manager	1.17836(*)	.33036	.001
	Middle manager	Senior manager	-.16032	.29132	.584
		First line manager	1.01805(*)	.28621	.001
	First line manager	Senior manager	-1.17836(*)	.33036	.001
		Middle manager	-1.01805(*)	.28621	.001
q5.6	Senior manager	Middle manager	.83333(*)	.35830	.023
		First line manager	1.07143(*)	.40141	.009
	Middle manager	Senior manager	-.83333(*)	.35830	.023
		First line manager	.23810	.35277	.502
	First line manager	Senior manager	-1.07143(*)	.40141	.009
		Middle manager	-.23810	.35277	.502
q5.7	Senior manager	Middle manager	.88421(*)	.33820	.011
		First line manager	1.70000(*)	.40386	.000
	Middle manager	Senior manager	-.88421(*)	.33820	.011
		First line manager	.81579(*)	.35722	.025

	First line manager	Senior manager	-1.70000(*)	.40386	.000
		Middle manager	-.81579(*)	.35722	.025
q5.7.2	Senior manager	Middle manager	-.20235	.14081	.157
		First line manager	-.45378(*)	.16165	.007
	Middle manager	Senior manager	.20235	.14081	.157
		First line manager	-.25143	.14952	.099
	First line manager	Senior manager	.45378(*)	.16165	.007
		Middle manager	.25143	.14952	.099

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The exact differences within the managerial group are read off from the table where the p-values of the comparisons are less than 0.05 (shaded in the above table). The exact difference can also be seen in the cross tabulations of the above mentioned questions. The cross tabulations are as follows:

q3train * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q3train	yes	Count	16	22	6	0	44
		% within q3train	36.4%	50.0%	13.6%	.0%	100.0%
	no	Count	0	8	5	2	15
		% within q3train	.0%	53.3%	33.3%	13.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	16	30	11	2	59
		% within q3train	27.1%	50.8%	18.6%	3.4%	100.0%

q4.7 * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q4.7	Never	Count	0	1	2	0	3
		% within q4.7	.0%	33.3%	66.7%	.0%	100.0%
	Very rarely	Count	1	5	4	0	10
		% within q4.7	10.0%	50.0%	40.0%	.0%	100.0%
	About half the time	Count	3	5	7	2	17
		% within q4.7	17.6%	29.4%	41.2%	11.8%	100.0%
	Very often	Count	7	10	5	1	23
		% within q4.7	30.4%	43.5%	21.7%	4.3%	100.0%
	Always	Count	9	17	2	0	28
		% within q4.7	32.1%	60.7%	7.1%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	20	38	20	3	81
		% within q4.7	24.7%	46.9%	24.7%	3.7%	100.0%

q4.12 * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q4.12	Never	Count	1	1	3	0	5
		% within q4.12	20.0%	20.0%	60.0%	.0%	100.0%
	Very rarely	Count	6	8	9	0	23
		% within q4.12	26.1%	34.8%	39.1%	.0%	100.0%
	About half the time	Count	6	10	5	2	23
		% within q4.12	26.1%	43.5%	21.7%	8.7%	100.0%
	Very often	Count	3	10	3	1	17
		% within q4.12	17.6%	58.8%	17.6%	5.9%	100.0%
	Always	Count	4	8	0	0	12
		% within q4.12	33.3%	66.7%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	20	37	20	3	80
		% within q4.12	25.0%	46.3%	25.0%	3.8%	100.0%

q5.1 * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q5.1	Never	Count	1	3	6	0	10
		% within q5.1	10.0%	30.0%	60.0%	.0%	100.0%
	Very rarely	Count	2	4	7	2	15
		% within q5.1	13.3%	26.7%	46.7%	13.3%	100.0%
	About half the time	Count	4	10	2	0	16
		% within q5.1	25.0%	62.5%	12.5%	.0%	100.0%
	Very often	Count	11	18	4	1	34
		% within q5.1	32.4%	52.9%	11.8%	2.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	18	35	19	3	75
		% within q5.1	24.0%	46.7%	25.3%	4.0%	100.0%

q5.6 * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q5.6	Never	Count	0	6	8	3	17
		% within q5.6	.0%	35.3%	47.1%	17.6%	100.0%
	Very rarely	Count	5	13	6	0	24
		% within q5.6	20.8%	54.2%	25.0%	.0%	100.0%
	About half the time	Count	4	5	2	0	11
		% within q5.6	36.4%	45.5%	18.2%	.0%	100.0%
	Very often	Count	7	11	0	0	18
		% within q5.6	38.9%	61.1%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	Always	Count	4	1	5	0	10
		% within q5.6	40.0%	10.0%	50.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	20	36	21	3	80
		% within q5.6	25.0%	45.0%	26.3%	3.8%	100.0%

q5.7 * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q5.7	Never	Count	0	9	9	2	20
		% within q5.7	.0%	45.0%	45.0%	10.0%	100.0%
	Very rarely	Count	3	5	2	0	10
		% within q5.7	30.0%	50.0%	20.0%	.0%	100.0%
	About half the time	Count	3	13	4	0	20
		% within q5.7	15.0%	65.0%	20.0%	.0%	100.0%
	Very often	Count	11	6	1	0	18
		% within q5.7	61.1%	33.3%	5.6%	.0%	100.0%
	Always	Count	3	5	1	0	9
		% within q5.7	33.3%	55.6%	11.1%	.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	20	38	17	2	77
		% within q5.7	26.0%	49.4%	22.1%	2.6%	100.0%

q5.7.2 * Position Cross-tabulation

			Position				
			Senior manager	Middle manager	First line manager	Other	Total
q5.7.2	yes	Count	15	17	6	0	38
		% within q5.7.2	39.5%	44.7%	15.8%	.0%	100.0%
	no	Count	2	8	8	3	21
		% within q5.7.2	9.5%	38.1%	38.1%	14.3%	100.0%
Total		Count	17	25	14	3	59
		% within q5.7.2	28.8%	42.4%	23.7%	5.1%	100.0%

4.9. Descriptive statistics for the different managerial levels

	First Line Managers		Middle Managers		Senior Managers	
	Mean	Mode	Mean	Mode	Mean	Mode
neweducat	2.6190	3.00	2.6053	3.00	2.7727	3.00
q3train	1.4545	1.00	1.2667	1.00	1.0000	1.00
q3require	1.3636	1.00	1.3750	1.00	1.4000	1.00
q4.1	3.2222	2.00(a)	2.9444	2.00	2.9524	4.00
q4.2	2.6190	2.00	3.0789	2.00	3.2609	4.00
q4.3	2.4211	2.00	2.9737	2.00	2.9565	4.00
q4.4	2.7500	2.00	3.0000	2.00	3.4783	3.00(a)
q4.5	2.9500	2.00	3.2432	5.00	2.9524	2.00
q4.6	3.7143	4.00	4.0833	5.00	4.0952	4.00
q4.7	3.0500	3.00	3.9737	5.00	4.0870	5.00
q4.8	3.1905	3.00	3.1622	3.00(a)	3.6087	3.00
q4.9	3.1579	2.00	3.2162	3.00	3.5000	2.00
q4.10	3.0000	2.00	2.7838	2.00	3.1304	2.00
q4.11	3.2857	4.00	3.2571	4.00	3.4286	4.00
q4.12	2.4000	2.00	3.4324	3.00(a)	3.3043	2.00(a)
q5.1	2.2105	2.00	3.2286	4.00	3.2857	4.00
q5.2	3.0000	4.00	3.5000	3.00	4.0000	4.00
q5.3	3.5238	4.00	3.6842	3.00	3.5652	4.00
q5.4	3.0952	2.00(a)	3.0789	2.00	2.9565	2.00
q5.5	2.2381	1.00	2.1842	2.00	2.7391	2.00
q5.6	2.4286	1.00	2.6667	2.00	3.3478	2.00(a)
q5.7	2.0000	1.00	2.8158	3.00	3.8261	4.00
q5.7.2	1.5714	2.00	1.3200	1.00	1.1579	1.00
q5.7.3	1.8889	2.00	1.6071	2.00	1.6190	2.00
q5.8	1.3500	1.00	1.1842	1.00	1.2174	1.00
q6.1	1.5000	1.00(a)	1.2500	1.00	1.4091	1.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

Notice the differences in the modes for questions in the above table. These are difference in competencies that are considered to be important to managers. For example, questions 4.1-4.9, 5.1-5.2 and 5.7.

4.10. Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a data reduction technique used to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set of underlying factors that summarise the essential information contained in the variables. This is a relevant statistical tool that can be used to check what factors are influencing managerial competencies.

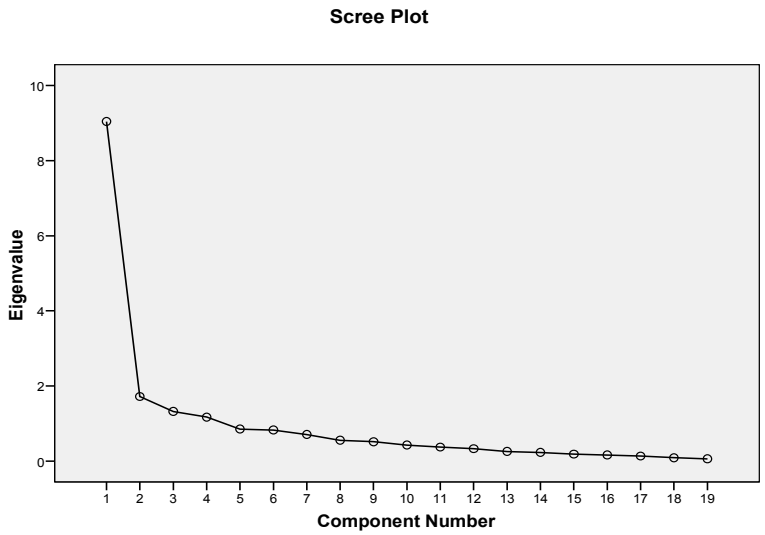
The following table shows the amount of variation of the clustering of questions in factors. In keeping with factor analysis statistics the first factor always accounts for the most amount of variation followed by the second factor and so on.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.041	47.586	47.586	9.041	47.586	47.586	4.061	21.372	21.372
2	1.720	9.053	56.639	1.720	9.053	56.639	3.917	20.616	41.988
3	1.324	6.970	63.609	1.324	6.970	63.609	3.287	17.302	59.290
4	1.173	6.172	69.781	1.173	6.172	69.781	1.993	10.491	69.781
5	.855	4.500	74.281						
6	.830	4.366	78.647						
7	.710	3.739	82.386						
8	.559	2.941	85.327						
9	.518	2.725	88.052						
10	.429	2.257	90.309						
11	.376	1.978	92.286						
12	.333	1.751	94.038						
13	.258	1.360	95.397						
14	.233	1.227	96.625						
15	.187	.985	97.610						
16	.165	.866	98.476						
17	.136	.717	99.194						
18	.091	.479	99.673						
19	.062	.327	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The following graph demonstrates the first four factors from the above table with eigenvalues above 1.



Factor analysis was carried out in this study as an exploratory tool in order to reduce a set of items to a smaller set that adequately explains the data and could account for being a set of sub constructs. The Principal Components method was used with varimax rotation.

From the above table, the cumulative variance that 4 factors are explaining is 69.781%. Furthermore all of these 4 factors have eigenvalues over 1. The scree plot also confirms the existence of the 4 factors. The first factor accounts for 47.586% of the variation. This is normally the case in factor analysis. The rotated loadings table demonstrates which questions are not loading at all on the factors and could hence be eliminated from the data set and then re-run the factor analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix(a)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
q4.3	.841	.243	.219	.139
q4.2	.813	.268	.316	.077
q4.5	.728	.357	.293	-.183
q4.1	.713	-.016	.296	.345
q4.4	.615	.158	.105	.420
q5.7	.477	.296	.084	.411
q5.3	.099	.817	.156	.341
q5.2	.071	.734	.181	.456
q4.11	.092	.729	.283	.122
q4.9	.493	.717	.320	.032
q4.10	.355	.712	.212	.099
q4.12	.465	.607	.260	.035
q4.7	.237	.205	.848	.096
q4.6	.187	.342	.748	.235
q5.1	.208	.279	.712	.126
q4.8	.255	.201	.579	.002
q5.6	.427	.008	.489	.294
q5.4	.233	.333	.074	.748
q5.5	.062	.178	.481	.626

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Kline (1994: 6) suggests that a factor loading of 0.3 or greater can be considered to be significant. Given the large number of items in the scale, it is advisable to adopt the principle of factor loadings of 0.4 or higher to be significant, otherwise the number of items in the data set will not be reduced and the key reason/purpose of Factor analysis, which is to REDUCE the number of items to a comprehensible set of items, will be defeated.

From the above rotated component matrix, none of the questions have loadings that are less than 0.4 and none of the questions will be dropped from the data set for a re-run with factor analysis.

4.10.1. Factor groups

Factor 1: Primary level skills

QUESTION NUMBER	QUESTION
4.3	Write job specifications
4.2	Perform job analysis
4.5	Perform staff appraisal
4.1	Write job descriptions
4.4	Undertake recruitment and selection of staff
5.7	Managing change in the Library

Factor 2: Relationship skills

QUESTION NUMBER	QUESTION
5.3	Motivating staff
5.2	Enhancing teamwork
4.11	Encourage staff to undergo training
4.9	Discuss the training and development needs of staff with them
4.10	Discuss the training and development needs of staff with person responsible for training
4.12	Set work goals for staff

Factor 3: Strategic skills

QUESTION NUMBER	QUESTION
4.7	Make decisions
4.6	Solve problems
5.1	Fostering organisational communication
5.6	Assisting with formulating of strategy for the Library

Factor 4: General management skills

QUESTION NUMBER	QUESTION
5.4	Resolving conflict
5.5	Writing the vision and mission of the Library

4.11. Conclusion

The results of the study have been presented in this chapter and it is evident that the distribution of the perceptions of the managers indicate a roughly even to slightly skew distribution of responses that range from about 'very rarely' (30%), 'about half the time' (20%) and 'always' (20%) . It is clear that not all levels of managers consider certain competencies to be significant enough to practise them or to see the necessity of them.

The hypotheses indicate that there is not enough statistical evidence that the managerial competencies are considered mandatory for managers. The descriptive statistics show that most of the mean scores for the senior, middle and first-line managers range from 2 to 3 interpreted as from 'very rarely' to 'about half the time'.

There are also some definite areas of differences amongst the senior, middle and first line managers. Some of these differences include:

- Management training
- Decision making
- Setting of work goals for staff
- Fostering organisational communication
- Assisting with formulating of strategy for the library
- Managing change in the library
- Involvement with the planning of the project.

The responses to the managerial competencies were according to the Factor analysis grouped into four factors in order of importance that included:

- Primary level skills
- Relationship skills
- Strategic skills
- General management skills.

The conclusions of the study will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

University libraries are operating in an era of increasing competitiveness, limited resources, a need for greater accountability, and a technologically astute and demanding user population. While these broad issues have a direct impact on the human resource needs of libraries, organisational changes, such as greater use of teams in decision making, matrix organisational structures and the computerisation of libraries have led to increasing complexity associated with managing human resources issues and change in university libraries.

In the introductory chapter of this study it was explained that library managers in university libraries are not prepared to manage change. Sullivan (1999: 73) states that leadership in libraries needs to transform. This requires a new philosophy of leadership, one that empowers staff and fosters creativity.

The roles, behaviours and attitudes of managers have an important impact and can make a fundamental difference to how well employees cope with the change and adjust to a new working environment or situation. The main aim of the study was to determine and examine the managerial competencies required by library managers at different managerial levels in effectively managing change in university libraries in South Africa.

The study consisted of a questionnaire that was administered to the population via a link that was e-mailed to them. The link was forwarded to 124 library staff of which 86 responded. In general, the study found limited support for most of the hypotheses.

This chapter consists of a discussion of the findings of both the literature research and the survey in an attempt to arrive at some conclusions and recommendations. The following

discussion addresses the research questions of this study but not necessarily in the order in which they were presented.

5.2. Discussion relating to the findings of the research questions

The results in Chapter 4 demonstrated that the sample of respondents in this study consisted more of middle managers (46.3%), followed by first line managers (25.6%) and senior managers (24.4%). The modal education group was that of postgraduate degree (67.9%) followed by those with degrees (22.6%).

Seventy five percent of the respondents had management training (e.g. a management degree, a management diploma, had attended management courses or management workshops) and 24.6% did not have any management training. Of those that did not have any training, 61.8% felt that they needed training.

When asked about the frequency of writing job descriptions, 32.1% responded 'very rarely' and 21.8% of respondents responded 'always'. A modal 31.8% of the respondents stated that they perform job analysis 'very rarely' and 23.5% responded 'very often' while 17.6 % responded 'always'. Furthermore a modal 34.6% of the respondents stated that they write job specifications 'very rarely' and 21% responded 'very often'.

A majority of 34.1% responded that they undertake recruitment and selection of staff 'very rarely' while 23.2% responded that they 'always' undertake recruitment and selection of staff and 18.3% indicated 'about half the time'. 39.5% of the respondents 'very rarely' perform staff appraisals whilst 24.7% responded that they 'always' perform staff appraisals and 14.8% indicated 'very often'. A majority of 41.9% 'always' solve problems while 33.8% responded that they 'very often' solve problems.

33.3% responded that they 'always' make decisions and while 28.6% responded that they 'very often' make decisions. Regarding project management, 33.3% do this 'about half the time', 22.6% perform this 'very often' and 20.2% 'very rarely'. 28.4% 'very rarely'

and 25.9% 'about half the time' discuss the training and development needs of staff with them. A modal 38.1% of the respondents indicated 'very rarely' to the question of whether they discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training while 17.9% indicated 'always' and 16.7% indicated 'very often' and 'about half the time'.

57.5% indicated 'very often' and 20.5% responded 'about half the time' regarding encouraging staff to undergo training. The frequency of responses to the question of setting work goals for the staff was 'very rarely' (27.7%) and 'about half the time' (27.7%).

The frequency of responses to the question of fostering organisational communication was 'very often' (44.9%) and 'about half the time' (21.8%). The frequency of responses to the question of enhancing teamwork was 'very often' (31.3%) and 'about half the time' (28.9%) followed by 'always' (24.1%). The breakdown of the responses to the question of motivating staff was 'very often' (36.5%) and 'about half the time' (29.4%) followed by 'always' (21.2%). The modal responses to resolving conflict was 'very rarely' (34.1%) and 'very often' (27.1%) and 25.9% which was 'about half the time'.

The modal responses to writing the vision and mission of the Library were 'never' (30.6%) and 'very rarely' (35.3%) and 20% which was 'very often'. 31.3% of the respondents 'very rarely' and 21.7% 'very often' assisted with formulating of strategy for the library. The bimodal responses of 'never' (25%) and 'about half the time' (25%) were given in response to the question of managing change in the library while 23.8% responded 'very often' and 13.8% responded 'always'.

A majority of 63.9% of the respondents were involved in the planning of this project. 67.2% of the respondents were not given training to manage this project whilst 75% of the respondents are definitely aware of global trends for libraries. A modal 65.8% of the respondents have undertaken any training to develop new skills.

5.3. Hypotheses

The following table lists the competencies that are required or not required by the different levels of managers. The hypotheses tested competencies identified by Hellriegel et al. (2002: 15) as been particularly important for managers today.

Table 37: Hypotheses findings

Competency	First line managers	Middle managers	Senior managers
Communication	Not required	Required *	Required *
Planning and administration	Not required	Not required	Required
Teamwork	Not required	Required	Required
Strategic action	Not required	Not required	Required *
Global awareness	Not required	Not required	Not required
Self-management	Not required	Not required	Not required

* The p value was rejected because it was less than 0.05 when testing the mean score to be < 2.5 but the p value was tending towards significance when testing the mean score < 3.

Interestingly, none of the competencies are required by first line managers. This finding supports the theory that first line managers are directly responsible for the production of goods and services. They are also responsible for implementing middle managers' operational plans. First line managers generally report to middle managers. Although first-line managers do not supervise other managers, they supervise operative employees. Because they are involved in supervising it is imperative that they understand the importance of at least the following competencies:

- Communication

- Planning and administration
- Teamwork.

By examining the job descriptions of the sections heads of the different departments (periodicals, acquisitions, cataloguing, inter-library loan, circulation) of a university library, this group of managers can be equated to first-line managers.

Middle management usually receive broad, general strategies and policies from top management and translate them into specific goals and plans for first-line managers to implement. The results of the hypotheses reflect that only communication competency and teamwork competency are required by middle managers. Middle managers generally report to executives and supervise the work of first-line managers. Given the nature of their jobs, deputy librarians and library administrators occupy the middle management level in university libraries.

The only competencies not required by senior managers are global awareness and self-management competency. It is imperative that senior managers are aware of international trends regarding university libraries. Global awareness competency is especially required by managers who draw financial information and material resources from different countries. Library managers will need to develop this competency when interacting with funders and international book publishers and suppliers.

This will be reflected in their:

- Cultural knowledge and understanding
- Cultural openness and sensitivity.

Self-management competency is also crucial for senior managers. It involves managers taking responsibility for their lives at work and beyond. This competency includes:

- Integrity and ethical conduct

- Personal drive and resilience
- Balancing work/life issues
- Self-awareness and development.

It also involves identifying and pursuing opportunities to develop new skills to broaden current effectiveness and to make progress towards career goals.

5.4. Issues relating to the research objectives

5.4.1. Leadership strategies and vision required by library managers to guide a library through a process of change.

Edwards and Walton (2000) stress that in academic libraries an atmosphere of openness, good communication, clear vision, leadership and training engenders good change management. The primary responsibility of top management must be to have a vision of the library's role. Strategic management of information resources is determined both by the vision held by the institution and by the degree to which resources can be, or are committed, to the fulfilment of that vision. Hayes (1993: 20) stressed that it is the commitment of resources that constitutes leadership.

The literature study has indentified that is it is critically important for the library leader to be a:

- strategist (with a vision, a plan, and the will to achieve it)
- communicator
- coordinator
- planner
- motivator
- nurturer
- recruiter
- teacher

- negotiator
- mediator.

The study demonstrated that senior managers require most of the above competencies.

5.4.2. Management competencies required by library managers in university libraries in South Africa.

The survey and literature study found the following competencies are required by managers to manage change:

- Communication
- Planning and administration
- Teamwork
- Strategic action
- Self-management.

The objective regarding the clustering of these competencies according the different managerial levels will be discussed under 5.5. below.

5.4.3. Human resources competencies required by management in a change management environment.

Staff in academic libraries includes librarians, technology specialists, and other professionals; support staff and a large number of student assistants seeking degrees at the very institution the libraries serve. Literature on personnel management in academic libraries reflects that the management of human resources in a university library and a business have a number of similarities. Rubin (1989: 1) states that people run libraries; they provide the essential services, process the materials, prepare the budgets, and establish the policies and practice that shape the institution.

The following human resources competencies were identified in the literature:

- Communication skills - because managing involves getting work done through other people, communication competency is essential to effective managerial performance
- Managing motivation and providing leadership to all concerned
- Facilitating and orchestrating group and individual activities is crucial
- Negotiation and influencing skills are invaluable
- It is essential that both planning and control procedures are employed
- The ability to manage on all planes, upward, downward and within the peer group, must be acquired
- Knowledge of, and the facility to influence, the rational for change is essential.

The results from the hypotheses testing indicated that the majority of the above competencies are required to manage change.

The following management functions were also identified:

- Job descriptions
- Job/person specifications - this would entail a description of the skills, knowledge, and qualities needed to perform a particular job
- Human resource planning
- Recruitment and selection of staff
- Staff appraisal
- Staff training and development.

The results from the descriptive statistics will be discussed under 5.5. below reflecting which of these management functions are required by managers within the different managerial levels.

5.4.4. The process of managing effective change

The literature study regarding the process of managing effective change highlighted what needs to be done to ensure success at each stage of the change process. Kotter (1996: 21) provided the following process:

- Establish a sense of urgency - ensure that the level of current dissatisfaction or future threat is sufficient to kick-start the change and maintain momentum
- Form a powerful coalition – Kotter argued that unless those who recognise the need for change put together a strong enough team to direct the process, the change initiative is unlikely to get off the ground. They have to ensure that key stakeholders are engaged and that the change team has the necessary sponsorship, power and authority
- Create a vision. Leaders must have a clear understanding of what is needed to be achieved from change and for it to be lofty, strategic and motivational. Kotter (1996: 72) summarises six criteria for an effective vision:

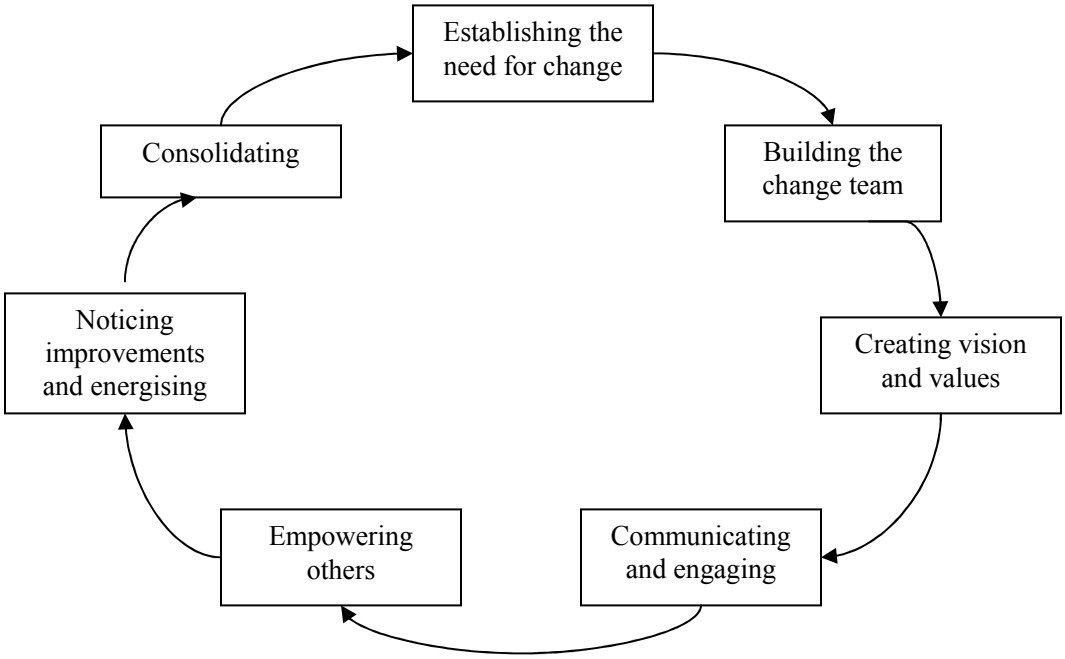
    - imaginable
    - desirable
    - feasible
    - focused
    - flexible
    - communicable.

- Communicating the change vision - ensure people are informed and hopefully engaged with the change by having a shared understanding of and commitment to the direction of the change
- Empowering others to act on the vision e.g. removing of obstacles - ensure that those people who are needed to make the change happen have the necessary resources, mandates and enabling mechanisms to achieve their goals

- Planning for and creating short-term wins e.g. plan for visible improvements in performance or wins. Green (2007: 198) stresses it must be made clear that progress is being made towards the ultimate goals through the achievement of smaller goals along the way, thus demonstrating success and maintaining momentum
- Consolidating improvements and producing still more change – this means capitalising on early wins to motivate others to introduce further changes to systems and structures that are consistent (aligned) with the transformation vision
- Institutionalising new approaches – leaders need to ensure that changes are consolidated. They can help achieve this by showing others how the changes have improved performance.

In the process of managing effective change Cameron and Green (2004: 102) developed the following figure illustrating the cycle of change which has close parallels with Kotter's eight steps. They prefer to model the change process as a continuous cycle rather than a linear progression. The following figure on cycle of change was discussed in Chapter 2 and is repeated here:

Figure 9: **Cycle of Change**



5.4.5. The training and development needs of existing and potential managers

The survey found that 75.4% of the respondents had management training (e.g. a management degree, a management diploma, attended management courses or attended management workshops) and 24.6% did not have any management training. Of those that did not have any training, 61.8% felt that they needed training.

The following responses are the raw data from the study. Note that certain training that were required had been repeated by different respondents. It is only shown once below. The responses to the type of training required were:

- Personnel management
- Business related management courses which teach modern management and leadership techniques. Traditional library schools leaves managers ill-equipped to run libraries like a business. Although libraries are not-for-profit, managers

require training in financial management and human resources management. Managers also need to be equipped to manage in the electronic environment

- Staff management
- Relationships in the workplace
- Cultural diversity in the workplace
- Dispute resolutions
- A general overview of management issues; staff selection; how to deal with general staff problems/issues like absenteeism; late arrival at work; dismissal procedures, etc.
- Financial management
- Human resources
- Keep up-to-date with latest management practices
- Performance appraisal
- Proposal writing
- Project management
- Time management
- Conflict management
- People Management presents the greatest challenge to any manager; therefore one would need to constantly seek to improve this aspect. The other area would be to keep abreast with the constantly changing face of libraries
- Management of difficult employees.

From the above there is a definite need for training of managerial staff.

The literature study indicates that as change requires new competencies and behaviours on the part of current employees, organisations will need to look at training as part of the implementation process. To meet the demands of change the organisation must put in place human development strategies to ensure individual, team and organisational learning. Human resource development is a broad set of activities operating across all levels of the organisation, concerned with investment in learning and improving performance of its human resources as a whole. Human resources development activities

include education, training and development, career management and planning, and organisational learning. A critical focus of a human resource development strategy is to make certain the initiatives support and deliver the organisation's change objectives (Graetz, et al. 2006: 202).

5.4.6. Suggested change management content for Library and Information Schools' curricula.

Two library schools kindly forwarded the researcher their management curricula. Both curricula covered the basic managerial principles as part of their library diploma curriculum. At this level it is expected that general introduction to management is offered. Both these curricula did cover the managerial functions of this study.

In the library schools' honours and masters programmes, a module on change management must be included. According to the findings of the study this module should include an in-depth study of:

- The change management process
- Communication
- Planning and administration
- Teamwork
- Strategy.

Ideally and where possible, a partnership must be formed with the Management School at their university.

5.5. Developing a model in relation to the research questions and objectives of the study

Based on the descriptive statistics and the hypotheses test, this study provides a basis for a model that identifies the competencies and managerial functions that are required by the different managerial levels to manage change in university libraries in South Africa.

Table 38: Competencies and managerial functions for the different managerial levels

Managerial Levels	**Competencies and Managerial Functions**
First Line Managers	Solve problems Make decisions Project management Encourage staff to undergo training Enhance teamwork Staff motivation
Middle Managers	Communication Teamwork Perform staff appraisals Solve problems Make decisions Project management Discuss the training and development needs of staff with staff Encourage staff to undergo training Set work goals for staff Foster organisational communication Enhance teamwork Staff motivation Manage change in the Library

Senior Managers	Communication Planning and administration Teamwork Strategic action Write job descriptions Perform job analysis Write job specifications Undertake recruitment and selection of staff Solve problems Make decisions Project management Encourage staff to undergo training Foster organisational communication Enhance teamwork Staff motivation Manage change in the Library

5.6. Further recommendations and conclusions

The main aim of the study was to determine and examine the managerial competencies required by library managers at different managerial levels in effectively managing change in university libraries in South Africa. The model proposed in Table 11 provides the competencies and managerial functions for the different managerial levels. In order to implement change this model must be used together with the discussions under the different objectives above.

The following recommendations are made:

- University libraries need to have an urgent conference relating to change management. This should be arranged by Library and Information Association of South Africa (LIASA)

- Competencies need to be work-shopped at all levels of library managers
- Structured training needs to be undertaken that covers all managerial functions
- As a way of impacting behaviour, organisations can supplement traditional knowledge-based training with experiential training. Traditional training programmes emphasise the delivery of knowledge from the instructor to the learner. Experiential learning, on the other hand, focuses on behaviours while allowing participants to try out the new behaviours required for the change effort. Experiential learning occurs in a protected environment, allowing participants to experiment with new behaviours
- Library schools need to form partnerships with business schools in management curriculum formation. Change management must be offered as a compulsory module
- The library director needs to help the organisation develop a new and powerful vision of its future, a vision with the power to propel it forward, both individually and organisationally. The vision must be positive and inspiring; it must be worth the effort and lead to action
- A management qualification must become a minimum requirement for all managerial jobs in university libraries
- All senior managers should at least have a management major or a Master of Business Administration (MBA)
- Managers must continuously reinforce change management principles as the change process is a continuous cycle rather than a linear progression.

5.7. Avenues for further research

- A similar study can be undertaken once university libraries have applied the recommendations offered by the study. Thereafter a comparative study will demonstrate whether there is a change in competencies after the recommendations have been applied

- A similar study of other higher education institutions can be conducted
- The management curriculums of different library schools can be studied and recommendations can be made for a standardised curriculum
- A study of the qualifications of senior managers in university libraries can be undertaken. A comparison must be made on how change is managed by those who have a managerial degree and those who do not.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

University of KwaZulu-Natal

This questionnaire is being administered to determine the competencies required by library managers in university libraries to manage change.

(Please note that this questionnaire is confidential)

1. Please place an X in the block that best describes your position:

1	2	3	4
Senior manager	Middle manager	First-line manager	Other

If other please specify: _____

2. Your highest educational qualification: _____

3. Have you had any management training? (e.g. a management degree, a management diploma, attended management courses or attended management workshops).

Yes	No

If yes, please state the type of training: _____

If no, do you require training?

Yes	No

If yes, in what areas of management would you require training?

_____

4. Please indicate the extent to which you perform the following activities in your job:

4.1. Write job descriptions.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.2. Perform job analysis (the process of analysing the content of jobs in order to guide recruitment and selection, identify training needs, or for the purpose of job evaluation).

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.3. Write job specifications (the document that describes the skills, knowledge, and qualities needed to perform a particular job).

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.4. Undertake recruitment and selection of staff.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.5. Perform staff appraisal (the process of evaluating the performance and assessing the development/training needs of an employee).

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.6. Solve problems.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.7.Make decisions.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.8. Carry out project management.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.9. Discuss the training and development needs of staff with them.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.10. Discuss the training and development needs of staff with the person responsible for training.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.11. Encourage staff to undergo training.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.12. Set work goals for staff.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

4.13. Please state any other activities you perform?

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. Please indicate the extent to which you are involved with the following in your job:

5.1. Fostering organisational communication.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.2. Enhancing teamwork.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.3. Motivating staff.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.4. Resolving conflict.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.5. Writing the vision and mission of the Library.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.6. Assisting with formulating of strategy for the Library.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.7. Managing change in the Library.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Very rarely	About half the time	Very often	Always

5.7.1. What type of change project have you managed in the Library?

_____

5.7.2. Were you involved with the planning of this project?

Yes	No

5.7.3. Were you given training to manage this change?

Yes	No

If yes, please state the type of training

If no, did you require training?

5.8. Being aware of the global trends for Libraries?

Yes	No

If yes, please state how you do this?

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6. Self-development.

6.1. Have you undertaken any training to develop new skills?

Yes	No

If yes, please state type of training?

The End

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

Appendix 2: Informed Consent Document

I, Praversh Jeebodh Sukram, am a student currently registered for a PhD on the Pietermaritzburg campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). The title of my research is:

A study to determine and examine the managerial competencies required by library managers at different managerial levels in effectively managing change in university libraries in South Africa: towards the development of a working model.

Please note that that this investigation is being conducted in my personal capacity. I can be reached at sukram@ukzn.ac.za or on 033 - 2606194.

My academic supervisor is Dr.Raubenheimer, based in the School of Management on the Pietermaritzburg Campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. He can be contacted at raubenheimerw@ukzn.ac.za or 033 - 2606101 during office hours.

Professor O'Neill from the School of Management can also be contacted regarding the study. He can be contacted at oneillC@ukzn.ac.za or 033 – 2605223.

The purpose of this research is to ascertain the managerial attributes and competencies required by library managers to manage change in university libraries in South Africa. Due to the in-depth knowledge required to make meaningful contribution to this study, experts such as yourself have been selected as representatives of the university library community. Information gathered in this study will include data retrieved from the questionnaire that I would require you to answer. Please note that neither your name nor that of the university you represent will be included in the report. The questionnaire does not require any personal information. The information will only be seen by my supervisor, examiner and myself. Your anonymity and confidentiality is of utmost importance and will be maintained throughout the study.

Your participation in completing the questionnaire is completely voluntary and you are in no way forced to complete the questionnaire. You have the right to withdraw at any time during the study.

I appreciate the time and effort it would take to participate in this study. I would be very grateful for your participation as it would enable me to complete my dissertation and also provide a better understanding into the managerial attributes and competencies required by library managers to manage change in university libraries.

EXAMPLE OF DECLARATION

I……(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT DATE

……