

AN ANALYSIS OF SELECTED VARIABLES INFLUENCING
ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: A PRE-BOARD GOVERNANCE
STUDY OF RED RIVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE

by

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DALE M. WATTS

A Thesis/Practicum submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Robert Harold Watts (1909 - 1972) and Marjorie Evelyn (Steele) Watts (1915 - 1978), who placed a high value on education. They would have appreciated this accomplishment.

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ABSTRACT

Organizations are continually changing, in part to respond to the growth of technology and the trend toward globalization. There are numerous interdependent variables that influence organizational change, which suggests that change is best perceived from an open systems framework. There are few, if any, simple cause-effect relationships.

When organizations experience strong driving forces for or restraining forces against change, it tends to create organizational disequilibrium, which can deteriorate into chaos if the forces are strong enough. However, much of the contemporary literature suggests that an organization's disequilibrium can be brought into balance by timely transformational leadership and visionary strategic planning or improvisation. The manifestation of leadership and planning may include changes to both an organization's culture and climate.

This study of the organizational change process focuses upon Red River Community College in Winnipeg, Manitoba essentially during the period from its inception until April 1, 1993, at which time the College came under Board Governance. The research approach consisted of a literature review, the conduct of an empirical survey of employee attitudes, and participant observation by the author who is presently a senior administrator at the College. Overall, the dissertation is more qualitative than quantitative in its orientation reflecting the fact that important dimensions of organizational life defy empirical measurement.

The quantitative and qualitative statistical and anecdotal evidence gathered to support the hypothesis suggests that the employees in the organization felt a moderate to high level of dissatisfaction with many organizational processes, the organizational climate and some management behaviours prior to the introduction of Board Governance. However, there is insufficient quantitative evidence to attribute the cause of dissatisfaction to a deficiency of leadership or poor management practices.

The dissertation concludes that the hypothesis was not fully proven. However, other qualified conclusions were that: effective leadership and management can help minimize the complexity of organizational change; strategic improvisation may be more appropriate than strategic planning in turbulent environments; organizational climate changes are more likely to occur in an organic paradigm; and effective communication processes are integral to organizational transformation. A longitudinal study would be required to confirm the validity of the dissertation findings. Despite some similarities, a Community College system situated within a public sector environment is sufficiently different from most public sector environments to inhibit generalizations about their comparability.

CONTENTS

ii

Acknowledgements

Abstract i

Contents ii

CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION 1

 Introduction 1

 Purpose of the Study 5

 Theoretical Purpose 6

 Practical Purpose 7

 Scope, Limitations and Delimitations of the Study 7

 Research Approach and Assumptions 11

 Methodology 12

 Significance of the Study 13

 Outline for the Study 15

CHAPTER II - REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 17

 Introduction 17

 Workforce Skills 21

 Organizational Change 25

 Conceptual Framework 29

 Classical Science or Newtonianism 30

 Equilibrium States Theory 32

 The Lewin Development Model 36

 Conclusions 42

 Organization Behaviour 44

 Bureaucracy 45

 Organizational Culture 51

 System Characteristics 60

 Organizational Climate 64

 Leadership and Supervisory Behaviour 66

 Conclusions 68

 Change Catalysts 69

 Transformational Leadership 72

 Management Development 79

 Strategic Organizational Communication 85

 Conclusions 91

 Strategic Planning 93

 Context Concepts 97

 Long-Range Planning 99

 Strategic Planning Model 103

 Planning to Plan 104

 The Values Audit 105

 Mission Formulation 107

 Strategic Business Modeling 108

 Performance Audit 110

 Gap Analysis 111

 Contingency Planning 113

Integrating Functional Plans	114
Implementation	115
Environmental Scanning	117
Problems and Pitfalls in Strategic Planning	120
Proposals to Mitigate Constraints	127
Conclusions	131
Chapter Summary	134
CHAPTER III - CASE STUDY PROFILE OF RRCC	137
Introduction	137
Organizational Profile	137
Historical Background	140
Relevant Legislation and Effects	144
Recent Developments and Issues	151
External Pressures for Change	156
Conclusions	158
Study Group Organizational Life	160
Organizational Structure	160
Organization Processes	165
Decision-making	165
Communications	167
Organizational Socialization	169
Performance Evaluation	171
Career Planning	172
Strategic Planning	174
Budgeting	177
Evaluation	178
Organizational Leadership	182
Organizational Culture	185
Conclusions	187
CHAPTER IV - METHODOLOGY	191
Introduction	191
Design of the Study	193
Population of the Study	195
Theory and Hypotheses	195
Validity of the Research	196
Process of Instrument Development	200
Initial Questionnaire	206
Questionnaire Review	208
Final Questionnaire Design	209
Data Collection	210
Data Analysis Techniques	211
Data Processing	211
Quantitative Methods	212

CHAPTER V - RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	216
Introduction	216
Demographic Characteristics	219
Research Focus	224
Section 2 - Job Satisfaction	225
Section 3 - The College and its Employees	241
Data Correlations	256
CHAPTER VI - SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	265
Introduction	265
Summary	265
Conclusions	272
Recommendations for Further Study	275
Further Developments	276
ENDNOTES	280
BIBLIOGRAPHY	

APPENDICES

- A - Definition of Terms
- B - Indicators of Fundamental Competitiveness
- C - Simplified Influence Diagram
- D - Organizational Developmental Stages
- E - Strategic Planning Model
- F - Synopsis of Public Service 2000 Findings
- G - RRCC Mission Statement
- H - RRCC Strategic Plan Objectives
- I - Revenue and Expenditure Budget Summary
(1992-93)
- J - HRD Task Force Terms of Reference
- K - Human Resource Wheel Model
- L - HRD Task Force Sub-Objectives
- M - Focus Group Protocol
- N - RRCC Employee Questionnaire

LIST OF FIGURES

1	-	The Marx/Hegel Dialectic	31
2	-	Equilibrium State	33
3	-	Near-Equilibrium State	34
4	-	Far-From-Equilibrium State	34
5	-	Forcefield Analysis	39
6	-	Formulation and Implementation of Strategy .	103

LIST OF TABLES

1	-	Revenue and Expenditure Budget Summaries (1989-93)	139
2	-	Comparison of Actuals to Respondents	220
3	-	Actuals to Respondents in Employment Categories	221
4	-	Divisional Area by Gender	222
5	-	Years of Service by Gender	223
6	-	Percentage Respondents Either "Very" or "Somewhat Satisfied" with Selected Job Satisfaction Variables	227
7	-	Percentage Respondents Either "Very" or "Somewhat Dissatisfied" with Items Relating to Opportunities and Incentives	235
8	-	Relative Frequencies (%) of respondents Reporting "Very" or "Somewhat" Satisfied on Selected Items Relevant to Management	237
9	-	Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents Indicating Positive Responses to Items Relevant to Supervisor's Support to Employees	242
10	-	Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents Indicating Positive Responses to Items about Employee Feelings about the College by Employment Category to a Large or Moderate Extent	246
11	-	Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents "Very" or "Somewhat" Satisfied on Items Relevant to Employee Well-being by Employment Category	247
12	-	Perceptions of College Goals in the Present and in the Future	251

LIST OF CHARTS

1	-	Requested Correlations	214
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C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Organizations exist in almost every segment of industrialized societies for one reason: they can accomplish things that cannot be accomplished individually (Chiatello and Waller, 1974). People are the resource that is common to all organizations, and for organizations to be effective leaders and managers within these organizations must see each person as an embodiment of many behavioural factors which can include perceptions, personalities, life experiences, learning capabilities, attitudes, values, beliefs, aspirations and so on.

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1985) suggest that structure, processes, and individual or group observable behaviour are common to all organizations. An organization's structure is the formal pattern of how the individuals and jobs in the organization are grouped, which encompasses the distribution of responsibility and authority. Processes refer to activities that give life to the organization and which represent both the formal and informal patterns of the organization. For example, communication, decision-making, performance evaluation, organizational socialization, and career development are organizational processes that represent

important components of both the formal and informal structure. Individual behaviour is the foundation of organizational performance. Therefore, understanding individual behaviour is critical for effective leadership and management in organizations. Further, as group behaviour and expectations also impact on individual behaviour and potentially on organizational structure and processes, effective leaders and managers need to have a reasonable comprehension of the interrelationship of all these organizational elements. Comprehension requires education and training about structure, processes and both individual and group behaviour. However, managers are often forced to act on less than comprehensive knowledge and are still successful.

Organizations, whether in the public or private sector, reflect their historical development, tradition, and upper-management style over time. These represent the corporate culture of an organization which has been variously described as

...the predominant value system for the organization as a whole;

(Schermerhorn, Cattaneo and Smith, 1988;)

...the expectations and practices of the organization, including shared philosophy, attitude toward employees, leaders and heros, rituals and ceremonies, and belief about the direction of the organization

(Northcraft and Neale, 1990).

Corporate culture, once established and engrained in the structure and processes of an organization and in the

behaviour of its employees, becomes difficult to change. Participants in the culture tend to perpetuate and to pursue the style, methods, and activities that have worked successfully for their predecessors and for them in their relationship with the organization (Barker, 1989).

Most societal relationships are in a constant state of evolution which results in the need for organizations to adopt strategies to deal with changing external environments. Kanter (1983) takes the position that change is a constant, only the rate of change and kind of change varies, and the pace and unpredictability of change have increased over time.

Technological, social, political, economic, religious, and other developments have placed increasing pressures on organizations to change. Because of commitment to traditional structures and process, and because change generally entails uncertainty, many organizations and individuals resist change and find it hard to innovate. This inflexibility can be attributed at least partly to a pattern or model mind set which has been described as "paradigm paralysis" (Kuhn, 1970; Barker, 1989). Kuhn and Barker suggest that paradigm paralysis refers primarily to limited-scope thinking rather than to employee beliefs about corporate cultures or sub-cultures in which they are participating.

However, change is also resisted in organizations because employees have a stake in the existing organizational

arrangements and tend to feel threatened by changes which may diminish their power and influence in organizational life. Further, McWhinney (1992, p.61) argues that conflict and the exercise of power are central to the process of organizational change.

The purpose of this study is to analyse organizational change in a particular type of public sector organization. Although the popular stereotype portrays the public sector as a relatively homogeneous undertaking with shared flaws, in fact it represents an agglomeration of diverse institutions performing widely varied tasks and utilizing different organizational formats. Presumably different types of public organizations face different kinds of external challenges and have varying organizational capacities to respond. This study deals with one community college only as an example of a public sector organization seeking to cope with more turbulent and unpredictable environments, both internally and externally.¹

Community colleges are exposed to a variety of external pressures which demand change of them such as: an increasing need for graduates with advanced technological training, reductions in transfer payments from the federal government to the provinces for post-secondary education, reductions in training support for students through employment and immigration, changing demographics, a more diverse workforce, and so on. Adaptation to these developments will require

leadership, structural, behavioural, process and cultural changes within Canadian community colleges. There is no widely-accepted model of organizational change which identifies all the relevant factors and their precise interrelationships within the change process. Therefore, this study examines only the role of leadership, strategy and culture/climate in the change process at RRCC.

Purpose of the Study

Growth was the prevalent trend within the community college sector from the mid-1960s to the early 1980s. Community colleges were generally well-supported by transfer payments and training and apprenticeship programs largely funded by the federal government. Additionally, faced with burgeoning student enrolments, there seemed to be little need for comprehensive, systematic planning for change in these institutions. The limited planning that was done consisted of physical planning to support expansion (Dennison and Gallagher, 1986).

As these institutions entered the 1980s, however, there began to be persistent economic problems, increased competition for resources, decreased funding from the federal government in transfer payments and supported training, somewhat static enrolments, decreased demand for graduates in certain occupational areas, rapid technological change in other occupational areas, increased competitiveness from

private sector training institutes, and increased pressure for improved efficiency and accountability by funding agencies. All these factors contributed to the need to implement change in the way in which community colleges conducted their business. In the case of colleges under the direct auspices of provincial governments, the constraints on the change process were greater than on some of their counterparts in other parts of Canada which tended to operate somewhat more independently or to be governed more autonomously.

This analysis of organizational change will be derived primarily through a case study of the linkages among leadership, strategy, and culture/climate in a bureaucratic-mechanistic community college--Red River Community College (RRCC)-- which is situated [1992/93] in the public sector under the jurisdiction of the Manitoba provincial government.

Theoretical Purpose

In terms of its theoretical focus, this study will (a) identify some of the major problems and constraints with the bureaucratic-mechanistic model at Red River Community College through an intensive case study; (b) within the context of organizational theory, propose that change within these organizations can be successfully accommodated by leadership styles, strategies, and cultures/climates that are more flexible, adaptable and reflective of an organic type of organization; (c) suggest that an organic organization can be

promoted and accommodated through deliberate strategies which involve the active encouragement of employees by a transformational leader or leaders; and (d) determine the college employee perception of change and innovation in the college based on selected indicators of satisfaction and dissatisfaction and on the perception of the current [1992/93] organizational culture and climate.

Practical Purpose

On a more practical level, this theory-based case study should help clarify some of the pragmatic constraints on the implementation of organizational change in bureaucratic-mechanistic organizations that typically exist in the public sector and should help refine our knowledge of public sector organizations accordingly. Such factors as individual human idiosyncracies, political interaction external and internal to the organization, individual resistance to change, demands of daily operations, time pressures, communication problems, and perceptions of organizational climate, leadership and supervisory behaviour, intergroup and intragroup relations and group processes all play a significant role in the implementation of organizational change.

Scope, Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

This study focuses primarily on one organization, Red River Community College, which exhibits characteristics of

what Mintzberg (1979) has described as a professional bureaucracy. A more comprehensive discussion of the characteristics of professional bureaucracies is presented later.

However, generalizations of the findings of this study to other community colleges or public sector organizations must obviously be done carefully. Within a college of professional instructors, there tends to be a greater emphasis on collegiality, decentralized decision-making and individual autonomy, and less emphasis on hierarchy, top-down decision-making and centralized control than that which tends to exist in most public sector bureaucracies. While a collegial atmosphere is not necessarily unique to a public sector type of organization, it may be more pronounced in community colleges than other bureaucratic organizations.

The particular post-secondary educational institution the group under study represents, along with its sister institutions in other parts of the province, converts formally from an institution under the direct jurisdiction of government to a board-governed institution which is ostensibly at arm's length from government on April 1, 1993. The potential influence of this development on the survey responses provided by Red River Community College members is discussed below.

To facilitate the conversion to board governance and to

provide an institutional focus the College President introduced the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM) into the organization in 1991. Although the concept itself is not new, it has recently become very popular within colleges and universities in the United States and is spreading slowly to Canada. As with any "new" concept, there are growing pains with its implementation and a reluctance on the part of some college members to accept the concept.

Others, however, are enthusiastic about the concept and are strongly supportive. This study acknowledges the potential impact of the total quality management concept on the organization's movement, direction, and membership but it is not within the scope of the study to discuss the concept in any great detail.²

Another limitation of the study is the use of the case study method. Yin (1984, p. 23) defines a case study as

... an empirical enquiry that:

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when
- the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which
- multiple sources of evidence are used.

Yin (1984) also says that although case studies are well-suited to exploratory investigations, the researcher has no control over the variables which makes cause-effect findings difficult. Thus, a common criticism of case study research is that it lacks rigour. A second concern is that case studies

provide little basis for scientific generalizations. Yin says that case studies, like single experiments, are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes. A third concern about case studies is that they often take too long and result in massive documents.

However, these concerns notwithstanding, the case study contributes to our knowledge about individual, organizational, social and political phenomena. It is used in many settings such as "...policy, political science, and public administration research;...organization and management studies; ...and the conduct of a large proportion of dissertations and theses in the social sciences" (Yin, 1984, p. 13).

In addition to the usual concerns about the case study, another complication in this instance is the role of the author as a participant observer in the organization and events being analysed. The author worked at RRCC as an instructor in Communications and Management [1993] and was involved from the beginning in the Task Force which developed the survey instrument to ascertain employee attitudes and perceptions of organizational dynamics. It is clearly recognized that researcher bias could well exist in his influence on the development of the primary data-gathering instrument and in the subsequent interpretation of the data results. This influence is somewhat offset, however, by the

participation of a sub-committee and a consultant in the development of the survey and by the participation of four different external consultants in the compilation, coding and analysis of the survey results to ensure objectivity.

Research Approach and Assumptions

The research approach followed in this study flows out of open systems theory which is discussed below briefly. The research questions identified from this perspective suggest an interconnection of events and factors which influence individual, group, and organizational behaviour and which, therefore, influence the process of organizational change.

Several assumptions underlie the research reported in this study. First, many organizations face unprecedented requirements to change to survive in more unpredictable and perilous environments. Part of the emerging environment involves strong pressures in the direction of increased global competitiveness as productive capacity moves around the world and technological developments lead to the integration of markets.

Both the content and processes of government activity are affected by globalization, and government actions can have some bearing on the impacts of globalization. However, deciphering and interpreting this two-way flow of causation has only begun in the literature and is outside the scope of

this study.

A second assumption is that government organizations of all kinds must adopt a more proactive orientation toward the external environment and must become more responsive to outside change. Flexibility and responsiveness will require new approaches in organizational design, systems, leadership, culture, and planning.

Methodology

The case study of RRCC is based on both qualitative and quantitative data. Several research methods were used. The main documents which helped establish direction for the college were reviewed. These included the mission statement, some relevant directives, strategic plans and objectives, annual reports, budgets, presidential communications, etc. In addition, informal interviews with some college officials were held.

Several other sources of empirical data were: the numerous comments, opinions, and suggestions offered by participants in representative focus groups, an institutionally-generated employee survey with an approximate forty-five percent response rate, numerous informal interviews with college members who were not college officials, and an analysis of documents from other colleges.

The employee survey was developed in-house based on

several other validated instruments and the advice of a human resource development consultant. Unfortunately, no baseline study exists against which the data could be compared. However, the forty-five percent response rate permits valid inferences for the purposes of this study. The fact that fifty-five per cent of college employees did not take the opportunity to participate in the survey, despite specific encouragement from the College President and the Task Force, itself may provide additional evidence about employee attitudes toward the organization beyond those discovered by the survey. The high non-response rate could indicate, for example, that employees did not care, that they were too busy to complete the survey, that they felt the survey would not accomplish anything or that the results would be ignored, or that they did not trust the President or the Task Force.

The details of the statistical analysis of the survey results are presented in Chapter V. As part of a general discussion of the limits of the study, it is sufficient to note that comprehensive statistical correlations of the relationships between and among different organizational factors are not attempted.

Significance of the Study

A theme that is fairly consistently expressed throughout this study, both implicitly and explicitly, is the extent to which elements within an organizational system are inter-

connected. Most scientific investigation, particularly experimental work, assumes the universe is a closed system in which simple cause-effect relationships apply. Closed systems models may have validity in many of the physical sciences, but they are less applicable to social systems.

While other types of analyses use other models, an open system is a type of model used to represent social systems in which simple cause-effect relationships are not readily apparent. For example, biological systems and organizational relationships have many influences which are consistently interacting; therefore, effects may be attributable to many intersecting causes.

This study assumes that organizations function in an "open" system in which events and circumstances both inside and outside the organization influence other events and circumstances so that change is constantly occurring (Baker, 1973; Bertalanffy, 1968; Miller, 1972).³ Some events and circumstances influence others to react similarly each time in an apparently circular or cyclical manner. These circles or cycles are known as positive or negative causal loops which tend to basically feed upon themselves to make events and circumstances better or worse (Koopman, Broekhuysen, and Meijn, 1984; Mintzberg and others, 1976). Finally, it should be noted that the analytical framework being employed cannot possibly capture all of the multitude of potentially-relevant variables which comprise the community college system in

Manitoba. Even drawing the boundaries of the system would be difficult and contentious. The data gathering and analysis requirements of a full open systems study of even one community college are beyond the scope of this dissertation. Therefore, while the study is informed by an open systems perspective, it focuses more specifically upon the linkages among strategies, leadership, culture and climate within the process of organizational change at RRCC.

Outline for the Study

The main terms used in this study are necessarily numerous, partly because the dissertation is interdisciplinary. A guide to the terminology is found in the Glossary of Terms contained in Appendix A. This format removes the need for a lengthy introduction defining key terms. Following this introductory chapter, setting the purpose, scope and methodology of the study, Chapter II provides a review of some of the relevant literature. The review is used to establish the theoretical base and the possible linkages among leadership, strategy and culture/climate in the context of change at RRCC.

Chapter III, the Case Study Profile, presents an organizational profile of RRCC, discusses its history, the legislative context in which it operates, and the recent internal and external developments which create the need for

organizational change. Also, the chapter provides a qualitative description of the college through a brief analysis of the key factors of leadership, strategy, and organizational culture/climate in the college.

Chapter IV describes the methodology used in gathering the empirical data for the study. The chapter includes discussion of the survey design, characteristics of the population surveyed, development of the instrumentation, data collection and data analysis techniques and validity of the findings. This chapter also provides a more in-depth explanation of the case study method.

Chapter V, on the data analysis results, provides a quantitative and descriptive analysis and discussion of the participants' survey responses, and a summary of the survey results including a sampling of participant comments on specific questions.

Chapter VI summarizes the intent and process of the study, describes the major conclusions of the study, and makes recommendations for future study.

C H A P T E R I I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on some of the variables that influence organizational change to demonstrate the relevance of open systems theory. This theory suggests that organizations are (a) social systems in which changes in one part are reflected by changes in other parts, and (b) open to influence from the environment (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Consequently, (a) both internal and external pressures on organizations are likely to contribute to the need for change; and (b) changes in even one process of the organization are likely to contribute to changes in other processes through the "ripple effect". This suggests that the major functional components in organizations are not independent and need to operate collaboratively with other parts of their organizations to be successful.

Therefore, a major premise in this study is that although the structures, processes, tasks and environments in private and public sector organizations may differ from each other, and the behaviour of employees in these organizations may be influenced by the structures, processes, tasks and environments, organization members tend to respond similarly regardless of the sector in which they are employed because they are human.⁴ However, while employees in both public and

private sector organizations may be similar, the public belief about employee behaviour in these organizations seems to be that there is a difference. For example, Kernaghan and Siegel (1991) note that Canadians develop perceptions about government programs and the public sector through the media and are influenced, often negatively, about the public sector by the media.

A comprehensive study (Zussman and Jabes, 1989, pp. 41-47) suggests that public sector managers generally believe managerial responsibilities, challenges and constraints in the private sector are less rigorous than those in the public sector. Conversely, private sector managers believe managerial responsibilities in the public sector are less rigorous than those in the private sector. Their respective beliefs seem to be based on largely unverified perceptions of each other's managerial obligations.

There are certainly characteristics that make public sector organizations distinctive and which make operating within the public sector potentially more restrictive for managers (Rainey, 1991, pp. 33 - 34); however, the general managerial skills of planning, organizing, staffing, controlling and motivating are still required regardless of the sector in which the managers operate. Further, organizations cannot be neatly separated into two piles: public and private. Many organizations are best described as

hybrids -- part public and part private. Therefore, a major focus of common ground is that organization members tend to behave in reasonably predictable human ways regardless of their public or private sector orientation although not entirely. Some major elements of difference, individual personalities aside, are potentially organizational processes, organizational culture that results from or contributes to the processes, the types of tasks organizational members are required to perform, and the environment in which they perform it.

Although an organization's commitment to social responsibility can affect profitability, and some organizations may emphasize longer-term viability and economic performance over short-term profits, the "bottom line" for private firms is return-on-investment (ROI) and profits. There is not a similar, straightforward definition of success for public sector activities. Instead, in connection with different types of public sector activities, there can be several "bottom lines" such as: adherence to an allocated budget in the process of fulfilling established government policy, preservation of programs or budgets in times of restraint, career advancement, and election or re-election.

The more net profit a private sector organization makes, the more successful it is perceived to be. However, most public sector managers are aware that spending less than the

allocated budget in a given fiscal year may well result in a reduced budget for the following fiscal year. Consequently, exhausting the allocated budget, or even exceeding it somewhat, is seen as a way to ensure similar or higher levels of funding in subsequent years. This anomaly may be largely a reflection of the bureaucratic processes that generally exist in public sector organizations. However, recently, some governments have allowed departments to carryover unspent funds from one fiscal year to the next--especially if it can be demonstrated that the carryovers represent savings arising from productivity improvements (Kernaghan and Siegel, 1991).

Although an argument could be made that it is much easier to change structures and processes than people, this study acknowledges implicitly that it is not particularly expedient to modify the structure and processes of all bureaucratic organizations to make them more efficient and effective. In fact, in some situations where organizations in stable environments use highly-standardized procedures, a bureaucratic structure may be ideal. However, much contemporary research suggests a more organic organizational structure and the effective utilization of an organization's human resources over time may improve an organization's processes, efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, and potential competitive situation (Bass, 1985; Benimadhu, 1989; Bennis, 1989a; 1989b; Block, 1991; Kanter, 1983; Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

Workforce Skills

It is important for public sector managers to become more cognizant that competitiveness with public sector organizations is a fact of life. Any product or service currently provided by a public sector organization which can be provided more efficiently and effectively by a private sector organization is potentially at risk.

Further, with the implementation of the Canada-United States Free Trade Agreement (FTA) in 1989, the imposition of the federal government Goods and Services Tax (GST) in 1990, the development of a continental trading bloc with Canada-United States-Mexico, increasing competition from Pacific rim countries over the past two decades, and developments in major international business growth areas, the competitive strength of organizations in Canada has become increasingly dependent upon the effective use of human resources.

Competitiveness reflects in a country's ability to sell its services and products, domestically or internationally, while maintaining or improving its living standard. However, the effectiveness of traditional tools such as access to raw materials, technology, product innovation, and financial resources is slowly being eroded (Economic Council, 1987).

An organization's basic technology, which formerly

offered a competitive edge, is often copied by competitors soon after it becomes available on the open market. New technology and products are easily replicated. Financial resources are more readily accessible from the world's financial markets. Successive rounds of international negotiation have eliminated many of the barriers that previously inhibited world trade. Better transportation and communications have helped countries, including developing countries, to become more influential and more competitive producers and traders. The advantages formerly offered by nearness to a specific market or to a source of raw material also have diminished substantially because of these improved distribution mechanisms (ECC, McFetridge, 1989).

Some indicators of fundamental competitiveness among industrial countries suggest that, comparatively, Canada may be slipping (Canada Department of Finance, Ottawa, 1990).

- (1) Although Canada's productivity level is high, its productivity growth rate, averaging 1.3 percent a year since 1973, has lagged behind most major industrialized countries (see Appendix B1).
- (2) In 1991, Canada dropped from fifth to eleventh place in overall competitiveness (Winnipeg Free Press, July 29, 1992, A13). During the 1980s, Canada's productivity growth in manufacturing was the lowest among the seven major industrialized countries.
- (3) As labour costs represent 60 percent of business costs, they are critical to cost competitiveness. Unit labour costs represent the average cost-per-unit of production of goods and services. These costs in Canada have been accelerating (see

Appendix B2).

The slippage in Canada's competitive position is partly attributable to the "globalization" phenomenon, which refers to the interdependence of national economies and the growing interdependence of consumers, suppliers, and government in different countries. Globalization is a complicated and broad issue on which there is nothing approaching agreement among analysts and commentators. For the purpose of this study, therefore, it is sufficient to note the widespread agreement that the quantity and quality of a skilled and knowledgeable workforce is a significant contributor to national economic success.

Although some service sector jobs involve low-skill, data-entry repetitive types of tasks, jobs in high-wage, technologically-advanced countries like Canada are becoming increasingly knowledge-based and information-based. These jobs require more education and training. The low-technology manufacturing sector is in decline (Porter, 1991); jobs are becoming redundant; semi-skilled, high-paying jobs have decreased; and there are not going to be the same kind of job opportunities that existed a generation ago (Naisbett, 1982; Naisbett and Aburdene, 1985; Toffler, 1990, 1985, 1981; Drucker, 1989).

However, Perry (1990) suggests polls indicate 40 percent of students going directly into the workforce do not see

education and training as critical to their future. He refers to a 1987 Southam literacy survey which reports that one out of five Canadians over 18 are functionally illiterate; 70 percent of them are Canadian-born and speak English as their mother tongue. Additionally, Perry reports that: (a) 30 percent of Canadian high school students drop out before graduating; and (b) only 72 percent of Canadian 17-year-olds are still in school or some type of training program, compared to 89 percent in Germany and 95 percent in Japan. The percentage of high school graduates continuing on to some kind of post-secondary education in Canada is about 20 percent (Statistics Canada, 1990). In the early 1990s, the average Canadian worker received about 6.7 hours of training per year; whereas the average Japanese worker received about 170 to 200 hours of formal on-the-job instruction (Globe and Mail, 27 Dec 1991).

The overall picture that emerges is one of an increasingly-complex workplace which requires high technical knowledge, skills, and analytical capabilities because of the changing nature of work and the concomitant skills required. This suggests Canadian business and government organizations may need to commit more resources to research and development while the education systems throughout the country may need to address the requirements for knowledge, skills, and analytical capabilities more effectively. This has implications for the delivery of education and training at all levels in both

private and public sector school systems, universities, colleges, and other organizations and for organizational change.

Organizational Change

Much of the contemporary literature about change as it refers to organizations classifies change into two groups: (a) environmental or external forces for change, and (b) internal forces for change. Primary environmental or external forces for change might include economic forces, technological changes, and social and political changes. Internal forces for change might include a crisis in the organization, new or improved leadership, or reduced productivity (Conner, 1993; Beckhard and Pritchard, 1992; Beckhard and Harris, 1987). While it is possible for analytical purposes to distinguish external and internal forces, it is very difficult to draw a precise boundary line between the organization and the outside world, especially in the case of public organizations which are permeable to outside forces flowing through the political process.

The previous section describes environmental forces generated by the global marketplace and the knowledge explosion which has introduced new technology and the concomitant need for training and retraining. For example, computer technology and automation have revolutionized manufacturing and distribution through high-speed data

processing and the solutions to complex production problems. However, these factors have affected not only technical conditions of work, but social conditions as well. New occupations have been created, but others have been eliminated. Slowness in adopting new technology, or failure to adopt new technology at all, decreases an organization's competitive position and may ultimately contribute to the failure of the organization. This, in turn, eliminates jobs.

The increased national debt and persistently high annual deficits have led the federal government to limit transfer payments to provincial governments as part of a wider debt or deficit reduction strategy. Declining federal financial support means that most provincial and non-departmental bodies, such as universities and colleges, come under budgetary restraint. Some provincial governments have sought to downsize the public service through attrition, induced retirements, and in a few cases, actual layoffs.

Controlled funding from the federal government to the provincial governments tends to result in decreased funding to municipalities from the provincial governments as well. The cycle of decreased services, public servant job loss, and the need to access unemployment insurance or welfare support plays itself out at this level as well.

Further, more tightly-controlled transfer payments from the federal government to the provincial governments may

reflect in such things as slower rates of growth in health care, funding for education, funding available to support the transportation infrastructure, etc. Although there are some savings made in rationalizing presumably more efficient public sector organizations, it is not yet clear to what extent this slower growth rate in funding impairs or diminishes service. Potentially, a slower growth rate in funding results in job losses and in the deterioration of the social systems and infrastructure. Historically, we also see incremental growth in costs in most areas; therefore, the costs of establishing, maintaining and repairing social systems and infrastructures will likely continue to rise.

The overall funding available for education has a particularly important influence on competitiveness. As suggested previously, Canada's ability to compete globally is integrally connected with its ability to adapt to and to adopt new technologies. Most new technologies require high skill and knowledge levels at a time when, statistically, many Canadian youth are either not completing high school or are not continuing on to post-secondary education. Many of these new technologies will require skilled individuals with advanced educations at a time when post-secondary educational institutions are raising tuition fees to help offset reduced funding. This tends to make post-secondary educational institutions less accessible to individuals who might

otherwise attend to acquire the skills demanded by new technologies.

What begins to emerge from even the limited scope of the foregoing discussion is a picture of the interdependence of economic, social, technological, educational and political developments whether on the international, national, or provincial level. Those systems that involve human interaction, in particular, are open systems in which it can be shown that even one event can have far reaching repercussions on many other events, circumstances, and decisions. A simplified influence diagram is shown at Appendix C to illustrate some of the foregoing discussion about interdependent environmental forces for change.

Huse and Bowditch (1973) suggest that there are also internal pressures within an organization that act as forces for change such as organizational emergencies, crises precipitated by shortages of raw material, increased understanding of the need for change, a drop in production quality or quantity, changing viewpoints of organization members, a gut feeling by organization members at various levels that change is needed, and activities precipitated by transformational leaders. Huse and Bowditch (1973) also suggest that, unfortunately, most organizational change usually occurs only after organizational decline and / or a change in the organization's leadership. The sequence of

these events is probably not coincidental.

The sense of emergency produced by organizational crisis can be a stimulus for change. Increased knowledge about a problem motivates people to attempt to solve it by changing how things are done. Decreases in the quantity or quality of production or service will stimulate concerns about long-term survival and make people more receptive to the idea of change. New information, education, or additional experience can bring about changes in management or workforce viewpoints. Finally, a felt need for change may result from a general perception that things have been the same way for too long. A conceptual theoretical framework may demonstrate how the change process occurs.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual theoretical framework upon which the dissertation is based--open systems theory--requires some explanation about the perceived limitations of simple cause-effect relationships.

Edgar H. Schein (1965) recognized three decades ago that organizations are complex entities which must be studied as total social systems. He suggested that organizational planning for change must also begin to concern itself with questions that derive from the recognition of the system characteristics of organizations. These questions need to address not so much the behaviour of individuals as the

behaviour of groups, sub- systems, and even the total organization in response to environmental and internal forces for change. Schein writes

Concepts of multiple causation based on a field of simultaneously acting forces have replaced mechanistic notions of simple cause-effect; concepts of mutual dependency and interaction, of feedback loops and self-regulating forces have made it possible to analyze complex systems and their relationship to the external environments (p. 5).

Classical Science or Newtonianism

In contrast with Schein's perception, the mechanistic concept of classical science or "Newtonianism" of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries perceived a world in which every event was caused by initial conditions that were, in principle, determinable with precision. In the world of classical science chance played no part--all the pieces came together like cogs in a cosmic machine.

The acceptance of this view coincided with the rise of factory civilization and influenced other disciplines. For example, Marxian dialectical materialism takes Hegel's philosophy of the dialectic as its model of the process of change both in society and in the world of nature (Marx, 1932). In this view, a given situation (the thesis) generates opposing forces (the antithesis) that ultimately break up the original situation and produce a new one (the synthesis). A self-generated diagrammatic representation is shown at Figure

1 to illustrate the dissertation author's perception of the dialectic.

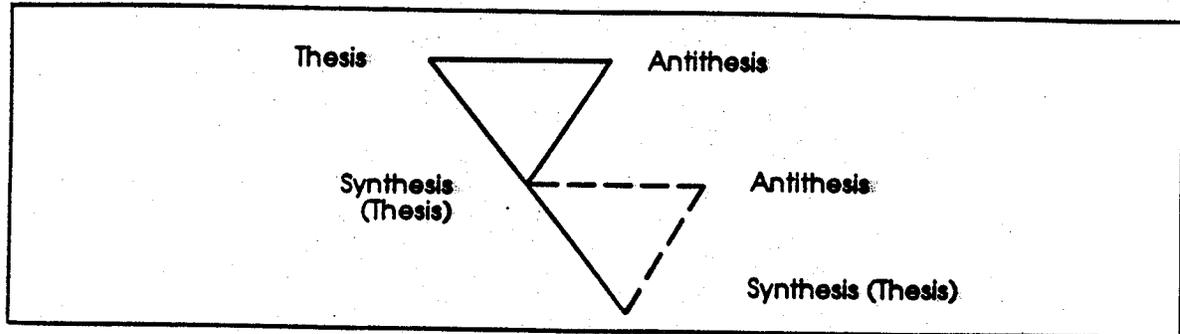


Figure 1 - The Marx/Hegel Dialectic

In the nineteenth century, the concepts of thermodynamics and social dynamics (Marx, 1848; Comte, 1877; Durkheim, 1893) challenged the timelessness implied in the mechanistic image of the universe. Thermodynamics suggested that if the world was a big machine, it was running down and its useful energy was leaking out. Biological determinists such as Charles Darwin introduced a contradictory thought: the world machine might be running down, but biological systems were running up. They were becoming more, not less, organized.

Prigogine and Stengers (1984) argue that although the machine paradigm is still the reference point for physics and the core model of science in general, the universal laws postulated in classical science are not universal at all. Classical science tended to emphasize stability, order, uniformity and equilibrium. It concerned itself mostly with closed systems and linear relationships in which small inputs

uniformly yield small results. The Prigoginian paradigm shifts attention to those aspects of reality that characterize today's accelerated social change: unpredictability, disorder, instability, diversity, disequilibrium, nonlinear relationships, and temporality--a heightened sensitivity to the flows of time.

Prigogine and Stengers suggest that while some parts of the universe may operate like machines, these are closed systems and form only a small part of the universe. Most phenomena of interest are open systems, exchanging energy and matter with their environment. For example, biological and social systems are open, which means the attempt to understand them in mechanistic terms is unlikely to succeed. This suggests, moreover, that most of reality, instead of being orderly, stable, and equilibrial, is characterized by change, disorder, and process on a relative temporal scale. Organizational changes might occur over a few months or a few years. Governmental system changes might occur over decades or even centuries. Most commentators today stress the dizzying pace at which change is occurring in society and in organizations.

Equilibrium States Theory

In Prigoginian terms, all systems contain subsystems which are continually fluctuating. At times a single

fluctuation or combination of them may become so powerful that it shatters the pre-existing organization. At this revolutionary moment, which Prigogine identifies as the "singular moment" or "bifurcation point", it is inherently impossible to determine in advance which direction change will take: whether the system will disintegrate into chaos, or leap to a new, more differentiated, higher level of order or organization. For example, the singular chaotic moment in the former Soviet Union may have been the point at which the Communist Party ceased to control the state. The singular moment in the reunification of West and East Germany may have been symbolized by destruction of the Berlin wall.

Prigogine and Stengers argue that order and organization can actually arise out of disorder and chaos through a process of self-organization. To understand this concept requires a differentiation among systems that are in "equilibrium", systems that are "near-equilibrium" and systems that are "far-from-equilibrium". For example, from the perspective of the influence of environmental stimuli on a societal system, a population in which birth and death rates were relatively equal would be in a state of "equilibrium" (see Figure 2).

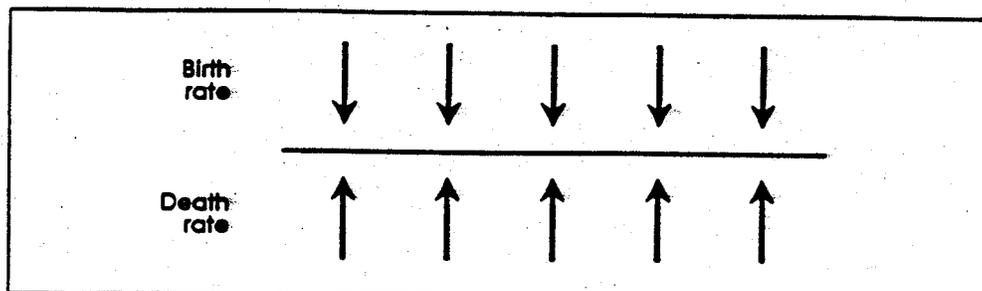


Figure 2 - Equilibrium State

If the birth rate were to increase slightly, and the death rate remained the same, the population could be said to be in a "near-equilibrium" state (see Figure 3).

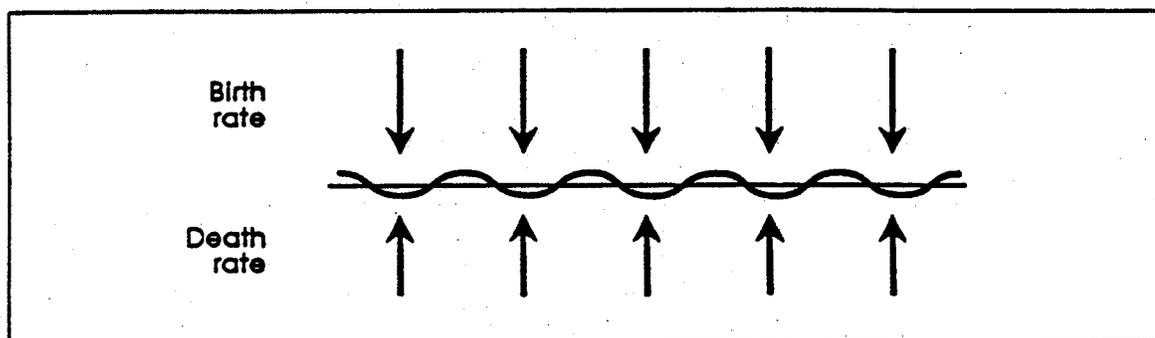


Figure 3 - Near-Equilibrium State

However, if the birthrate should increase substantially, and the death rate remained the same or decreased, the population is pushed into a "far-from-equilibrium" state and nonlinear relationships prevail. In this state, systems do strange things. They become inordinately sensitive to stimuli. Small inputs yield huge, startling results. A "bifurcation point" may be reached and a new "dissipative structure" may form (see Figure 4).

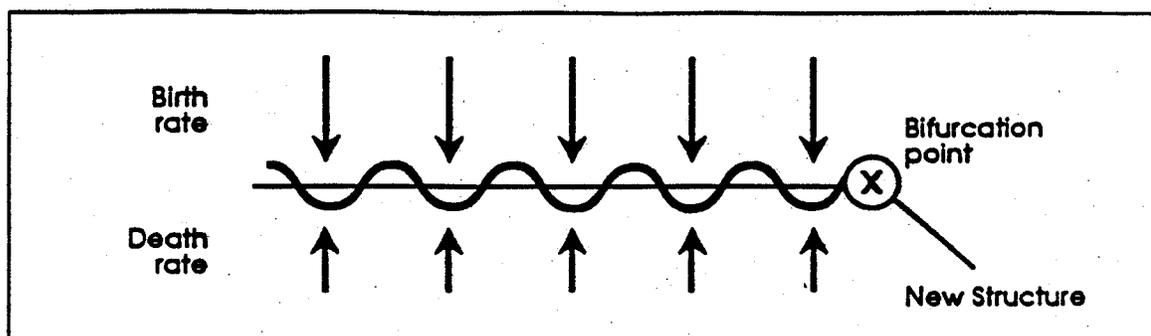


Figure 4 - Far-from-Equilibrium State

Prigogine and Stengers suggest that these conditions of relative equilibrium may apply to both organic and inorganic systems (excluding some physical, closed systems). For example, mixing two chemical solutions will produce a new solution with a new molecular structure from which the initial component solutions cannot be extracted. The actual mixing process--the introduction of external stimuli--produces a "far-from-equilibrium" condition which reaches a bifurcation point when the two solutions assimilate to produce a new solution.

This theory seems to apply to organic systems as well. In one recent study, described by Toffler in the "Foreword" to the Prigogine and Stengers publication, ants were divided into two categories: (1) hard workers, and (2) inactive or "lazy" ants. One might conceivably attribute such traits to genetic predisposition. However, the study found that if the system were shattered by separating the two groups from each other, each in turn developed its own subgroups of workers and idlers. A significant percentage of the lazy ants suddenly turned into hard workers.

If one accepts the theory of equilibrium states, there may be significant implications for the study of individual, collective, and system behaviour. Human beings are unique among species in their ability to think and conceptualize;

therefore, human beings do not react exclusively to external stimuli. They react to internal stimuli such as attitudes, values, beliefs, drives, needs (Maslow, 1954) etc. as well. Organizations may be similarly affected by internal and external environmental forces that foster change.⁵

The Prigogine and Stengers model provides a view of the change process at a macro level. A model that is somewhat consistent with the Prigogine and Stengers model and which can be applied at an organizational level is that proposed by Lewin (1951). While the Prigogine and Stengers model focuses on unplanned change and forces acting upon equilibrium states, the Lewin model focuses on planned organizational change and the driving or restraining forces which affect the status quo or organizational equilibrium. Planned change refers to change which is deliberately shaped by organizational members as opposed to change which is fortuitous or accidental.

The Lewin Development Model

The Lewin model is a three-step model which describes the progressive development that occurs as part of a planned change process (Lewin, 1951). According to this model, planned change occurs through stages of unfreezing, transforming, and refreezing.

Unfreezing is a preparatory action which weakens existing attitudes, values, and behaviours to prepare people to change

the status quo. New and different experiences or information are used to challenge routine perceptions. Transforming is the step during which change actually occurs. Organizational members begin to internalize the value of proposed changes and to adopt new attitudes and behaviours at work. Refreezing focuses on institutionalizing the change initiated during the transforming stage. During this stage, new attitudes, values, and behaviours are integrated into everyday organizational processes and procedures. For example, leaders become less directive as subordinates assume newly developed decision-making roles. Reward systems change to reinforce cooperation rather than competition. Managers meet regularly with subordinates to facilitate improved communication.

The status quo defined by Lewin can be considered equivalent to the equilibrium state defined by Prigogine and Stengers. The differences are primarily matters of micro (Lewin, 1951) or macro (Prigogine and Stengers, 1984) scale. To move from this equilibrium, which requires overcoming the pressures of both individual resistance and group conformity, unfreezing is necessary. However, there are both driving forces, which direct behaviour away from the status quo, and restraining forces, which hinder movement from the existing equilibrium toward the new, desired position.

Therefore, to accomplish unfreezing one must either increase driving forces, decrease restraining forces, or

combine the two. Driving forces might include, for example, global competition, technological developments and automation, political and social developments, and a sense of crisis in the organization. Restraining forces might include, for example, bureaucratic inertia, employee fears and insecurities about change and the subsequent resistance that evolves, social disruption caused by breaking up work groups, economic considerations and fear that income level may be adversely affected, new work habits or sacrifices that are required, threats to attitudes and beliefs, potential loss of status or rank, ineffective communication about intended change, inability to see the larger-scale influences on the organization, rational opposition in that the perceived benefits do not offset the costs, and ineffective leadership and inappropriate management behaviour, among others.

Setting organizational change in motion requires identifying and overcoming sources of resistance and strengthening sources of support. A diagnostic technique developed by Lewin, which he describes as force field analysis, depicts the array of forces for and against a particular change in a graphic form. Two lines are drawn, one representing the organization's present situation, status quo, or equilibrium, and the other representing the organization's desired change or new position. Forces that support change are shown as arrows pushing in the direction of desired

change. Forces resisting change are drawn as arrows pushing in the opposite direction. The length of the arrow indicates the perceived strength of the force relative to the other forces in the forcefield. In situations where the length of the arrows are clearly unequal, there is a state of disequilibrium to which Prigogine and Stengers refer (see Figure 5).

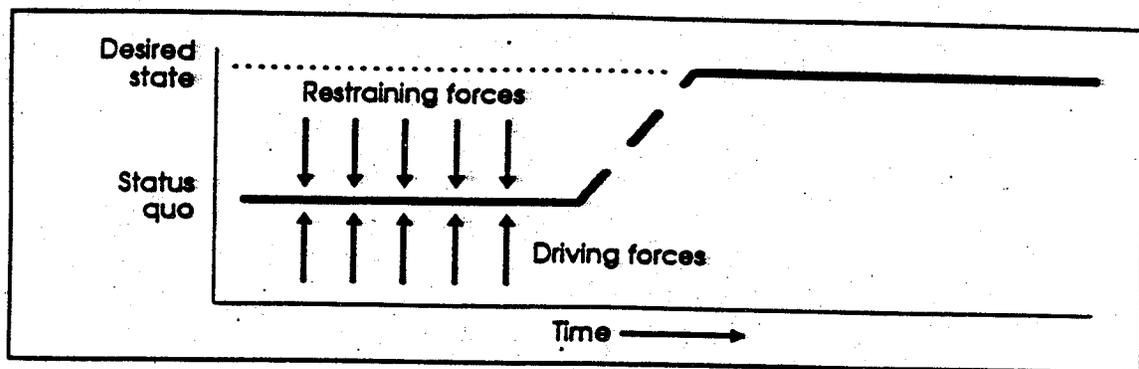


Figure 5 - Forcefield Analysis

Source: From Robbins, S.P. (1991). Organizational Behavior, 5th ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Although there are no fail-safe measures to overcome resistance at an individual, group or organizational level in a potential change situation, there are six potential options identified by Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) which are frequently used.

1. Education and communication. This involves disseminating information about the need and rationale for a prospective change through discussions, group meetings, and written memos or reports. This approach is best used where there is

a lack of information or inaccurate information and analysis. Once persuaded through education, people will often help with the implementation of change, but this process takes time.

2. Participation and involvement. This involves including those to be affected by the change in its design and implementation. This process is useful in situations where the initiators do not have all the information they need to design the change and others have considerable power to resist.
3. Facilitation and support. This involves providing job training and emotional support through meetings and counselling sessions for employees affected by the change. This method is useful when people are resisting change because of problems with personal adjustment.
4. Bargaining and negotiation. This involves working with resistant employees or groups through bargaining and trade-offs to provide them with incentives to change their minds. This technique is sometimes used if an individual or group (e.g. a union) with the power to block a change is likely to lose out if the change takes place. Negotiation can be a relatively easy way to accommodate change, but it can also be costly.
5. Hidden persuasion. This involves using covert efforts and supplying information on a selective basis to get people to support desired changes. It can be a quick and inexpensive way to facilitate change, but it can lead to future problems if people feel manipulated or co-opted.
6. Explicit and implicit coercion. This involves using power and threats of negative consequences to change the minds of resistant individuals. It tends to be used when speed is essential and when those initiating change have considerable power. However, it can be risky if it leaves people angry. (pp. 102-21).

All these potential options are tools of what is known as an organizational development (OD) process. When set in motion by OD processes, planned organizational change is

guided by values such as those identified by French (1969), although this set of values and this approach to OD are only one of many. These values direct the way OD influences relations among people and groups, reflect dynamic, organic types of organizations and include recognition of the following:

1. The needs and aspirations of human beings are the reasons for organized effort in society. From this value grows a strong concern with enhancing the personal development and satisfaction of all members of an organization. This concern, in turn, creates a self-fulfilling prophecy. The belief that one can grow and develop in personal and organizational competence tends to produce conditions conducive to such growth and development.
2. Openness is essential to working together effectively. This value holds that life and work can be more worthwhile and organized effort more effective if people openly express feelings and sentiments. However, openness may be hazardous without employee protection from possible retribution by superiors. Further, groups in conflict are unlikely to be able to communicate with each other without a neutral party or procedure. Therefore, openness in the workplace is unlikely to develop without first eliminating the negative effects of hierarchical and political barriers.
3. Commitment to both action and research is required. Some organizations get so caught up in the action of implementing change that careful design, controls, and other necessary elements of OD research tend to be ignored. However, research into the nature and effectiveness of change processes and interventions in organizations is indispensable.
4. Democratization, or power sharing, in organizations is a valued outcome of the OD process. Humanizing a workplace and building a participatory atmosphere does not mean reducing or neutralizing the power of managers. The goal of OD is to increase everyone's power by encouraging the development of both technical and human relations competence in all employees. (pp. 49-50).

Conclusions

Organizations are open social systems which are influenced by the environment and by changes inside the organization. The rapid and unpredictable change which characterizes society today, including the forces of increased global competition described briefly at the beginning of this chapter, have made it important for Canadian industry, government, and educational institutions to adapt to the requirements of a more uncertain and complex world.

In simplistic terms, organizational change can be planned or unplanned. If either external or internal influences on the organization become too strong, the organization can lose "equilibrium" and unplanned change may occur. However, if influences on the organization are anticipated and addressed, planned change can occur theoretically through a process of preparation for the change, transformation of attitudes and behaviours, and institutionalization of new values, attitudes and behaviours. This requires communication with and education, participation and involvement of the organization's employees through an organizational development process. However, even when planning is conducted and plans are put in place, change seldom occurs in the ways the plans have forecast. Within most organizations, particularly in the public sector, change involves a combination of planning and

strategic improvisation (Behn, 1988).

Finally, planned organizational change is a rational paradigm which may seem unrealistic in today's world given the assumptions it makes about the ability of individuals and organizations to understand the environment and to respond appropriately (Kiel, 1994; Mintzberg, 1994). The rational paradigm assumes that individuals and organizations ultimately control their own responses to circumstances rather than being controlled by their environment.

Organization Behaviour

Organizational processes such as communication, decision-making, performance evaluation, organizational socialization, and career development give life to the organization. Conversely, the manner in which organizational members communicate, make decisions, evaluate employee performance, socialize new organizational members, and develop employee careers are influenced by the organization. Thus, a hierarchical, mechanistic type of organization with high complexity, formalization, and centralization will tend to lead to and be influenced by bureaucratic processes which are part of the organizational culture. The organizational culture tends to influence the organization's climate, which Morgan (1986) suggests is a subset of the larger social culture. Fairholm (1994) refers to climate as

...a group member's perceptions about the organizational environment. It includes issues of individual autonomy, the degree of structure imposed on the position, the reward orientation present in the organization, the level of consideration, warmth and support present, and the expected interpersonal trust. (p. 43).

Operationally, climate comprises several dimensions which can include task structure, degree of decision centralization, levels of interpersonal trust, modes of communication and feedback, problem-solving processes and problem resolution systems. It measures the fit between the prevailing culture and the individual values of the employees (Fairholm, 1994).

Bureaucracy

The word "bureaucracy" as a descriptor of culture, climate, structure, processes, and behaviour is an emotionally-laden term which has come to connote red tape, inefficiency, and incompetence. However, in its original conception by Max Weber, a German sociologist and political scientist, it was determined to be a reasonable organizational model. In the early 1900s, Weber began to recognize the increasing role of government in administration and regulation and considered the organizational structures of that time to be inappropriate to accommodate social and political problems. In Weber's perception, a bureaucratic structure would: (a) maintain equal treatment for clientele; (b) process clientele quickly; and (c) increase rational decision-making by minimizing the personal influences and biases of individual employees (Weber, translation, 1968, pp 973 - 978).

Weber felt that this type of organizational design should have several well-defined characteristics (Gerth and Mills, 1946, pp 196 - 198).

1. Specialization of Labour. The goals of the organization are divided into functional specialties. Individuals become experts in their own functional areas. Appointments to positions are on the basis of ability, not loyalty.
2. Well-defined hierarchy of authority. Officials of a bureaucracy are arranged in a hierarchical order, with each level being controlled by the next higher level.

3. Clearly defined responsibilities and authority. The duties of each official are clearly spelled out, and lines of authority and accountability are clear. Job descriptions delineate each official's sphere of responsibility, and he or she is the ultimate authority within those limits.
4. Systems of rules and procedures. Systems are developed to assure consistency of decision-making. Officials are guided by explicit rules and procedures. Decisions are made by first categorizing the case, then by applying the appropriate rule.
5. Impersonality of relations. Impersonality is attained through specialization of function and the creation of rules and procedures. Emphasis is placed upon logical rather than emotional considerations.
6. Promotion based on technical qualifications. Promotions based on qualifications assure that offices (job positions) are always filled with qualified people.
7. Centralization of authority. With specialization of labour, problems of coordination are increased. By centralizing authority in the upper levels, coordination problems are minimized.
8. Written records. To preserve and maintain uniformity of action, bureaucracies maintain adequate files of previous decisions. This assures equal treatment of clients, since officials can refer to precedent cases and make consistent decisions.

The rationale for the establishment of bureaucracy, which was partly to ensure uniformity and consistency in decision-making, is well-founded. However, the generally rigid rules, policies, and procedures which have evolved have tended to foster some behaviours perceived as less-than-desirable (March and Simon, 1958; Blau and Scott, 1982; Rogers, 1973). Some examples are:

1. Rigidity of behaviour. Because of the need for

control within large organizations and the consequent use of general, impersonal rules, the behaviour of bureaucratic officials may become quite rigid. Behaviour often becomes rule-oriented, particularly if a decision is challenged by a client or customer. In the extreme, enforcement of the rule may become more important than serving the client.

2. Impersonality of treatment. Since bureaucratic rules and procedures are purposely designed to be impersonal to provide equal treatment for clients, this behaviour is ostensibly positive. This same impersonality, however, can cause clients to feel they are not being treated as individuals or are being treated with less than minimal courtesy and this can cause them to resent the organization.
3. Identification with subgoals. Because the organization is divided into functional units and adherence to organizational policies is emphasized within subunits, members of the organization may begin to identify with the goals of the subunit at the expense of the larger organization. As functionalization becomes highly developed, members are unable to see, or do not care, how their particular function relates to the total system. Client treatment tends to become fractionalized, again leading to client dissatisfaction.
4. Minimum acceptable behavior. One of the unanticipated undesirable consequences of managing an organization by impersonal rules is that it induces members to focus on the minimum standard of behaviour. In the Weberian context, this might not pose a problem since advancement is theoretically on the basis of merit and technical qualifications; however, if other criteria for promotion such as seniority or patronage are interjected, the motivation to perform above the minimum level may be affected.
5. Operationalization of goals. Undue reliance on making performance goals clear and measurable can create misleading impressions about organizational or subunit effectiveness. For example, if the Unemployment Insurance Commission processes a greater number of clients and distributes a higher volume of payments from one period to another it could be said that the performance of that organization had improved if number of clients and volume of payments were the performance measures. However, if the government's goal is to reduce unemployment and

decrease payments to unemployed clients, the activities of the Unemployment Insurance Commission may be detracting from the overall goal.

6. Resistance to change. Bureaucracies can be slow to change because (a) functional units are difficult to coordinate during change processes; (b) the highly structured environment pervades the system and it is difficult to design new policies and procedures to accommodate new environments; and (c) existing patterns of behaviour become internalized because they are rewarded.
7. Narrow development of bureaucrats. Over time, employees can become experts in highly specialized areas to the detriment of their individual overall development and motivation may decrease because of the confining nature of the job. Development may suffer because of the employees' inability to broaden their experiential base.
8. Avoidance of responsibility. The need for control and predictability contributes to an avoidance of responsibility. There is safety in rule-oriented decisions, especially if the decision-makers face controversy or potential confrontation with clients within the bureaucratic sphere of authority. Bureaucrats who are vulnerable to attack tend to seek refuge in the rules.

A negative manifestation of most public sector bureaucracies is the proliferation of "red tape". Kaufman(1977) suggests that the term evolved from the ribbon once used to tie up legal documents in England. He says

Because the common law gives great weight to precedent, every judicial decision must have been preceded by a rough search of the records for guidance and authority. Such a system presumes that records of every transaction are punctiliously filed and cross-filed. We may surmise, therefore, that legions of clerks and lawyers spent a good deal of their time tying and untying the ribbon-bound folders (p. 1).

Kaufman also suggests that one person's red tape may be another person's procedural safeguard; therefore, red tape is partly a matter of perception. What members of the public seem to object to with public sector bureaucratic red tape, then, is based partly on their perception of the constraints that bureaucracy imposes upon their particular circumstances at a particular time as individuals, and partly on their general perception of the overall conduct of the bureaucracy. This perception is substantially affected by the media (Kernaghan and Siegel, 1991) and the political process.

Some of the factors that contribute to red tape are (a) apparently irrelevant regulatory requirements. Not all requirements specifically pertain to all segments of the general population, but the democratic principle of equal treatment frequently requires that all segments comply with the requirements of laws that are intended to regulate a specific few. For example, tax laws may be created to plug tax loopholes that have been manipulated by only some organizations or individuals; (b) duplicative and contradictory requirements. These exist where comparable agencies at different levels of government may exist for the same purpose and where fulfilling the requirement of one piece of legislation may conflict with or contradict the intent of another. For example, the Freedom of Information Act may conflict with the right to privacy; or the Freedom of

Information act with the National Defence Act which prohibits the release of information that might potentially damage national security; and (c) inertia. Once requirements and practices are instituted they frequently tend to remain in force long after the conditions that required their creation have ceased to exist.

Clearly, the consequences of the proliferation of bureaucratic red tape are serious. There are limits to administrative growth in the public sector. In a simplified way, the growth process in government is often portrayed as being driven by the following dynamic:

- (1) while the object of politics may be arguably somewhat Machiavellian in nature, to obtain and maintain power (Christie and Geis, 1970), the object of government is to govern, which it does by passing "laws".
- (2) whether these laws are passed to support re-election, or for political expediency, or for the greater good of the citizenry, each law requires administration. The more encompassing the law, and the larger its scope, the greater the degree of administration required and the greater the number of administrators who must administer the law.
- (3) hence, the more laws that are made, the larger the public services tend to grow at all levels.
- (4) if the public services are not permitted to grow, when the need for more administration has been created by additional laws, the level of service to the public tends to be adversely affected. Service deteriorates.
- 5) if the level of service to the general public is adversely affected, public dissatisfaction tends to be expressed at the polls at election time in subsequent elections.
- (6) if the general public is prepared to accept decreased service from the public sector, reductions in the public service are likely to be accepted.

The most effective solution to restraint of the bureaucracy in government may not be found in the reduction of the public services, but in a focus on introducing structural innovations, improving managerial competence, and fostering transformational leadership ability from top management on down. Schwartz and Davis (1986) say

Recent research...aimed at understanding the behaviour of...managers suggests that the primary influence on their behaviour is top management behaviour which, in turn, reflects their [top management's] philosophies, management and styles of leadership. The choices [top] managers make reflect their view of reality--the values, beliefs and norms that served them and the [organization] well during their own rise to power. It is those choices that continually reaffirm the [organization's] culture and reinforce the expected behaviour across the organization (p. 79).

Bureaucracies reflect a highly-structured way of conducting operations, developed by top management over time, and possess values, rites, rituals, and an organizational network which may endeavour to resist change. A popular descriptor for this organizational environment, and the basis of a perspective in viewing organizational change which was particularly popular in the 1980s, is called organizational or corporate culture.

Organizational Culture

Studies of organizational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Pascale and Athos, 1981; Ouchi, 1981; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Schein, 1985; Frost, Moore, Louis, Lundberg

and Martin, 1985) have recognized the importance of this dimension of organizational life. Schein (1985) proposes a top-down perspective that cultures are created by leaders in the organization, and that perhaps the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create, manage, and sometimes destroy culture.

However, the word culture has numerous meanings and connotations. Some of the more common ones identified by Schein (1985) are

- (1) Observed behavioural regularities when people interact, such as the language used and the rituals around deference and demeanour (Goffman, 1959; Van Maanen, 1979).
- (2) The norms that evolve in working groups, such as the particular norm of "a fair day's work for a fair day's pay" (Homans, 1950).
- (3) The dominant values espoused by an organization, such as "product quality" or "price leadership" (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).
- (4) The philosophy that guides an organization's policy toward employees and/or customers, such as "total quality management" (Ouchi, 1981).
- (5) The rules of the game for getting along in the organizations, "the ropes" a newcomer must learn to become an accepted member (Schein, 1968, 1978; Van Maanen, 1976, 1979; Ritti and Funkhouser, 1982).
- (6) The feeling or climate that is conveyed in an organization by the physical layout and the way in which members of the organization interact with customers, other outsiders, or with one another. (Tagiuri and Litwin, 1968).

Schein (1985) suggests further that culture reflects the basic beliefs and assumptions that are shared by members of an

organization and which can be found only where there is a definable group with a significant history (pp. 6-7).

Organizations evolve from small groups, but they develop dynamics that go beyond those of small groups. Social movements, new religions, and political groups are begun by leaders who sell new visions and new solutions to problems (e.g. The Reform Party). Similarly, private sector firms are created by entrepreneurs who have a vision of creating a new product or service in the marketplace with the right group of people. As organizations begin to grow and evolve more structure and control are needed. Roles and responsibilities require clearer definition. People demand consistency and uniform treatment. This sows the seeds of bureaucracy.

Institutions of higher education are as much affected by bureaucratic evolution and subsequent constraints as any other organization. Organizations such as Red River Community College for example, are government-funded and government-controlled vocational and trades training institutions that have evolved as a response to identified agricultural, wartime, business, industry and labour market needs over time.

As is often the case with many other government organizations, those community colleges that are situated directly under provincial government departments possess many of the characteristics and manifestations of a bureaucracy

(Glenn, 1985). The Colleges are subject to many external policies, procedures, directives, rules, regulations, and financial constraints that tend to inhibit their effective and efficient operation. The organizational culture and management processes of government-controlled community colleges, therefore, tend to be bureaucratic as a consequence of historical influence.

These colleges were created as a result of government policy, are controlled by government policy and the need for direct accountability, and tend to reflect a bureaucratic mind set. Barker (1989) suggests that mind set may reflect the nature of the paradigm under which specific organizations function. He defines paradigm as "...a set of rules and regulations that: (1) defines boundaries; and (2) tells [one] what to do to be successful within those boundaries. Success is measured by the problems [one] solve[s] using these rules and regulations" (p. 14).

Historically, public sector organizations, and government-controlled vocational training institutions, have tended to operate in certain bureaucratic ways which reflect a particular paradigm. However, globalization and labour market demands now require these organizations and institutions to respond more quickly to changes than they have in the past (CEIC, Success in the Works, 1989; Economic Council, 1990).

Change can be a difficult experience which tends to generate resistance among those who feel threatened (Lewin, 1947). Part of this resistance can be based upon what Barker calls "paradigm paralysis". Organizations become unable or unwilling to consider other options or alternative ways of doing things because the present way seems to accommodate the organization's needs--at least for the present. However, new global and educational realities require new rules and a new perspective.

Schein (1985) writes that the function of culture in the life of an organization changes as the organization matures. When an organizational group first forms, its culture tends to create a predictable environment and provides meaning, identity and a communication system. Generations later, the culture may be so embedded and traditional that it serves only to reinforce the older, more conservative elements in the group.

The kind of change that can occur depends on both the degree to which the organization is unfrozen and ready for change (Lewin, 1947) and on the developmental stage of the organization. The forces that can unfreeze a given culture are also likely to be different at different stages of organizational development, and certain mechanisms of change will have particular relevance at certain stages of development.

Not all organizations follow the same developmental path; therefore, organizational decline is not inevitable. Further, although "life cycle" theories of organization tend to create over-simplified analyses of events in an organization's evolution, the Schein model offers a reasonable overview. Schein (1985) suggests that in the formative stages, the organizational culture tends to be a positive growth force, which needs to be elaborated, developed, and articulated. In organizational midlife, the culture becomes diverse. Identifying and deciding what elements need change or preservation becomes one of the more difficult issues the leadership and management face at that time. In the maturity and decline situation, the culture often becomes increasingly dysfunctional and must change in some areas; this creates more drastic problems for the leadership and management. Appendix D shows the stages.

While two American community college educators (Eaton, 1984; Martin, 1985) make a point about the American community college system when they suggest that community colleges may, in fact, have reached a mid-life crisis, the Canadian community college system is identified more appropriately perhaps as in the latter part of the succession stage and leading into a mid-life crisis, based on Schein's model. The Canadian community college system evolved approximately fifty years later than the American community

college system and is funded somewhat differently. Consequently, considerations such as deteriorating college infrastructures, faculty knowledge and skills in specialized and evolving subject areas, and funding deficiencies are now becoming serious matters of concern (Dennison and Gallagher, 1986; Dennison, 1995).

Although infrastructure deterioration and funding deficiencies are relative concepts and may be largely matters of perception, Peters and Waterman (1982) suggest that employee perceptions about how their organization operates are more important than what the official documents communicate. For example, the mission statement for an organization may indicate that the organization subscribes to values such as excellence, quality, integrity, communication, respect, participation, personal growth and innovation. But, if the organizational members do not believe that the organization, its leaders, and its managers actually manifest those values in any significant way, the mission statement has little or no credibility.

The credibility issue reflects the extent to which the organizational values, beliefs, and propositions have been communicated to the organization members, are believed, and are supported. For example, where mistrust is evident between management and employees, the situation tends to reflect a negative organizational climate. If the mistrust or lack of

faith in management ability has been manifested over time, that is, the organization members have become accustomed to perceiving the organization's management as untrustworthy or as incapable, the attitude of the organization's members becomes part of the organization's culture. Thus, many organization members will tend to respond predictably and negatively to change initiatives from management. In situations where an adversarial or antagonistic relationship has been created, such as that which might evolve between management and the collective bargaining agent for the non-management organization members, polarities are created and become solidified over time at the opposite extremes. This tends to inhibit the cooperative relationships that are essential to the accomplishment of the organization's goals. However, conflict may not necessarily be destructive of trust if disagreements are channelled in a positive direction and disputes are resolved in an ethical manner. (Tjosvold, 1991, pp 3-4).

There are two perspectives on an organization's culture: one view is that culture is something that organizations have; the other view is that culture is what defines organizations. Proponents of the former depict cultures as tangible things that are consciously created and handed down by upper management to passive and uninformed organization members. Conrad (1990) says

Organizations are composed of active, thinking human beings....people sometimes interpret their organization's

culture as offensive and manipulative (regardless of how management interprets it), sometimes desire changes that are very different from those envisioned by managerial "change agents," often resist even positive changes in their organization's culture, and generally make "culture management" or "planned cultural change" exceptionally difficult (p. 15).

Wilkins (1989) suggests this means that successful culture change depends on understanding how all employees perceive and respond to their organization's culture and to efforts to change it.

Another view of organizational cultures is that organizations are cultures, not that they have cultures. This perspective sees organizational cultures as intangible, shared meanings that people assign to their surroundings (Frost and others, 1985). Conrad (1990) suggests that cultures are communication creations. They are developed and sustained by all employees, not just management. The organization's employees develop distinctive ways of perceiving and communicating about the events around them. By acting and communicating in appropriate and predictable ways, they make other organization members feel comfortable. Communication also fills the need for social ties.

Cultures are also historical (Schein, 1985). They develop over time, and the legacy of past events, people, and patterns of communicating continue to be acted out in the ways in which people respond to the organization. The expectation that a

culture will continue to exist in the way it has in the past influences the ways in which people interact and communicate with each other (Palmer, 1969). Further, rituals and ritualized communication often continue to exist long after the functional basis has disappeared. The sole reason for rituals, then, becomes one of maintaining the organization's culture. Participating in the rituals symbolizes one's membership in and commitment to the culture. Thus, in a sense, rituals encompass the history of an organization and reflect the constraints that its history imposes (Dandridge, 1985).⁶

A major element in organizational change, therefore, is an effective communication system and processes that seek to create a positive organizational climate, to develop or sustain a trusting, receptive, dynamic organizational culture, and to incorporate these into the leadership and management planning practices of the organization.

System Characteristics

The community college system has an overall culture characterized by certain values, some of which are shared with other institutions of higher learning. These values include: respect for free inquiry; integrity in the search for truth; order; civility in human exchanges; respect for the rights of others; decency and fair play; social tolerance and moral

relativism. But there are other elements in the community college system culture and institutional sub-cultures that are distinctive about this type of educational institution, at least in theory. These elements include: pluralism and diversity about racial and ethnic differences, or social class, or religious orientation; responsiveness to individual and community wants, needs, and societal culture; and commitment to equality of opportunity and accessibility (Gallagher, 1990; Dennison, 1995).⁷

Conversely, the emphasis on practical aspects of learning, which tend to characterize community colleges, frequently results in what is perceived as an authoritarian style, non-nonsense utilitarian learning, and a type of teaching approach that favours regimentation. Many community college students seem to have impatience with deferred gratification, a preference for immediate results, a short attention span for the theoretical or academic, and a certain anti-intellectualism (Eaton, 1984; Martin, 1985).

Undoubtedly, there is a gap between the rhetoric that colleges espouse, aspire to reflect in their activities, and actually accomplish. Further, it is widely perceived that a bureaucratic culture exists in many government-controlled community college systems, although there is a limited amount of systematic, empirical data to confirm this perception. (Youdell, 1989; Glenn, 1985). Anecdotal evidence provided by

practitioners, however, describes bureaucratic features which complicate and perhaps frustrate the achievement of the educational mission. For example, bureaucratic managerial decisions affect: acquisition of current technology, equipment, and software; access to educational conferences, seminars, and workshops which are crucial to maintaining the currency and relevance of instructor knowledge; the quantity and quality of library materials; support systems to accommodate changing demographics and a multicultural student body; the construction and renovation of needed facilities; and the extent to which organizational human resources are developed and utilized.

Glenn (1985) suggests that the majority of government officials and college managers she interviewed believed the Manitoba community college governance system was too bureaucratic and that it suffocated individuality. Interviewees expressed concern about over-governance, the tremendous proliferation of administrative positions, and the long overdue need for reorganization, particularly at Red River Community College.

Recent initiatives at Red River Community College to introduce the concept of total quality management are a response to a perceived need for change in the way in which that organization has operated previously. Additionally, the withdrawal of financial support for many of the college's

certificate courses by Canada Employment and Immigration, reduced funding to both colleges and universities as a result of constrained transfer payments from the federal government, and increased funding for private sector training through the Canadian Jobs Strategy (CJS) have had a major influence on the need for change in the entire Manitoba community college system in the future (Glenn, 1985; Youdell, 1989).

Consequently, through legislative initiatives, policy interventions and resource allocation decisions, the Governments of Canada and Manitoba have had the most significant, direct influences on the Manitoba community colleges.

Shared values and vision are reflected in an organization's philosophy which provides guidance, direction, and focus for the organization. The organization's philosophy is usually manifestly expressed in its mission statement which states what the organization purports to be or strives to be. The mission statement, then, reflects the overall strategic objectives for the organization as a whole in philosophical terms. However, an appropriate culture, climate and leader/manager behaviours are what tends to enable the strategic objectives to be accomplished.

Accordingly, Likert (1969) and Taylor and Bowers (1972) identify organizational climate and leadership and supervisory

behaviour as causal variables in organizations. Causal variables are those factors that influence the development of an organization and its results or accomplishments (e.g. management style and strategies, organizational structure and objectives, technology and others). These are relatively independent variables that can be changed by the organization and its management, not variables that may be beyond the organization's direct purview such as funding. However, even causal variables can be affected by other variables because they are interdependent. Therefore, they are not completely independent and may show the effects as well as be the causes of other aspects of the system.

Organizational Climate. Taylor and Bowers (1972) suggest that organizational climate can be understood and measured on the basis of three essential premises.

First, groups, rather than isolated individuals, form the basic building blocks of organizations. Second, those groups are interlinked by their functional and hierarchical ties. Third, the functioning patterns prevailing outside a given group, primarily those above it, affect corresponding functional patterns within that group. This impact is transmitted to a group through perceptions and information sharing...(p. 62).

Taylor and Bowers consider measures of organizational climate to be such things as: technological readiness (e.g. the organization's adaptability to improved work methods); human resources primacy (e.g. the extent to which the organization has a genuine interest in the welfare and happiness of those

who work there and the extent to which employees feel valued); communication flow (e.g. the organization's receptiveness to ideas and suggestions); motivational conditions (e.g. how the organization resolves disagreements and creates an environment that encourages employees to work hard); and decision-making practices (e.g. the extent to which the organization includes employees in the process or the level at which decisions tend to be made).

Hunt (1991) suggests that while organizational climate was a research focus primarily during the 1960s and 1970s, (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974; Schneider, 1975; Payne and Pugh, 1976), the study of organizational culture is more a phenomenon of the 1980s. Hunt also suggests that those who treat climate and culture as synonymous (Gordon, 1985; Lippitt, Langseth and Mossop, 1985) are misguided. Schneider and Rentsch (1988) consider climate to be the message organizational members receive from organizational routines and the reward system. They define culture as the values and norms underlying the organizational routines, in addition to the shared assumptions reflected in the norms and values. Fairholm (1994, p. 43) provides further clarification on the differences. He writes that climate is a measure of whether people's expectations are being met, not of what the expectations are. Climate is transitory, tactical and manageable, whereas the overall culture is longer term and

strategic. Climate is a function of how individuals perceive the organization today, in the context of the culture. Culture refers to the general underlying values, historical context, and philosophy as well as the immediate climate concerns.

Leadership and Supervisory Behaviour. Yukl (1989) estimates there are more than 10,000 leadership studies; therefore, the opinions and observations about leadership are both extensive and varied. Fleishman (1973) defines it as "an attempt at influencing the activities of followers through the communication process and toward the attainment of some goal or goals" (p. 3) which is the definition that is being used for the purposes of this study. Supervision generally refers to the first level of management above operative employees. The functions of supervision are the same as for all levels of manager: planning, organizing, motivating, staffing and controlling. However, at a supervisory level, management generally involves more direct controlling and less planning and organizing than at middle or upper management levels (Mahoney, Jerdee, and Carroll; 1965).

Bowers (1972) suggests that the foundation of the organization is the group, which consists of the supervisor and those subordinates immediately responsible to him or her. All groups are characterized by the same basic processes that make them function well or poorly; however, groups at the top

of the organizational pyramid have a greater influence on the conditions within which groups nearer its base must work than the latter have upon the former. Upper management groups, for example, detail policies, objectives and procedures which significantly affect the productivity, attitudes, and daily work lives of groups at the base of the pyramid.

The manner in which a group supervisor acts toward subordinates establishes subordinate behaviours toward one another and toward their performance on the job. The connection between supervisors and subordinates in groups creates a system of management. A system of management that is harsh, autocratic, fearful of acting improperly, unwilling to share information, and unable to maintain any real control over that which affects it can be perceived as having a negative organizational climate. Another system that is characterized by feelings of loyalty, a sense of involvement and commitment to the organization and its objectives, and a willingness to share information and expertise to ensure things go well can be perceived as having a positive organizational climate. The system which seems to function best is participative, information-sharing, group-based, cooperative, and possesses the concomitant leadership this environment implies (Likert, 1961; Guest, Hersey and Blanchard, 1977).

For purposes of this study, leadership and supervisory

strategies, skills, behaviour, and other causal variables affect the human resources or intervening variables in an organization. Likert (1969) suggests that intervening variables are largely produced by the causal variables and represent the current condition of the internal state of the organization. They are reflected in loyalty, commitment to objectives, motivation, problem-solving, decision-making, organizational climate, and capacity for effective interaction.

Output or end-result variables are the dependent variables that reflect the achievements of the organization. These are generally expressed as employee levels of satisfaction and productivity or performance effectiveness.

Conclusions

Organizational member behaviour in public sector organizations is frequently described as bureaucratic, which may carry with it negative connotations of red tape, inefficiency, managerial incompetence, excessive expenditures, and a lack of leadership.

To a large extent, the often complex and formalized rules, policies, and procedures that have evolved may have fostered some less-than-desirable manifestations such as: rigid or minimum acceptable behaviour; impersonal treatment; resistance to change; narrow experiential development; and avoidance of

responsibility.

Possible approaches to improving efficiency and effectiveness in public sector organizations, therefore, may include: (a) improving managerial competence with human resources through managerial training; and (b) fostering leadership ability to influence those human resources toward more desirable behaviours, from top management on down. However, it should also be noted that if the reward structure in the organization reinforces rigidity and formalization, training alone is unlikely to create behavioural change.

A major component in improving management skills and leadership ability in organizations may revolve around changing the organization's mind set or organizational culture which can include the history, philosophy, values, beliefs, assumptions, norms, rules, rites, rituals, and the feelings about the organization that are conveyed. Organizations that have evolved historically from a bureaucratic environment, therefore, tend to continue to be bureaucratic in their system characteristics, structure and processes, unless leadership, structural and cultural changes are introduced.

Change Catalysts

There are many potential variables involved in the process of organizational change, only three of which are emphasized in any depth in this study. However, it is clear that if

change is to be controlled, and if it is assumed that controlled change is more desirable than uncontrolled change, then change must be initiated, at some point, by change catalysts or change agents. The underlying assumption of the study is that one of the primary change catalysts in the transformation of an organization is leadership. Leadership, in turn, facilitates essential management development within an organization by recognizing and addressing the need to improve management skills to accommodate organizational transformation. The primary medium through which this change is accomplished is strategic organizational communication.

It is important to clarify that leadership and management are not perceived to be polarities on opposite ends of a spectrum in this dissertation. Leadership and management are blended activities which some contemporary authors have endeavoured to differentiate to clarify their perceptions of the respective roles of leadership and management in the organization. Leadership and management are not pure black and white roles, activities, or issues. All persons with leadership abilities possess management skills and abilities to varying degrees. Similarly, persons with management skills possess at least some leadership abilities as well.

The discussion on leadership following endeavours to recognize that if it is important for an organization to move in a particular direction, it takes some vision and awareness

to recognize the organization's need, to initiate the transformation process, and to communicate the vision to those responsible for implementing the vision. Implementing the vision may require devising new structures, processes, behaviours, and communications to all involved in the implementation.

The visioning and implementing of the vision contain both leadership and management aspects, but they are not exclusive activities, nor does the dissertation suggest that leadership occurs only at the top of an organization. Leadership occurs at all levels of an organization both formally and informally because there are individuals practicing leadership throughout the organization. However, this does not mean that leadership is readily apparent throughout the organization, particularly where one would expect it such as at senior managerial levels. Some managers are followers. They can manage someone else's vision, but they have little vision of their own about where the organization should, could or must go.

The contrast between leadership and management that appears in contemporary literature is problematic. It does not suggest that leadership and management are mutually exclusive activities, nor that it is easy to rationalize the leadership and management contrast. However, it does imply that the contrast is worthy of study because numerous contemporary

authors have suggested that it is possible to discern a difference between those roles and activities performed by persons demonstrating leadership abilities and by those persons performing management skills.

Transformational Leadership

Bass (1982) suggests that although leadership has been studied by behavioural scientists for decades, it is still not understood particularly well. After thousands of studies, (Yukl, 1989) there is still a lack of consensus among experts about what leadership is and how it should be analysed. Therefore, the primary purpose of this section is not to present a detailed analysis of the literature about leadership, but rather to present a perspective on the importance of leadership to organizations. This perspective will help establish a context for the remainder of the study.

Leadership consists of "an attempt at influencing the activities of followers through the communication process and toward the attainment of some goal or goals" (Fleishman, 1973, p. 3). Communication is certainly a critical element in the management process as well; however, leadership is not necessarily synonymous with management. Zaleznik (1986) and Bennis (1989a; 1989b) among others (Manz and Sims, 1989; Nanus, 1989; 1992; Heider, 1986; Hickman, 1990; Sayles, 1993), argue that leaders and managers often demonstrate different kinds of behaviour, although leaders may possess managerial

skills and managers may possess leadership abilities. However, most authors suggest that both task-centered and employee-centered leadership and management is needed for the optimal effectiveness and efficiency of an organization.

One popular author, Warren Bennis (1989a) suggests that the essential difference between leaders and managers is that leaders master the context, while managers surrender to it. Bennis contrasts other differences as well. He says

The manager administers; the leader innovates. The manager is a copy; the leader is an original. The manager maintains; the leader develops. The manager focuses on systems and structure; the leader focuses on people. The manager relies on control; the leader inspires trust. The manager has a short-range view; the leader has a long-range perspective. The manager asks how and when; the leader asks what and why. The manager has [an] eye always on the bottom line; the leader has [an] eye on the horizon. The manager initiates; the leader originates. The manager accepts the status quo; the leader challenges it. The manager is the classic good soldier; the leader is his [her]own person. The manager does things right; the leader does the right thing (p. 45).⁸

There are numerous schools of thought about leadership theory. Briefly, trait theories, for example, which were popular until about 1950, involved a search for characteristics that would differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Stogdill, 1948; 1974). Behavioural theories, such as those derived from the Ohio State University leadership studies and University of Michigan studies, proposed that specific behaviours differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Stogdill and Coons, 1951). The Ohio State university studies

in the late 1940s identified behavioural dimensions which were called initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of subordinates to attain goals. Consideration describes the extent to which a leader shows concern for subordinate comfort, status, well-being, and satisfaction. A leader high in consideration, for example, tends to help subordinates with personal problems, is friendly and approachable, and treats all subordinates as equals.

University of Michigan studies on leadership, conducted about the same time as the Ohio State studies, labelled these dimensions as production (or task) oriented and employee oriented respectively. Task-oriented leaders tend to emphasize accomplishing the technical or task aspects of the job; employee-oriented leaders emphasize interpersonal relations and acceptance of individual differences among organizational members.

Other theories identify styles of behaviour along a continuum. For example, the autocratic-democratic-laissez faire continuum describes how a leader makes decisions, tells his or her subordinates, and expects them to carry out the decision. McGregor (1960) suggests that the style a leader chooses is based on that person's assumption about people in the workplace. He proposes two distinct views: theory X leaders tend to assume employees dislike work, are lazy,

dislike responsibility, and must be coerced to perform; theory Y leaders tend to assume that employees like work, are creative, seek responsibility, and can exercise self-direction.

How a leader views subordinates can potentially have a substantial impact on employee motivation, productivity, and satisfaction. Leaders with a theory X orientation, for example, assume that lower-order needs identified by Maslow (1954), such as physiological or safety needs, are what dominate individuals. Leaders with a theory Y orientation assume that higher-order needs such as social or belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization dominate individuals.

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Vroom and Jago, 1988) is a decision-focused theory of leadership that suggests there are five different decision styles or ways leaders can make decisions from autocratic, to consultative, to group-focused. Path-Goal theory suggests that the primary activity of a leader should be to make desirable and achievable rewards available to organization members as a result of attaining organizational goals and to clarify the kinds of behaviour that must be performed to earn those rewards (House and Mitchell, 1974).

The leadership orientation or style can affect group performance. Fiedler (1967), in fact, proposes that effective

group performance depends upon the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) have proposed a theory that suggests successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style for the maturity level of individual subordinates.

Finally, attribution theory suggests that leadership is merely an attribution that people make about other individuals (McElroy, 1982). Research suggests that people characterize leaders with attributes such as intelligence, outgoing personality, strong verbal skills, aggressiveness, understanding, and industriousness (Lord, DeVader, and Alliger, 1986). Similarly, a leader high on initiating structure (task orientation) and consideration (employee orientation) are consistent with studies of what makes a good leader (Powell and Butterfield, 1984). Regardless of the situation, this "high-high" style tends to be perceived as best. Therefore, to possess both leadership ability and managerial skill are the optimal qualities for managers in both the private and public sectors.

An extension of attribution theory is that followers make attributions of heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities when they observe certain behaviours (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Robert House (1977) identified three personal

characteristics of these so-called charismatic leaders: extremely high confidence, dominance, and strong convictions in their beliefs. Bennis (1989b) suggests four additional competencies of this type of leader: a compelling vision or sense of purpose; an ability to communicate that vision in clear terms with which followers can readily identify; a demonstrated consistency and focus in pursuit of the vision; and the capacity to know and to capitalize on their own strengths.

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) suggest there are two types of leaders: transactional leaders and transformational leaders. Transactional leaders focus on clarifying role and task requirements by guiding followers toward established goals. They offer rewards for compliance. Transactional leaders are, therefore, perhaps more appropriately perceived as task-oriented.

Transformational leaders, although not always person-oriented, tend to be concerned with the developmental needs of individual followers, tend to change followers' awareness by helping them to look at old problems in new ways, and can excite, arouse, and inspire followers to exert extra effort to achieve group goals. Kouzes and Posner (1987) add that successful leaders: challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, model the way, and encourage the heart. Further, based on surveys of thousands of private and

public sector employees, Kouzes and Posner conclude that above all else people look to leaders for honesty and integrity. An important consideration about transformational leadership is that it seems to elevate the motivation of leaders and followers to a higher level, that is, the mutual pursuit of a goal rather than simply an exchange relationship.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) suggest that transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship. They say

...[T]his brand of leadership is a behavioral process capable of being learned and managed. It's a leadership process that is systematic, consisting of purposeful and organized search for changes, systematic analysis, and the capacity to move resources from areas of lesser to greater productivity (p. viii).

Tichy and Devanna also suggest there are three stages (or "acts") in organizational transformation: (a) recognizing the need for revitalization; (b) creating a new vision; and (c) institutionalizing change. Further, they suggest this organizational transformation can be accomplished by leaders, at all levels of the organization, who share a number of common attributes that differentiate them from transactional managers. Transformational leaders: (a) identify themselves as change agents; (b) are courageous individuals; (c) believe

in people; (d) are driven by a set of core values and exhibited behaviour; (e) are life-long learners; (f) have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty; and (g) are visionaries.

This visionary quality, in particular, enables transformational leaders to translate organizational visions, dreams, and images so that other people can share them. However, translating the visions into reality also requires implementing the practical aspects of management including planning, controlling, motivating, and organizing. When existing management skills in an organization are insufficient or inappropriate to enable the accomplishment of the organization's goal or goals, either management replacement or management development or both are required to facilitate the change process.

Management Development

The word "vision" continues to appear in much of the literature about leadership, in particular about transformational leadership. A clarification of the word as it relates to the leadership aspect of planning may help to differentiate between leadership and management. Webster's (1966) describes vision as "...a mental image, especially an imaginative contemplation; the ability to perceive or foresee something, as through mental acuteness or keen foresight;

force or power of the imagination" (p. 1631).

Two key words in the definition are imagination and foresight, which are essential elements in envisioning where the organization wants or needs to go to accomplish its goals. Leaders with vision are able to look into the future to see what the organization will be like, how it might be structured, and what the organizational culture will express.

However, to have vision is not sufficient to ensure success in organizations. This vision has to be translated into practical realities. Planning is not just a matter of conceptual vision, it is also a matter of utilizing logistical skills to accomplish the vision. Both leaders and managers plan, but leaders tend to provide the vision while managers utilize skills to translate the leader's vision into reality.

Leadership focus is on inspiring members of the organization by sharing the vision; management mobilizes organization members to accomplish the work. Leadership is concerned with strategy--what the organization aspires to be or where it wants to go and why; management is concerned with tactics or operations--what has to be done for the organization to achieve its goals, when, and how to utilize the organization's resources to the best advantage of the organization in achieving the goals. Leadership formulates; management implements. Miller (1988) says

Leaders must recognize that management in the information era is more a subjective art than an objective science. The job of leaders is to sense when the time for an idea has come--to grasp it, shape it, give it reality...We depend not on a single leader, but on a network of leaders. We need to decentralize leadership in the information era within the context of a shared vision... the leader captures a shared vision that all people can see because all know that it is right and needs to happen (p. 583).

It has often been said that if leadership is an art, management is a skill. Both can be learned, although the art of leadership is clearly the more difficult of the two.

Mintzberg (1973, pp. 177-86) suggests there are several areas in which managers can concentrate attention to improve effectiveness: (a) sharing information; (b) dealing consciously with superficiality. Some issues require concentration and depth of understanding while other issues require marginal involvement and can usually be delegated; (c) sharing the job. Sharing the job relieves the burden of work on one person, permits individuals to specialize in certain roles, and enables other organization members to accomplish personal growth and acquire managerial experience; (d) making the most of obligations. Managerial obligations, frequently blamed as the cause of managerial failure, should be viewed as opportunities to access and to extract information and to influence subordinates; (e) freeing self from obligations. A manager must create free time to devote attention to those issues that should be attended to; (f) emphasizing the role

that fits the situation. A manager's job is dynamic and requires continual adjustment to the needs of the moment. Managers in government, for example, may have to spend additional time in liaison or spokesperson roles to satisfy outside pressure groups; (g) seeing the details in a comprehensive picture. Managers must be able to step back and see the details as part of broad, conceptual models; and (h) dealing with a growing coalition. Organizations exist because influencers create it and others support it. Managers must constantly juggle and balance to keep this coalition of influencers and supporters together.

Each of these areas require a specific set of skills associated with the job of managing, such as negotiation, disturbance handling, conflict resolution, delegation, communication, coordination, and so on. Therefore, to improve managerial effectiveness, managers must acquire those skills they do not have and improve those skills they do have. This acquisition and improvement seems to be best accomplished through a combination of formalized management training, and development through experience.

Mintzberg (1973, pp. 187-93) also suggests eight sets of managerial skills that should be included in management training and development such as: (a) peer skills; (b) leadership skills; (c) conflict-resolution skills; (d) information-processing skills; (e) decision-making skills; (f)

resource-allocation skills; (g) entrepreneurial skills; and (h) introspection skills. Many of these skills can be acquired through a carefully-planned on-the-job and formal course training and development process in both the private and public sector.

Kernaghan and Siegel (1991) suggest further that three main approaches to the training and development process for managers in the public sector are "(1) formal classroom training within government; (2) formal classroom training by universities, colleges, or consulting firms; and (3) on-the-job training and experience" (p. 520). Although it is generally recognized that the public sector needs to do internal training, elected officials are not always sympathetic to the need. The benefits are not immediately recognizable or the political reward may not be immediately apparent. Further, not all senior appointed officials within the public sector are convinced of the necessity of training. Finally, financial resources tend to be limited and formal training programs are costly in situations in which performance improvement by managers is not always easily demonstrated.

For the reasons just indicated, much of the training in the public sector tends to be on-the-job. However, there are some inherent problems with this type of training and development. Firstly, on-the-job training in the public sector tends to be position-specific or task specific. Trainees may

learn one position or task extremely well, but because of the high specialization associated with complex, hierarchical organizations, there tends to be limited or no exposure to other positions or tasks. Therefore, trainees tend to develop a somewhat narrow perspective of operations, and may become insular within their organizational sub-units.

Secondly, on-the-job training provides little or no exposure to alternative ways of accomplishing tasks or goals. Status quo operational methods tend to be sustained in some cases after the situation has changed, but the situation now demands more responsive approaches. When flexible approaches to changed situations are not forthcoming, organizational atrophy tends to occur. The organization continues to use a particular response to a situation after the situation has changed (Kuhn, 1970; Barker, 1989; Northcroft and Neale, 1990).

Thirdly, on-the-job training tends to be provided by organization managers or members who have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo. These trainers tend to perpetuate the style and practices that have enabled them to advance previously in the organization and have enabled them to be successful in the past. Accordingly, Monson and Downs (1965) suggest that lower and middle managers

...will normally tend to be risk-avoiders in making decisions. A certain degree of advancement can be obtained by merely surviving, doing daily tasks, and not committing any outstanding blunders. This tendency, plus the desire of...management to initiate those ideas which reflect the

preconceived notions of their superiors, may produce an excessive lack of creativity and innovation... (p. 234).

Sathe (1985) suggests that organizations tend to hire and to socialize members who "fit in" with their culture. Thus employees who deviate from the accepted norms and behaviour tend to be removed from or encouraged to leave the organization. Sathe describes those persons who hold and conform to cultural values as "good soldiers"--they share the values of the organization and act in culturally-expected ways. Therefore, one can surmise that deviation from the expected norm would tend to have serious ramifications for employee career enhancement and advancement.

Perceptions of and support for the need for managers to acquire management skills must come at least partly from top management officials in all types of organizations. This does not abrogate the responsibility of individual managers and aspiring managers to take charge of their own training and development. However, for an organization to be optimally effective, employee and managerial training should complement organizational goals. Therefore, planning for and communication about management training and development are significant organizational processes.

Strategic Organizational Communication

Strategic organizational communication is not the only organizational process that contributes to organizational

development and change, but it is, arguably, one of the most important processes. Other interdependent organizational processes such as decision-making, performance evaluation and management, organizational socialization, and career development not only flow from it, they depend on it. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) suggest the most employee-oriented approaches to accomplishing organizational change are through education, communication, participation, and involvement. However, communication in any organization is also affected by the organization's culture and climate, among other things, and is strongly linked to them. Accordingly, if an organization desires to improve communications, which can potentially also result in improved efficiency and effectiveness, aspects such as organizational culture and climate need to be addressed.

Conrad (1990) says

...employees must understand the relationship between effective communication and the successful operation of organizations. Since communication influences the way an organization operates and is simultaneously influenced by key features of the organization, neither organizations nor organizational communication can be understood in isolation from one another (p. 5).

The more structurally complex an organization is, in terms of both horizontal and vertical differentiation, the greater are the potential barriers to effective communication. Non-structural features of an organization can also present obstacles to effective communication. There are always communication imperfections in organizations so that the best

result to be expected is the minimization of problems.

Garnett (1992) suggests other factors which may inhibit the free flow of communication include the sensitivity of the information involved and the existence of occupational and other types of subcultures within the organization which may entail different languages and different perspectives.

Monson and Downs (1965) suggest that large organizations tend to develop bureaucratic structures to cope with administrative problems. However, such structures inevitably introduce certain conflicts of interest between persons in different positions within them. These conflicts arise because the goals of middle and lower management are different from those of top management (Zussman and Jabes, 1989) and this tends to decrease the effectiveness of communication within the organization.

One of the central hypotheses postulated by Monson and Downs (1965), and supported by Block (1991), is that many individuals in organizations tend to act in their own self-interest, that is, they seek to maximize their own lifetime incomes by pursuing certain approaches or policies. These incomes include both monetary elements such as salaries and bonuses, and non-monetary elements such as leisure, prestige, power, position, and so on.

The pursuit of self-interest by individuals has important repercussions for both communications and relationships among

management in both private and public sector organizations. For example, it may not always be in the best interest of middle and lower managers to carry out the orders communicated to them by the organizational leaders because the basic problem each manager faces is the need to please superiors to obtain advances in either monetary or non-monetary income. Thus, middle and lower-level managers will tend to pursue policies that create the most favourable impression upon their superiors regardless of how well or how poorly these meet the objectives of the organization. The longer-term effects of such policies may serve to reduce the efficiency of the organization.

Other possible actions managers may take that inhibit communications are (a) screening information; and (b) only partially fulfilling orders given to them.

Managers at every level of an organization tend to "screen" information in their possession to ensure perceptions of them are enhanced or at least remain intact. There is always a considerable element of judgement in information flowing through the organization. Therefore, individuals tend to screen out factors unfavourable to them before they pass data upward. Also, to please superiors, they may tend to pass along only information that verifies the desires or beliefs of superiors or which proves that the superiors' decisions were wise. The cumulative effect of this screening process represents a substantial communication barrier.

Monson and Downs (1965) estimate that in a five-tier organization, assuming some suppression of information at each level, upper management may be receiving only about two-thirds of the applicable information. This may cause upper management to be systematically misinformed because vital facts may not be conveyed, and this, in turn, affects perception of or the apparent quality and validity of upper-management decision-making.

Another possible action that individuals at every level sometimes take is to carry out only part of the orders communicated to them. Since individuals, including managers, tend to pursue their own interests, they may be reluctant to carry out orders that reduce their income, power, prestige, position, or opportunities for advancement. This reflects in the vigour with which they pursue orders short of outright insubordination. This might manifest itself in such activities as shelving reports and recommendations, endless committee meetings, improper follow-up procedures and so on. The cumulative effect of failing to carry out orders can be great if there are many tiers in an organization. Further, allowance must be made for incompetence, inertia, misunderstanding, and inefficiency on the part of those required to carry out the orders. Consequently, no large organization actually carries out the policies established by its leadership in precisely the manner envisioned by the leadership. Further, these inefficiencies are inherent in all

large organizations.

Although much of the communications about an organization's routine daily operations are carried out among the various levels of management in an organization, it is the responsibility of the organization's leadership to convey the vision of the organization to the various levels of management and to the rank and file. Simply having a vision for the organization is not enough. It must be communicated repeatedly and often to those both inside and outside the organization.

Within the organization such leadership communications devices as communiques, distribution of meeting minutes, periodic forums for discussion, regular memoranda from the CEO to all staff, electronic mail, meetings with individual departments, visits to operational areas, committee participation, seminars, workshops and conferences, etc. are common. Outside the organization, the organization's leadership must convey a positive image to the business and industrial communities. This may be accomplished with skill in public relations through participation in or on community groups, chambers of commerce, corporate boards, task forces, conferences, program advisory committees, through interviews with the media, and through partnerships and collaborations with other organizations to accomplish goals.

Leadership communication must be a source of motivation to all organizational stakeholders to ensure that the

implementation of the organizational vision does not falter. It is ongoing, continual, and pervasive throughout the organization.

Conclusions

An essential planned change catalyst in the desired transformation of an organization is leadership. There are many definitions of leadership, but the one that best supports the perspective adopted in this study is "an attempt at influencing the activities of followers through the communication process and toward the attainment of some goal or goals". This definition emphasizes aspects of transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership, which seems to focus on managing rewards for compliance.

Several authors argue that there are differences between leaders and managers in organizations, although it is desirable for organizations to have employees who possess characteristics of both. In simple terms, the desirable leaders alluded to in this study--transformational leaders--inspire, motivate, influence, seek the development of followers and have the vision to introduce essential organizational change. Good managers, while they may demonstrate leadership ability during the management process, generally are perceived to possess the skills necessary to implement a leadership vision moreso than the ability to

create the vision itself.

Managers can improve their effectiveness by concentrating attention on such things as: sharing information; delegating tasks; adopting the proper role to fit a dynamic situation; comprehending details; and managing time, circumstances, and obligations well. This requires management training and development in peer, leadership, conflict-resolution, information-processing, decision-making, resource-allocation, entrepreneurship, and introspection skills.

Strategic organizational communication may be one of the most important processes in organizational development and change, because communication processes affect the organization's behaviour, culture, climate, leadership, planning, and exercise of managerial skill among other things.

Strategic Planning

If public sector organizations are to adapt to present and future internal and external environmental difficulties, a strong emphasis on a strategic management process and on strategic planning may be necessary. Although organizational leaders and managers should be guiding and modifying organizations over time as environments change, many may be unwilling or unable to focus systematically on change. Frequently, the organizational leadership and management is so immersed in present day operations and results that making changes to goals, strategies, and organizational systems usually only occur as reactions to crises rather than as considered adaptations to anticipated crisis.

One school of thought about strategic management and planning suggests that these latter circumstances are better suited to strategic improvisation rather than strategic planning as a more prevalent approach (Mintzberg, 1994). Waterman (1992) argues that "[t]he confounding problem is that we need strategy, but we expect too much from it", and further that: " [t]he best strategy is a process, not a plan' (p. 111). While there is certainly need for the resourcefulness implied by strategic improvisation within organizations, the word improvisation, at its root, is reactive and means "[to be] unprepared; to make, provide or do with the materials at hand, usually to fulfil an unforeseen and immediate need" (Webster's, 1966, p. 732).

This dissertation proposes a rationalistic model for strategic planning, but current circumstances such as increasingly complex and unpredictable external and internal environments, funding constraints, the need to market organizational services better, etc. are testing the rationalistic approach. Thomas (1996) suggests that "when fundamental organizational changes are involved, the process is usually more uncertain, risky, difficult, protracted, discontinuous and conflict-ridden than the popular models suggest" (p.11). Bryson and Roering (1988) write that the deliberate attempt to produce change is probably the greatest strength and weakness of strategic planning as a process. Changes in organizations normally occur through a disjointed incrementalism or muddling through (Quinn, 1980) which Behn (1988) describes as "management by groping along". Therefore, normal expectations have to be that most efforts to produce fundamental decisions and actions in government through strategic planning will fail (Bryson and Roering, p. 965).

The unpredictability of most contemporary public sector organizational environments may require a fundamental rethinking of the conceptual models upon which public sector bureaucracies have been established (Osborne and Gaebler, 1993; Barzelay, 1992). Thomas (1996) identifies influences on public sector environments which complicate the public sector planning process more than private sector environments such as

the political process, a greater diversity of external pressures and demands, more external sources of authority and influence, requirements for scrutiny, accountability and political support for actions, the monopoly and mandatory nature of most programs and financing arrangements and the ambiguity about how successfully programs are working (p. 12). Thomas (1996) suggests further that it may be desirable to combine improvisation with planning, but the challenge is to determine the appropriate type of planning or improvisational activity upon which an organization should rely under different organizational circumstances (p. 14). Ad hococracy, strategic improvisation, and management by groping along seem to best describe the most effective contemporary approaches to public sector organizational management. Accordingly, Thomas concludes that more time should be spent on problem identification, defining strategic issues and the promotion of continuous learning (p. 24).

However, it is important to recognize that there may be opportunities to use both the planning and improvisational approaches in public sector organizations, depending upon the circumstances. Therefore, strategic planning as a leadership and management tool should not be cast aside as totally ineffective. The turbulence of public sector external and internal environments may preclude completely accurate and effective planning at macro levels; however, it may still be

extremely useful to establish planning approaches, particularly where there have been elements within a department designated as Special Operating Agencies (SOA), Strategic Business Units (SBU), or board-governed institutions such as Red River Community College.

Therefore, for purposes of this study, strategic planning is defined as the process of determining the major objectives of an organization and defining the strategies that will govern the acquisition and utilization of resources to achieve those objectives (Steiner, 1969, p. 34; Goodstein, Pfieffer, and Nolan, 1985; Melcher and Kerzner, 1988). The term resources refers to budgets, facilities, materials, and human resources as well. Accordingly, the strategic planning process should be initially a sequential one in which the organizational vision, mission, goals and assumptions are formulated at the top and planning data are then provided concurrently from all levels of the organization. The process includes: a stakeholder analysis; strategic issue identification; a careful analysis of both internal and external environments; a review of major resources, including human resources; and the formulation of goals followed by strategy development and possible structure and systems changes required by the strategy (Bryson, 1988; Kotler and Murphy, 1981). Further, context is also a real and significant factor in strategic planning.

Context Concepts

Organizations with large numbers of employees find it necessary to describe their organization and structure to help employees understand their place in it. Consequently, organizational charts, descriptions, policies, rules and procedures are devised to indicate to employees where they "fit in" and what the organization is all about. It is not uncommon for a manager, having provided this material, to indicate that the organization is in fact not organized "quite" this way, or that the organizational chart is dated, or that some of the policies and procedures are not actually in operation. This manager is displaying the "manifest" organization, that is, the organization as formally described and displayed (Jacques, 1976; 1989).

This manager may then proceed to describe the organization as s/he believes it to be. This can be labelled the "assumed" organization, that is, the organization as it is assumed to be by the person concerned. However, systematic analysis of the organization may reveal something else again, which can be identified as the "extant" organization, that is, the organization as truly revealed by exploration and analysis. Sometimes this extant organization does not fulfil its purpose well; the work may have changed but the system has not adapted. The identified adaptation deficiency suggests what the organization needs to become--the requisite

situation--rather than what it manifestly says or thinks it is (Brown, 1971).

The significance of these concepts to leaders and managers of organizations is that: (a) what they say the organizations are; (b) what they think they are; (c) what they really are; and (d) what they need to become to satisfy the manifest purposes are often different. Further, context implies that planning approaches need to take into account the functions of the organization, the type of environment it faces, its internal structure of formal authority and informal power, and its capability to engage in planning.

The implications of these concepts for strategic planning for organizational change in educational institutions (Kotler and Murphy, 1981; Fullan, 1982; Kanter, 1983; Sibley, 1986; Zotto and Clark, 1986; Morgan, 1990) are that

- (1) change is continual, therefore, effective strategic planning must be flexible and adaptable enough to accommodate change. This means that the planning process needs to be continual and must be capable of responding to contingency situations when change occurs rapidly;
- (2) effective strategic planning must recognize and accommodate both external and internal factors, particularly when introducing innovation and overcoming resistance to change;
- (3) significant changes in external factors such as recession, inflation, tax increases, trade agreements, etc. and internal factors such as management, organization restructuring, philosophy, union support or resistance, etc. can radically affect the state of equilibrium in any organization; and

- (4) the impact of "disequilibrium", particularly the adverse impact, can be significantly negated by an effective and controlled strategic planning process. Thus, the objects of planning may be to maintain equilibrium, not the status quo, and to establish an internal locus of organizational control. This latter circumstance can be established through transformational leadership and forward-thinking, or proactive, management.

"Locus of control" is important in understanding whether the organization takes charge of its operations and future--internal locus of control--or permits itself only to react to outside events and circumstances--external locus of control. In the former circumstance, organizational leaders anticipate their environments--they are proactive. In the latter circumstance, organizational leaders simply respond to their environments--they are reactive.

Long-Range Planning

As the terms are frequently confused or are taken to be synonymous, some differentiation is also required between long-range planning and strategic planning. In basic terms, strategic planning focuses on what the organization wants to be; long-range planning focuses on how the organization will get there. These are related, but separate, functions. However, since what an organization aspires to be sets direction, strategic goals must be formulated prior to long-range planning and the day-to-day decision-making or operations that follow from such planning (Tregoe and Zimmerman, 1980).

Long-range or operational planning is inadequate for strategy formulation. It is comparable to choosing an excellent course of action to treat an incorrectly-identified problem. Tregoe and Zimmerman (1980; pp. 23 - 27)) suggest that there are several reasons for this:

- (1) Long-range plans tend to be based on projections of current operations into the future. Environmental scans tend to be used chiefly to determine how expansive or how cautious the organization needs to be about projecting its current operations.
- (2) Many managers are forced to build their future on the foundation of the projections rather than on a clear definition of what they want their organizations to be. Using this approach, the plans organizations make determine their direction, rather than a clear sense of direction determining their plans.
- (3) Long-range plans tend to be built from the lowest levels: projections from various parts of the organization are consolidated and, in total, become the recommended plan. By the time these accumulated and detailed plans reach the top of the organization, there is little opportunity to inject fresh insight. Flexibility is gone. Top management becomes locked into allocating resources on the basis of these plans.
- (4) Long-range plans invariably tend to be overly optimistic. This results from the desire at various levels of the organization to "do better" in the future. Distinctions between weaker and stronger areas of the organization become blurred, which affects the efficient allocation of resources on a strategic basis. These projections become the prevailing corporate wisdom, and any changes to them by top management tend to be seen as arbitrary and capricious to the rest of the organization.
- (5) Long-range plans tend to be inflexible. Without a clear strategic framework to define what an organization wants to be, long-range planning tends to build a composite picture by projecting every detail forward. The sheer size of most of these planning documents generally means that modification of long-range plans usually only occurs in crisis situations.

- (6) Long-range planning generally ends up being quite short-range. Managers tend to project the first year in detail; this becomes the basis for the budget, subject to resource allocations. Subsequent years receive a less thorough analysis.

In contrast with long-range planning, strategic planning is "the process of formulating and implementing decisions about an organization's future direction" (Melcher and Kerzner, 1988, p. 1). Goodstein, Pfeiffer and Nolan (1985) describe it as "...the process by which an organization envisions its future and develops the necessary procedures and operations to achieve that future" (p. 2). Peter Drucker (1974) adds other dimensions. He defines strategic planning as

...the continuous process of making entrepreneurial (risk-taking) decisions systematically and with the greatest knowledge of their futurity; organizing the efforts needed to carry out these decisions; and measuring the results of these decisions against the expectations through organized, systematic feedback (p. 125).

Melcher and Kerzner (1988) suggest that strategic planning consists of two processes: formulating strategy and implementing strategy. These processes can also include the measurement and feedback elements indicated by Drucker. The formulation process involves deciding where the organization wants to go, what decisions must be made, and when they must be made to get there. The process is initiated at the top level of the organization, with subsequent input from other levels, and includes (a) scanning the external environment for

changing conditions; (b) interpreting the changing environment from an opportunities and threats perspective; (c) analysing the organization's resource base for strengths and weaknesses; (d) defining the mission of the organization by matching environmental opportunities and threats with resources strengths and weaknesses; and (e) setting goals for pursuing the mission based on top management values and sense of responsibility.

The implementation process translates the formulated plan into policies and procedures for achieving the overall decision and involves all levels of management in moving the organization toward its mission. Implementation includes (a) translating the mission into specific, measurable objectives; (b) acquiring needed resources; (c) allocating resources to required activities based on priorities; (d) directing required activities; (e) using controls to ensure activities achieve objectives; and (f) creating and changing activities as necessary based on the measurement of results obtained through feedback.

A helpful way to consider strategy is through a military analogy. Although the concept of military strategy has existed for centuries, applying the concepts of strategy and tactics to the relationships between an organization and its environment is relatively new. Figure 6 illustrates.

Formulation (Strategic Factors)	Implementation (Tactical Factors)
Corporate environment	Organizational structure
Corporate resources	Information systems
Corporate values/culture	Reward systems
Corporate responsibilities	Resource allocation
Leadership vision	Managerial skills

Figure 6 - Formulation and Implementation of Strategy
 Source: Adapted from N.A. Berg. (1984). General Management.
 Homewood, Ill: Irwin, p. 30.

Strategic Planning Model

A key feature mentioned in prior discussion on "equilibrium states" theory (Prigogine and Stengers, 1984), suggests that one of the objects of strategic planning is to maintain organizational equilibrium. This implies that any useful strategic planning model must be flexible enough to adapt to continuous change, that is, the organization must be able to maintain equilibrium whatever the circumstances. A strategic planning model that fails to solicit feedback and to ensure revision as required is a sterile model that addresses the issues as they were only at a particular time under specific circumstances. As change is continual, these specific circumstances usually do not remain the same.

Goodstein, Pfieffer and Nolan (1985) recognize that strategic planning is a reiterative process. Once a strategic planning cycle is completed, the task of management is to ensure its implementation and then plan when to begin the next planning cycle. Organizations must always be in the

simultaneous processes of planning and of implementing plans. The Goodstein-Pfieffer-Nolan model appears to have applicability to both private sector and public sector organizations (Appendix E illustrates). A brief explanation follows.

Planning to Plan

The "prework" of planning involves numerous activities including obtaining commitment to the process, involving relevant persons, clarifying time frames, and identifying applicable data. It is critically important not to rush into a process without clarifying expectations. These expectations must be resolved before the decision to plan can be made or substantial resistance can result.

The key people in the organization, especially the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or equivalent, must see the planning process as important and be willing to visibly invest time and effort into the process. Once CEO commitment is obtained, the planning "team" must be identified. Top management should subsequently be involved on a continual basis, but input and reactions must be solicited from a broadly representative group in the organization. A planning group should normally consist of 10 to 12 members, although the organization's size, structure, history, and existing power groups will affect that decision. "Staff" persons should serve as a resource to the

planning group to conduct research, generate data, and develop alternate ways to integrate and to implement the action steps.

In a reasonable working model, the overall planning process can vary from six to eighteen months, with the planning group meeting about every six weeks for two or three days each time depending on how the organization is structured, what size it is, and how geographically dispersed it is (Pfieffer and others, 1989). The planning site is best located away from the interruptions of daily work.

The Values Audit

A values audit is an examination of the values of the members of the planning team, the current values of the organization, the organization's philosophy of operations, the assumptions that the organization normally uses in its operations, the organization's culture, and the values of the stakeholders in the organization's future. The audit moves from an individual focus to a broader examination of the organization and how it works as a social system.

Rokeach (1973) defines a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5). Consequently, an individual for whom excitement is important will envision a different organizational future than will a

person for whom security has a high personal value. As these differences have clear implications for the organization's future, design, decision-making processes, and all other work of the management and planning teams, they must be resolved early in the process.

Organizations also have values which must be explored and identified as part of the strategic planning process. An organization's values are organized and codified into its philosophy of operations, which may or may not be stated explicitly, and members are judged on their conformance to this philosophy. For example, in the public sector, typical assumptions are "if we do not spend all of this year's budget, it will be cut next time" and "you have to go along to get along."

The planning team members' values, the organization's values, its philosophy of operations, and its operating assumptions all combine to produce the organization's culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). Deal and Kennedy suggest that culture may be embodied in the physical structure, the "war stories" about the good or bad old days, the organizational heroes and villains, the rites and rituals of the organization, and the symbols the organization uses to portray itself to the public.

An audit of organizational values also requires a stakeholder analysis. These are individuals, groups, and

organizations who may affect or may be affected by the organization's strategic plan. In a public sector organization, stakeholders will typically include employees and managers, suppliers, other government departments and other governments, elected officials, unions, and members of varied communities such as interest groups and the general public, who are the primary customers or clients, and who believe they have a stake in the organization.

The values audit is the most important and most difficult part of the planning process. It requires an in-depth analysis of the most fundamental beliefs that underlie organizational life and organizational decision-making.

Mission Formulation

Mission formulation involves developing a clear statement about what "business" the organization is in--a concise declaration of the purpose or function the organization is attempting to fulfil in society or the economy.

In formulating its mission, an organization must answer three questions:

- (1) what function does the organization perform?
- (2) for whom does the organization perform this function?
- (3) how does the organization fulfil the function?

Most organizations answer the "what" question by identifying

goods or services produced (e.g. the soap business; the oil business). However, Levitt (1977) suggests such myopia prevents organizations both from seeing new opportunities and from anticipating threats and challenges. Successful organizations try to identify value-satisfying goods and services that meet the needs of the public and include these in their mission formulations.

The mission formulation requires a clear identification of the potential consumer base which may be segmented, for example, geographically, financially, ethnically and so on. However, no organization, no matter how large, can meet all the needs of all possible consumers all the time.

Achieving the "how" of a mission statement can involve a marketing strategy which identifies and prioritizes the organization's driving forces. For example, the organization in this case study, RRCC, is a labour market-driven organization which needs to survey potential customers continually to discover unfilled needs for technical, vocational, and general educational services. Once these are identified, the organization ideally develops services to fill these needs.⁹

Strategic Business Modelling

Strategic business modelling is the process by which the organization defines success in the context of the business or

businesses it wants to be in, how that success will be measured, and what will be done to achieve it, consistent with the established mission statement (Goodstein, Pfiesser, and Nolan, 1985; 1988).

The model comprises two parts:

- (1) the strategic profile or quantified objective. This should identify the business the organization wants to be in three-to-five years, including the quantitatively specific indicators of success. Clearly, this requires some managerial vision. In the public sector, it is conceivable that the roles of some departments, agencies, and crown corporations may differ or be changed through acts of legislation or societal needs during that period. For example, contrary to business models, the plans for a public agency may be intended to reduce demands for its services, not to increase them. In most instances in the public sector, planning is not a tool to gain competitive advantage in the marketplace because most public bodies are monopoly suppliers. However, emerging paradigms of government emphasize competition more than the traditional bureaucratic paradigm. Despite all this, achievement of specified objectives will still likely be measured in quantity and/or quality of goods and services, relevance of services, and levels of expenditure.
- (2) statements of how the quantified objectives will be achieved, in specific segments. This may include a model of the future organization, a statement about the organizational risk-taking involved, and how other critical areas of organizational activity will be managed. Specific products, services, and markets should also be identified. The "how" consideration would include the identification of various paths by which organizational objectives could be met, a cost/benefit analysis of each, and selection of particular strategies that would most likely achieve the organization's objectives.

Several considerations are critical to the success of this stage: (a) the modelling must be congruent with and build on the stated values and mission of the organization; (b) it must

be done in the context of proactive thinking and environmental analysis. This means scanning for impacts on the organization, anticipating significant aspects of the future, conceptualizing a desired end state (i.e. vision), and working proactively to make the desired end state occur; and (c) it must involve an emphasis on creativity and the generation of innovative alternatives for the organization to consider. Success in this stage is most likely to be attained when there is maximum creative input from all levels of the organization and from all employees in the organization within realistic boundaries. It is not realistic to have all employees participate in all the planning and decision-making in the organization all of the time, but participation fosters commitment (Likert, 1961).

Performance Audit

The performance audit examines the recent performance of the organization on the basis of generally measurable performance criteria. In the case of RRCC, for example, performance criteria might include: the number of graduates; the degree to which labour market needs are met in any specific occupational area; the quality of graduates based on their comparative employability versus other similar institutions; the cost-per-graduate data or a cost-benefit analysis; labour market demand projections; demographic equity including equal employment opportunity, affirmative action,

educational access in rural, remote, or isolated areas, and so on.

Although there is some danger of information overload, generally any data that can help the organization better understand its present capabilities for doing its work is data that should be included in the performance audit. Thus, organizational internal factors such as: life cycles of existing programs (i.e. some occupations become obsolete which eliminates the need for training); employee productivity; faculty effectiveness as instructors, program designers and program managers; employee turnover; facilities, including their capacity and condition; and management capability become highly relevant and influential in the strategic planning process.

Candor, openness, and nondefensiveness are essential during this phase. Defensiveness leads to finger-pointing, avoiding blame and other trust-destroying behaviours. Therefore, performance measurement instruments must be both as quantitatively and qualitatively objective as possible.

Gap Analysis

The gap analysis determines whether or not a gap exists between the strategic business model and the organization's current performance and will also determine the extent of the gap. This requires developing creative strategies to close

the gap and conceivably reworking the model until the gap between the profile and the organization's capacity to achieve it is reduced to manageable size. This may require several reworks until all the gaps are closed.

For example, among other factors, the analysis may suggest that: (a) the organizational mission statement has to be revised; (b) the organizational structure has to be changed (e.g. decentralization versus centralization); and/or (c) performance expectations have to be realigned more exactly with real resources available.

Planning "gaps" are significantly affected by improperly aligned performance expectations. For example, Hayes (1985) suggests that planners may be approaching the planning process backwards. The traditional planning process reflects an "ends-ways-means" model: (a) establish organizational strategic objectives (ends); (b) given these objectives, develop tactics (ways) for attaining them; then (c) marshal the resources (means) necessary to implement the strategy. However, as any experienced military strategist knows, the means, in fact, determine the tactics available to achieve the strategy. Therefore, the available resources are a significant factor in determining the usefulness and success of any strategic plan.

Recognizing the implications of this are important. It

does little good in any organization to create grandiose strategic plans which require significant resources to accomplish them if the resources are simply not available. Hayes suggests that it makes more sense to plan incrementally in small steps than to attempt to make quantum leaps in development.

Contingency Planning

The strategic planning team needs to identify the major opportunities and threats facing the organization and to establish what, if anything, can be done about impending events which may affect it. This suggests that key indicators of opportunities, threats, or likely events must be identified to indicate whether or not these opportunities, threats or events are likely to become realities.

Some key indicators for the college, for example, might be: changes of government, with a possible concomitant change in philosophy; constrained transfer payments from the federal government; reduced monetary inputs through various plans of Employment and Immigration Canada; a stronger focus on private-sector Canadian Jobs Strategy (CJS) training with a reduced institutional access to CJS funds; changes in legislation to move the study group organization from a non-autonomous, government-controlled institution to a semi-autonomous, board-governed institution; changes in the labour

market, demographics, and levels of immigration, etc.

The planning team must identify interdependent factors that are most likely to affect the organization through a process of necessarily limited environmental scanning and develop the best possible alternative plans based on inevitable variations in these factors. Contingency planning provides the organization with alternative strategies that can be used with a variety of scenarios. The downside of contingency planning is that there can be various scenarios and it takes considerable work to generate contingency plans to address the possible scenarios. The amount of effort and resources devoted to contingency planning will itself be contingent on the perceived predictability of the environment and an assessment of whether events are amenable to analysis and control by the organization. However, an optimistic viewpoint is that the accurate anticipation of the impact of changing "environmental factors" on the overall strategic plan can mitigate potential disaster.

Integrating Functional Plans

The planning then needs to be applied to the functional units of the organization, which requires the formation of new planning teams for each functional unit such as: operations, administration, finance, human resources, etc. Planning teams do not necessarily comprise representatives specifically from

one area only, such as human resources, but may include an amalgam of interests from various areas of the organization, which may be directly or indirectly affected, in a Task Force or matrix management format to promote multi-directional communication. Regardless, functional plan narratives should be developed as a basis for budgeting. For example, in a human resources plan, current and future needs for staffing on the upper and middle managerial, supervisory, operational support, and clerical administrative levels should be developed for at least the period covered by the plan. This plan would consider potential retirements, employee turnover, staffing requirements, recruitment, training programs, and costs, among other aspects.

Each functional plan must be consistent with what the organizational leaders have determined the organization should be. Inconsistencies must be addressed and the level of acceptance of the overall plan determined among the various functional units. The planning team identifies conflicts and how to resolve them. This integration must occur before the normal budgetary cycle, with the understanding that constrained resources at a strategic level will affect operations at the unit level.

Implementation

Many strategic plans literally die at the implementation

phase and are consequently never implemented or are only marginally implemented. Careful attention to doing what has been planned is critical, and this is the essence of any planned change. Managers and other members must be taught to use or be reinforced for using the strategic plan in everyday decisions on the job. Proposed solutions to problems should be consistently congruent with the organization's strategic plan.

A commitment to follow the strategic plan and to utilize it on a daily basis must be made, and must be seen to be made, by top management in the organization if its implementation is to work. This means that well before the strategic planning process is implemented, a concerted effort must be made by management to explain how planning works, how people are intimately and integrally involved with it, and what the benefits of planning are to the organization and its members. Initially this means taking the time to overcome resistance to change and to calm any fears that might arise.

Further, once a strategic plan has been implemented it must be recognized that constant feedback and revision are necessary. At any given point, for example, a contingency plan may become the major focus of strategic planning in the organization, perhaps because of unanticipated changes in resource availability, government legislation or market forces. Subsequently, other contingency plans may have to be

developed for what has become a "new" situation and the plan, in effect, becomes almost a living document.

Planning, by definition, is proactive. It requires not only visionary leaders, and highly competent skilled managers, but a constant process of environmental scanning.

Environmental Scanning

Organizations need to be aware of what is occurring in their environments that might affect them. This is especially true during the planning process. Four of the overlapping environments that need to be monitored are: the macro or global environment; the industry environment; the competitive environment; and the organization's internal environment, including how it is affected by the perceived external, changing, political situation.

This scanning process identifies a variety of both internal and external factors which should be considered in the strategic planning process. Thus, for example, significant considerations in the macro-environmental scanning process include social factors such as demographics; technological factors such as computer usage; economic factors such as unemployment rates; and political factors such as governmental legislation and regulation.

Industry factors, assuming that the public service can be

perceived as an [service] industry, refer to such things as how the industry is structured and how structured it is, the manner in which and degree to which it is financed, the extent of governmental control or presence, the typical products or services it provides; and the typical marketing strategies it utilizes. This latter factor applies particularly in the case of some crown corporations or arms-length agencies that market products or services.

The competitive-environment scan includes consideration of competitor profiles, which for government organizations may be private sector organizations that deliver the same or comparable services, market-segmentation patterns, research and development and so on. Internal organizational factors refer to such considerations as the structure of the organization (e.g. whether it is centralized, decentralized, tall or flat) its history; its culture; its managerial style; and its distinctive strengths and weaknesses.

Predicting the impact of these factors on the organization over time is essential to the strategic planning process and a part of the process that is ongoing. Sammon(1986) suggests that this scanning process can be likened to gathering "business intelligence" on competitors. He says

Every business organization routinely collects information about competitors from published and field

sources, from external and internal contacts, and from staff and line functions. But more often than not, these useful nuggets of competitor data are neither mined nor managed. Consequently, their potential value to the company's strategic planning process is not realized. The result is that managements' understanding of competitors continues to be casual, cursory, and frequently wrong (p. 43).

Sammon writes that information is data that has been selectively collected, integrated, and organized for specific analytical purposes. Intelligence is the end product of that analysis. It is also an organizational process by which raw data is converted into focused intelligence that adds value to managements' tactical moves, operational plans, and strategic decisions.

The implications this intelligence process has for environmental scanning in any organization is significant. It suggests that environmental scanning must be a continuous process, data must be analysed, the interdependence of the data recognized, and the impact of the data, both real and potential, on strategic planning appreciated. It suggests that there should be individuals trained in analysing and gathering data that has or may have an impact on the accomplishment of the strategic plan. If the data-gathering and analysis are accurate, it may also suggest the timely adoption of a contingency plan previously developed.

Two negative aspects of environmental scanning are that it presumes the availability of information and downplays the

importance of subjective perceptions of the external environment. Further, few organizations have their own formal, intelligence-gathering systems employed on a full-time basis to access a continuous flow of information on changing environmental conditions.

Problems and Pitfalls in Strategic Planning

Royce (1986) suggests that the three major problems in strategic planning are: (a) difficulty in converting the large amounts of information about the organizational environment into usable assumptions and strategic issues. This demonstrates the need for expertise in environmental scanning, information-gathering, and intelligence analysis; (b) failure to generate strategic alternatives, so that top management has a true choice among courses of action; and (c) difficulty in actually getting plans implemented, once decisions are made.

Melcher and Kerzner (1988, pp. 13 -14)) suggest that there are several pitfalls which must be carefully avoided if the strategic planning process is to be effective: (a) failure to reexamine. Strategic planning is a dynamic, continual process. The system must be structured for continuous feedback and control; (b) extrapolation of present performance into the future. Extrapolation assumes the future will be like the past. Strategic planning anticipates changes and simulates what the effects of these changes will be; (c) over-

optimism and/or complacency. Overoptimism occurs when the organization overestimates the variables over which it has control. Complacency sets in when efforts do not translate into immediate results; (d) success blindness. In periods of phenomenal growth it is easy to believe that success will continue. Strategic planning is hard work that requires knowledge, skill, and discipline and is an ongoing process that is intended to stabilize growth and development over good times and bad; and (e) overresponsiveness to trends. Too many changes in too short a time cause an organization to overextend its capabilities. Strategic planning is the careful selection of which trends to follow or to ignore.

Steiner and others (1982, p. 195) described several major pitfalls in corporate strategic planning and indicated that the most reported pitfalls were (a) top management becomes so engrossed in current problems that it spends insufficient time on planning and the process becomes discredited among other managers and staff; (b) rewards tend to be based solely on short-range performance measures which fails to encourage managers to do good planning; (c) due to either overoptimism or overcautiousness, plans are unrealistic. Further, planners do not realize the scope and depth of strategic issues and the impact these issues have on their organizations (e.g. foreign wars, periodic oil crises, consumer movements, changing social values, etc). Therefore plans must be flexible; (d) major

operating units fail to develop planning capabilities. Top management is both unprepared and untrained to take a broader view; (e) there are over-expectations from formal planning. Not all eventualities can be forecast nor all surprises eliminated; (f) top management consistently rejects the formal planning mechanism by making intuitive decisions that conflict with the formal plans. Many executives are frequently unwilling to accept the rigour and discipline involved in formal planning; (g) there is a failure to mesh properly the process of strategic management and planning, from the highest levels through to budgeting, tactical planning, and complete implementation; and (h) there is a failure to keep the planning system simple, flexible and in a cost/benefit balance.

Rule (1987, pp. 33 - 36)) suggests other specific barriers that could be added to those previously identified such as (a) the organizational conflict between line managers and staff planners because of the "ivory tower" image staff planners may have; (b) lack of quality data. Much of the mass of information received is of little measurable value; (c) too many overly complex, stifling, excessively long, detailed planning documents; and (d) lack of commitment by middle management, if middle management perceives a lack of commitment to the process by top management or if planning is perceived as a make-work exercise.

Most of these problems, pitfalls and barriers are generic to strategic planning; that is, they apply to planning in both the private and public sectors. Public sector planning, however, has additional factors which impinge upon it and which tend to make the process somewhat more difficult and perhaps less precise than in many private sector organizations.

Mintzberg and Jorgensen (1987) suggest that "policy" means to the public sector what "strategy" means to the private sector, or what Plumptre (1988) describes as a "major policy development initiative." Mintzberg and Jorgensen write that ours is a society of organizations and that government is less an integrated legislative process than a collection of loosely-coupled organizations in which administrative process plays a central role. To understand how governments make policy one needs to understand policy-making in the organizational setting. In both the public and private sectors analytical, explicit, formal, rational models have long existed for planning but there may be doubts about their validity (Mintzberg, 1994).

In Canada, at the federal government level, for example, various attempts to systematize government planning began with the adoption in the late 1960s of a system of program planning and budgeting (PPBS), followed by a Cabinet planning system,

a Cabinet Evaluation System, and a Treasury Board Planning System (French, 1980). Many staff planning units were created as part of PPBS, after which a modified set of program planning procedures known as a policy and expenditure management system (PEMS) was introduced.

Although Plumptre writes from a mostly federal government perspective, his definition of a planning system includes procedures for formulating plans and designating accountabilities, formats for recording plans and submitting budgets, and a calendar of events indicating the sequence of activities and roles of key participants such as the departmental management committee, the planning office, if there is one, the financial officials, and principal line managers. The essence of Plumptre's definition is that there are both planning and control processes and mechanisms to ensure that managers may be held accountable (pp. 251-53).

Further, planning in most large organizations does not occur simultaneously at all levels at the same time each year. Planning goes on at different levels in different spheres of the organization all the time. Ideally, most of these plans will be connected to each other, even though they may be at different stages of evolution.

Plumptre suggests (p. 270) that the principal vehicle for integrating and coordinating plans is the organization itself.

Different initiatives are coordinated and integrated through the everyday running of the organization during such operations as: top management committee meetings, subordinate coordinating committees and task forces, standards and policy implementation, decisions communication to employees, the repartition of responsibilities, formal decision-making processes and the activities of informal networks that complement the formal organization structure.

However, operational planning and control systems cannot be used effectively as a strategic planning vehicle. The overall planning and control must be determined at the top of the organization, which in itself contributes to the problem of implementing strategic plans. Firstly, strategic planning presumes that both leadership vision and management skills exist in the organization. If they do not exist in adequate measure, most strategic plans are likely to fail. Secondly, there are several additional relevant factors and constraints which can affect implementation of strategic plans in organizations that are under public sector jurisdiction.

Duration of political office. Major policy development initiatives or strategies originate from the elected officials of a duly-constituted, legitimate government which, in the Canadian parliamentary system, has the legal right to govern for five years. Thus, theoretically, plans cannot extend beyond the five years because an ideologically-different

government may take office after the five years and cause the strategic direction of government and government organizations to take a totally different course. The political decision to move the College to a board governance situation, for example, has ramifications for the way in which the College conducts business.

Extent of political mandate. A legitimate majority government has a much stronger political mandate from the electorate than a legitimate minority government. Thus, a majority government can implement strategic initiatives which may be irreversible in five years, whereas a minority government is largely dependent upon its ability to reach acceptable compromises and to persuade the opposition party or parties to support or endorse new strategic initiatives.

Degree of political influence. The Minister of a government department may be able to introduce strategic planning initiatives within his or her own department with the support of cabinet colleagues and provided party discipline is maintained. However, the extent to which the departmental plans are initiated depends on the persuasiveness or influence of the Minister, resource allocations, political trade-offs and so on. If a Minister has limited influence, few policy initiatives of any consequence are likely to be implemented.

Access to and control of information. To implement strategic initiatives in government organizations requires

knowledge of the prevailing conditions and support of public sector officials. The amount of information and degree of cooperation received may well depend on the relationship between a Minister and his or her public sector subordinates. Further, the more complex a policy is, the more difficult it will be to implement; the more complex the organizational structure, the more likely it is that accurate information will not be conveyed upward and downward (Monsen and Downs, 1965).

In summary, the large size and complexity of many government organizations fosters the development of bureaucratic structures, processes, behaviours, culture and climate which are difficult to manage. These and other constraints increase the difficulty leaders and managers have in accomplishing the strategic plans to which the organization is committed.

Proposals to Mitigate Constraints

There are actions which may mitigate or alleviate many of the constraints experienced by managers in government bureaucratic organizations, but the task of implementing the solutions seems almost overwhelming.

It is important for managers to recognize that it is necessary to adopt a different approach to planning than has customarily been taken. Strategic planning must be flexible

and adaptable to change and the needs of the twenty-first century. Consequently, a nineteenth-century bureaucratic paradigm may not work well in a twenty-first century world.

Therefore, a different model and style of managing is required from what presently seems to exist in most public sector organizations. As one possible model, Barzelay (1992) proposes a "customer service" paradigm as a candidate to replace the bureaucratic paradigm. Customer service as a focus is incorporated into the vision and mission statements of many contemporary private sector organizations. The object of strategic planning in these organizations is continuous improvement in delivery of services with the expectation that improved services will attract new customers and retain existing ones. The customer service paradigm is consistent with the quality management philosophy adopted by the College in 1990-91.

Strategic planning in public sector organizations is affected by both internal and external constraints. Although it may be difficult to anticipate all the external variables which would or could influence strategic planning in the public sector, it is not impossible to recognize that these variables have an influence on each other. Thus, strategic planning for a state of equilibrium recognizes the influence and interdependence of major planning factors on each other.

Many of the major factors which have a substantial impact on the Colleges are under the purview of government and these factors must be demonstrably controlled in the interests of the public. For example, at a macro-economic level, a policy of raising interest rates may drive the dollar down, encourage foreign investment, and increase trade. However, if it also discourages borrowing, contributes to business failure, puts people out of work, creates a greater strain on the unemployment insurance and welfare systems, causes less money to be in circulation, generates less tax revenue, permits fewer government expenditures on necessary programs, and increases the national debt then it must be demonstrated that the policy has worked.

Many of the perceived internal variables that affect strategic planning in the public sector could be addressed by measures similar to those announced by the federal government on 12 December 1989. Public Service 2000 is an initiative to renew the public service of Canada. Its objective is to enable the federal public service to provide the best possible customer service to Canadians in the twenty-first century. The recommendations provided by this report have relevance to provincial and municipal levels of public service as well. A "Synopsis of the Report of the Service to the Public Task Force" is contained at Appendix F.¹⁰

Briefly, the report overview was that there needs to be

(a) a top management commitment toward a major, long-term shift in culture and values that supports innovation and leadership; (b) a greater consultation with clients--the public--and a shaping of policy and service to client needs; (c) improved management of public service employees including selection criteria, organizational delayering, and rewards, recognition, and training; (d) testing of systems and procedures for relevance, relentless simplification, and a focus on "client-centredness"; (e) a strong management commitment to the use of technology, restructuring, efficiency and effectiveness; and (f) external monitoring of client service, a decreased monitoring of compliance and conformity, and the establishment of field level intelligence systems to improve services (Canada, Public Service 2000, 14 August 1990).

One of the key considerations in beginning to resolve these kinds of issues and in facilitating change--in corporate culture, employee attitudes, managerial style, and levels of success in plan implementation--is leadership facilitated through the communication process (Fleishman, 1973). Schwartz and Davis (1986) write

Changing a culture is a complex, long-term undertaking that involves coordinated efforts by top leadership to change their own behaviour and the signals they send to their subordinates and others in the organization. Such changes must be reinforced by shifts in management processes, information and reward systems, reporting relationships and people's skills. Major changes in management personnel, including adding outsiders as a

source of new skills and new cultural patterns, are often necessary. Massive management education may be required (p. 99).

Thain and Goldthorpe (1990) studied 27 successful Canadian business "turnarounds" and concluded that the single most frequent action taken in the successful turnarounds was to replace top management (p. 59). The internal causes of initial decline included bad management, lack of critical information, high costs, inadequate controls, ineffective financial policies, etc. The most successful recovery actions for these declines was to shake up management, improve the organization, improve information flows, reduce costs, improve controls, improve operations, etc.

Thain and Goldthorpe also suggest that planning must switch to focused, systematic, and effective treatment of the issues involved. Top management must ensure that problems are recognized, diagnosed and analysed; solutions are planned; decisions are made; and, most importantly, that change agendas concentrate on immediate and effective remedial action.

Conclusions

Pressures and demands from external and internal environments, political processes, continual change, financing arrangements, the need for accountability, scrutiny, and political support, the mandatory nature of some programs and numerous other factors contribute to the growing perception

that ad hococracy, strategic improvisation, and "management by groping along" may be more useful contemporary public sector leadership and management tools than formalised strategic planning. However, as some of the weaknesses of strategic planning have to do with failures of vision, formulation and implementation, it suggests that a mixture of strategic improvisation and strategic planning may also be an effective approach depending on the context, circumstances, and manner in which they are employed.

Although strategic planning has suffered through periods of unpopularity, this was and is largely due to the misuse and misunderstanding of what strategic planning is intended to accomplish. What have been particularly misunderstood and misused are the techniques, organizational processes, and behaviours that organizations have employed or have not employed in attempting to implement strategic planning.

There are differences between long-range planning and strategic planning: the former tends to be concerned with how plans are to be accomplished through organizational operations; the latter tends to be concerned with what the organization is trying to accomplish through organizational leadership. Confusing the former with the latter can contribute to planning myopia.

Although several planning models exist that could be

reasonably applied to public sector organizational change, the Goodstein-Pfieffer-Nolan model provides a reasonable approach because the model is flexible and can accommodate change. The model (a) promotes ongoing environmental scanning; (b) suggests gap analysis to attempt to adjust the differences between the plan and reality; (c) requires contingency planning to accommodate the possibilities of change; and (d) stresses the reiterative nature of the strategic planning process.

Some of the major constraints to effective strategic planning include: (a) the sheer mass of information and the need to convert it to useful data; (b) insufficient strategic alternatives; and (c) actual plan implementation. Some of these constraints are aggravated by a lack of commitment to planning by top management, a focus on short-term goals, unrealistic expectations aggravated by a failure to integrate resource allocations with strategic goals, a lack of leadership vision, insufficient management skill, and, in the case of public sector organizations, a conflict between political imperatives and bureaucratic implementation.

Some of the measures which could mitigate some of these constraints, based on the findings of PS 2000, include: top management commitment to a culture and values change that supports innovation and leadership; greater accommodation of clients; improved management; and a focus on relevance, simplification, technology use and restructuring.

Chapter Summary

There are several themes developed in this chapter which demonstrate the interrelationship of leadership, strategic planning, and culture/climate in organizations and illuminate the importance of organizational communication.

Organizations are open social systems which are influenced by the environment and by changes both outside and inside the organization. However, the environment and the internal changes tend to accentuate the need for organizations to become more adaptable and flexible in an uncertain and increasingly complex world.

Organizational change can be strategically planned or not planned at all. It is more useful and effective for leaders and managers in organizations to attempt to plan for change proactively and to endeavour to control an organization's evolution than not to plan. Unplanned change forces an organization to respond reactively and creates a situation in which the circumstances effectively control the organization. The ultimate object of planning may be to establish balance or equilibrium in the organization, whether it is in a state of growth, stasis, or decline.

Strategically planning for change in bureaucratic organizations is arguably more difficult than planning for change in more organic organizations, particularly when an

important component in making bureaucratic organizations less bureaucratic also revolves around influencing change in an organization's culture. The cultural change process is lengthy, particularly if it perceived to be something the organization is, rather than something it has. However, the change process can be accomplished conceivably by strategically planning the manipulation of causal variables such as organizational climate and leadership or managerial behaviour.

An essential component in planned organizational change is transformational leadership, which focuses on strategic organizational communication to inspire, motivate, influence, develop followers, and create the necessary vision to introduce and plan for organizational change. Based upon the distinction established earlier between transformational and transactional leaders, it has been suggested that transformational leaders are more likely to create the conditions necessary for successful organizational change than are transactional leaders.

Adhocracy, strategic improvisation and "management by groping along" may be more appropriate leadership and management tools for accommodating organizational change in a continually-changing environment. However, although strategic planning has suffered through periods of unpopularity, it may be largely due to the misuse and

misunderstanding of what strategic planning is intended to accomplish. Some of the misunderstanding occurs because of confusion between the respective roles of tactics and strategy. Confusing the former with the latter can contribute to planning myopia.

Whatever the model utilized, there are numerous constraints which complicate the process of strategic planning, some of which are unique to public sector bureaucratic cultures. However, some of the measures proposed in PS 2000 could potentially mitigate those constraints.

Many of the benefits of strategic planning, as suggested by Waterman (1992), reside in the process, and may be as important as the plan itself. The benefits include: improved communication, better problem identification, establishment of priorities, development of individual and organizational capabilities, a greater sense of commitment, and so on.

Chapter III provides a case study profile of and describes the organizational life at Red River Community College. This community college, and its predecessor institutes, has been under the jurisdiction of the provincial Department of Education in the Province of Manitoba almost since its creation. This college converted to a board-governed institution on April 1, 1993.

C H A P T E R I I I

CASE STUDY PROFILE OF RRCC

Introduction

The stated philosophy and objectives of technical and vocational education have changed gradually over the years. However, in practice, the cultures of the successive institutes or college organizations delivering the programs seem to have undergone limited change until recently. This appearance of organizational stability may reflect the difference between the manifest situation and the extant situation. In other words, how the organization describes itself in formal documents may not correspond with the organizational realities revealed through systematic analysis.

The organizational culture of RRCC is a product of a variety of factors and processes: the historical evolution of RRCC and its predecessor organizations, acts of legislation and federal-provincial agreements, influences or pressures from the environment in which the college has developed, and the leadership approaches followed by successive College administrations.

Organizational Profile

From its somewhat humble beginnings in a facility on Henry Avenue in 1938, Red River Community College has become

one of the largest community colleges in Western Canada. Since its formation, the college has been variously known as the Manitoba Technical Institute (until 1963), the Manitoba Institute of Technology (1963 - 68), the Manitoba Institute of Technology and Manitoba Institute of Applied Arts (1968 - 69), and since 1969 as Red River Community College.

Red River Community College (RRCC) is presently [1993] a post-secondary, public sector, educational institution committed to the delivery of applied education and training in numerous occupational fields which are directly relevant to the workplace and has been relatively successful at it. For example, a graduate follow-up survey conducted during 1990-91 on 1989 graduates shows the results of the college's commitment to a quality education (RRCC; March 10, 1992):

- Of the 1,265 students who participated in the survey, 85.9% were employed, 8.5% were unemployed, and 5.6% were not seeking employment.
- Survey respondents indicated high satisfaction with the programs in which they had participated--92.2% were very satisfied or satisfied; 87.4% would recommend their program to others.
- There was a high correlation between the respondents' chosen training field and the use of their training on-the-job; 86.8% were working in a training-related field and 84.4% were using skills obtained through their training.
- The survey indicated that 82.3% of the employed respondents were working full-time (39.5 hours per week); 17.7% were working part-time (18.0 hours per week).
- The survey also showed that only 29 of the 1,265 respondents chose to leave Manitoba to find

employment. Over 97% of RRCC graduates were employed in the area in which they resided prior to their training.

RRCC currently offers a full range of over 65 post-secondary diploma and certificate programs to approximately 6,500 full-time students in the fields of business, technology, trades and apprenticeship, health sciences, family and applied sciences, and applied arts. To help provide opportunities for increased availability and life-long learning, part-time courses are offered annually to more than 20,000 registrants in Winnipeg and five regional centres: Pembina Valley, Portage La Prairie, Selkirk, Steinbach and Riverton (RRCC Overview, September, 1994).

Most of the college occupational programming and services are provided at the college's main, 1.2 million square foot, Winnipeg campus by approximately 750 staff members. The annual budget varies slightly each year, but tends to be increased incrementally unless the Province introduces restraint. The current annual budget is approximately \$40.6 million (RRCC Budget, 1992-93).¹¹

Table 1 - Revenue and Expenditure Budget Summaries (1989-93)

	<u>Revenue</u>	<u>Expenditure</u>
1992/93	17,600,000.	40,629,100.
1991/92	16,682,300.	36,592,716.
1990/91	17,381,500.	38,824,241.
1989/90	17,458,500.	35,777,756.

Table 1 shows revenue and expenditure budget summaries for RRCC over four years. The provincial government provides the difference between the annual expenditures and the total of all other sources of income for the college. Financial restraint had existed from the early 80's and was imposed in 1991-92.

Historical Background

Although there had been vocational training in Manitoba at the McDonald Training school in 1901, an organized industrial Arts program at Kelvin and St. John's Technical Schools in 1912, and the Henry Avenue Training Centre and War Emergency Training classes in 1938, most of these, with the exception of the latter classes, were for high school youth. With the onset of World War II, however, military personnel needed to be trained first for wartime positions, and then for positions in the postwar world once the war was over.

Military personnel received specific technical training initially at the Mid-West Training Centre on Ellice Avenue, and later in 1942 on the top three floors of the former Ford Motor Company plant which is the present-day Department of Education Building. When veteran training expired in 1948, the changeover to public vocational education was not difficult. All vocational training for out-of-school youths and adults became centred in this building which was named the

Manitoba Technical Institute.

The extent of vocational education offered at this facility in 1948 was impressive and included thirty-four courses, most of them trades courses in such areas as metalwork, construction, electrical and automotive. However, there were also courses in commercial education and in skill areas such as drafting, cabinet-making and shoe repair.

The Department of Education took over the previous vocational staff of four supervisors and thirty-seven instructors who had provided training for veterans. With an initial enrollment of seventy students, a staff of forty-one was a bit excessive, but student numbers gradually increased to a peak of about 400 in 1949 (The Projector Year-end Review, 1971-72).

The shortage of skills needed for a post-war economy that was growing quickly led to a shift from an academic towards a more vocationally-oriented educational approach at the secondary level and in institutes such as the Manitoba Technical Institute. Subsequent reduced immigration of highly-skilled European immigrants in the mid-to-late 1950s resulted in vacancies in technical jobs that still needed to be performed. The role of the then Manitoba Technical Institute was to meet, in part, the technical training requirements of Manitoba. The institute, subsequently renamed the Manitoba Institute of Technology in 1963 and relocated to the

Brooklands area, was to provide training that would equip individuals with marketable skills to enable them to compete effectively for jobs in Manitoba (Colleges and Universities Affairs, 1972, p. 5).

This training philosophy continued through the 1960s. But by the end of that decade, a philosophical shift seemed to have taken place. The aspirations of students, as individuals, began to become important along with the needs of the labour market. Though satisfying society's needs for trained, skilled persons remained important, the idea of offering programs for people of different attitudes, interests and achievements played an increased role.

When the vocational centres in Manitoba became community colleges in 1969, the emphasis on individuals was evident in a statement made in a Department of Education bulletin:

The purpose of the community college is to meet specific educational needs of a large segment of the community high school graduates, young people, mothers and fathers, mature workers, pre-apprentice trainees, and those in various groups who may be temporarily unemployed. The community college will provide opportunities for enrolment in many personal improvement subjects such as public affairs, philosophy, recreation, and crafts which will help mature people to understand themselves and others better and through which they may live fuller lives in various forms of self-expression (Department of Education Bulletin, February, 1970).

Despite the well-intentioned statements expressed in this bulletin, the subsequent Task Force on Post-Secondary Education in Manitoba (1972) felt that community colleges in

Manitoba were still very much trade or vocational schools, because they responded only partly to specific local needs. They offered a relatively narrow range of choices and all relied heavily on the demands made by Canada Employment and Immigration in determining what courses would be offered and to how many students. The Task Force report observed that:

The colleges came into being, in part at least, as a means of obtaining federal funds for education. If they remain nothing much but a collection of Manpower courses as we have heard them described, they will, sadly, be falling far short of their potential. We believe they could be exciting, imaginative, innovative educational institutions but only if the power to make decisions of real significance is put into the hands of faculty, students, and community (Task Force Report, 1972, pp. 39-40).

Because of the tremendous influence of federal government aid to the province through capital grants, and of the influence over course offerings and program development held by the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC) through its operating support grants, the Task Force recommended that the government of Manitoba reduce the role of community colleges in providing CEIC-sponsored programs.

However, the extant situation is that Manitoba is an economically-challenged province which cannot afford to sustain large numbers of vocational courses exclusively with its own resources. Consequently, the Task Force recommendation was not acted upon. Further, there was no evidence to suggest at that time that the steady source of revenue from the

federal government would not continue to be forthcoming which perpetuated the reliance of the college on this source of revenue well into the 1980s. Glenn (1985, p. 150) says:

Most of those [officials] interviewed indicated that...there is too much federal government involvement in the community colleges of Manitoba. Given as an example was the federal government's decision to no longer fund (purchase seats) in nine courses at the colleges. This meant that on very short notice, the colleges--lacking funds to support those programs that had always been highly subsidized by the federal purchases--were forced to drop these programs from their curriculum. In addition to the problem created in the area of course planning, the thirty-eight faculty involved in those courses were no longer required. Only the announcement of federal assistance to retrain or redeploy those instructors alleviated the problem.

By the mid-80s it became evident that it was no longer possible to sustain programs which were entirely dependent on federal funds. A brief discussion of some of the relevant legislation which has influenced the direction of the college follows.

Relevant Legislation and Effects

Numerous provincial statutes affect, both directly and indirectly, the provision of adult occupational training in Manitoba. A comprehensive survey of the training acts and agreements in which the Province of Manitoba has participated with the federal government is beyond the scope of the present study. Instead, a selective approach has been followed with attention being paid only to those acts and agreements having a major impact on the College. Even this limited analysis

reveals the fact that the College is enmeshed in laws and regulations. It also indicates the institution's dependence on federal resources. This dependence has contributed significantly to the internal management style and the culture of the College.

The Technical Education Act of 1919 defined the training responsibilities of the province and of the dominion. It stipulated that the Dominion would share up to 50% of the provincial expenditures for technical education, although there were certain exclusion categories. At the first annual conference on Technical Education on October 25, 1920 the federal Minister of Labour made a policy statement that the provincial authorities had full jurisdiction in matters of education and should regard the federal Department of Labour as an agency to help them carry out their work more efficiently and in a more uniform or standard way. However, although the federal government had no legal authority to direct the provinces to offer a particular type of program, it controlled the channelling of money to support vocational education through the various existing provincial organizations. Therefore, financial support could be withheld if a program did not meet the conditions set forth in the federal-provincial agreement (Young and Machinski, 1964).

The delicate matter of provincial autonomy in education and the necessity for some kind of federal control over

expenditures presented a serious problem in the administration of the act. The 1925 report of the federal Department of Labour contained the following:

Educational development is a provincial responsibility, and, although the national importance of the work justifies and even necessitates federal assistance, great care has been taken to avoid anything which might give the impression of federal interference or control...The grants provided under the Technical Education Act were set aside for the purpose of promoting and developing specific types of new educational work, and, unless careful supervision is maintained over the expenditure of this money, it has become evident that, in many cases, it will be used to support work which does not come within the provisions of the Act (Toombs, 1966, p. 90).

The result was that, as Glendenning (1968) noted in his examination of annual reports by individual provinces for projects undertaken with the aid of federal financial assistance, programs and courses provided during the period from 1920-1930 depended to a large extent on the availability of federal funds. When federal funds were exhausted, programs were usually curtailed.

The Unemployment and Agricultural Assistance Act (1937) provided \$1,000,000 for the training of unemployed Canadians from eighteen to thirty years of age who were registered with the Employment Service of Canada and who were in needy circumstances. Manitoba used some of its allotment to offer training and apprenticeship courses combining formal training with on-the-job instruction. In 1939, classes were established in Manitoba and five other provinces to train wireless operators, aero-engine fitters, mechanical transport

workers, air frame mechanics and electricians for the RCAF. The RCAF provided the equipment and prepared the outline of instruction to be followed. The 1937 Act and 1939 classes established formal technical training and the resulting "institute" became the forerunner to what is now the College. These classes later became part of the War Emergency Training Program (Glendenning, 1968). Therefore, historically, the instructional style, operational approach, and organizational culture of the College has evolved from a wartime military bureaucracy.

During the late 1950s, when there was a strong demand for trained personnel, the federal government began to support provincial programs of technical and vocational training financially and to provide training facilities. Changing technologies, the growth of the Canadian economy, an increased number of secondary school drop-outs without saleable skills, and a reduced number of skilled European immigrants fostered this demand.

An important and forceful piece of legislation that resulted, the Technical and Vocational Training Assistance Act (1960), grouped together all federal-provincial activities in the field of vocational education. Under the legislation, the Apprenticeship Training Agreements were entered into with the provinces.

During the first two years of operation, the federal

government contributed over \$243,000,000 toward vocational education in Canada (Glendenning, 1968). The effects of the legislation were felt throughout the country. In his report on Manitoba vocational education, Bock (1970) observed:

It is not clear what provincial laws, if any, have been enacted in response to the Technical and Vocational Training Act of 1960. The province has constructed three post-secondary vocational training centres since 1961, which have subsequently developed into community colleges...The scope of vocational education in the province is considerably affected by federal legislation...Both the training institutions, and many students, depend upon this program for a large share of their financial support.

The Adult Occupational Training Act of 1970 (subsequently the National Training Act of 1982) stressed the development of post-high school training or retraining programs. It also provided for those unemployed and out of school for a year to receive basic training allowances. Agreements negotiated under the Act were: (a) purchase of training services from public institutions under provincial jurisdiction; (b) purchase of apprentice training; (c) phase-out training for trainees still on course under the Technical and Vocational Training Agreement; (d) research projects; (e) contracts with an employer for training employees (subsequently Canadian Jobs Strategy (CJS)); and (f) phase-out of capital assistance.

The Federal-Provincial Fiscal Arrangements Agreement and Established Programs Financing Act (1977), commonly known as the EPF, is historically perhaps one of the most significant acts to have an impact upon post-secondary education revenues

in the provinces. Under the original 1967 Fiscal Arrangements Agreement the three established programs--hospital insurance, Medicare, and post-secondary education--were 50% cost-shared programs.¹²

The cost-sharing formula built in certain inequities among the economically-sound and economically-challenged provinces. Poorer provinces found it difficult to generate their own funds to take advantage of federal aid. Richer provinces claimed the conditional nature of the cost-sharing distorted provincial expenditure preferences. However, the conditional nature of these contributions by the federal government enabled it to exert influence on programs which were under provincial jurisdiction. Consequently, it was recognized by both levels of government that significant changes were needed in any subsequent agreement (Courchene, 1977, pp. 335-6).

The 1977 agreement was a complex arrangement. Several determinants were involved in the formula calculation. The major concern of provincial officials was whether federal contributions would fall short of previous levels because: (a) differing fiscal strengths of the various provinces would result in pronounced differences in the provision of public services. Poorer provinces could enjoy an average bundle of services only by accepting an above-average tax burden; and (b) provincial expenditure functions expand faster than revenues. Further, as the funds provided by the federal

government under this agreement were unconditional, the amount of funds provided by the provincial government for post-secondary education was dependent on provincial political priorities.

The community colleges in Manitoba have experienced a reduction in funding over the years in federal support. The consequent effects on provincial policy have resulted in the curtailment of programs and in the reduction or redeployment of staff in the college area in particular. Thus, the issues of federal-provincial fiscal agreements and transfer payments have had and will continue to have immediate and longer-term effects on post-secondary education in Manitoba.

The Canadian Jobs Strategy (CJS) is a program which was introduced by the federal government in 1985. Basically, the program derives from the former Canada Manpower Industrial Training Program (CMITP) which came under the auspices of the Adult Occupational Training Act and the subsequent National Training Act. The purpose of the program is primarily to foster more private sector training and to reduce dependence on public sector institutional training. Two results of CJS have been reduced direct purchases of training for CEIC-sponsored students from the colleges and reduced access by the colleges to indirect funds available for market-driven training to the private sector.

Additional historical evidence involving the

implementation of other vocationally-oriented acts could be provided, but the preceding descriptions should be sufficient to document the increasing reliance and dependence of Manitoba's community colleges on federal government financial support. Consequently, the reduction of training revenues over the past several years, combined with the federal government movement toward private sector CJS training has had a significant impact on the College, both operationally and strategically.¹³ Capital projects, such as a much-needed library expansion, have been delayed. The organization has been forced to examine all of its programming and to delete those programs that were deemed to be not cost-effective based on enrollment demand, job placement demand, cost per graduate, attrition rate, etc. As an example, a program evaluation in 1991 resulted in the deletion of 10 programs, the reduction of 10 programs, and the consequent layoff of 92 employees.

Recent Developments and Issues

RRCC recently established a new mission statement with strategic and operational objectives that support the economic renewal and social development of the province of Manitoba and the international competitiveness of Manitoba business and industry.

The College mission statement from 1988-91 varies somewhat from the newer 1991 mission statement which reflects the philosophy of a new CEO in the organization. The 1988-91

mission statement says:

The mission of Red River Community College is to provide educational and training opportunities to meet the economic and social needs of Manitobans and their communities. The college is committed to innovative program development in keeping with changing market needs and the challenges of the 21st century (RRCC Mission Statement, 1988-91).

However, the scope of the 1991 mission statement is much broader and focuses additionally on some areas not mentioned in the 1988-91 statement.

The mission of Red River Community College is to provide high quality educational and training opportunities to assist with the economic, cultural, and social development of Manitoba within the context of a global marketplace (RRCC Mission Statement, 1991).

The emphasis on high quality suggests either a need to establish new standards or to maintain the existing standards, if the existing standards are considered to be of high quality. This could result in more rigorous entrance requirements for students, more rigorous course requirements, and the need for improved faculty credentials, etc. The 1988-91 statement emphasizes meeting, or satisfying, needs. This is commendable, but perhaps overly ambitious. The 1991 statement more appropriately emphasizes assisting with development, which is more realistic.

The 1991 statement also adds the cultural factor which recognizes the role of the college not only in accommodating multiculturalism in the community, but in accommodating the anticipated influx of third-world immigration as a result of federal government immigration policy. This will reflect in

additional opportunities and demands for increased training, particularly in the English as a Second Language (ESL) area.

Finally, the 1991 statement extends the potential target market beyond "...Manitobans and their communities..." to a global marketplace. This suggests that, in theory at least, international students attending RRCC could conceivably be trained for potential employment not just in Canada, or North America, or any industrialized nation, but anywhere in the world. Further, it suggests that industries within the province and the country must have skilled employees to meet rising global competition.¹⁴

The strategic planning process at RRCC, another major development, began with a review of the former mission statement and with a process of setting objectives in which college members were given the opportunity to participate. The review led to a new mission statement (see Appendix G) and seven strategic objectives. It was decided that the strategic planning document (a) would be five or six pages only; (b) would be designed in a presentation format suitable for the general public; and (c) would also serve as a guide for the subsequent development of more detailed departmental and divisional action plans.

Two major initiatives resulting from the strategic plan objectives which respond directly to the cultural and social factors identified in the 1991 mission statement are

particularly worthy of note. A two-year Task Force study on RRCC programs and support services recommended over 70 actions for institutional change to address directly the projected requirements of the Manitoba labour force. Labour force market analysis predicts that one-quarter of all entrants to the work force in Manitoba by the year 2000 will be of aboriginal descent. Accordingly, the college has created a position to be managed by a Dean of aboriginal ancestry to bring together those programs and services that would create permanent institutional change and strengthen the commitment to economic expansion and renewal.

A second major Task Force study on economic sustainable development will move the college into a stronger position to support this strategic provincial government directive through increased corporate participation, enhanced curricula, and new courses.

A third major development was the introduction of total quality management (TQM) concepts at the college in September, 1991 by the CEO and senior management team. As a consequence, various program curricula are being enhanced to produce graduates who can promote quality production methods and services to help increase their employers' competitiveness. RRCC is also an active partner with Total Quality Manitoba Inc., Winnipeg 2000, and others to promote Manitoba as an area of quality. Ultimately, RRCC intends to provide TQM training

through its Market Driven Training Centre.¹⁵

The Total Quality Management (TQM) philosophy has been implemented in several areas of the college in both academic and administrative elements. A cross-college TQM Quality Council meets on a bi-weekly basis to discuss issues, proposals and projects. Three sample projects include: (a) the establishment of an ergonomics work improvement team (W.I.T.) to improve workplace working conditions; (b) the establishment of a day program/continuing education program W.I.T. to reduce credit transfer obstacles and create a "seamless boundary" between the two; and (c) the establishment of a student information system (SIS) W.I.T. to improve an increasingly obsolescent system. Additionally, a classroom assessment technique W.I.T. exists to improve and to help standardize high quality delivery in the classroom.

Economic renewal is also being supported by the introduction of co-operative education into new and existing diploma programs to increase program relevance and to strengthen the training partnership with business and industry. Further, to address the competitiveness training needs of leading edge organizations, RRCC has introduced or plans to introduce part-time diploma level programs in Information Systems Technology, Geographic Information Systems, Technology Management, and Biomedical Engineering Technology.

A final recent major development for the college is based on a provincial act of legislation--Bill 49: The Colleges and Consequential Amendments Act--which provides for the transfer of Red River Community College from the Department of Education to a semi-autonomous Board of Governors. This legislation is [was] effective on 1 April 1993, and the college mission statement, strategic plan, and introduction of TQM are integral to it. The legislation created a new environment which permitted a greater freedom for the colleges to operate, but demanded more accountability and responsibility for revenue generation from the colleges.

External Pressures for Change

Many of the external pressures for change which will or may affect the college are discussed in Partners for Skill Development: The Report of the Skills Training Advisory Committee (Skills Training Advisory Committee, July, 1990). This document acknowledges that "a skilled, adaptive, and productive labour force is essential to Manitoba's ability to compete during this period of rapid market and technological change..." (p. 1).

Manitoba's labour market is changing: (a) "baby boomers" are entering middle age; (b) population growth has slowed, which increases the importance of immigration and the need to encourage under-represented groups such as minorities,

handicapped and females; (c) an aging workforce means that retraining and upgrading will become increasingly necessary to ensure a supply of skilled labour; (d) there continues to be a shift from goods-producing to service industries; (e) the shift from a resource-based to an information-based economy, together with the expanded use of technology in the workplace, is altering the composition of skills in demand; (f) the requirement for a higher level of education and skills is rising; and (g) there is a growing concern over the mismatch between labour supply and demand which has been accentuated by the skills gap (Manitoba, P.A.C.E., Labour Market Outlook for Manitoba: 1990 - 2000).

The Partners report says:

Many workers do not possess the basic education required as a prerequisite to learning new skills. As such, it is imperative that government address the basic education issue for both youth and adults in a comprehensive and coordinated fashion. Due to increasing global competition, it is becoming more important that the gap between labour supply and demand be narrowed significantly. This can be accomplished by expanding training efforts, and improving basic education, labour market planning, and training quality (p. 13).

The report also notes that federal expenditures in Manitoba on training and other programs have declined by 26% over the five year period from 1985 - 90, from \$86.7 million to \$64.2 million respectively. Additionally, provincial expenditures during the same period declined by 17% from \$113.8 million to \$93.8 million in 1990 (p. 22). Further, there still seems to be no joint labour force strategy and

little coordination between the levels of government to ensure that priorities, policies and expenditures are rationalized.

Conclusions

Red River Community College is a large, public sector, post-secondary, vocationally-oriented educational institution created primarily to accommodate labour market needs in Manitoba. It has evolved historically primarily from a wartime training facility and has perpetuated a somewhat bureaucratic operational style as a result. Subsequent information will demonstrate the predominance of bureaucratic features in the operation of the college.

Numerous acts of federal legislation over the decades have substantially influenced the direction and extent of post-secondary vocational education in the province. As an economically-challenged province, Manitoba has particularly relied on federal funds to underwrite the costs of building vocational training facilities and of sponsoring vocational training through Canada Employment and Immigration Commission programs. Two acts or agreements of particular significance which have affected post-secondary vocational education funding are the Established Programs Financing Act and the Canadian Jobs Strategy.

Restraints on funding and other external pressures have necessitated innovative approaches to program delivery by many

community colleges over the past several years and have resulted in a new mission statement, a new strategic plan, and a more quality-oriented philosophy for RRCC.

Study Group Organizational Life

A brief qualitative description of organizational life in the study group complements the organizational profile and historical data provided previously. Specifically, this section discusses key factors such as the college organizational structure, organizational processes such as decision-making, communications, organizational socialization, performance evaluation, career planning, strategic planning, budgeting and evaluation, and other influences such as organizational leadership, and organizational culture.

Organizational Structure

As a post-secondary educational institution presently situated under a department of the provincial government, the College possesses many of the structural and operational characteristics of a bureaucratic organization particularly in the degree to which it appears to be complex, formalized, and centralized.¹⁶

Academic programs within the organization have tended to be organized based on the tasks they perform. Thus, for example, those programs which have traditionally provided one year of training or less in technical or industrial occupations and have resulted in a certificate for graduates have been grouped in the trades or industrial academic area of the college. Frequently, the institutional training has

permitted these graduates to obtain a subsequent apprenticeship placement with an employer which leads to certification by the provincial authority after a specified period of service and experience in the trade.

Those programs which have traditionally provided two years of training in technical occupations and have resulted in a diploma for graduates have been grouped in the technology academic area of the college. Many of the graduates of the technical diploma programs have received designation as certified engineering technologists (C.E.T.) after having gained two years of experience with an employer in their areas of technical specialization. Some of these graduates have also utilized academic credits obtained from the technical diploma to continue on with a university program in engineering or science. There are approximately 65 certificate and diploma programs provided by the organization in total, not only in the technical areas, but in the Business and Applied Arts, Health, Family and Applied Sciences, Developmental Education, and Continuing Education areas as well.

Until 1991, the trades and technology academic areas of the college represented two components of the academic division, which was one of four major divisions--academic, administrative, student services, and external and corporate affairs. However, in April 1991, a new organizational

structure was introduced by a new CEO "to more effectively meet the challenges facing RRCC over the next few years" (Knowles, letter, April 16, 1991).

The new organizational structure (a) reduced the number of Vice-Presidents from four to two--the Vice-Presidency of Student Services was reduced to a Deanship reporting to the Vice-President of Administration; the Vice-Presidency of External and Corporate Affairs was reduced to a Deanship incorporating a Marketing Centre and Developmental Education; (b) reduced the number of academic Deanships to five by combining trades and technology under one Dean of Trades and Technology and by combining the extension division with regional centres under one Dean of Continuing Education and Regional Centres; and (c) eliminated 92 employees by completely deleting 10 academic programs and reducing 10 others.

The five-tier organization which resulted included the President; two Vice-Presidents (Academic; Administration and Student Affairs); five academic Deanships and a Director of Program and Staff Development in the academic division and one Dean, two Directors, and seven Managers in the administrative division; approximately 34 academic department heads and coordinators of 65 academic programs or courses (91 managers throughout the organization in total) and then the remaining faculty, support staff, and clerical personnel.

The April 1991 restructuring eliminated the Deanship of Trades which resulted in the release of this Dean who was the most senior in length of service to the organization. The amalgamation of Trades and Technology under one Deanship also made this division the largest (163 faculty members), most diverse, and presumably most difficult to manage of all the academic Deanships. In May 1991, the Vice-President, Administration and Student Services was released, and not replaced, which caused a further restructuring on the administrative side.

The consequences of these restructurings and the commitment by the President to create a new Deanship of Aboriginal Education and Institutional Diversity prompted the President and Vice-President, Academic to propose a more extensive reorganization in 1992 (Nicholls, memo, August 14, 1992). However, the reinstatement of the former Dean of Trades based upon a successful unjust dismissal suit created an obstacle to the proposed reorganization. Instead, the dismissal of the Vice-President, Academic in December 1992 was followed immediately by a restructuring which recreated two Deanships in the former Trades and Technology Division. This interim reorganization was to be in effect until the college achieved board governance at which time it was anticipated there would be further change (Knowles, letter, December 9, 1992).

Coordination among work units and groups in the college can be difficult; this is at least partly attributable to several restructurings which occurred during 1991 - 93. However, in general, the college accomplishes its coordination through mutual adjustment, direct supervision, and standardization. Mutual adjustment refers to the face-to-face exchange of information about how a job should be done and who should do it. Direct supervision is a situation in which one person takes responsibility for the work of a group of others. Standardization provides employees with standards and procedures which guide the performance of their tasks.

The span of control for supervisors of employees in the college is seldom fewer than five and occasionally as many as 30 employees. Sometimes this affects the quality and quantity of mutual adjustment and direct supervision within work groups. Job descriptions, therefore, provide some measure of standardization for comparable tasks. Additionally, program evaluations are conducted every five years while course and faculty evaluations are conducted annually internally to ensure that the level of quality is maintained or improved. National accreditation boards in some program areas, and program advisory committees in all areas, contribute to relative standardization.

Despite the standardization which exists in the organization, the number of levels in the vertical hierarchy

(five levels internally; three or more levels externally-- Assistant Deputy Minister, Deputy Minister, Minister, and occasionally Cabinet and Treasury Board for some approvals) and horizontal differentiation (750 employees for 65 programs with 91 managers) have made it difficult for the organization to accomplish its work as efficiently and effectively as it might. Consequently, the organizational processes tend to be complex, formalized, and bureaucratic.

Organizational Processes

There are numerous organizational processes that are interconnected and which influence each other greatly; however, to discuss all of these processes in depth is not within the scope of this study. Accordingly, only brief comments and observations follow about the college's decision-making, communications, organizational socialization, performance evaluation, career planning, strategic planning, budgeting, and evaluation processes.

Decision-making

Many of the decisions in the organization are made currently on the basis of government-established policies, precedents, procedures, or directives. However, the college has begun to create policies of its own to accommodate the move to board governance. The decision-making style at several managerial levels seems to be by committee.

The college is managed by a 16-person College Management Committee (CMC) comprised of the President, Vice-President; Deans, and selected college Directors or Managers from such areas as Computer Services, Human Resource Services, Administrative Services and the library. In addition, there is a Deans' and Directors' Committee which considers academic-related issues and reports to the CMC. Generally, each Dean has regular bi-weekly committee meetings with Department Heads within his or her jurisdiction and these Department Heads are expected to have regular meetings with their respective staffs, although this latter practice occurs sporadically in some areas.

The committee style of decision-making creates the impression of widespread consultation and participation, but many of the committees have essentially the same membership. For example, most committee assignments flow from the College Management Committee (CMC) and most committee reports are made to the CMC. To ensure that appropriate direction and guidance is provided to the committees, at least one member of the CMC, sometimes several, participates in the committee and often chairs it. Because most committee assignments have applications to various departments and across the College, representatives from common areas such as registration / admissions, purchasing, counselling, library, and student support centres are needed. Consequently, these representatives to the committees are often the same persons

because they are the decision-makers for their areas.

Both the committee decision-making style and the sheer number of committees in the organization contribute to organizational complexity. For example, a request to management by the College Task Force on Human Resource Development to identify the number and purpose of the committees connected with the organization was unable to be answered apparently because there are just too many committees. However, a comparable organization in British Columbia--the British Columbia Institute of Technology--(8,000 full-time-equivalent students versus approximately 6,500 FTE at RRCC in 1993) estimated the number of committees connected with its organization to be about 250 (Curran, interview, 10 December 1992). Therefore, one can reasonably assume the number of committees connected with RRCC, although proportionately less, is at least somewhat comparable to BCIT.

Communications

Current government policies, programs, procedures, and directives as well as the committee style of decision-making have an effect on the communication processes in the college as well. Many employees are not familiar with government policies and directives because this information does not filter down through the organization, or is conveyed inaccurately through such mechanisms as the organization's grapevine. Minutes of the meetings of Management Committee

and Deans' and Directors' Committee are circulated in some divisions, but not in all. Often the minutes will not reach the bottom levels of the organization for 4 - 6 weeks--well after the information has ceased to be timely. Further, these minutes tend to contain limited information and explanation about what implications the decisions might have and why the decisions were reached.

The college management endeavours to provide letters or memos to all staff about important occurrences, such as organizational restructuring. Further, the President holds periodic lunch-time meetings to answer questions from employees about changes that are occurring. Finally, each organization member is supposed to receive an internal newsletter about organizational changes approximately every 4 - 6 weeks. Despite these efforts at communication, many organization members claim not to know what is happening (Task Force Report on HRD, June, 1993).

There could be several reasons for these problems with communication in the organization: (a) newsletters tend to be distributed in bulk to organization members, and are not specifically addressed to individuals; (b) the lunch-time meetings held by the President frequently conflict with scheduled classes of the faculty, who represent the majority of employees; (c) the timeliness of the information received through minutes of meetings is often poor; (d) although

Department Heads are supposed to have periodic meetings with staff, this occurs infrequently in some areas or not at all; (e) the sheer size of the organization (1.2 million square feet) and its many regional centres inhibits communication; and (f) the amount of paperwork circulating around the organization at any given time is excessive--consequently, many employees tend to ignore much of the circulating material, particularly if it is not seen as relevant to them or to their work areas.

Organizational Socialization

A circumstance in which the need to convey information is important is the time during which new employees are socialized into the organization. In recent years, the Staff Development Coordinator for the College has endeavoured to provide an "orientation" day to familiarize new employees with the organization's mission, strategic objectives, management philosophy and so on. Attendance at this orientation has not been compulsory and many supervisory managers have chosen not to have new organizational members within their departments attend the orientation. This seems to be particularly true of new faculty members, who are often placed immediately into a classroom situation with no orientation or prior teaching skills training because classes have already started in their respective courses. Although orientation days have generally been scheduled three times a year to accommodate these

situations, few employees who started some months earlier are likely to attend these follow-on orientation sessions.

A "Staff Handbook" has been utilized and distributed previously to try to offset this lack of initial employee information and involvement, but the material requires regular updating and is intended only as a supplement to employee orientation. Initial employee socialization, therefore, is frequently accomplished within individual divisions or departments. Consequently, beliefs about or attitudes toward the organization or its management by some longer-term employees may well be conveyed. Further, information may not be accurately and clearly depicted because individuals differ considerably in their perceptions of "the way things are."

One of the conditions of employment in the college is that faculty must complete, within a specified time period, a teaching certificate in adult education. This program, taught mostly by non-college faculty, provides some orientation to teaching and to the organization. However, many faculty members take years to complete the teaching certificate program on a part-time basis and several, who may have teaching credentials from other sources such as a university Faculty of Education, take few or no adult education teaching courses through the college at all. Further, those non-faculty employees who do not attend the initial orientation sessions take little or no required training subsequently

unless it is specific to an organizational need or to their positions.

Performance Evaluation

The current performance evaluation process utilized by the college most closely resembles a narrative appraisal technique. Under the present system, some managers have been taught how to conduct a performance evaluation, but most have not. Training workshops on performance evaluation have been made available to managers previously, but few managers have attended (Task Force on HRD, 1993).

Currently, the performance evaluation is required to be conducted at least once annually for each employee by the employee's supervisor. After the performance evaluation interview has been completed, the evaluation form is forwarded to the Divisional Dean and then directly to the Personnel department to be placed on the individual's personnel file.

Theoretically, the performance evaluation process is designed to provide regular feedback to the employee to identify and to encourage improvements in performance. It should also identify goals and objectives for the future including the employee's career aspirations.

Career Planning

Although most organizations make individual employees responsible for their own career planning and provide support services for this activity, some assimilation of individual career aspirations and organizational needs is necessary to ensure career aspirations and organizational needs are optimized in return for the staff development funds expended. No formal career planning process exists at the College at present for either lateral or upward movement for those employees who aspire to different careers or who aspire to move into management. Until recently, supervisory and mid-managers who had acquired management positions tended to occupy these positions for long periods (e.g. incumbencies ranging from 12 to 20 years were not uncommon). Accordingly, the college President indicated in 1991 that Department Headships or Chairs would be considered for rotation every five years to provide opportunities for other qualified employees to gain administrative experience.

Internally, personnel selections are generally made through a board interview process which can include several persons depending upon the level of the position to be filled. If the position should be managerial, for example, the board could include a civil service representative, a personnel department representative, the relevant Dean and/or Department Head, a Department Head at the same level if the position

being sought is a Department Head position, and one or two faculty representatives. Externally, bulletins for positions elsewhere in the provincial civil service are posted regularly and qualified personnel within the provincial civil service tend to have priority in these selections. Therefore, access to these potential career development positions by college personnel will be limited after the college moves into board governance and out of the civil service.

Currently, the Civil Service Commission (CSC) offers career planning workshops and some are conducted at the college as well by its staff development persons. The college management has begun to recognize that there is a need to open up positions and to provide more opportunities for career development. There have been improvements in the areas of staff development, educational leaves, and support for employees taking university or job-related courses by the allocation of additional, although still limited, funds.¹⁷

There is presently no career planning process to accommodate management succession at the college, at least partly because of the public sector nature of the organization. Because permanent positions must be available to the public, it is a more difficult process for senior managers to identify and to groom a successor than what private sector senior managers tend to encounter. Consequently, about the only career planning that can be done

by the college organization for aspiring potential managers internally is to encourage them to apply for managerial positions that become vacant and to provide learning opportunities that will facilitate their acquisition of experience and managerial skills.

Although individual career training and development opportunities occur fairly frequently for all employees through conferences and seminars held locally, it has been extremely difficult to obtain approval to attend out-of-province conferences as a result of government fiscal restraint and the levels of approval involved. Therefore, this has tended to act more as a disincentive for employees to even apply for out-of-province career training and development opportunities.

Strategic Planning

The strategic planning process at the college has tended to be more participatory under the current President than it was under his predecessors. The previous approach to strategic planning at the college with the 1988 - 91 plan involved little or no environmental scanning to identify constraints, initiatives, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats affecting the college. Further, there was little or no consultation with business, industry, labour, the College Advisory Board, or senior Manitoba Education officials conducted prior to the development of the

plan. Finally, little or no consideration was given to political realities, resource availability, or government objectives (Dedi, interview, 4 November 1987).

A consequence of this lack of consultation was that a common understanding of strategic planning was never clearly established among those officials or organizations that should have been involved in the planning process. The actual planning and working groups for the planning process comprised primarily college middle-management and senior management persons, but little input was solicited from the groups and individuals who would actually be responsible for implementing various facets of the plan.

The planning process for the 1991 plan, in contrast, took measures to ensure that all college members had an opportunity "to comment on the content and structure of 20 to 30 institutional objectives" (Knowles, memo, May 15, 1991). The approach outlined in the President's memo specified that there should be two planning documents--one at the institution level for mass distribution, and one to indicate the divisional and departmental objectives in more detail. The three-year plan was to be used to identify and to articulate the niche that the college was to strive for in the area of both education and training.

Both the 1988 - 91 plan and the 1991 - 94 plan provided mission statements. However, while the 1988 - 91 plan

provided specific but unmeasurable goals, executive actions, and action steps for employees to follow, the 1991 - 94 plan actually accomplished most of its objective--the overall institutional plan with seven major strategic objectives (see Appendix H) and at least the divisional objectives which were subsequently developed and disseminated. This represents a success in the 1991 planning. However, Michel (1986, p. 11.12) states:

To be meaningful and operative, the strategies and implementation programs must be discrete, measurable and finite. Most importantly, these must be precisely articulated if they are to have any real potential for success.

Consequently, the lack of measurability of the strategic goals established in the overall 1991 - 94 institutional plan makes it extremely difficult to evaluate the success of the plan as a whole. The 1991 - 94 strategic plan commentary reports general progress and accomplishments on the seven strategic objectives stated in the plan. For example, one declared accomplishment is that "all management staff have received micro-computer training in WordPerfect and electronic mail" (RRCC, Strategic Objectives, October, 1992). However, according to the Staff Development Coordinator for the College at the time, who was responsible for providing most of the WordPerfect training for managers, fewer than half (and perhaps as few as one-third) of the college's 91 managers had undertaken computer training. This represents a discrepancy between the stated accomplishment in the commentary and the

actual accomplishment verified by the designated trainer.

Budgeting

The budgeting process at RRCC could be described as moderately incremental. The intent is to attempt to accommodate solid budgeting theory with the current reality of being a public sector institution. Previously, the government of Manitoba has utilized a form of planning, programming, budgeting system for the college called AB and ABX in an attempt to cut budgets; therefore, the resources allocated to the colleges has depended largely on the success of the individual college lobby by the President and senior officials of each of the three colleges.

However, the college move to board governance may foster a different budgeting approach such as block funding. Block funding involves the allocation of a block of funds rather than allocations for individual line items in a proposed budget. The advantage of this process is that it would provide opportunity for the college board of governors and senior management to be involved more directly in the internal allocation of funds. Further, to this point, most revenues generated through college operations such as market-driven training have been deposited into provincial general revenue coffers. Under the new budgeting system, revenues generated by the college will be able to be kept by the colleges and reinvested directly back into college programming.

Internally, the present actual budgeting process involves consultation with the respective Deans, Directors and managers to identify the essential resource needs to accomplish their operations. Total resource needs are tallied and then pared until a consensus is reached. When a final tally has been reached, the data are compiled by the college's Chief Financial Officer and forwarded through channels to the Department of Education. After further consideration by the Department, Cabinet, and Treasury Board, modifications may be required which necessitates additional estimates adjustments. The predominant factor in the budgeting process is that the college is not permitted to have a deficit budget.

The current budget estimates process involving the college requires approximately an eighteen-month lead time. Consequently, the strategic plan is not irrevocably linked to the budget beyond the first year of the plan because the estimates required are considered to be too artificial. The budgeting process for the college ultimately culminates in a comprehensive budget binder. An example of the revenue and expenditure budget summary is included at Appendix I.

Evaluation

Both formative and summative evaluation processes are presently utilized at RRCC. Goldstein (1986, pp. 147-48) indicates that formative evaluation is utilized to determine

if the program is operating as originally planned or if improvements are necessary. Summative evaluation is the evaluation of the final product with a major emphasis on program appraisal. Thus, formative evaluation stresses tryout and revision processes, while summative evaluation uses outcome criteria. The primary focus at the College seems to be on formative mechanisms internally which focus on those programs and objectives achieved rather than those not achieved. Summative evaluation tends to be used internally only when the formative approach has been exhausted and a decision is required about the continuing viability of a program.

A published "program evaluation policy" provides for a systematic evaluation of college instructional programs to make appropriate judgements and to identify needed changes. The program evaluation process is regarded as a constructive analysis of an instructional program designed to isolate the strengths of the program which can be maintained and the weaknesses of the program which can be removed or modified. The object is to promote flexibility and adaptability to increase the effectiveness of the program for the student.

The program procedures are quite specific and detailed. The role of the Program Evaluation Committee is to (a) make recommendations on policy revisions; (b) approve the program evaluation model; and (c) determine the program evaluation

schedule. A Program-Specific Evaluation Committee has been established by the Vice-President, Academic for each program under evaluation and normally comprises 10 - 12 members.

Program evaluation involves six questionnaires including: (a) a Faculty questionnaire for those who teach in the program; (b) an Early-Leaving student questionnaire; (c) a Student questionnaire for those presently registered; (d) a Graduate questionnaire based on a sample of graduates from the last three years; (e) an Employer questionnaire based on a random, representative sample; and (f) an Advisory Committee questionnaire which is distributed among those business and industry representatives who serve on college program advisory committees. These data are then used to produce a summary report which identifies strengths and weaknesses, compares data results with different sample groups, and makes recommendations and comments.

Summative evaluation factors for programs include: (a) graduation rates; (b) job placement rates; (c) costs per graduate; (d) availability of jobs especially applicable to Manitoba; (e) the "cluster" effect which assesses the interconnectedness of one occupation on another and the impact a program deletion may have; (f) the quality of graduates; and (g) the redeployability of current staff should a specific program need to be deleted or reduced.

However, the overall approach to this manifest summative

process has weaknesses. For example, one of the 10 programs to be deleted during the 1991 program deletions and reductions previously described was reinstated subsequently because it was discovered that the data used to substantiate the deletion of the program was inaccurate.

Overall evaluation of the RRCC organization could be considered both formative and summative depending on one's perspective. There are a sufficient number of evaluative mechanisms and reviews occurring that the process has become almost continual.

The college produces a basic strategic plan or strategic objectives for which it is presently held accountable by the Assistant Deputy Minister, Deputy Minister, and Minister of the provincial Department of Education. When the college moves to governance, accountability will be directly to the college board of governors. Under The Colleges and Consequential Amendments Act, however, the Minister still has ultimate authority and can remove or replace the board under specified circumstances. On the financial side, the college is required to generate an annual budget which is subjected to a regular review and adjustment. Additionally, the provincial auditor currently conducts a financial review and generally provides suggestions for systems improvement.

On the programming side, attrition, graduate job placement, and training-to-job match are primary evaluative

factors. High attrition programs with low job placement tend to have the least chance of survival. Summatively, these factors are compared with other comparable institutions nationally to establish a comparative ranking. Further, many programs are evaluated by national accreditation committees to ensure appropriate standards are maintained.

Organizational Leadership

While the structure and processes of the college seem to have a significant influence on the growth, development, and perpetuation of the managerial style in the college, the influence of leaders in the college is not as clearly defined.

Mintzberg (1973, p. 60) says that "the organization looks to its formal head for guidance and motivation. In his leader role, the manager defines the atmosphere in which the organization will work". Therefore, a college President has leadership influence on the organization, particularly in the area of corporate culture. However, the extent of leadership influence in other areas is not as clear.

Davis (1984) suggests that guiding beliefs are invariably set at the top and transmitted down through the ranks. Any effort to change these beliefs must be made by the CEO. The overall significance of this for setting and implementing strategic direction in an organization cannot be overstated. Creation of and modification to an organization's culture

depends greatly upon the ideas of leaders, their skills in communicating those ideas, and upon their promotion of behaviour which conforms to the leading cultural values.

The leader is the source from which employees derive guidance and direction. This is true whether that individual is the initial College Director who first laid out the guiding beliefs, or the current CEO who appears to have been given a mandate to reinterpret the guiding beliefs and to state new ones. The clearer the leader is about what he or she stands for, the more apparent will be the culture of that organization. This applies to both public and private sector organizations, although there tend to be more bureaucratic restrictions imposed upon leadership in public sector organizations like the college than in the private sector. Finally, an important point is that the leader needs to have top, middle, and supervisory management commitment to his or her beliefs because these managers tend to be the culture carriers in the organization.

Conversely, there are two indirect ways in which those lower on the college hierarchy influence the guiding beliefs of the organization and those who manage it: (a) changes in workplace patterns and social legislation; and (b) the extent to which college employees are prepared to accept change without resistance. New societal norms and new training opportunities are manifest in the labour force through two-

income families, single-parent families, increased participation by females, equal opportunity and affirmative action legislation, pay equity practices, occupational health and safety concerns, etc. Resistance to change is a reflection of the extent of innovation proposed, the displacement potentially involved, the timing, the degree of leadership displayed by all formal and informal leaders in the organization, and the extent of entrenchment in the existing organizational culture.

From 1991 - 93, during his first two years as CEO, the President of the college introduced and continues to promote the concept of total quality management (TQM) which represents a substantial cultural innovation at the college. Regular meetings are held by the college's TQM Committee and comprehensive minutes of the meetings are circulated subsequently. Two pilot projects have been initiated with some success: one in the Market Driven Training Centre; the other in computer services to convert to a different student numbering system (TQM Annual Report, 1991 - 92). However, limited consideration has been given at this point to the application of TQM to classroom situations. Consequently, many faculty members, in particular, are apprehensive about it (HRD Task Force, 1993).

Further, as RRCC appears to be one of the first community colleges in the country to attempt to introduce TQM throughout

the institution, few specific precedents from the community college sector exist to be utilized. Although the manifest college documents surrounding TQM theory, such as the mission statement, emphasize such things as "a high quality of working life for all members of the college community", "open communication" and "participative management", both qualitative and quantitative survey response data reported in the next chapter suggest some evidence to the contrary. This apparent contradiction between some of what manifest college documents say about the college environment and what the actual college environment is provides some insight into the considerable obstacle to change and innovation represented by the present culture of the college.

Organizational Culture

Although the business of the college is to provide technical and vocational education and training, the process is rigidly codified under rules and regulations to which the organization's personnel must adhere. Educational policy direction, the college mandate, resource allocation, personnel selection, student registration and admission policy, purchasing policy, staff development policy and so on are all presently subject to decision-making input by higher levels of authority within the Department of Education and related areas such as the Civil Service Commission.

Consequently, change and innovation are lengthy

processes. The development of new programs or movement in new directions frequently takes years to accomplish. These problems are exacerbated by a budget process which generally requires up to 18 months of lead time and various levels of approval up to the ministerial level. Developmental proposals are required to conform to narrowly-defined regulations, which are also subject to interpretation at various levels, and generally involve extensive committee discussion and consultation. This lengthy process not only reduces the opportunities for the college to provide job-specific industry training in a timely way, it diffuses individual decision-making responsibility and accountability at the managerial level.

Lower and middle-level managers at the college have tended to consolidate and to occupy managerial positions for lengthy terms. Historically, they appear to have considered convenience and security as nearly all-important and have sought merely to retain the amount of power, income, and prestige they already have. However, in a process of rationalization, these managers may have the most to lose. If there are program mergers or deletions, their positions could be vulnerable. Therefore, the practice of consolidation on one's position is at least somewhat understandable. To some extent, this consolidation may be a reflection of the average age of employees in the college (47 years in 1993) and of the proximity of retirement for many of them. Some managers

appear to have also surrounded themselves with like-minded subordinates who are prepared to conform and comply (Task Force on HRD, June, 1993).

A lack of opportunity for upward mobility caused by the long tenure of existing managers may have fostered an attitude of indifference and lack of commitment among rank-and-file employees, something which is analysed more fully in the next chapter. Presthus (1962) describes the indifference in the organization as the uncommitted majority who see their jobs as instruments to obtain off-work satisfactions. These individuals have come to terms with their work environment by withdrawal, perhaps after alienation from the work itself.

Conclusions

The impact of almost 55 years of institutional operations in the public sector have produced what might be termed a bureaucratic organizational culture at the College and most of the rules, regulations, and rituals associated with it.

The evolution of RRCC as a bureaucratic, public sector, post-secondary, educational institution has much to do with (a) its hierarchical organizational structure; (b) the complex, centralized, formalized processes hierarchical structures tend to foster; (c) a reactive managerial style at least partly attributable to the public sector nature of the organization; and (d) apparent self-protectionist or conserver policies of all levels of management in the organization. It

may also have something to do with (a) the type of leadership manifested by managers in the organization; and (b) the influence of senior and mid-managerial leadership on the organization's culture.

Although it fits with the collegial norms and respect for instructor autonomy that are supposed to characterize institutions of higher education, most decision-making in the College tends to be by management-dominated committees. Further, decision-makers tend to rely on rules, regulations, precedents, policies, procedures, and directives previously established. Communication processes are inhibited by the size of the organization, the timeliness of meetings and of circulating documents, and the sheer volume of paperwork flowing through the organization at any given time.

Organizational socialization processes tend to be informal; therefore, orientation is frequently carried out within a department by department members who may or may not have accurate information about or positive approaches to working in the organization.

Performance evaluations tend to be mostly subjective and frequently sporadic for many members of the organization. They appear to have little or no bearing on individual career aspirations or in succession planning. Funding for staff training and development seems to be limited, and funding expenditures for staff development generally have required

many levels of approval, particularly for out-of-province training and development opportunities. This tends to act as a disincentive for many organization employees.

Strategic planning currently tends to be less formalized and more consultative than under previous regimes, although environmental scanning is still limited, strategic objectives are not expressed in measurable terms, and no specific executive actions or action steps have been stipulated. Budgeting processes are lengthy and tend to be subject to many adjustments which inhibit planning. However, a different style of funding under board governance may positively influence the budgeting process. Evaluation processes have been well-developed for academic programs and the overall organization, but errors and inaccuracies with some program evaluations tends to suggest these particular processes need revision.

The manifest documents of the college such as the mission statement, strategic objectives, and total quality management material describe an environment in which there is ostensibly a high quality of working life, open communication, and participative management. However, perceptions by college employees are that leadership tends to be exhibited mostly by the College President and the College Management Committee, while leadership may be somewhat limited at lower managerial levels.

Chapter IV describes the methodology utilized to gather empirical data for the dissertation. The chapter discusses the survey design, survey population characteristics, instrument development, data collection, data analysis techniques, and the validity of the findings.

C H A P T E R IV

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the development of the methodology for the study and the design of the instrument used in the survey of the staff at RRCC. The chapter includes discussion of the following topics: design of the study, population of the study, theory and hypotheses, validity of the research, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis.

Best and Kahn (1989) suggest that data may be gathered by a variety of methods, including

1. Observation by the researcher or his or her informants of physical characteristics, social qualities, or behaviour
2. Interviews with the subject(s), relatives, friends, teachers, counsellors, and others
3. Questionnaires, opinionnaires, psychological tests, and inventories
4. Recorded data from newspapers, schools, courts, clinics, government agencies, or other sources.
(p. 92).

Some precautions need to be taken with these methods to avoid (a) subjective bias and preconceived convictions, and b) subjective attribution of effects to factors that are only associated rather than cause-and-effect related. To help offset these biases, two independent consultants helped provide: (a) objective input into the construction of the

questionnaire, and (b) an objective analysis of the questionnaire data results.

The material presented in the chapter is primarily descriptive research, including some brief historical analysis to describe the evolution of the College's culture. Best and Kahn state further that descriptive research focuses on the relationships between variables, the testing of hypotheses, and the development of generalizations, principles, or theories that have universal validity. This type of research focuses on events that have taken place previously and may relate to a present condition.

Minimal quantitative data is presented in the chapter, as the primary focus is on the qualitative dimensions of college life. Qualitative research describes persons, circumstances, occurrences, and so forth with limited or no use of numerical data.

The main research methods employed in this study are document analysis of relevant legislation, college studies, letters, reports, and memoranda; informal interviews with various educational officials, college managers, faculty, and support staff; cross-sectional focus groups; an arguably subjective case study because of the author's participation in and observation of the study group organization; and a survey questionnaire to provide some objective data. Document

analysis attempts to explain the status of some phenomenon at a particular time or its development over a specified period. Informal interviews provide primarily anecdotal evidence of observed phenomenon. Focus groups endeavour to identify what are perceived to be key issues by the college members. Case studies examine a social unit as a whole, analyze interactions, and take a longitudinal approach, showing development over time. A survey questionnaire provides an opportunity for many organizational members to participate in the data-gathering process and offers some quantitative data to support the study conclusions.

Design of the Study

The case study approach allows the researcher to gather comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information about the recent operations of RRCC. Chapter III provided a profile of the organization, an overview of its history, and a brief analysis of the impact of recent legislation based on documents, reports, studies, letters, and memoranda. It was demonstrated that a variety of external pressures demand that the College become a more flexible organization. Further, some additional qualitative description of the College was provided through a brief analysis of such key factors as leadership, planning and the organizational culture in the College.

As a preliminary to the survey, two focus groups, comprising approximately 10 individuals each time, were randomly selected from four designated employment categories from a list of organizational members to solicit satisfaction-related topics and human resources training and development issues of primary concern from the college population. The four employment categories are: management, faculty, support staff, and clerical/secretarial. Further, to ensure author bias did not enter, the focus group participants were randomly selected by another organization member and then solicited to participate in the focus groups. Representation in the focus groups was approximately proportional to the employment category percentage of the overall college employee population.

A self-reporting questionnaire was then designed based partly on the topics of primary concern identified in the focus groups and partly on an amalgam of questions from existing, mostly commercial, questionnaires. The self-reporting questionnaire can be described most accurately as a "field survey". A typical field survey involves selecting a sample of questionnaire respondents, collecting their responses to a questionnaire or interviews, analysing the responses and making inferences about the larger population from which the sample is representative.

Population of the Study

The full-time college staff were offered the opportunity to participate in the survey. Approximately 700 self-reporting questionnaires were distributed in a survey package which also included a covering explanatory letter from the College Task Force on Human Resource Development and a return-addressed envelope. Two weeks prior to the mailing a letter from the college President encouraged all employees to participate. One week after the survey was distributed, a follow-up memorandum was sent to all managers requesting that they remind employees to return the questionnaire by the specified date.

Theory and Hypotheses

Kerlinger (1986) defines a theory as "a set of interrelated constructs, definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of a phenomenon by specifying relations among variables" (p. 9). However, theory is only half of the scientific process; theories must prove themselves with data. Through a process of deduction, hypotheses, or specific predictions about the relationships between certain conditions in the real world, are generated. Consequently, if a theory is correct, then what the hypotheses predict should be found in the real world.

Chapter II describes some of the manifestations that

exist in bureaucratic or mechanistic cultures; suggests that these environments need to be changed to improve competitiveness, effectiveness, efficiency, and productivity; and suggests these changes can be accomplished primarily through transformational leadership predicated on proactive planning, training, and development. This provides the theoretical basis for the study.

Accordingly, if the case for open systems theory and the interrelationship of variables influencing organizational change has been made, the study's general hypothesis is that the overall data will indicate moderate-to-high employee dissatisfaction correlated with several variables including many of the College's existing processes, organizational climate and leadership and management behaviour.¹⁸ If the hypothesis is correct, its significance is that organizational processes, climate and leader and manager behaviours are interdependent variables that are amenable to manipulation by transformational leaders and skilled managers to accomplish planned organizational change in both public and private sectors.

Validity of the Research

Many organizational surveys tend to focus less on the specific individual and more on what might be considered demographically to be an "average" respondent. Consequently,

survey results tend to be viewed frequently as a loose collection of feelings with little effort devoted to construct validation. Wagner and Hollenbeck (1992) state that establishing construct validity refers to "...showing that a measure of a concept is congruent with the theory and data that support the concept" (p. 62).

Unfortunately, the measurement of construct validity in an organizational setting confronts numerous and difficult problems. Most organizations neither collect nor maintain performance measures. Frequently, data collected deals with the volume of activity and is meant to satisfy internal and external accountability requirements. Indicators seldom provide evidence on performance feedback and guidance for change.

Taylor and Bowers (1972) say organizations have varying degrees of contamination in their performance data which can be attributed to such factors as (a) changing standards from subunit to subunit from period to period, (b) maintaining common standards for all subunits in situations where the work has changed over time and is different from subunit to subunit, (c) compiling performance information into financial centres which have little resemblance to the organizational operating structure, and (d) relying on collection procedures which systematically distort results.

Further, many organizations (a) disagree internally about which measures truly reflect effectiveness, (b) differ in the kinds of measures they rely upon and use, and (c) are often unwilling to make performance data available for reasons of confidentiality, trust and the potential competitive advantage this might give to others in the organization.

The amount of time that has elapsed between an event and measurement of the effect of the event can be a factor in a questionnaire analysis as well. Taylor and Bowers (1972) suggest that a survey respondent typically provides an average reading of reactions or perceptions covering a preceding period of several months. Therefore, time becomes an important consideration with this particular study. In addition to the College's fifty-year history of functioning within a department of government and within the public sector bureaucratic culture, a 1991 government initiative to "downsize" the organization may have also had an impact on employee perceptions. The "downsizing" involved 92 persons, including some senior members of the organization, and had never occurred to that extent previously in the organization's history. This potentially could have an impact on the responses of the remaining survey participants even though approximately two-thirds of the downsized employees were subsequently rehired because of the personnel shortfall and operational problems caused by the downsizing.

The questionnaire survey focuses on variables identified by previous researchers to describe how organizational systems function (Likert, 1961, 1969; Likert and Bowers, 1969; Bowers, 1972).¹⁹ The relationships among several types of variables are analysed. These variables are

1. Causal (Independent) Variables

Organizational Climate (basic organizational conditions such as the flow of communication or decision-making practices, which in part determine group processes and outcomes)

Managerial or supervisory leadership behaviour

2. Intervening (Enabling) Variables

Subordinate (peer) leadership behaviour (behaviour directed by subordinate to subordinate)

Group processes (interpersonal processes which characterize a work group)

3. End Result (Dependent) Variables

Satisfaction

Performance or effectiveness

For purposes of this study, it is assumed that organizational climate and managerial or supervisory leadership behaviour affect the level of satisfaction and performance or effectiveness of subordinates and the organization. Managerial or supervisory leadership behavioural intervention that causes or promotes positive intergroup behaviour and group processes contributes to a positive end result change in the organizational climate, productivity or effectiveness, and level of satisfaction.

The flow of these influences is not linear, but multi-directional as described in opens systems theory. For example, managerial and leadership supervisory behaviour is also affected by subordinate behaviour and work group processes. Improved employee performance or effectiveness tends to contribute to an improved organizational climate.

Process of Instrument Development

The instrumentation for the study was one of the outcomes of several months of meetings held by the College Task Force on Human Resource Development. This Task Force Committee was initiated by the College President in September, 1991 and was chaired for its duration by the Director of Cooperative Education, Program and Staff Development (see Appendix J for the Task Force terms of reference).

The Task Force membership originally comprised 15 representatives from the college community, including the author. These representatives were elected with the exception of the Task Force Chair who was appointed, a College Dean who was selected by the Deans' and Directors' Committee, and the Coordinator of Staff Development who was recruited by the Task Force Chair.

The Committee membership was subsequently amended to include two additional members to ensure representation from the college visible minorities and from the college aboriginal

community. This brought the Committee total to 17 members.

Initial meetings were held monthly, but commencing January, 1992 the meetings became biweekly. The first meetings focused on the working sub-committee structure, on identifying documents which would guide the study, and on preliminary human resource development literature research.

The original proposal was to create four working sub-committees from the representative components of the college workforce: management, faculty, support staff and clerical/secretarial. These sub-committees were to meet in the intervening periods between the larger group meetings to carry out assigned research and tasks. It became obvious fairly quickly that the sub-committees needed to be heterogeneous, to reflect perceptions of all components of the organization, rather than homogeneous, which would have all managerial representatives meeting together or all faculty meeting together and would tend not to include input from other affected components.

A "wheel" model of human resource development (McLagan, 1989, p. 6) provided a focus for the best configuration of the working sub-committees (see Appendix K for an illustration of the "wheel"). As the scope of the potential investigation provided by the wheel model was extensive, the Committee chose to focus on four primary areas: training and development,

career development, organizational development, and human resources research and information systems (HRIS). It was recognized that HRIS was the foundation that would underlie all proposed human resource development at the College. The main tasks of the HRIS sub-committee became to research available software that would manipulate essential HR data and to establish how to maintain levels of confidentiality about personnel information within the selected or adapted software program.

One of the main concerns then became the research focus for the remaining three working sub-committees. Each sub-committee subsequently appointed or elected a Chairperson who was responsible for organizing the sub-committee research and for reporting progress at each full Committee meeting. The author of this study became the Chairperson of the Organizational Development sub-committee.

A second major concern was to identify those documents which could influence or should guide the Committee in fulfilling the President's strategic plan operational objective which had been identified in the initial mandate document (Knowles, memorandum, September 20, 1991).

"Develop a college-wide human resource strategy for staged implementation commencing September 1992."

Subsequent discussion identified numerous documents which

applied or which could potentially apply to the research situation such as: the College Mission statement (see Appendix G); the College Strategic Plan objectives (see Appendix H); Governance guidelines pertaining to the conversion of the College to a board-governed scenario; Total Quality Management guidelines provided by the College's TQM committee; W. Edwards Deming's 14 TQM points; the Manitoba Human Rights Code; the Canadian Human Rights Act; the Employment Equity Act; exemplary programs which exist elsewhere; computer software programs for tracking human resource development and materials that could be derived from a library literature search and review, particularly information from the last decade. Copies of many of the most relevant documents were distributed to each Committee member as reference material to assist sub-committee discussions and to provide guidance.

Each sub-committee began by defining the central terms within its area of responsibility (see Appendix A - Definition of Terms). Ultimately, however, the main definitions for training and development, career development and organizational development were simplified on the employee questionnaire to minimize any potential misunderstanding by survey participants.

A second step involved establishing primary objectives using the College mission statement and the strategic

objective for human resource development stated in the College strategic plan as a framework. The objectives were then taken from the "focus" statements provided in the "wheel" model (see Appendix K) which was deemed to fit within the overall framework. For example, the objective for organizational development in the College was determined as "assuring healthy inter- and intra-unit relationships and helping groups initiate and manage change" (McLagan, 1989).

A third step involved defining sub-objectives based on the previously-established "wheel model" objective. The organizational development sub-committee, for example, proposed a modified set of sub-objectives based on the integration of two previously-identified sets of sub-objectives: one set of sub-objectives pertained to organizational development generally (French, 1969) and the second set pertained to organizational development within educational institutions (Lubin, Goodstein, and Lubin, 1979).

Ultimately, the conclusion reached was that two of the other sub-components--training and development and career development--would provide the basis for the overall thrust to effect organizational change through organizational development, and also that these two sub-components were essential to ensure that organizational development occurred. Consequently, the sub-objectives identified for organizational development effectively became the ultimate objectives for the

overall Committee. Appendix L indicates these sub-objectives. A fourth step involved identifying the focal point for a proposed survey of all College employees. Data from the survey would subsequently be used to recommend human resource development directions and possible developmental activities.

An article by Watts (1982) identified a possible starting point for the survey. Some focal points suggested by Watts included such major issues as: allocation of authority and responsibility, establishment of clear goals and communication networks to improve planning and communication, effective decision-making at all levels, problem-solving techniques, methods of conflict management and resolution, general organizational climate, leadership, trust and openness, planning, teamwork, cooperation versus competition, and motivation.

These suggested focal points, considered in conjunction with the domains previously identified by Taylor and Bowers (1972) and interpersonal and social variables identified by Beer and Huse (1979), such as leadership and supervision, communication, group process, and intergroup relations, formed the basis for the subsequent employee survey.

To ensure that employees had an opportunity to provide at least some feedback and direction prior to the development and distribution of the employee survey, two focus groups were

conducted. The focus group participants were randomly selected and involved twenty-one College members in total from the four previously-identified employment categories.

The focus groups, conducted over an approximate two-week period, endeavoured to solicit feedback from participants primarily on various aspects of staff [employee] development to address the desired focal points of the training and development and career development sub-committees. An analysis of the responses from the focus groups was used as a basis for structuring that portion of the employee questionnaire. An example of the "HRD Task Force Focus Group Protocol" is shown in Appendix M.

Initial Questionnaire

The initial questionnaire was based on a combination of issues identified by the two focus groups and on proposed survey questions submitted by the sub-committees. The initial questionnaire included a computer-response form to facilitate tabulation of responses on a five-interval scale (e.g. from Strongly Agree...Strongly Disagree).

The desirable options for the survey were to purchase an existing commercial instrument that had been tested previously for reliability and validity in the private sector or to purchase a commercial instrument which could be fairly easily adapted to the College environment and for which there was a

previous baseline study. As the cost of purchasing these instruments was prohibitive and it was deemed desirable to include as many College employees as possible in the survey, the Committee decided to design its own survey with the assistance of a human resource development consultant. A negative consequence of utilizing this in-house developed survey was that no previous similar study existed with which to compare results; therefore, there were no bench marks to establish whether comparable responses had been obtained elsewhere in similar circumstances.²⁰

The initial questionnaire, then, became an amalgam of several instruments previously utilized in the training and development, career development and organizational development fields in conjunction with measures of areas of concern identified in the two previous focus groups. Further, the initial questionnaire was developed by a sub-committee of five persons, of which the author was a member, with little or no input from the human resource development consultant.

The initial questionnaire proved to be less than effective. It contained eight major sections, including demographic information, comprised 117 questions, and was eleven pages long. Further, by this time the format had moved away from computer-response to fill-in-the-blank responses, now included several questions which required ranking, and also included space for comments in many areas.

Questionnaire Review

The initial questionnaire was formally reviewed by a total of eleven randomly-selected College employees from the four employment categories to establish its clarity, effectiveness, and approximate required completion time. In addition, the twelve other Committee members not directly involved in the development of the questionnaire were asked to complete the questionnaire, identify any potential problems with it, and note the required completion time. Finally, several members were able to discuss the questionnaire in some detail with other College employees to obtain specific feedback. Upon receipt of the initial pilot questionnaires the Coordinator of Staff Development, also a member of the Committee, analysed the responses and determined where corrections to the questionnaire were needed. The time required to complete the initial questionnaire varied from 25 - 60 minutes.

The major corrections needed were (a) clarification on several questions which were considered to be ambiguous, (b) reduction in the size of the document, and (c) inclusion of more questions which pertained directly to the clerical/secretarial component of the College. The latter concern was expressed quite strongly by clerical/secretarial pilot group participants who felt that there was an excessive focus on potential faculty concerns and a limited focus on clerical/secretarial concerns.

Final Questionnaire Design

Based on the Committee discussion and direction provided and on the responses by the pilot questionnaire participants, the survey development sub-committee responsible for developing the initial questionnaire began to revise it. This sub-committee, of which this study author was also a member, (a) reviewed, revised, deleted, and added questions as needed; (b) consulted with a human resource development specialist on questionnaire construction; (c) met as a formal sub-committee and additionally as an informal sub-sub-committee; (d) revised the structure of the questionnaire based on recommendations by the consultant; and (e) had the questionnaire format designed by the College Media Consultant, printed by the College Printing Services, and disseminated by Committee members.

The final questionnaire contained seven sections, including demographic information, comprised 62 questions many of which contained sub-components, provided ample opportunity for comments, utilized an 8 1/2 by 14 inch, back-to-back, yellow-coloured format and occupied four actual pages. The intent of the longer page, back-to-back printing and colour-coding was to reduce the apparent size of the actual questionnaire and make it less intimidating for participants who might otherwise be reluctant to complete it. Additionally, the requirement to rank items was eliminated to reduce the potential additional time this might take survey participants and to reduce potential participant frustration.

Questionnaire scales in Question 2--Job Satisfaction-- used a four-interval response ranging from "Very Satisfied" to "Very Dissatisfied" to force a response from the participants. Question 3, Part A used a five-interval response ranging from "To a Large Extent" to "Don't know" to measure the degree of concurrence with the statement. Question 3, Part B used a four-interval forced-choice response to measure participant perception of the current situation (e.g. from "To a Large Extent" to "Not at All") and the Level of Importance the items should be for the College (e.g. from "Very Important" to "Not at all Important").

Both the Committee covering letter for the questionnaire and the preamble to the questionnaire stressed the anonymity and confidentiality of the replies. The preamble also indicated that completing the questionnaire would take about 25 minutes; however, many survey participants took the opportunity to provide extensive comments to questions or issues and it is likely that the completion of the questionnaire took considerably longer than 25 minutes for these particular participants. An example of the employee questionnaire, reduced to an 8 1/2 by 11 inch format, is shown in Appendix N.

Data Collection

To facilitate collection of the questionnaire data, a return-addressed envelope was included with the original

survey package along with a covering letter and the questionnaire. The collection point was the office of the Coordinator of Staff Development. Most participants returned the questionnaire by mail, but several hand-delivered the instrument because they knew the office location and were not concerned about anonymity or confidentiality.

The survey package was mailed on June 2, 1992 and responses were requested by June 12, 1992. A follow-up memorandum to all managers who supervised employees was sent on June 9, 1992 to encourage employees to respond by June 12, 1992. However, it was anticipated that some responses would still arrive after the deadline and the actual questionnaires were not conveyed to the tabulation firm until June 22, 1992. Two of the main reasons for specifying the ten-day response time were that (a) it was presumed that the longer a document was permitted to sit on a desk, the less likely it would be to be completed; and (b) many of the faculty, who represented the majority of the potential respondents, were about to begin summer vacation.

Data Analysis Techniques

Data Processing

The employee questionnaire data was processed by Tab-It Data Support Services, a commercial data processing organization, which is a subsidiary company of Proactive Information Services of Winnipeg, Manitoba. The data was

entered and codified through a STATPAC IV - GOLD software program.

The actual data processing steps included (a) creating an initial raw material spreadsheet of the employees' responses; (b) running a ten percent random sample of the spreadsheet responses to ensure columns and response categories were properly structured and located; (c) creating a questionnaire "map" to establish the appropriate place and format for the data; (d) establishing the frequencies or participation rates on the various questionnaire questions; and (e) finally, establishing the requested correlations.

The actual coding process for the written comments on the questionnaire included (a) utilizing three-digit numbers to provide initial identification of written responses--these three-digit numbers were subsequently used for reference purposes to cross-check and to verify responses; (b) searching for multiple or comparable responses to establish possible response categories by random sampling about 50 questionnaires with written comments; (c) creating a code for each response category; and (d) establishing a two-digit code for responses within the response category.

Quantitative Methods

The data processing menu-driven software program--STATPAC IV GOLD Professional Version--was utilized because of the large number of American market research firms using it and

because it was more accurate and more flexible than the Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) system formerly used by the organization. The STATPAC software has many more options in one program than the SPSS system does in several programs. Additionally, the STATPAC program has ASCII capability which permits data transfer from various sources, software programs, and disc operating systems (DOS).

Frequency participation rates on three runs of correlations were analysed. These correlations were decided upon in consultation with the survey development sub-committee. The correlations were based on the study group's (a) employment categories; (b) divisional areas; and (c) gender.

For purposes of the survey, employment categories were defined as (a) management; (b) faculty; (c) support staff; and (d) secretarial/clerical. The divisional areas were defined as (a) Business and Applied Arts; (b) Trades and Technology; (c) Health, Family and Applied Sciences; (d) Developmental Education and the Market-Driven Training Centre; and (e) Other (not part of the above divisions and/or not providing direct instruction to students; e.g. administrative components). Ultimately, to facilitate interpretation of the data results, the Support Staff and Secretarial/Clerical categories were merged by the data processing service because of limited responses in some of the smaller job classifications and

because it became too difficult to differentiate job classifications and categories within this group.

In addition to the three correlations requested by the Task Force, the data processing firm also provided some correlations which were specifically requested by the study author. The requested correlations are shown in the matrix below.

CHART I - REQUESTED CORRELATIONS

	Recognition	Value	Physical Conditions	Incentives	Planning Opportunities	Decision-Making Opportunities	Level of Pay	Working Relationships	College Leadership Style	Way Things Get Done
College Management Practices	•	•	•	•	•	•				•
Years of Service	•			•			•	•	•	
Age		•		•						
Educational Level							•		•	

The data provided six sets of figures including (a) Chi-square; (b) Degrees of Freedom; (c) Probability of Chance; (d) Valid cases; (e) Missing cases; and (f) Response rate. The Valid Cases and Missing Cases equal the total responses in all cases. The response rate varied from a low of 88.6% to a high of 96.8% for these specific correlations.

The chi-square distribution is a well-known probability distribution to statisticians. It is a random variable and test statistic first described and named by Karl Pearson in

1900 (Chao, 1974). Freund and Williams (1966) define it as "a distribution...of great importance in inferences concerning population variations or standard deviations" (p. 14). Loether and McTavish (1974) state that when the computed chi-square number is large it does not mean that the relationship between the variables being investigated is strong (i.e. it does not measure strength of relationship). However, it does indicate that there is a relationship, not likely due to chance. Therefore, the analyst can be more confident about rejecting a null hypothesis and about concluding that the variables are related. A large chi-square statistic indicates that the observed frequencies differ significantly from the expected frequencies. As this study did not specify expected frequencies of response, the numbers for chi-square, degrees of freedom and probability of chance may be of limited value other than to indicate that a relationship exists between the variables. However, some useful data can be extracted about levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among employees and the relationship of these levels to the variables.

Chapter V provides a quantitative and descriptive analysis and discussion of the survey participant's responses as well as a summary of the survey results. A sampling of participant comments on specific questions is included.

C H A P T E R V
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

Analysis of the data collected on Red River Community College is based, to a large extent, on the social research concept of triangulation. Triangulation refers to the utilization of a combination of research methods such as (a) the distribution of survey questionnaires to measure statistical relationships and inferences; (b) the conduct of informal interviews and focus groups to obtain personal comments to supplement the contextual meanings of the relationships; and (c) the consideration of manifest documents in the organization to differentiate between what the organizational members say it is and does and what the survey data, anecdotes, comments, and focus groups say the organization actually is and does. Informal interviews were conducted over the years 1987 - 93 with succeeding Presidents, Vice-Presidents, Deans and Directors, College Administrative officials, faculty members, and the Colleges Secretariat. Focus groups were conducted during 1992 - 93. The information is encompassed in observations and anecdotal comments, particularly in the case study.

The college may appear to have been treated as a closed systems environment by the limitations in the influencing factors addressed in the dissertation. However, the

limitations are essentially the consequence of the narrowed scope of the dissertation. Therefore, there are many elements of external, internal, behaviour, structure, process, planning, culture, climate and leadership variables that have not been addressed.

The essence of open systems theory is that there are interrelationships and interdependence among the factors influencing organizational change; therefore, it is extremely difficult to determine with any level of certainty which factors are responsible for which specific behavioural outcomes in the change process. Because there are so many interdependent factors in organizational change, these circumstances do not easily lend themselves to empirically-tested hypotheses.

Public administration, at least partly because it integrates theory and practice, politics and administration, has more of a social science than a natural or physical science base. Therefore, historically, most public administration dissertations have been approached analytically, rather than empirically.

Box (1992) suggests that some empirical researchers have identified public administration research as a focus "on discussion of problems or issues relating to professional practice rather than on developing or testing theoretical propositions" (p. 76). However, he notes that utilizing

quantitative methods only to determine the means by which knowledge in public administration research is accumulated is excessively narrow. Further, Box suggests that perceptions of deficiency in public administration research are based on personal perceptions rather than empirically-demonstrated differences (p. 77). Finally, he suggests that no attempt has been made to compare public administration research with other practice-oriented disciplines. Therefore, it may be argued that practice-oriented disciplines such as law, planning, architecture, business administration, and education may be more suitable for comparison in relation to their substantive content, linkage between academicians and practitioners, and ways of acquiring and using knowledge (p. 77).

Hummell (1991 p. 226) writes that the defence of knowledge acquisition in public administration research is possible on several grounds: (a) managers work and live in an environment that differs from that of scientists; (b) managers need knowledge for different purposes than those of paradigm-setting scientists; (c) managers can consciously question whether the assumptions of science pertain to their situation; and (d) managers acquire knowledge for purposes as valid as science. Hummell also suggests that even if general patterns about scientific findings are available elsewhere, managers must make repeated judgements about how past patterns fit present events with an opening toward a future solution (p. 230). However, the public sector manager does not have the

luxury of detachment that the scientist tries to gain.

This chapter (a) identifies the demographic characteristics of the College members; (b) utilizes the survey data and respondent comments to address the hypothesis stated previously; and (c) provides some basic analysis of relevant sections of the questionnaire data. The primary quantitative and qualitative data is contained in and extracted from Red River Community College's Report of the Task Force on Human Resource Development.

Demographic Characteristics

The survey instrument includes a section of basic demographic information about the College members. The data provides a respondent profile in several areas including: (a) gender (Table 4); (b) age; (c) employment category (Table 3); (d) years of service (Table 5); (e) divisional area (Table 2); (f) educational credentials; (g) and employment status.

The questionnaire was distributed to 687 mainly full-time college staff. Of this number, 317 completed survey questionnaires (46% response rate) which were forwarded to a data processing organization for coding, entry, analysis and compilation. Table 2 illustrates a comparison of the actual number of employees with the number of survey respondents by division. However, more than half of College employees chose not to respond to the survey. Therefore, the non-response

rate may be indicative of other satisfaction-related variables at the College. To provide a larger sample for a comparative analysis, because of small representative numbers in some employment categories, the five employment categories appearing on the questionnaire have been collapsed into three categories: management, faculty, and support/clerical staff. The primary reason for utilizing employment categories was to respond to a survey objective to identify respondent perceptions by employee category. Respondent percentages are generally proportionate to the percentage of staff employed in each category. Table 3 illustrates.

Table 2 - Comparison of Actuals to Respondents

Divisions (31 May 92)	Actual # & % of Employees	Respondent # & % of Employees (n=317)
Business/AA	174 (25%)	69 (23%)
Technology	164 (24%)	54 (18%)
Health Sciences	111 (11%)	49 (16%)
Developmental Ed	92 (9%)	31 (10%)
Other	180 (26%)	101 (33%)
TOTALS	687 (100%)	317 (100/46%)

The survey responses indicate that the organization is relatively evenly divided between males (51.4%) and females (48.6%). The average age of both male and female members of the institution is 47 years. Almost 50% of males in the organization are over 50 years. About 25% of females are

over 50 years. Nearly 77% of institutional members are over 40 years. Overall, 74% were between 36 - 55 years (HRD Task Force Report, p. 24). Among respondents who identified employment categories, the rates of response were 37% for managers, 35% for faculty, and 88% for support or clerical staff. Table 3 illustrates. This disproportionate response from support or clerical staff (88%) compared with other employment categories may affect interpretation of results where employment categories are a consideration, However the overall support staff or clerical survey responses, as shown in Table 2, are proportionate to the established academic and administrative employee rates at the college.

Variations in the percentage of respondents occurred among job categories. Of the 311 clear responses, 10.9% (n = 34) were management, 53.1% (n = 165) were faculty, and 35.9% (n = 112) were support/clerical. Management group responses

Table 3 - Actuals to Respondents in Employment Categories

Employee Category	Actual Employees # in Category	# Respondents	% Respondents (of category)
Managers	91	34	37
Faculty/Ed	469	165	35
Asst/Prof			
Clerical/Sup	127	112	88
Not indicated		6	
TOTALS	687	317	(46%)

were equally divided (52% female; 48% male). However, while

males comprised 67% of the faculty respondents, females comprised 70% of the support/clerical respondents.

Variations also occurred according to the divisional area of the respondent. Respondents were more likely to be male in the Trades/Technology (98%) and Business/Applied Arts (75%) areas. Respondents were more likely to be female in the Health, Family and Applied Sciences (85%) and Market Driven Training/Developmental Education areas (64%). This tends to follow traditional, rather than non-traditional, employment patterns based on gender. Table 4 illustrates.

Table 4 - Divisional Area by Gender

Division	Male	Female	Total
Business/AA	52	17	69
Trades/Technology	53	1	54
Health Sciences	7	42	49
Dev Ed/Market	11	20	31
Other	35	65	100

Overall, 43% of employees had 16 or more years of service, 20% had between 11 and 15 years of service, and about 37% had 10 years or less. Almost 60% of males and 27% of females in the organization have over 16 years of service. This latter data is consistent with the historical development of the college. The first divisional areas to be established at the college in 1963/64 were the predominantly male Trades and Technology divisions. These divisions have

retained many long-service employees. The Business and Applied Arts divisional areas, also predominantly male, but less so than the Trades and Technology Division, were not established at the College until 1968/69. They appear to have retained many employees with over 16 years of service also. Table 5 illustrates years of service by gender.

Table 5 - Years of Service by Gender

Years Service	Male (#/%)	Female (#/%)	Total
0 - 5	22 (14%)	34 (23%)	56 (18%)
6 - 10	19 (12%)	38 (25%)	58 (19%)
11 - 15	23 (15%)	38 (25%)	62 (20%)
16 and over	93 (59%)	41 (27%)	134 (43%)

Only 15.1% of college employees have a post-graduate degree (e.g. Masters or Ph.D) while 16.1% have designations other than or in addition to a baccalaureate degree, two-year diploma, trade, occupational, or journeyman's certificate, or high school diploma. These designations include Chartered Accountant, Certified General Accountant, and Registered Industrial Accountant as well as other accredited qualifications such as Registered Nurse or Professional Engineer (HRD Task Force Report appendices).

Approximately 87% of respondents have permanent employment status, while an additional 13% are on term employment or are under contract for a specific time or purpose. A discrepancy between the target population (all

College employees) and the survey population was observed as a result of this latter data. The survey population list was acquired from the College Personnel department which identified 687 full-time, permanent employees. Consequently, a number of full-time, term employees were not included in the survey population list, although some of these latter employees apparently received questionnaires anyway. An explanation may be that some full-time, term employees were shown as full-time, permanent employees on the Personnel department list from which the survey population was identified.

Research Focus

Selected organizational change variables are discussed in considerable detail in the literature review. The research hypothesis, which attempts to address the extent of satisfaction or dissatisfaction related to several interdependent variables currently manifested at the College, is discussed and measured in this chapter on data analysis.

The primary sources of data on levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the college are derived from sections 2 and 3 of the survey, from focus group comments, from informal interviews, and from author observations. Specifically, section 2 measures 23 items pertaining to job satisfaction. Section 3 measures 35 items, in two parts, pertaining to the

College and its employees. Further, the latter section attempts to measure several variables of organizational function including organizational climate, managerial or leadership behaviour, inter-group relations, and group processes, all of which influence end result variables of satisfaction or dissatisfaction and performance or effectiveness.

Additionally, some questions in section 3 apply to more than one variable. For example, questions about encouragement (3.1), opportunities (3.2), and feedback (3.3), among others, could measure aspects of both supervisory behaviour and organizational climate. Team behaviour (3.9; 3.16) and group meetings (3.11), among others, could measure aspects of both supervisory behaviour and group processes.

Only survey data considered immediately relevant to the hypothesis are analysed.²¹ Cross-references and commentary on variables which lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction such as organizational climate, leadership or supervisory behaviour, and management processes at the College are provided where appropriate.²²

Section 2 - Job Satisfaction

In this section of the questionnaire, employees were asked to respond to 23 questions which provide information about their levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with

various aspects of their work life, opportunities and incentives for development, the extent to which they feel valued by the organization, and the perceived leadership or managerial operational style and practices at the College.

Generally, the questions in this section focus on factors which are thought to provide either intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction or which contribute to dissatisfaction in the workplace. Although management scholars debate the merits and faults of most motivation theories, behavioural theorists such as Herzberg (1967), for example, suggest that job satisfaction is derived primarily from intrinsic motivators such as challenge, recognition, responsibility, achievement, advancement, the work itself and opportunities to grow personally and professionally. Herzberg also suggests that if extrinsic factors such as company policy and administration, status, interpersonal workplace relations, supervisory style, work conditions, salary and security do not exist in adequate or appropriate measure dissatisfaction will increase. Accordingly, the employee questionnaire attempts to measure levels of employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction based on both intrinsic and extrinsic criteria.

Generally, respondents indicate satisfaction with some of the intrinsic measures, although associated comments suggest this has more to do with personal job satisfaction than with the institutional environment. For example, about 86% of

respondents are "somewhat satisfied" to "very satisfied" with the challenges provided in their present job, but there are more "very satisfied" managers (62%) than "very satisfied" faculty (45%) or clerical/support staff (31%). Associated comments suggest that those faculty who are "very satisfied" derive most of their satisfaction from their helping relationships with students, while clerical/support staff are clearly much less satisfied with the challenges in their present jobs than they would prefer to be. Table 6 illustrates responses to some of the job satisfaction variables by division.

Table 6- Percentage Respondents Either "Very" or "Somewhat Satisfied" with Selected Job Satisfaction Variables.

Survey Item	Business/ App Arts	Trades/ Tech	Applied Science	Dev Ed/ MDTC
2.1 Challenge in present job	94	86	90	72
2.3 Opportunities to do meaningful work	87	68	88	79
2.4 Recognition for doing a good job	52	28	53	63
2.5 Value College places upon me	34	16	47	62

Although the majority of respondents by division feel sufficiently challenged and feel that there are opportunities to do meaningful work, nearly 48% of all respondents overall

feel "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied" with the recognition they have received for doing a good job. This is particularly evident in the Trades and Technology Division where 72% of respondents feel "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied". By gender, females seem to be somewhat less dissatisfied (37%) with recognition than males (57%).

The only divisional area in which employees feel "very" to "somewhat" satisfied with the value placed upon them by the College is in the Developmental Education and Market Driven Training areas. In all other areas, employees express generally high dissatisfaction with the value placed upon them by the College. This dissatisfaction is particularly severe in the Trades and Technology areas (82%) and not significantly less so in the Business and Applied Arts areas (66%). To some extent this perception of insufficient valuing of employees by the organization can also be seen in responses to question 2.4 about "recognition". This dissatisfaction appears as well in the qualitative comments about feeling valued. Forty-two of 53 comments were negative, which suggests a potential major area of employee concern.

By gender, females tend to be less dissatisfied (44% "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied") about valuing than males (70% "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied"). The extent to which these apparent differences in responses are a reflection of male/female role socialization or self-expectation was not

explored, although this may have implications for further research.

Questionnaire items related to level of pay, benefits, and job security (2.6, 2.7, 2.8, and 2.17) focused on potential areas of dissatisfaction. Overall, across all levels, respondents report that they are "very" to "somewhat satisfied" (51%) with the level of pay they receive. However, respondents who hold graduate degrees (15%), or who have over 16 years of service (43%) report being very dissatisfied with their level of pay more frequently than the group as a whole.²³ The most frequent qualitative comments about sources of dissatisfaction with the level of pay are that salaries have not kept pace with industry (n=27) and that skills, ability or education are not recognized by the college (n=16).

Approximately 46% of respondents indicate some concerns about job security as well. Comments identify ongoing term appointments (n=17) as a major source of dissatisfaction. Other sources refer to the current economic climate overall and to the College decision to downsize in 1991, both of which seem to have created a general sense of insecurity among some respondents. Overall, respondents were generally satisfied with the types (85%) and value (84%) of the benefits the college offers.

The working conditions in the College such as the physical environment, information availability, and

interpersonal relations (items 2.2, 2.29, 2.10, and 2.11) appear to reflect varying levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Overall, nearly half the respondents (46%) express some dissatisfaction with physical working conditions with faculty (59%) and employees of the Health, Family and Applied Sciences division (57%) expressing the most prominent dissatisfaction.

The major concerns seem to be about space/privacy (n=22), equipment and supplies (n=17), and poor ventilation or temperature control (n=13). Qualitative comments about the space/privacy issue refer mostly to insufficient or overcrowded classrooms and to a lack of office space for teacher/student interviews and consultations. In addition, qualitative comments may reflect other concerns about such facilities as the library and the main cafeteria which were constructed originally for a projected population of approximately 2,500 full-time students, rather than the current actual population which exceeds 6,000 full-time students.

Some respondents recognize that budget limitations also preclude some skills-oriented and advanced technology programs from acquiring current equipment or from keeping some of the existing equipment in a good state of repair. Constrained resources mean that equipment in some of these areas is becoming increasingly obsolescent. The concern about poor

ventilation and temperature control at least partly reflects the state of campus building infrastructure and the need to refurbish many areas of several campus buildings.

On the positive side, respondents across all groups report satisfaction with their personal working relationships with supervisors (83%) and peers (91%). However, the level of satisfaction with the accessibility of information to do one's job is slightly less with faculty (80%) reporting the highest frequency of satisfaction compared with managers (67%) and clerical/support staff (69%).

Respondents differentiate between opportunities for development and participation and the incentives for development and participation. Overall, respondents seem "somewhat" to "very satisfied" (63%) with the opportunities to develop their own knowledge, skills, and abilities; however, this varies widely across divisions. The Trades and Technology division, for example, express a high dissatisfaction level (60%) with opportunities, while the Health, Family and Applied Sciences division express a high satisfaction level with opportunities (81%).

Incentives to develop knowledge, skills, and abilities, however, are another matter. Fifty-seven percent of all respondents are dissatisfied with incentives with dissatisfaction occurring across all employment categories and all divisions in a somewhat varied pattern. Managers (57%),

faculty (64%), and support staff (47%) are all "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied" with the incentives to develop. The Business and Applied Arts (67%) and Trades and Technology (74%) divisions feel more strongly about the issue than the Health, Family and Applied Science (53%) and Developmental Ed (50%). Further, as employee responses suggested previously, incentives do not necessarily refer only to levels of pay or other extrinsic criteria. Major incentives to develop may also include recognition provided by the organization and the value the organization places on its employees. This may at least partly explain the higher level of dissatisfaction expressed by respondents with 16 or more years of service (35%) compared with the group as a whole (25%).

Anecdotal evidence and qualitative comments suggest that longer-serving employees, in particular, feel some recognition of employee loyalty and dedication to the organization is an entitlement. However, staff downsizing and program cuts seem to have created the impression that the organization not only does not recognize loyalty and dedication, but that the organization places little value on its employees. This also suggests a possible contradiction between the organization's espoused mission statement values about employees and what employees perceive is actually occurring.

Other measures of satisfaction or dissatisfaction relate to the opportunities and incentives available in the

organization for employees. Overall, employees are "some what to very satisfied" with opportunities to personally develop knowledge, skills, and abilities (63%), although the Business and Applied Arts (59%) and Trades and Technology (40%) divisions were somewhat less satisfied than other divisions. Incentives to personally develop knowledge, skills, and abilities, however, contribute to considerable respondent dissatisfaction. Overall, the majority of respondents (57%) are "somewhat to very dissatisfied" with the incentives to develop.²⁴ This seems to apply to most employment categories: management (56%), faculty (64%), and clerical/support (47%); and to most divisional areas: Business and Applied Arts (67%); Trades and Technology (74%); Health, Family and Applied Sciences (53%); and Developmental Education (50%). Associated qualitative comments suggest some of the reasons for the apparent dissatisfaction are: no recognition or encouragement, lack of promotional opportunities, failure to differentiate salaries for advanced qualifications, and lack of opportunity to use what has been learned.

Overall, respondents feel there is reasonable opportunity to participate meaningfully in planning (54%), although Clerical/Support persons tend to be "somewhat to very dissatisfied" with opportunities (52%) more so than other employment categories. By division, Trades and Technology (63%) and Health, Family and Applied Sciences (46%) respondents tend to be most dissatisfied. Clerical/Support

dissatisfaction may partly reflect the employment category stratification that exists in the organization. Most clerical and support persons are not asked to contribute input when organizational planning occurs. The dissatisfaction expressed by Trades and Technology respondents may partly reflect the physical location of many of the divisional programs which tend to be some distance away from the source of decision-making on campus.

Most respondents also feel that there are limited opportunities to participate in decision-making (59%) and few incentives to do a good job (53%). Most faculty members (60%) and Clerical/Support staff (64%) feel dissatisfied about their lack of opportunities to participate in the decision-making at the College. Dissatisfaction with opportunity is particularly high in the Trades and Technology division (77%). Clerical/Support staff (61%) are "somewhat to very dissatisfied" with incentives to do a good job, but still less dissatisfied than respondents from the Trades and Technology division (82%). Table 7 shows relative frequencies of respondents reporting dissatisfaction on items related to questions 2.12, 2.13, 2.14, 2.15, and 2.16.

Table 7 - Percentage Respondents Either "Very" or "Somewhat Dissatisfied" with Items Relating to Opportunities and Incentives.

Survey Items	Business/ App Arts	Trades/ Tech	Applied Science	Dev Ed/ MDTC
2.12 Opportunities to develop KSA	41	60	19	33
2.13 Incentives to develop KSA	67	74	53	50
2.14 Opportunities to plan	37	63	46	39
2.15 Opportunities to participate in decisions	58	77	46	50
2.16 Incentives to do good job	52	82	46	52

Several items pertaining to respondent satisfaction with participation in and views of management style and practices occupy the latter half of this section of the questionnaire. Question items which measure respondent job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction have their origins in decisions, styles, and management practices at the College. This observation is generally consistent with research about job satisfaction in community colleges elsewhere (Diener, 1985; Locke, 1983; Oldham and Kulik, 1983; Willie and Stecklein, 1982).²⁵

Hygiene factors such as pay, benefits, working conditions, job security, and supervisory style are within the purview of management, although many of these hygiene factors are or may

be covered in a broad collective agreement. However, factors such as recognition, employee valuing, and opportunities or incentives to participate in planning and decision-making require no collective agreement.

Most RRCC employees are reasonably satisfied with present job security (54%). Qualitative comments suggest that those respondents who are dissatisfied became more dissatisfied comparatively recently mostly as a consequence of employee layoffs. Additional layoffs which have occurred since the survey was taken [1993; 1995] may have further increased the level of dissatisfaction. Clerical/Support persons are the most dissatisfied of all employment categories with job security (50%). The Trades and Technology (55%) and Developmental Education (56%) academic divisions are the most dissatisfied of all divisions with job security. Historically, these are among the areas subjected to the most program and staff reductions during the downsizing which may at least partly explain the response.

Six questionnaire item responses (2.18 to 2.23) provide some insight into respondent views of satisfaction with leadership and management styles and practices. As suggested in the general literature on management, persons in the management employment category generally tend to report higher satisfaction than subordinates with most response items. According to the literature, this satisfaction may be

attributed to more opportunities for managers to participate in decision-making and planning, greater job task challenges, generally higher pay and benefits, more frequent promotional opportunities, and greater access to information and the organizational power structure.

Table 8 shows the level of satisfaction of respondents with several management-related items.

Table 8 - Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents Reporting "Very" or "Somewhat" Satisfied On Selected Items Relevant to Management

Survey Item	Managers	Faculty	Clerical/ Support
2.18 Decision-making practices	53	37	38
2.19 The way things get done	38	27	24
2.20 General direction College is moving	85	70	69
2.21 College values	59	62	71
2.22 College leadership style	68	57	56
2.23 College management practices	65	42	40

Two of the most prominent areas of dissatisfaction for all employment categories are decision-making practices (2.18) and "the way things get done" (2.19). Respondents describe decision-making practices as "too political" (32%), "too bureaucratic" (20%), and "too mysterious" (11%). Respondents also perceive that "the way things get done" are "too

bureaucratic" (50%), "too political" (12%) and "poorly communicated" (12%). The intensity of dissatisfaction with "the way things get done" is noteworthy as this item evokes the most frequent dissatisfaction of any item in the survey.

There appears to be general support among management (85%), faculty (70%), and clerical/support staff (69%) for the direction in which the College is moving. On average, about two-thirds of all respondents also expressed general satisfaction with College values, although the management employment category seems to be slightly less satisfied with College values (59%) than the other employment categories. Possible explanations for this slightly lower satisfaction might include the role managers were required to play in program reductions and deletions, staff redeployments and releases, and in assuming greater responsibility and accountability for decisions in a fluid situation undergoing continual change.

Overall, managers report a higher satisfaction with the "College leadership style" (68%) and "College management practices" (65%) than other employment categories, which may be predictable given the position from which management respondents are likely to perceive this question. Faculty (57%) and clerical/support staff (56%) tend to express less satisfaction with leadership style.

The levels of satisfaction expressed by faculty (42%) and clerical/support staff (40%) to management practices seem

quite clear. The data suggests that 58% of faculty and 60% of clerical/support staff are "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied" with the manner in which the College is managed. Responses to many of the other question items addressed in this "job satisfaction" section of the questionnaire tend to support the perception of dissatisfaction as well. The significance is that most of the responsibility for the issues these questions raise falls within the purview of College management.

For example, (a) most employees cannot readily create opportunities in a work environment for themselves where opportunities do not exist; (b) employees may receive recognition from and feel valued by peers, but most employees also need recognition and appreciation from their superiors and from the organization; (c) levels of pay and benefits are generally covered by collective agreements negotiated between management and the collective bargaining agent, but also reflect the value the organization places on its employees; (d) working conditions may be somewhat affected by the amount of capital funds allocated to repair a deteriorating infrastructure, but the attention the organization pays to employee health, wellness, comfort and safety also reflects in the relative value the organization places on its employees; (e) reasonable and collegial working relationships between supervisors and employees are largely controlled by the supervisors; opportunities for employees to participate in planning and decision-making are largely made available or not

made available by managers; and finally, (f) considerations of and about non-monetary incentives, direction of the College, and the way things get done do not dictate the supervisory style managers adopt in their relationships with their subordinates.

In summary, generally respondents appear to be somewhat satisfied with some intrinsic factors such as challenge and meaningfulness of the work, but less satisfied with the more extrinsic factors such as organizational recognition, being valued by the College and incentives to do a good job. Employees with advanced academic credentials and longer service tend to be more dissatisfied than the group as a whole.

Respondents are generally satisfied with their working relationships with both supervisors and peers and with opportunities for development. However, incentives for development were perceived as a source of dissatisfaction particularly for (a) the Business and Applied Arts and Trades and Technology divisions; and (b) respondents with more than 16 years of service.

Respondents indicate general support for the direction in which the College is moving and for College values, but have generally strong concerns about decision-making practices, management practices, and the way things get done. The frequencies of dissatisfaction on these latter items are

particularly strong for respondents 46 years of age and over.

Section 3 - The College and Its Employees

In Part A of this section, employees are requested to indicate the extent to which they agree with each of the 24 items about their experiences with supervisors, relations with colleagues, feelings toward the College, and perceptions about organizational concern for employee well-being. The questions in this section were included primarily to measure variables identified previously (Likert, 1961, 1969; Likert and Bowers, 1969; Bowers, 1972) such as organizational climate, managerial or supervisory behaviour and processes which can influence job satisfaction and performance effectiveness.

Items relevant to employee experiences with supervisors (3.1 - 3.12) pertain to supervisory qualifications, support for employees and collaboration with employees. On the issue of qualifications, the majority of respondents from all employment categories feel their immediate supervisors are forward-looking, competent and have sufficient experience. However, overall employee perceptions of the adequacy of supervisory training is somewhat less favourable (57%), particularly among faculty (52%).²⁶

This also varies across divisions. Only half of the respondents from Business and Applied Arts and Trades and Technology indicate a positive response about supervisor

training. Health, Family, and Applied Sciences indicate a higher response (81%) about supervisor competency than other divisions overall (70%). Business respondents report supervisors to be forward-looking less frequently (62%) than other divisions.

The major patterns about supervisor support for employee development are presented in Table 9. This table suggests generally positive responses about supervisor overall support and encouragement of innovation. Lower frequencies of positive response were evoked about the provision of on-going feedback. This response, particularly noticeable in the Trades and Technology division (25%), is consistent with their reports of a low frequency of performance appraisal in the past year or past five years.

Table 9 - Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents Indicating Positive Responses to Items Relevant to Supervisor's Support to Employees

Survey Item	Business/ App Arts	Trades/ Tech	Applied Science	Dev Ed/ MD Trg
3.1 Encourages innovation	52	48	69	60
3.2 Provides learning opportunities	47	44	68	53
3.3 Provides ongoing feedback	45	25	35	52
3.4 Supports efforts to do job	68	66	69	50

On items relevant to the supervisors collaboration with subordinates, respondents are generally positive. The response frequency about regular communication, encouragement of teamwork, and solicitation of input range from 60% to 69%. However, group meetings as a communication device are only used about half the time among faculty and less than half the time among Trades and Technology division members (46%) and Health, Family and Applied Science division members (43%).

Survey responses suggest that employees can speak frankly to their supervisors to a large or moderate extent (53%), although supervisors evidently feel uncomfortable doing so in reverse (47% of managers indicate they can speak frankly to subordinates "to a small extent" or "not at all"). In a collegial atmosphere of free and open communication, employees should be able to exchange information and to contribute ideas to the organization, and supervisors should be able to provide honest and constructive criticism to subordinates when and where necessary.

Overall, the majority of respondents seem comfortable speaking frankly to their immediate supervisors (24%), although frequently with qualification (52%), but many are not comfortable (24%). Some survey qualitative comments offered by faculty and support/clerical staff include: (a) yes--but only at a local level (18%); (b) yes--but nothing gets done--no one listens or seems to know or completely understand the

direction we are taking (21%); (c) [They can]--it varies in departments (12%); and (d) [The] tendency in all these relationships is to be hesitant and careful--[one] could be back-stabbed (24%).

Most employees (56%) feel they can speak frankly to their subordinates/peers to a large or moderate extent. An exception seems to be the Developmental Education and Market Driven Training areas (45%). The reason for this latter response is not clear based on qualitative comments.

A positive perception of teamwork is evident across employment categories with management (76%) and faculty (78%) showing a higher response than clerical/support staff (64%). A similar pattern is evident about encouragement with management (67%) and faculty (62%) showing higher positive responses than clerical/support staff (56%). Across divisions, encouragement and teamwork are evident in Business and Applied Arts (70%/85%) and Applied Sciences (71%/75%), in particular, but less so in Developmental Education and Market Driven Training (47%/55%). This data and other inter/intra-group process data from the survey suggest that, for the most part, a strong source of satisfaction for many employees of the College is the relationship they have developed with their peers and colleagues over time. The length of service of many of the College employees, as illustrated in the demographic data, tends to support this conclusion.

A significant majority of respondents (76%) feel they have sufficient training to progress in the organization to a large or moderate extent. Most managers (85%) who responded appear to feel strongly about this question, but not as strongly as respondents from the Business and Applied Arts division (91%). Male respondents feel a bit more strongly about this question (79%), than females (75%). Respondent comments suggest, however, that there is limited incentive to progress--salary increases or promotional opportunities tend not to be available.

In items 3.18 to 3.21, respondents indicate their perceptions of equity, fairness, loyalty, and the general level of happiness of employees at the College. Although most employees express general satisfaction about their relationships with supervisors and peers, there are areas of concern. Table 10 shows the percentage of respondents indicating positive responses about perceptions of items 3.18 to 3.21.

On perceived equity, only one-third of respondents indicate positive responses "to a large or moderate extent". Overall, 54% of respondents feel that equitable treatment of employees occurs only "to a small extent" or "not at all". Qualitative comments provided by respondents provide some clarification as 50% perceive that there is "politics" or "favouritism" in the treatment of employees (n=14).

Respondent perceptions of fair treatment are generally higher (42% suggest fair treatment to a large or moderate extent).

Table 10 - Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents Indicating Positive Responses to Items about Employee Feelings about the College by Employment Category to a Large or Moderate Extent

Survey Item	Management	Faculty	Clerical/ Support
3.18 Employees treated equitably	47	32	30
3.19 Employees treated fairly	50	42	38
3.20 Feeling of loyalty to College	79	62	74
3.21 People happy working here	59	42	53

However, qualitative comments again suggest "politics" and "favouritism" are issues (19%) and that there is insufficient recognition of skills and education (12%). Business and Applied Arts (37%) and Trades and Technology (37%) respondents indicate lower positive responses to these issues than the Health, Family and Applied Science (55%) and Developmental Education (50%) respondents.

Most employees seem to have a fairly strong loyalty to the College. However, managers (79%) and clerical/support staff (74%) feel somewhat stronger about this issue than faculty members (62%). Further, qualitative comments suggest

that the loyalty faculty members feel is to the students and to each other more so than the College itself. Some comments suggest that feelings of loyalty toward the College changed somewhat with the 1991 layoffs of College employees.

Across employment categories, management (59%) and clerical/support staff (53%) perceive the general level of employee happiness to be higher than faculty perceives it to be (42%). As faculty members represent approximately two-thirds of the College employee population, the differences in perception between management and faculty of relative happiness could have some ramifications for management-faculty relationships.

Questionnaire items 3.22 to 3.24 measure the College's interest in the well-being of employees, the sufficiency of health and wellness programs, and the adequacy of recreational/athletic activities. Table 11 illustrates.

Table 11 - Relative Frequencies (%) of Respondents "Very" or "Somewhat" Satisfied on Items Relevant to Employee Well-being by Employment Category

Survey Item	Management	Faculty	Clerical/ Support
3.22 College interest in employee well-being	50	27	38
3.23 Sufficiency of wellness programs	35	41	37
3.24 Adequacy of athletic/recreational activities	47	47	50

The perceptions of genuine interest by the College in employee well-being varied by employment groups with half of management reporting satisfaction. However, there is clearly strong dissatisfaction expressed by faculty (73%) and clerical/support staff (62%) with this issue. Some qualitative questionnaire comments and anecdotal information suggest this response relates to employee perception of how much or how well the College values its employees. For example, if the College demonstrates little concern for the well-being of its employees (e.g. job insecurity/layoffs; arbitrary treatment; wage freezes or reductions; program deletions or reductions; workplace health and safety matters; physical working conditions, etc.) it is unlikely to be seen to value employees.

Similarly, health and wellness programs are generally deemed to be inadequate by all employment categories. However, qualitative survey comments are not clear about the possible reasons for this. Anecdotal comments suggest there is insufficient attention paid to aging-related matters such as dealing with chronic back pain, arthritis, and deteriorating physical capacity and to workplace-related matters such as handling stress, workplace conflicts, and pending retirements.

In summary, the majority of respondents feel generally positive about their supervisors' qualifications, the support

they receive from their supervisors, and the extent of collaboration between subordinates and supervisors. However, there are concerns about on-going feedback, opportunities for development, and equity and fairness in the treatment of employees. Although employees seem to maintain a sense of loyalty to the College, qualitative comments suggest the loyalty is more toward peers and students, in the case of faculty, than to the organization as a whole. Further, employee perception of the lack of genuine interest of the College in employee well-being is noteworthy.

In Part B of this section of the questionnaire, employees are asked to indicate their perception of some current aspects of their employment (the way things are--the extant situation) and how important they perceive these issues will be in the future (the way things should be--the requisite situation). Some of the areas probed include College goals, aspects of human resource development, equity issues, and management issues.

Items 3.25 to 3.35, in two parts, are particularly significant in delineating employee perceptions of how things are and how things should be. Employees act and react based on how they think things are despite what the manifest documents in the organization say. The College mission statement, for example, purports to support

...a high quality of working life for all members of the college community; and encourages professional integrity,

open communication, a respect for diversity, participative management, personal growth and innovative ideas (RRCC Mission Statement, 1991).

However, if employee perceptions are that: the working life is not of high quality, the College has limited genuine concern for employee well being, professional integrity is inhibited by acts of inequity and unfairness, neither supervisors nor subordinates feel totally comfortable communicating openly and honestly with each other, participation by rank-and-file employees in planning and decision-making is virtually non-existent and innovative ideas are infrequently supported, then there is a substantial disparity between what manifest documents say the College is and what employees say it really is or should be.

Table 12 summarizes general trends in respondent perceptions of College goals. The table indicates the percentage of respondents who perceive College goals are characterized to a "moderate" or "large extent" by the statements shown and who perceive these characteristics are "very important" to the future.

Responses to questions 3.25 and 3.26 show a moderate disparity between what employees perceive to be presently true and what they believe is important for the future. Approximately two-thirds of respondents believe the College has a client-based, customer-oriented operating style, although qualitative comments suggest there is some

Table 12 - Perceptions of College Goals in the Present and in the Future

Goal Statement	Presently True	Very Important In Future
3.25 College fosters client-based, customer-oriented operating style	63%	78%
3.26 College is a learning organization embracing change	66%	83%
3.27 College has clear-cut goals	78%	81%

uncertainty among respondents about precisely who the "customers" are (e.g. the labour market; the students; the general community, etc.). About two-thirds of respondents also feel the College is presently a learning organization, while 83% feel this characteristic is extremely important to the College's future. Most respondents feel the College has clear-cut goals and that this will continue to be important in the future.

Survey respondents to item 3.17 indicate that they have sufficient training to advance in the organization, but also recognize that employees need to upgrade skills to keep current with areas of specialty (3.29). Management persons presently tend to see this as more important (82%) than either faculty (67%) or clerical/support staff (73%). However, all employment categories recognize that continual training will be "very important" to the future of the organization (85%).

In their qualitative comments, respondents suggest upgrading is essential (n=20), but present opportunities are inadequate (n=16) and more time is needed to upgrade employees (n=10).

Despite recognition of the need for upgrading, however, only half of respondents consider that human resource development is for everyone at the College (3.30). Respondent comments suggest that certain groups are given more opportunities (n=11) and that staff needs are not understood very well (n=7). Further, across employment categories, the perceived importance of human resource development for everyone varies considerably with management (91%) indicating "very important" compared to faculty (60%) and clerical or support staff (66%). Although most employees recognize the need for continual upgrading, management seems to feel more strongly about the issue than other employment categories.

Anecdotal comments by and informal interviews with a cross-section of employees provides some interesting perspectives from all employment categories about the human resource development issue. Clerical/support staff employees, for example, commented that faculty members receive the most financial support and approval from College management for human resource development and that faculty members are, therefore, favoured. Many faculty members seem to believe that certain management employees are receiving preferential

treatment or that, within faculty, certain groups tend to be more favoured with financial support. Many faculty members, as well, evidently fail to recognize the importance of upgrading clerical/support staff to facilitate better administrative support.²⁷

Management employees commented that they understand the need for human resource development in the College. However, implementation of policy to this point seems to have been somewhat inconsistent. Some employees, for example, have been required to undertake specialty refresher or upgrading training as a condition of continuing employment, while other employees, seeking developmental opportunities for refresher or upgrading training, have been denied. This management approach seems partly responsible for the associated survey comments that staff needs are not understood very well.

This section also includes questions about what has become a major focus and initiative at the College--cultural and organizational diversity (3.33 to 3.35). On acceptance of cultural and racial diversity, 80% of respondents perceive that the College presently promotes these values and 91% of respondents believe this will be "very" or "fairly important" in the future. Management respondents particularly support these values as "very important" (83%). However, the perception by 80% of employees that the College already promotes acceptance of racial and cultural diversity

sufficiently may be somewhat misleading as the responses reflect the dominant culture among College employees. For example, Caucasian employees at the College may believe that acceptance of cultural and racial diversity is being well-promoted at and by the College, but visible minority employees at the College may believe otherwise. Since respondents were not asked to self-identify as members of target groups, the survey findings cannot verify whether these differences in perception actually exist.

Only 58% of respondents feel the College encourages employees to get along with people whose attitudes are different from theirs to a "large or moderate extent". In contrast, 91% of respondents feel this issue is "very" or "fairly important" in future. This discrepancy indicates a potentially severe communication problem across the organization and should be a focus for future human resource development.

In a related question, employees were asked whether the College encourages communication across departments (3.28). Approximately 66% of respondents feel this is true to "a small extent" or "not at all", but 96% of respondents believe this is "very important" or "fairly important" in the future. These responses indicate a substantial discrepancy between what respondents believe the level of communication is across departments and what they believe the level of communication

should be.

A similar pattern exists in responses to the question employees were asked about decision-making at appropriate levels (3.31). Only 56% of responses, including management, indicate that decisions are presently being made at the appropriate levels in the organization, while 96% of responses suggest it is "very" or "fairly important" to foster decision-making at appropriate levels in the future. Qualitative comments provided by respondents suggest that decisions should be made at points other than the top (n=12), that there were too many levels to be clear which ones were right (n=7) and that employees should be more involved in decision-making (n=6). These results are consistent with respondent views about decision-making practices expressed in section 2 of the questionnaire (items 2.15, 2.18, 2.19). Clearly, as well, both encouragement of cross-college communication and decisions about levels of decision-making fall within the purview of management.

In summary, responses to question items 3.25 to 3.35 suggest several patterns. Respondents feel that clear-cut goals and a learning organization are very important and about two-thirds of respondents perceive that the College already addresses these issues to a large or moderate extent. There is also recognition of the need for continual upgrading among all employment categories, particularly by the management

category. Respondents feel that issues about racial and cultural diversity are important and are being addressed satisfactorily by the College. However, the level of encouragement by the College about the acceptance of differing attitudes suggests a need for greater focus on internal communications. Similarly, there is a discrepancy between the lower level of importance the College is perceived to attach to cross-college communication and the level of importance respondents perceive cross-college communication should have. Finally, there is a substantial discrepancy between the level at which respondents perceive decisions are being made and the level at which decisions should be made. This discrepancy is perceived by 56% of management employees as well.

Data Correlations

The data processing firm provided some of the chi-square data requested by the dissertation author. However, these chi-squares are of limited value in determining absolute causal relationships between variables. Two sets of data are required to identify causal relationships between variables-- expected frequencies and observed frequencies. As no previous baseline study had been done on the College, and no comparable data appears to exist elsewhere, the data can only suggest a stronger or weaker possibility of relationships between variables.

The cross-tabulation of some of the job satisfaction-related items with management practices, years of service and age suggests a strong relationship between some of the variables. For example, 48% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with the recognition they receive for doing a good job, while 57% of respondents are also somewhat to very dissatisfied with management practices at the College. The potential relationship of these two variables to each other, based on a chi-square rating (89.0), is fairly strong. Therefore, one can conclude that nearly half of the respondents see some relationship between the amount of recognition (2.4) or lack of recognition they receive or do not receive for doing a good job with management practices (2.23) at the College.

The issue of value (2.5) cross-tabulated with management practices suggests that 57% of respondents feel somewhat to very dissatisfied with the extent to which they perceive they are valued by the organization. Approximately 56% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with management practices as they relate to the extent to which the respondents feel valued. The chi-square rating (149.3) is strong; therefore, one can conclude that respondents see a fairly strong relationship between how much they are valued and management practices at the College.

Approximately 46% of respondents are somewhat to very

dissatisfied with the physical working conditions (2.9) at the College and 56% of respondents are dissatisfied with management practices in relation to this variable. However, the chi-square rating (24.8) is not particularly strong for these variables; therefore, respondents do not tend to see management practices as responsible for the physical working conditions at the College. Qualitative comments suggest respondents recognize that physical working conditions are a reflection of the amount of funds allocated for repairs, renovations and capital construction. Although allocation priorities at the College may be within the purview of College management to some extent, the overall allocation of monies to improve physical working conditions comes within the purview of the funding agency outside the College.

Approximately 57% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with incentives to develop (2.13) at the College. About 56% of respondents express dissatisfaction with management practices in relation to incentives to develop. A high chi-square rating (104.7) suggests that there is a probable relationship between dissatisfaction with employee incentives to develop and management practices at the College.

Almost 47% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with their opportunities to participate in planning (2.14) at the College. About 57% of respondents are also dissatisfied with management practices in relation to

opportunities to participate in planning. A high chi-square rating (115.4) suggests there is a relationship between dissatisfaction with employee opportunities to participate in planning and management practices at the College.

Almost 59% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with opportunities to participate in decision-making (2.15) at the College. Approximately 56% of respondents are also dissatisfied with management practices in relation to opportunities to participate in decision-making at the College. A high chi-square rating (127.8) suggests there is a relationship between employee dissatisfaction with opportunities to participate in decision-making and management practices at the College.

One of the strongest potential correlations occurs between the way things get done (2.19) and management practices at the College. Almost 73% of respondents indicate dissatisfaction with the way things get done. About 56% express dissatisfaction with management practices in relation to this variable. An extremely high chi-square rating (178.5) suggests there is a significant relationship between dissatisfaction with the way things get done and college management practices. Previous survey data and qualitative comments tend to support this correlation.

Cross-tabulations between some satisfaction variables and years of service provide some correlative data as well. About

48% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with recognition (2.4) in relation to years of service. About 56% of respondents with 11 - 15 years of service are somewhat to very dissatisfied with the recognition provided to them by the College for doing a good job. Approximately 57% of respondents with 16 years of service or over appear dissatisfied with the recognition they receive.

About 49% of respondents are dissatisfied with the level of pay they receive. Those with 16 or more years of service are quite strongly dissatisfied (61%), while those with 11 - 15 years of service are somewhat less dissatisfied (44%). No correlation was drawn between recognition and the level of pay in the survey, although the general literature on job satisfaction and motivation suggests that many people perceive their level of pay as a form of recognition.

One of the highest levels of respondent satisfaction overall occurs in the working relationship with peers (2.11), and years of service does not seem to have a substantial influence on the level of satisfaction expressed. Overall, 91% of respondents are somewhat to very satisfied with their working relationships with peers. This figure varies only slightly over time with about 93% of respondents with 0 - 5 years of service expressing satisfaction to a low of 90% of respondents with 16 or more years of service expressing satisfaction.

Approximately 57% of respondents are dissatisfied with incentives to develop (2.13) in relation to years of service. Approximately 77% of respondents with eleven years of service or over are very dissatisfied with incentives to develop, while an additional 68% of respondents with over eleven years of service are somewhat dissatisfied.

Approximately 59% of respondents are satisfied with the College leadership style (2.22). The most dissatisfaction with leadership style is expressed by those with over sixteen years of service (52%) and by those with 11 - 15 years of service to a somewhat lesser extent (42%). Qualitative and anecdotal comments suggest the dissatisfaction expressed by longer-serving employees is partly a reflection of historical experience with College leadership style.

About 57% of respondents feel somewhat to very dissatisfied with the perceived value placed upon them by the College in relation to age. Approximately 57% of respondents ages 36 - 45 feel somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with the value placed upon them by the College, about 61% of respondents ages 46 - 55 feel somewhat to very dissatisfied, and about 75% of respondents over 55 years feel somewhat to very dissatisfied. Evidently, the older the respondents, perhaps coupled with increasing length of service, the more likely they are to be somewhat or very dissatisfied with the perceived value placed upon them by the College.

Questionnaire qualitative responses and anecdotal comments suggest that some of this perception may have been fostered by an organizational downsizing during which several employees with lengthy service were released or redeployed.

Approximately 57% of respondents are also somewhat to very dissatisfied with incentives to develop (2.13) in relation to age. Approximately 59% of respondents ages 36 - 45 are somewhat to very dissatisfied with incentives to develop, about 61% of respondents ages 46 - 55 are somewhat to very dissatisfied, and nearly 72% of respondents ages 55 and over are dissatisfied. Evidently, respondents see fewer incentives to develop at the College as they age. This tends to reflect in the subject matter currency of faculty in their areas of expertise, in particular, which subsequently affects the quality of programming. Qualitative comments suggest the lack of incentive to develop results primarily from the limited promotional opportunities available and from the failure of college management to differentiate levels of pay for increased or advanced credentials.

This latter statement is substantiated by the correlation of educational qualifications with the level of pay currently received. Overall, there is a 48% dissatisfaction level with pay currently received. Two educational levels measured exceed that dissatisfaction level considerably: those with trade, occupational, or journeyman certification express a 63%

dissatisfaction with current pay levels; about 61% of respondents with advanced academic credentials express dissatisfaction with current pay levels. In the latter circumstance, qualitative comments suggest that because there is no salary differentiation between a Bachelor's degree and advanced credentials, there is little incentive, other than personal incentive, to acquire advanced credentials. In the former circumstance, primarily anecdotal comments suggest the dissatisfaction arises from the perceived inability of persons with trade, occupational, or journeyman qualifications to receive the remuneration at the College they believe they would receive for practicing their trade in industry. The two educational levels expressing the most dissatisfaction with college leadership style (2.22) are the trade, occupational, and journeyman level and those with advanced credentials. Almost 54% of the former category are somewhat to very dissatisfied with college leadership style, while about 46% of the latter category are dissatisfied. Overall, about 40% of respondents are somewhat to very dissatisfied with leadership style.

In summary, while the data correlations do not confirm absolute quantitative relationships of variables to each other, there is some evidence to suggest that there are relationships between and among many of the variables that need to be validated through further research, investigation, and more comprehensive statistical analysis of correlations

between variables. The survey was originally designed, executed and analysed to facilitate College decision-making, not to support an academic study. The limitations this might potentially impose upon the dissertation is recognized. Accordingly, only data on these generic areas about job satisfaction, the college, and its environment were incorporated into the analyses. Using this approach was the cost to be paid to gather some valuable empirical data. The data processing cost and time required would have been beyond the author's resources otherwise.

C H A P T E R VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Although public sector organizations arguably tend to experience structural, regulatory, managerial, and financial constraints or requirements that differ somewhat from private sector organizations, people are the resource that is common to all organizations. Therefore, because of the human interaction involved, organizational change in any organization is a complex "open systems" process which involves consideration of and action associated with numerous interdependent variables such as organizational culture and climate, leader and manager behaviours, and processes such as strategic planning, among others.

Summary

The efficient and effective utilization of human resources is the responsibility of leaders and managers in those organizations that function well (Drucker, 1989; Conner, 1993). Therefore, manifestly inappropriate or ineffective behaviours and processes in organizations are essentially symptoms which may have resulted from inappropriate or ineffective leadership and managerial decisions or actions (Bennis 1989a; 1989b; Sayles, 1993). However, addressing only the symptoms tends to result in short-term solutions that are inconsistent with the strategic development of an

organization. Strategic development is a leadership and management responsibility at all levels of the organization.

Consequently, where leadership ability and management skill are manifestly deficient or are perceived to be deficient in an organization, one is more likely to identify the organization as ineffective. The relationship of organizational ineffectiveness or perceived ineffectiveness to dissatisfaction may be directly proportional; however, further study would be required to establish the validity of that relationship.

Although some studies conclude that raising the level of satisfaction of employees in an organization does not necessarily result in increased productivity, they do conclude that significant levels of employee dissatisfaction in an organization can result in decreased productivity (House, 1977; Herzberg, 1967). Therefore, it seems imperative that leaders and managers in organizations endeavour to address sources of dissatisfaction to help offset potential declines in organizational productivity (Locke, 1983; Diener, 1985).

An analysis of global competitiveness is not within the scope of this study; however, it is clear that Canada's level of productivity compared with most other industrialized countries has declined (Porter, 1990; 1991; Economic Council of Canada, 1989). This decline is manifested in microcosm in many of Canada's larger private and public sector

organizations which have tended to downsize considerably in the face of increasing global competitiveness and/or the need to rationalize expenditures to offset an increasing debt.

Although downsizing may have more or less harmful effects on organizational effectiveness, particularly in organizations where the number of employees has exceeded the need, the downsizing trend seems to contradict a significant direction in contemporary management literature which clearly advocates a more rational and effective use of an organization's human resources (Benimadhu, 1989; Block, 1991). On the one hand, management theorists, authors, experts, and some practitioners suggest that effective use of the knowledge, skills, abilities and varied experiences of organization members moves toward a solution to the problem of global uncompetitiveness and declining productivity. On the other hand, some managers seem to choose a more expedient and short-term path, in many cases, by downsizing their organizations. This tends to destroy, or at least to damage, an organization's infrastructure, contradicts the essence of strategic planning for the longer term, and increases potential individual reliance on social support programs such as unemployment insurance.

Organizations must be prepared to change over time to adapt to both internal and external forces and pressures that demand change (Kanter, 1983). This change can be either unplanned or planned and there is support for both approaches. Literature about change argues that the forces for change are

numerous, varied, and unpredictable. Therefore, it may be difficult to attempt more than short-term planning (Mintzberg, 1994). Proponents of planned change, however, argue that it is possible to plan for change at organizational levels provided contingencies are included (Goodstein, Pfeffer and Nolan, 1985; Melcher and Kerzner, 1988). This approach assumes that the object of planned change is to accomplish organizational equilibrium, and to recognize that to control the direction of one's organization it is necessary to anticipate, rather than to react, as non-planners, almost by definition, tend to do.

"Open systems" theories recognize that most interacting forces in organizations are not simple cause-effect relationships (Kuhn, 1970; Baker, 1973; Bertalanffy, 1968; Miller, 1972). Therefore, the object of planning for proponents of these theories is to develop and to maintain organizational equilibrium in the face of numerous forces for change, or expressed another way, to align the activities and resources of the organization to fit the anticipated requirements of the future environment. Proponents of rational planning also tend to support the utilization of an organization's human resource capabilities to accomplish this equilibrium. This paradigm assumes that individuals and organizations ultimately can control their responses to, or at least influence, most of their extenuating circumstances rather than being controlled by them.

Many contemporary private sector organizations have moved to a more "organic" paradigm which utilizes multi-directional communication, participative decision-making, adaptation, low formalization and decentralization (Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1975; Kanter and Buck, 1985; Naisbett, 1985; Toffler, 1985). This paradigm seems to permit a more effective integration of organizational processes such as communication, decision-making, performance evaluation, organizational socialization, and career development. These processes are part of the organization's culture and climate. Culture and climate, in turn, both influence and are influenced by the behaviour of the organization's leaders and managers.

Both organizational culture and climate are created by leaders and managers who have at least some control and/or influence over the evolution of the organization (Deal, 1982; Davis, 1984; Sathe, 1985, Schein, 1985). Consequently, if an organization's culture and climate are ineffective or excessively bureaucratic, it is generally within the purview of an organization's leaders and managers to effect the necessary changes to improve them (Guest, Hersey and Blanchard, 1977; Schein, 1985). Further, although it is generally perceived that public sector leaders and managers frequently encounter more and varied constraints and limitations in this organizational change process than private sector managers, some studies suggest constraints to change are often matters of mind set and perception (Barker, 1989;

Barzelay, 1992; Zussman and Jabes, 1989).

Management experts such as Bass (1982), Bennis (1989), Burns (1978), and Tichy and Devanna (1986) suggest that organizations require transformational leadership--at all levels of the organization--to overcome the mind set and perceptual constraints reactive organizations tend to impose upon themselves. Transformational leaders tend to accomplish the transformation of organizations by encouraging the development of organizational member management skills. The most effective organizational processes utilized by such leaders seem to be communication and education, participation and involvement, and facilitation and support (Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979; Tichy and Devanna, 1986).

Ineffective organizations are not transformed into effective organizations by accident, nor are they transformed overnight. Transformation is a long-term process which requires strategic planning that has been designed to accommodate continual change and to overcome constraints (Goodstein, Pfeffer and Nolan, 1985; Melcher and Kerzner, 1988; Kouzes and Posner, 1987). Further, the transformation process cannot occur simply by leadership or managerial decree in isolation from the organization's members. The judicious utilization of the organization's human resources are critical to the achievement of any planned transformation process or organizational change (Kanter, 1983; Benimadhu, 1989; Morgan, 1990). Therefore, any organization which desires to achieve

some stability and equilibrium in the face of continual change must deliberately integrate its human resource planning with its organizational strategic planning. From a macro-viewpoint, this integration process is an essential component of the strategic management process (Devanna, Fombrum and Tichy, 1984; Walker, 1992).

The case study organization has been a post-secondary, vocationally-oriented, bureaucratically-operated, public sector educational institution virtually since its creation over five decades ago (Young and Machinski, 1964; Glenn, 1985). Despite being redesignated as a community college from a technical-vocational institute in 1969, the college as of 1993 seems not to have been fully able to transform itself into the flexible, adaptable, responsive community organization that the concept of community colleges implies and that it must become to accommodate the needs of the twenty-first century (Dennison, 1995; Task Force Report on HRD, 1993).

Several changes at the CEO level over the past decade seem to have contributed to some degree of uncertainty at all levels of the organization, although the current CEO seems to have made some progress in the change process. A new total quality management operating philosophy encompassed in a new mission statement that has been integrated with a strong emphasis on organizational diversity and support for sustainable development matters may have given the

organization a focus it has lacked, particularly during the past decade (Task Force Report on HRD, 1993). The need for the organization to transform itself from a predominantly bureaucratic to an entrepreneurial college as it moves from the public sector to an arms' length organization under board governance [April, 1993] has accentuated the need for a focus for the future.

The methodology utilized to gather data on and to document the organizational change process with the study group includes a combination of several accepted analytical and empirical methods including: a case study approach (Yin, 1984), a theory-based literature review, a comprehensive survey of study group employees which solicited both quantitative and qualitative data, focus groups, formal and informal interviews with selected individuals, and anecdotal comments from employees (Best and Kahn, 1989).

Conclusions

Based on data obtained from and about the study group, one cannot conclude that the general hypothesis of the study is fully supported. The stated hypothesis for this study was that "...the overall data will indicate moderate-to-high employee dissatisfaction correlated with several variables including many of the College's existing processes, organizational climate and leadership and management behaviour". The data analysis reveals both quantitative and

qualitative results suggesting some employee dissatisfaction with many of the organizational variables which fall under the responsibility and auspices of leaders and managers in the organization. However, there is insufficient comprehensive quantitative analysis utilized in the study to permit unequivocal conclusions about the relationship between employee dissatisfaction, and leader/manager behaviours, in particular. The levels of dissatisfaction revealed in the survey were not as high as anticipated in several areas.

Socialization into the culture of an organization tends to shape employee perceptions and expectations about management behaviours and the appropriateness of existing decision-making processes. Successful socialization may cause employees to be more accepting about college operations; they may also see established patterns of behaviour as a condition of employment in public institutions such as the College. Further, some of the employee dissatisfaction expressed appears to be concentrated in certain employment categories or divisions of the College.

Although organization members generally seem to be reasonably content with the intergroup processes and work groups with which they are immediately involved, and are at least moderately satisfied with their relationships with immediate supervisors, there seems to be some level of dissatisfaction with the organization's climate and with managerial behaviour generically. Employees seem to

differentiate between the quality of supervision they receive from immediate superiors and management provided by the organization as a whole. Further, the turnover of leaders within the College, combined with periodic restructurings, may have complicated the interpretation of the data on leadership style.

Survey responses suggest there is a gap in several areas between what the organization members perceive the organization to be and what they perceive it should be. There is some statistical evidence to show that the organizational climate at the College is poor as it relates to specific survey items, and that many employees find the overall management style and practices unsatisfactory. While the statistical evidence does not suggest that removing the sources of dissatisfaction will result in increased satisfaction for employees, it does suggest that organizational climate can be improved by adopting a managerial style that permits more participation by employees and recognition of them. An improved organizational climate and a more participative managerial style, therefore, would permit several of the symptoms of dissatisfaction to be addressed.

Many decisions which directly affect the lives and working relationships of College employees are perceived by the employees to be made without benefit of consultation with those directly affected or with those who have specific

related knowledge or expertise. Further, anecdotal evidence suggests that information about management decisions which affect the daily work lives of employees has not been well-communicated, and that despite a new operating philosophy, mission statement, and strategic objectives, there appears to be no specific strategic plan for the organization.

The overall study, viewed from an "open systems" theory perspective, demonstrates some interconnectedness between the relative dissatisfaction expressed by the College employees and the practices of many the College's leaders and managers. These practices fall within the purview and under the auspices of persons who are individually and collectively the main source of the organization's decision-making. Therefore, successful planned organizational change results from the leadership direction and management practices in organizations. Conversely, unplanned and unsuccessful organizational change may result from the lack of leadership direction and ineffective management practices.

Recommendations for Further Study

A subsequent study with more comprehensive quantitative analysis needs to be conducted to confirm the validity of these findings. A limitation of this analysis is that no previous comparable study has been done in a similar organization against which results can be evaluated. Therefore, despite the theory reviewed in the literature

chapter in support of the hypothesis, the overall validity of the study's conclusions has not been proven. Further, although part of the overall intent of the study was to develop some conclusions about public sector management and operations generally, the public sector community college environment may be sufficiently different from many other public sector organizations that comparability would be limited. Therefore, additional research and analyses would be necessary to demonstrate that the public sector community college is sufficiently similar to other public sector organizations, based on a matrix of characteristics, to determine that they are comparable.

An additional area of potential research interest that has evolved from this study are the apparent differences in perception about satisfaction-related issues between males and females at the College. Finally, (a) modifications to some response categories; (b) modifications to several of the survey questions to make them clearer; and (c) the inclusion of relevant definitions should be considered for any follow-up survey.

Further Developments

There have been numerous developments since Red River Community College converted to board governance on April 1, 1993, many of them positive. The Community College system in Canada is maturing quickly, partly because it is the nature of

community colleges to be responsive to community needs, and partly because they have no choice but to change if they are to survive amid increasing global competition, societal transformation, and fiscal restraint. Red River Community College is no exception to this evolution toward maturation.

RRCC programs combine teaching excellence, the practical application of theory and knowledge, and a focus on leading edge trends to provide its students with an education for the real world and real jobs. Since 1993, RRCC has become a founding member of College Canada, a consortium to promote the strategic value of the Canadian community college system, has played a pivotal role in the development of the National Council of Deans of Technology, and has participated in a number of development projects in partnership with other institutions such as the national curriculum for Electronics Technicians, common core programming for health care professionals, and the development of the Canadian Forces Community College network. Faculty members continue to play a lead role in the development and delivery of Prior Learning Assessment, which acknowledges and accredits prior learning that may have taken place other than through formal academic environments.

Additionally, the college leadership has introduced numerous new innovative programs and services over the past few years, including the world's first Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) advanced diploma program in partnership with the

National Research Council's Institute of Biodiagnostics, a new Business and Information Technology Centre, and credit transfer guides for Manitoba community colleges. Several more partnerships have been created with the business community including the Winnipeg Free Press, Chrysler Canada, Xerox, the Canadian Steel Trade and Employment Council, the Canadian Aviation Maintenance Council, and Standard Aero. Further, a component of the Economic Innovation and Technology Council's Advanced Manufacturing Training Institute was moved to RRCC during 1995/96.

However, not all developments have been positive. By the end of 1998/99 the Federal government will have eliminated all support for the direct purchase of individual training seats. The effect of decreased transfer payments between the federal and provincial government will have a significant impact; therefore, student tuition fees are expected to increase substantially over the next five years. By the end of 1998/99 the federal support for apprenticeship programs is also expected to be eliminated. This means either a new or modified system of apprenticeship training must be created, or employers will be required to obtain the skilled persons they require from other sources.

Fiscal restraint will help foster, among other things: linkages and articulation arrangements with universities, other colleges and high schools to allow for more fully developed career ladders; real world experiences through co-

operative education and work placements; strong connections with college preparatory programs; expansion of the range of post-diploma programs; inclusion of emerging technologies in the educational process, where possible and affordable; expansion in community and work-based training; customer and custom designed training; training product development; applied research; and marketing of products locally, nationally, and internationally. College programs will be required to take an entrepreneurial approach in creating partnerships with business and industry.

The future demands leaders, strategic thinkers, and decision-makers who are able to perform in a fast-paced and action-oriented environment. The measure of a successful community college in the future will be how well it serves its students and its community, as it has always been. However, because the community college role is continually evolving and changing, the need to be more responsive to its broader community seems to be growing exponentially. This growth represents a tremendous challenge for organizational change as universities, colleges and other institutes move into the new millenium.

ENDNOTES

1

There is no intention to suggest that all public sector institutions are bureaucratic, nor even that only public sector institutions are bureaucratic. There are many private sector organizations that operate just as bureaucratically as some public sector organizations. However, one of the three disciplinary areas in this interdisciplinary dissertation is public administration, and Red River Community College was a public sector institution prior to April 1, 1993. Therefore, it is obligatory that discussion of the college situation incorporate allusions to bureaucracy in the dissertation. This does not imply either a conscious or subconscious view that only public sector institutions are bureaucratic.

2

Total Quality Management (TQM) is important to the evolving organization at RRCC. It represents a philosophy about which much has been written recently. However, TQM is very much a product of statistical process control and its focus has been primarily industrial engineering. Accordingly, there are limitations to its usefulness in public sector organizations (See James Swiss, (1992). Adapting Total Quality Management (TQM) to Government. Public Administration Review, 52(4), 356-62.). TQM stresses products rather than services, inputs and process rather than results, and an organizational culture with a single-minded preoccupation with quality. The TQM philosophy had only been introduced at RRCC in the fall of 1991. By 1993, a Quality Council had been formed and some general education of college employees had occurred. However, few, if any, TQM projects of substance had been introduced which could be paraded as successes. The TQM gurus (Edward Deming, Joseph Juran, Philip Crosby, etc.) suggest that it usually takes 5 - 7 years before the TQM philosophy makes any major impact on an organization and sometimes longer.

3

The assumption about organizations operating in an open systems environment is illuminated by the definitions provided and the sources indicated. Both the college and other bureaucracies interact with their environments, there is a strong interdependence of variables, and all are affected by what goes on around them. L. Douglas Kiel, (1989). Nonequilibrium Theory and Its Implications for Public Administration. Public Administration Review, 49, 544-51 suggests that public administration may be seen as a mosaic of organizations at varying stages in their evolution and that nonequilibrium [open systems] theory may afford students of public administration a scientific framework for understanding genuinely discontinuous change processes in complex systems.

4

There is no intention to suggest that all humans are the same and just need to be properly manipulated. However, it is the intention to suggest that, organization structural and process influences aside, humans are sufficiently similar in behaviour that it is reasonable to expect comparable behaviour regardless of the type of organization in which they are employed. In other words, it is unrealistic to expect radically different behaviours of individuals just because they are employed in a public sector organization rather than a private sector organization.

5

The theoretical framework (open systems/nonequilibrium theory) is elaborated here to provide a macro overview on the many factors influencing organizational change at RRCC. Considerable change activity had occurred up to April, 1993. However, after April, 1993 the college was to be governed differently and was required to function under a different set of rules. The severity of this change, and the extent to which the college was required to shift its paradigm, could be perceived as the "bifurcation point" to which Prigogine and Stengers refer. At a minimum, the conversion to board governance affected the organization's equilibrium and required substantial adjustments to enable the organization to cope.

6

It is less difficult to change an organization's culture if it is something the organization has, rather than something the organization is. If organizations are culture, then the transformation involved is comparable to the transformation of an individual's psyche. The transformation is not impossible in either an organizational or individual sense, but it usually requires a traumatic or catastrophic event to enable the process. Time is a significant factor in the process. The transformation of a national culture might be measured in centuries. The transformation of an organization might be measured in years, at a minimum. The degree to which the culture is entrenched in the organization's psyche affects the time it will take to transform as well.

7

Some of the community college values are shared with other institutions of higher learning. However, while community colleges have generally and historically provided preparatory and upgrading training through such programs as Adult Basic Education (ABE), English as a Second Language (ESL), aboriginal pre-occupational preparatory training and pre-technology training for women specifically designed to accommodate racial, ethnic, and gender factors, universities typically concentrate on more academic types of programs that are not designed for a specific racial, ethnic or gender audience. Universities are still perceived as elitist by many elements of society, and perhaps by the universities themselves. Community colleges, viewed from a national perspective, endeavour to accommodate all elements of the post-secondary

community. Community college programs are driven by Program Advisory Committees; universities have no comparable input. Universities generally inhibit access by requiring high school graduation with a specific level of academic preparation (some mature students aside); community colleges recognize that many individuals did not even complete high school and that some access to entrance into an occupation needs to be provided. Therefore, community colleges offer venues for high school completion, apprenticeship, and pre-employment training for industrial occupations. Further, these values are the foundation upon which most community colleges were established.

8

"Doing the right thing" refers to the relative morals, ethics and principles involved in organizational decision-making. Doing the right thing refers to such things as treating a long-term employee with some dignity and respect in an organizational downsizing situation rather than terminating the employee and requiring his/her removal from the premises immediately following the termination. It may be necessary to downsize an organization for financial reasons--that is doing things right. However, if it is done with some compassion, respect and empathy for the individuals affected, that is doing the right thing.

9

In recent years, RRCC has become increasingly responsive to market forces, particularly as baseline grants from the provincial government have flattened, and training purchases from the federal government have declined. The conversion to board governance in 1993 represented an expectation by the provincial government that RRCC would begin to become more self-sustaining by generating some of its own revenues. Additionally, the federal government began to withdraw support for training by the reduction of direct purchases of student placements in certificate level programs.

10

The Public Service 2000 initiative has basically been abandoned by the current government, although the ideas contained in it will remain relevant to redesigning the public service for the future.

11

Revenues in 1993 came from several sources: (a) Government of Canada direct purchases, apprenticeship support and training purchases from the College's Market Driven Training Centre MDTC; (b) sale of training to the private sector through the MDTC; (c) tuition fees for day and continuing education programs; (d) revenues from the bookstore, parking fees and shops; and (e) fees from other agencies such as Workers' Compensation and Vocational Rehabilitation Services. Tuition fee revenues in 1993 represented approximately 5% of the total budget expenditure. Federal government direct purchases have been reduced to zero in 95/96.

12

The sharing ratio for hospital insurance and Medicare varied somewhat because national average costs were used to calculate the federal contribution. With both of the health care programs there were conditions attached to the federal funds. With post-secondary education the sharing ratio was strictly 50/50, but the transfer was not based on any legislation respecting national goals or conditions in the field of higher education. See T.J. Courchene (1977) "The New Fiscal Arrangements and the Economics of Federalism". Options: Proceedings of the Conference on the Future of Canadian Federation. Toronto: University of Toronto.

13

Community College revenues from the federal government sources are focused in two areas: direct purchases and apprenticeship support. In 1992/93 federal government support through direct purchases, including apprenticeship, was 8.4 million. In 1995/96, federal purchases were approximately 2.5 million, including apprenticeship. Provincial grants have been flatlined or effectively reduced since 1992/93. Provincial grant insufficiencies were offset by employee reduced work week legislation. This represented approximately \$1.2 million each year over the fiscal years 1993/94 and 1994/95. The provincial government grant represents about 61% of the current budget. Budget deficiencies are made up through additional revenue generation or program and staff reductions.

14

Global competition and the global marketplace are realities. Red River Community College has articulation agreements with such institutes as the Shenyang Electric Power Institute and Zhengzhou Electric Power College in China, Kurume National Institute of Technology and Fukuhara Gakuen University Consortium in Japan, St. Paul College in Quezon City, Philippines and Unico-Universidad Autonoma de Guadalajara in Mexico, among others. RRCC has provided wood frame construction training for the Japanese Construction Industry in the past year and has been requested to manage a 300 room hotel in China. First Robotics Industry Science Institute in Malaysia has offered scholarships for engineering students through RRCC for a specified term. International education projects are a major source of revenue for the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC), of which RRCC is a member. The Canadian Council of Technicians and Technologists (CCTT), which sets national training standards for technical diploma and certificate programs, and of which RRCC is a member, has technologist transfer credit and recognition agreements with both its American and British counterpart organizations.

15

The Operational Enhancement Objectives documents for 1992 - 95 included reference to utilizing TQM techniques to improve ergonomics, improving services to aboriginal and multicultural communities, and incorporating appropriate TQM concepts and methods

into diploma-level curricula. The draft College Business Plan for 1996 - 2000 also indicates that the College will continue to improve its processes on a strategic project basis and provide for the needs of the various institutional customer groups. Most of the latter will be accomplished by or delivered through the Market Driven Training Centre.

16

Since April 1, 1993, the College has operated under a Board of Governors which reports through the Colleges' Secretariat and Deputy Minister to the Minister of Education. The Minister still retains the prerogative to approve new programs or to delete non-effective programs and to appoint an administrator if s/he feels the College is not being properly administered. The Board of Governors is primarily a policy-making board. Day-to-day management of the College is left to the College senior management.

17

Investigation by the College's Task Force on Human Resource Development revealed that most comparable post-secondary educational institutions strive to achieve an annual staff development target expenditure of between 2-3% of the organization's salary budget. The college's expenditure for staff development in 1992/93 was approximately 0.4 per cent of salary budget. This has improved to approximately one per cent since 1992/93. Staff development includes; courses, conferences, seminars and workshops; educational leaves; memberships in relevant associations; and required certifications or re-certifications in several occupational areas. Staff development applications are approved on the basis of conformity with established criteria in the Staff Development Policy Manual.

18

The original scope of the dissertation was determined by Committee members to be too large and the hypotheses too detailed or lengthy in an earlier draft. The hypothesis has been rewritten, not to accommodate the dissertation results, but to respond to the recommendation to narrow the scope and to make the hypothesis clearer and more succinct.

19

This particular survey design was utilized because: (a) the constructs were reasonable and appeared to measure what was desired; (b) it had been utilized successfully in previous studies by Likert, which provided some assurance of validity; and (c) it was compatible with the survey questionnaire developed for the college study.

20

Utilizing a modified questionnaire, designed specifically for the college environment does not invalidate the results. However, choosing a commercially-developed survey instrument would have reflected data designed for a private sector, non-educational

organization which may have invalidated the results.

21

The purpose for the Task Force on Human Resource Development was "to recommend directions, policy and procedures for College-wide human resource development..." The Task Force Steering Committee recognized that it was necessary to ascertain where the College was, before it could determine where the College should go. Two sections of the employee questionnaire (Sections 2 and 3) were designed as stand-alone sections to extract perceptions from employees about job satisfaction and the College environment for this purpose. The sections are sufficiently generic to provide database information for the dissertation. These two sections are considered to be most immediately relevant to the hypothesis.

22

Jacques (1976; 1989) suggests what organizations claim to be, what employees believe them to be, what they really are when revealed by investigation, and what they need to be, are all different things. The employee survey measures employee perceptions and attitudes, rather than factual knowledge and behaviours; however, for employees, perception is reality and their relationship with the organization is based upon their perceptions.

23

Survey items related to income, benefits and job security formed the monetary issues cluster in Section 2 (items 2.6; 2.7; 2.8 and 2.17). Overall, 50% of respondents reported they were "very" or "somewhat satisfied" with the level of pay they received. However, 44% of respondents with graduate degrees reported being "very dissatisfied" with their level of pay more frequently than the group as a whole (22%). There was not a significant difference between male and female levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction based on the survey data, perhaps because standard pay levels are established for position classifications based on job requirements.

24

"Opportunities" to develop refer to such things as support to: take (or teach) courses; attend conferences, seminars and workshops; participate in educational leaves; return to industry; or undertake projects to enhance professional development and potential for promotion. "Incentives" refer to recognition for employee personal and professional development in whatever form it might take (e.g. increased pay; promotion; support for conference attendance; public acknowledgement, etc.) other than for purely self-development or altruistic reasons.

25

This issue of measuring levels of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, and what they say about the relative health of an organization, is a difficult one. Job satisfaction, or dissatisfaction, reflects a complex mixture of work characteristics, the characteristics and experiences of the

individuals involved, the expectations and values of these individuals, and their ability to obtain the rewards associated with those values. Some aspects of satisfaction can be manipulated by the employee, some by the employer, and some perhaps through such mechanisms as public policy. Other aspects may be impossible to change. See Richard H. Hall, (1986). Dimensions of Work. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, pp. 92-99 and Stanley E. Seashore and Thomas D. Taber, "Job Satisfaction Indicators and Their Correlates" ed. by Albert Biderman and Thomas F. Drury. (1976). Measuring Work Quality for Social Reporting. Toronto: John Wiley & Sons, pp. 89-124 for identification of some possible indicators. Perhaps a key measure includes those satisfaction-related or dissatisfaction-related elements which come under the direct purview or are the responsibility of the organization's management. Presumably, many of these elements, particularly many of those identified in the survey, are capable of being improved upon without the massive expenditure of resources. Improvements in areas that are typically sources of dissatisfaction presumably would also contribute to improvements in organizational climate and relationships. As an arbitrary figure, any organizational element with which at least half of the organization's members are "somewhat" to "very dissatisfied" should be a target for improvement.

26

Although individuals may not know whether supervisors have received any or sufficient formal training required to perform satisfactorily in a supervisory capacity, the generally small size of the work units and length of incumbency of many of the supervisors make it difficult to conceal a lack of training for long. Ultimately, supervisors are judged by employees on the basis of performance. Presumably if supervisors are adequately trained, and it reflects in their work, perceptions of the adequacy of supervisory training would show a higher level of favourable responses. The level of dissatisfaction expressed by college employees about supervisory training and experience is generally comparable among all employment categories.

27

The survey quantitative data represents the primary source of information about employee perceptions of job satisfaction, the college, and its environment. Of the 317 survey responses, qualitative or elaborating comments were provided on a low of 24 questionnaires on the question about fair treatment of employees at the College (3.19) to a high of 59 questionnaires on the question of physical working conditions (2.9). Employee qualitative responses were incorporated to endeavour to explain or to clarify why responses may have been at the level they were for some survey questions.

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A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX A

DEFINITION OF TERMS

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

The definitions utilized in this study are from three sources primarily, or an amalgam of them, unless otherwise indicated: (1) Schermerhorn, Cattaneo and Smith, (1988). Management for Productivity; (2) Northcraft and Neale, (1990). Organizational Behaviour; and (3) Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, (1985). Organizations: Behavior, Structure, Processes.

Ability (3) A trait, biological or learned, that permits a person to do something mental or physical.

Accountability (Webster's) The condition of being accountable, liable or responsible; liable to be called to account to give satisfactory reasons for.

Adaptiveness (3) A criterion of effectiveness that refers to the ability of the organization to respond to change that is induced by either internal or external stimuli. An equivalent term is flexibility.

Apprenticeship (1) A special form of training that involves formal assignment to serve as an understudy or assistant to a person already having the desired job skills.

Autocratic (or Directive) leadership (1) A leadership style displaying a high concern for the task and a low concern for people.

Autonomy (1) The degree to which a job gives the individual substantial freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.

Behaviour (3) Anything a person does, such as talking, walking, thinking, or daydreaming.

Bottom-up planning [problem-solving] (1) Planning that begins with plans developed at lower management levels without constraints, that are then passed up the hierarchy to top management levels. [2] Involving workers in all phases of the change process, beginning with diagnosis.

Budget (1) A plan that commits resources to projects or programs; a formalized way of allocating resources to specific activities.

Bureaucracy (1) An intentionally rational and [in theory] efficient form of organization founded on principles of

logic, order, and legitimate authority. (2) Form of organization is which there are clearly defined lines of authority and responsibility for members, and behavior is tightly controlled by rules, policies, and job assignments.

Career planning (1) The process of systematically matching career goals and individual capabilities with opportunities for their fulfillment.

Centralization (1) The concentration of authority for most decisions at the top levels of an organization. (2) Resting decision-making power with one or a few individuals, based on the competing needs of coordination and division of labour.

Change (Webster's) To cause to become different; alter; convert. Denotes a making or becoming distinctly different and implies a radical transmutation of character or replacement with something else. Transform implies a change in form and now, usually, in nature of function.

Change agent (1) A person or group taking responsibility for changing the existing pattern of behaviour of another person or social system.

Charismatic leadership (2) Process used by transformational leaders to develop a common vision of what could be, discover or create opportunities, and strengthen organizational members' control of their own destinies.

Closed system (1) A system that does not interact with its environment. (2) Completely self-contained organization that functions apart from and is unaffected by what goes on around it.

Contingency (1) An approach of modern management theory that there is no one best way to manage, and that what is best depends in any given circumstance on the nature of the situation.

Contingency planning (1) The process of identifying alternative courses of action that can be used to modify an original plan if and when circumstances change with the passage of time.

Corporate [organizational] culture (1) The predominant value system for the organization as a whole. (2) The expectations and practices of the organization, including shared philosophy, attitude toward employees, leaders and heroes, rituals and ceremonies, and belief about the direction of the organization.

Culture (1) A shared set of beliefs, values, [rituals, customs] and patterns of behaviour common to a group of people.

Decentralization (1) The dispersion of authority to make decisions throughout all levels of management by extensive delegation. (3) ...entails pushing the decision-making point to the lowest managerial level possible.

Decision-making (1) The process that encompasses all activities ranging from the identification of a problem through the actual choice of a preferred problem-solving alternative.

Downsizing (2) Reducing the size of an organization's work force.

Education (Webster's) The process of training and developing the knowledge, skill, mind, character, etc. especially by formal schooling; teaching; training.

Effectiveness (2) Ability of an organization to accomplish an important goal, purpose or mission. (Webster's)...produce a desired result.

Efficiency (2) Amount of effort required to deliver a promised good or service; can be increased through specialization and economies of scale. (Webster's)...with a minimum of effort, expense, or waste.

Employee-centered leadership (2) A process used by leaders that emphasizes the individual worker's needs in managing group performance; also called initiating consideration.

Environmental scanning (2) A process of anticipation in which the organization collects information from the [internal and external] environment.

Expectancy (3) The perceived likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome.

Forecast (1) An attempt to predict outcomes; a projection into the future based on historical data combined in some scientific manner.

Group decision (1) A decision where all group members participate with the manager and finally agree by consensus on the course of action to be taken.

Group dynamics (1) Forces operating in a group that affect task performance and membership satisfaction.

Group process (1) The means through which multiple and varied resource inputs are combined and transformed into group outputs.

Homeostatis (Stasis) (1) A dynamic or moving state of equilibrium or balance in the relationship between a system.

and its environment.

Human resource planning (1) A process of analyzing staffing needs and identifying actions to fill those needs over time.

Human resources (2) A view of workers' mental capabilities as key resources in organizational efficiency and effectiveness; emphasizes worker participation for more informed organizational planning and decision-making.

Influence (3) A transaction in which a person or a group acts in such a way as to change the behavior of another person or group. Influence is the demonstrated use of power.

Influence diagrams (Hall) These diagrams show the direct influence of each concept variable on other variables based on interviews and documentary evidence. Managers and experts seem to accept quite readily an influence diagram made up of pair-wise influence relations (i.e. more of A leads to more of B) unless it challenges some of their strongly held beliefs. Analysts have to beware of the danger of trapping in the influence diagram the linear thinking, conventional wisdom, folklore, and beliefs about how the interviewee system works. A characteristic of these diagrams is that multiple and complex chains of cause-effect (some in feedback loop configuration) usually begin to emerge.

Informal leadership (1) When a person without formal authority proves influential in directing the behaviour of other persons.

Informal structure (1) The undocumented and officially unrecognized structure that coexists with the formal structure of an organization.

Innovation (1) The process of taking a new idea [for that organization] and putting it into practice as part of the organization's normal operating routines.

Job satisfaction (1) The degree to which an individual feels positively or negatively about various aspects of the job, including assigned tasks, work setting [organizational climate; leadership and supervisory behaviour], and relationships with co-workers [intragroup and intergroup relations; group processes]. (3) An attitude that workers have about their jobs. It results from their perception of the jobs.

Leadership (Fleishman) An attempt at influencing the activities of followers through the communication process and toward the attainment of some goal or goals.

Machine [mechanistic] bureaucracy (2) Organizational structure using highly specialized and routine tasks, formalized procedures for the transformation process, a proliferation

of rules and communication channels, a functional departmentalization structure,...and an elaborate administrative and technical structure. (1) Organizational structures that are highly bureaucratic in form; they employ centralized authority, rules and procedures; a clear-cut division of labour; narrow spans of control, and formal impersonal means of co-ordination.

Management (1) A body of knowledge and field of academic inquiry based on scientific principles and serving as an important foundation for any manager. (2) Activities that must be performed for organizations...including planning, organizing, staffing, [motivating], and controlling.

Management development (1) Training directed toward improving a person's knowledge and skills in the fundamentals of management.

Matrix organization (1) A form of organization that combines functional and divisional forms of departmentalization to take best advantage of each.

On-the-job training (1) Training that is accomplished in the work setting and during performance of an actual job.

Open system (2) An organization whose activities are inescapably influenced by its environment.

Open systems theory (2) A management theory proposed by D. Katz and R.L. Kahn, which focuses on the assumptions that organizations are (1) social systems in which changes in one part are reflected by changes in other parts, and (2) open to influence from the environment.

Operational plan (1) Plans of limited scope that address those activities and resources required to implement strategic plans.

Organic structure (1) Organizational structures that have decentralized authority, few rules and procedures, more ambiguous division of labour, wide spans of control and informal and more personal means of co-ordination. (2) A flexible organizational structure that can respond efficiently and effectively to new demands placed on it.

Organization (1) A collection of people working together in a division of labour to achieve a common purpose.

Organizational atrophy (2) An organization's use of a particular response to a situation long after the situation has changed.

Organizational change (1) Change involving some modification in the goals, structure, tasks, people, and technology that

constitute the essence of an organization.

Organizational climate (3) A set of properties [or conditions] of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the employees, that is assumed to be a major force in influencing employee behavior (e.g. coordination between work units; the social distance required by status differences; the involvement of individuals in decision-making)

Organizational decline (2) Cutback in the size of the organization's work force, budget, resources, clients, and so on; mature organization's inability to stay in touch with changing markets, technologies, and client preferences, leading to stagnation, bureaucracy and passivity.

Perception (1) The process through which people receive, organize, and interpret information from the environment.

Planned change (1) Change that occurs as a result of specific efforts by a change agent.

Political environment (1) Includes governmental units at regional, provincial, national, and international levels, special-interest groups and other political entities, and the legal-judicial framework of society.

Power (2) The ability to influence the attitudes or behavior of others, usually through the control of resources.

Procedures [rules] (1) Standing-use plans that precisely describe what actions are to be taken in specific situations. [2] A formal policy or informal norm that defines the boundaries of acceptable and expected behavior in the group.

Process (3) In systems theory...the technical and administrative activities that are brought to bear on inputs ...to transform them into outputs. The activities that give life to the organization chart which reflects the formal pattern of the organization.

Productivity (1) A summary measure of the quality and quantity of work performance with resource utilization considered.

Responsibility (1) The obligation to perform that results from accepting assigned tasks; a commitment...to carry out assigned duties as agreed. (Webster's) expected or obliged to account (for something, to someone); answerable or accountable as being the cause, agent, or source of something.

Skill (1) The ability to translate knowledge into action that results in the desired performance.

Socialization (1) The process of systematically changing the expectations, behaviour and attitudes of a new employee in a manner considered desirable by the organization.

Span of control (1) The number of subordinates reporting directly to a manager.

Strategic management (1) The managerial responsibility for formulating, implementing and evaluating strategies that lead to longer-term organizational success.

Strategic planning (1) The process of determining the major objectives of an organization and defining the strategies that will govern the acquisition and utilization of resources to achieve those objectives.

Structure (1) The formal system of working relationships that both divide and coordinate the tasks of the people and groups to serve a common purpose.

Succession planning (2) [The planning process to accommodate the] turnover, retirement, or promotion of personnel [to ensure continuity in the organization].

Team building (1) A sequence of planned activities to gather and analyse data on the functioning of a group and implement constructive changes to increase its operating effectiveness.

Transactional leaders (2) Leaders who motivate followers by exchanging rewards for services. (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985) Transactional leaders tend to guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements.

Transformational leaders (2) Leaders who arouse intense feeling, generate turbulent one-to-one relationships with followers, and [are] inspirational and concerned with ideas rather than processes. (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985) Transformational leaders are proactive and visionary. They are concerned about the developmental needs of individual followers; they change follower awareness of issues by helping them look at old problems in new ways; and they can excite, arouse and inspire followers to exert extra effort to achieve goals. They are sometimes referred to as charismatic leaders.

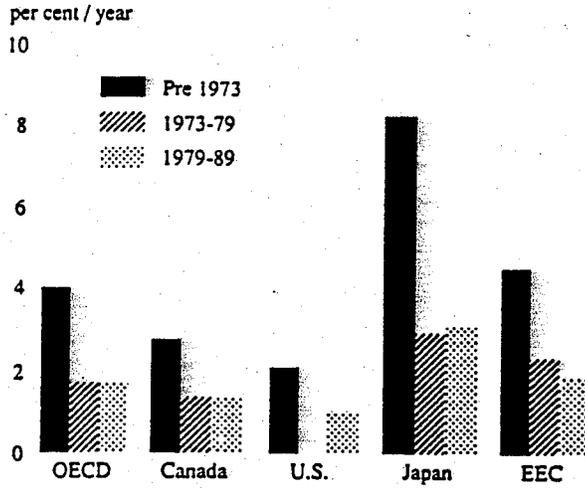
Unplanned change (1) Change that occurs spontaneously or at random and without a change agent's direction.

APPENDIX B

INDICATORS OF FUNDAMENTAL COMPETITIVENESS

INDICATORS OF FUNDAMENTAL COMPETITIVENESS

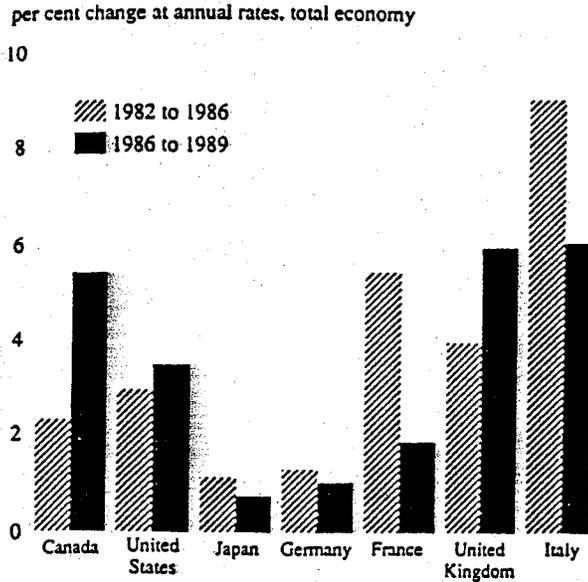
Productivity Growth in Industrialized Economies (GDP per Employed Person)



Source: OECD *Economic Outlook* Historical Statistics. 1973-1989 data for Canada and U.S. have been updated using CANSIM.

Appendix B1

Growth of Unit Labour Costs Measured in Domestic Currencies



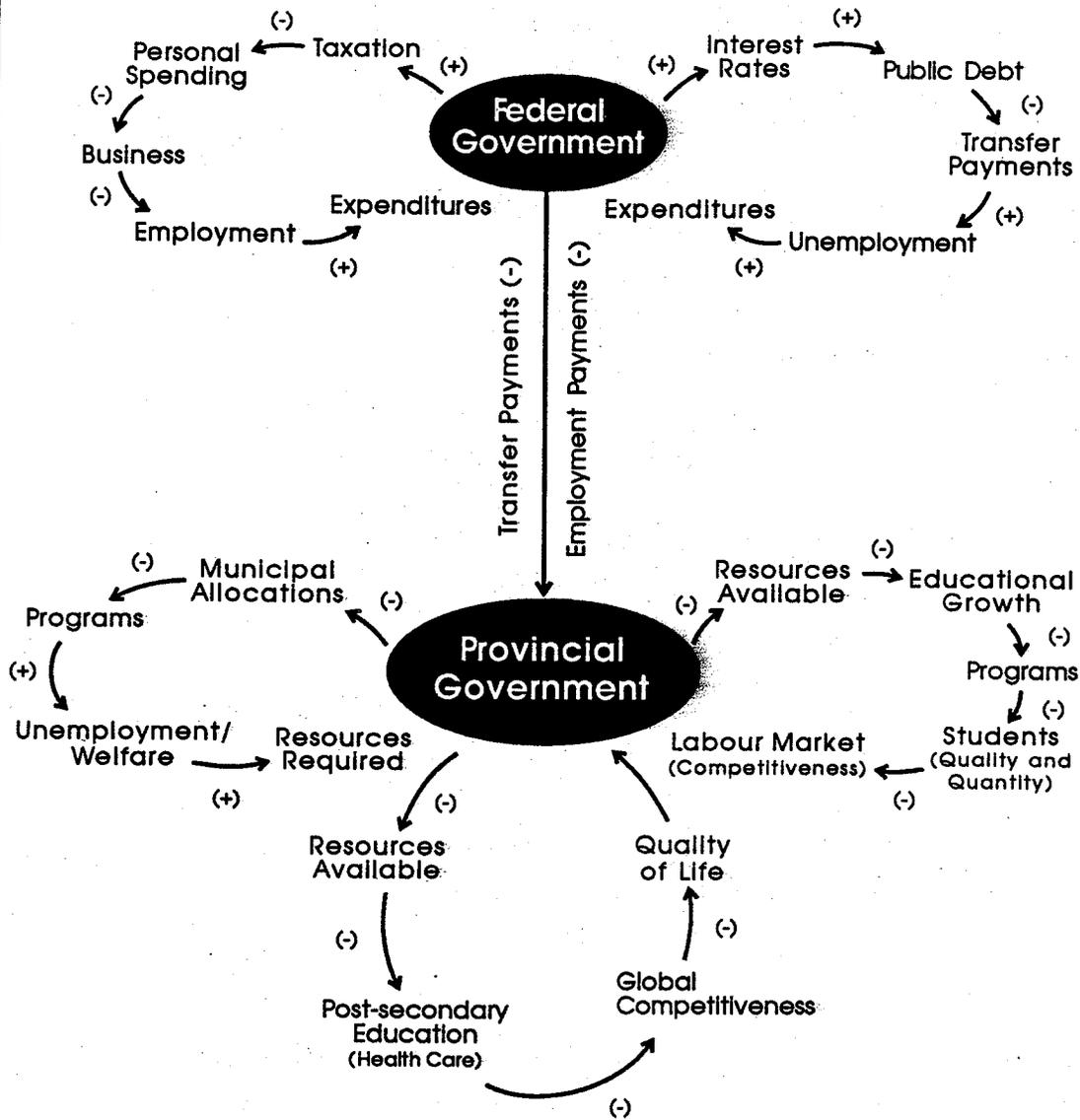
Source: OECD, *Economic Outlook*, June 1990

Appendix B2

APPENDIX C

SIMPLIFIED INFLUENCE DIAGRAM

Appendix C Simplified Influence Diagram



Legend

Positive (Upward) Influence (+)

Direct Influence ———

Negative (Downward) Influence (-)

APPENDIX D

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

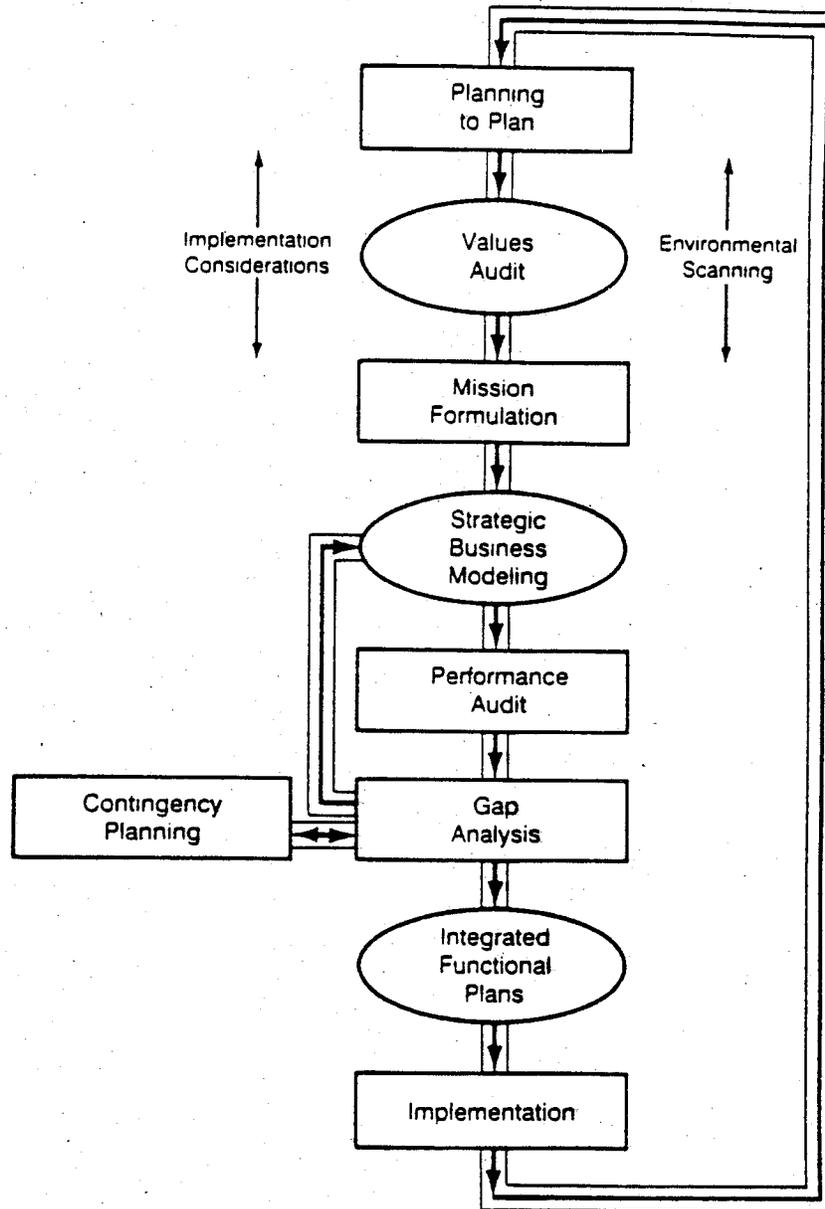
<i>Growth Stage</i>	<i>Function of Culture/Issue</i>
<p>I. Birth and Early Growth Founder domination, possible family domination</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Culture is a distinctive competence and source of identity. 2. Culture is the "glue" that holds organization together. 3. Organization strives toward more integration and clarity. 4. Heavy emphasis on socialization as evidence of commitment.
<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Succession Phase</i></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Culture becomes battleground between conservatives and liberals. 2. Potential successors are judged on whether they will preserve or change cultural elements.
<i>Change Mechanisms</i>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Natural Evolution 2. Self-Guided Evolution Through Organizational Therapy 3. Managed Evolution Through Hybrids 4. Managed "Revolution" Through Outsiders 	
<p>II. Organizational Midlife</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Expansion of products/markets 2. Vertical integration 3. Geographical expansion 4. Acquisitions, mergers 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cultural integration declines as new subcultures are spawned. 2. Loss of key goals, values, and assumptions creates crisis of identity. 3. Opportunity to manage direction of cultural change is provided.
<i>Change Mechanisms</i>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Planned Change and Organization Development 6. Technological Seduction 7. Change Through Scandal, Explosion of Myths 8. Incrementalism 	
<p>III. Organizational Maturity</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Maturity or decline of markets 2. Increasing internal stability and/or stagnation 3. Lack of motivation to change 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Culture becomes a constraint on innovation. 2. Culture preserves the glories of the past, hence is valued as a source of self-esteem, defense.
<i>Transformation Option</i>	
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Culture change is necessary and inevitable, but not all elements of culture can or must change. 2. Essential elements of culture must be identified, preserved. 3. Culture change can be managed or simply allowed to evolve.
<i>Destruction Option</i>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bankruptcy and reorganization 2. Takeover and reorganization 3. Merger and assimilation 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Culture changes at fundamental paradigm levels. 2. Culture changes through massive replacement of key people.
<i>Change Mechanisms</i>	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Coercive Persuasion 10. Turnaround 11. Reorganization, Destruction, Rebirth 	

Source: Schein, E.H. (1985). Organizational Culture and Leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

APPENDIX E

STRATEGIC PLANNING MODEL

The Applied Strategic Planning Model



Source:

J. William Pfeiffer, Leonard D. Goodstein and Timothy M. Nolan. Shaping Strategic Planning: Frogs, Dragons, Bees, and Turkey Tails. San Diego, California: University Associates, Inc., 1989.

APPENDIX F

SYNOPSIS OF PUBLIC SERVICE 2000 FINDINGS

SYNOPSIS OF THE REPORT OF THE
SERVICE TO THE PUBLIC TASK FORCE

BACKGROUND

The Service to the Public Task Force was one of ten created as part of Public Service 2000, a program launched in December 1989 by the Prime Minister to revitalize the public service.

This summary report presents interim findings and conclusions; recommendations will be forthcoming this Fall in the draft report.

The objectives for the Service to the Public Task Force were:

1. To review existing literature and research material and consult with others in relation to the notion of service to the public, in order to come up with a satisfactory definition (s) of this concept in the public sector context;
2. To examine work done to date in connection with service and satisfaction enhancement in the public and private sectors, with a view to learning from the past experience of other organizations;
3. To conduct research (secondary or primary data collection) to establish some methods of measurement and benchmarks concerning actual and perceived quality of service to the public provided by federal government institutions. Such benchmarks would provide a basis for determining whether progress was being made;
4. To examine practices and attitudes currently prevalent with respect to consultation with the public in the development of policy and delivery of programs;
5. To consult with a sample of representative groups of employees, unions and others to benefit from their views and recommendations; and
6. To develop recommendations with respect to the service to the public mandate (service, satisfaction, consultation, communication).

METHODOLOGY

The Task Force embarked on a vigorous program of research and analysis designed, within the limits of available time and resources, to provide insight into a number of issues related to service to the public and to yield recommendations for improvement. The Task Force defined "service to the public" broadly to encompass both the direct delivery of service and consultation with the public on the design and implementation of programs, on the premise that such consultation will enhance public satisfaction with service quality. Driving the research program were questions such as:

- . What do we know at present about public perceptions of service quality?
- . What lessons can be derived about rendering good service by examining examples set by organizations doing an outstanding job of service delivery (in both the public and private sectors)?
- . How can information technology be used to improve service quality and satisfaction?
- . To what extent do front line workers, middle managers and senior public servants feel service quality is valued? What are their views about existing quality of service provided to the public? What might be done to improve service?

Field Work Programs

Four associated initiatives were implemented to collect information and ideas from public servants in the field, as described below.

a) Focus Groups

Thirty focus groups comprising 300 front line workers and middle managers involved in the delivery of service to the public were held in 12 cities.

b) Symposia

Symposia were organized and moderated by the Canadian Centre for Management Development (CCMD) on behalf of the Service to the Public Task Force. Seven groups of approximately 25 senior managers and departmental clients were conducted.

c) Workshops

The main focus of the workshop discussions were on issues related to consultation rather than service delivery. Participants included senior federal managers, some business representatives, and some non-government organizations, academic and research representatives experienced or interested in consultation practices or issues. Eight workshops, of approximately 21 participants each, were held. In addition, the Public Policy Forum sponsored two additional workshops: the Bryce-Lambert Forum and a session with industry association executives.

d) Telephone Surveys

To complement the qualitative information obtained in the focus groups, the Task Force conducted a telephone survey with a representative sample of public servants.

Specifically, a total of 1,248 federal public servants were surveyed over the telephone. This sample consisted of 425 front line staff, 422 middle managers and 401 senior managers.

FINDINGS**Overview of Key Messages**

The findings and conclusions of the Task Force, although still in draft form, suggest a change strategy involving a coordinated campaign on a number of fronts.

1) Top Management Commitment: Shaping Culture and Values

- . We need to work towards a major and long-term shift in culture and values which provides for a reorientation (but not abandonment) of our current "control culture".
- . We need to move from an inward and secretive mode of operation to an outward and open orientation, both internally and externally.
- . Management must institute significant changes to the "command and control" philosophy utilizing more delegation, trust, and "empowerment".
- . Management needs to create the expectation of, and take responsibility for, developing an environment supportive of innovation.

- . Senior managers need to accept that demanding "error-free" management is an impediment to good service to the public.

- . We need a sustained, durable, persistent leadership determined to provide outstanding service to clients and to create an internal climate where people are the premium value.

- . Management must demonstrate a commitment to an open and collaborative relationship with the public.

- . It is critical to our success that management seek, obtain and retain political support for these changes.

2) Consultation with Clients: Shaping Policy and Service to Client Needs

- . Broadening of both the ethic and the process of consultation is required.

- . Consultation must become an engrained public service-wide value visibly undertaken, and openly encouraged by management.

- . Public servants must be trained to become skilled in the consultative process.

- . Consultation must be engaged in only if there is genuine willingness to listen and to adapt to input from others.

- . Members of the public want to be reassured that the process is open and authentic; they feel they have a right to comment on how the process is run as well as what should be discussed; and they see no reason why they should be precluded from organizing and launching discussions on matters of public concern.

- . Insufficient weight is given at the centre of government to the need for regional variations in policy.

3) How People are Managed

Improved management of "our most important resource" will require:

- . Simplified classification systems with greater value given to service to the public factors.
- . Reducing levels in the management category as an aid to organizational delayering.
- . Greater managerial responsibility for staff deployment and job assignments.
- . Simplified and quicker staffing (recruitment and selection).
- . Improved selection criteria with service to the public as an essential criterion.
- . Simplified redress procedures with quicker resolutions.
- . Involvement of operational managers in collective bargaining negotiations to ensure service factors are considered.
- . Improved rewards and recognition for good service and its inclusion in performance ratings.
- . Improved training and development programs with service as the focus.

4) Organizing for Client Service

- . Systems and procedures need to be tested against the criteria of service relevance and be relentlessly simplified by constant attention to client-driven, in contrast to system-driven requirements.
- . We must ensure that organizational structures are not so hierarchical that decisions are made by people out of touch with clients.
- . Management must pay close attention to the service transaction as the time and place most likely to shape clients' perceptions of the organization. Resources should be devoted to the development and improvement of the "transaction environment" (facilities, access, etc.).

. The development of standards and training must emphasize client-centred values.

5) Service Support Technology

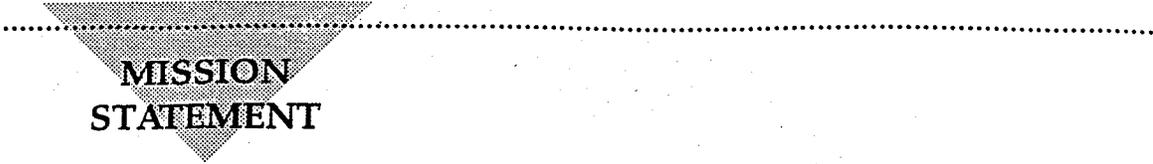
- . We need strong commitment from senior management not only to the use of the technology, but also to the restructuring of business practices.
- . Technology should be recognized as a single component of an overall corporate approach to improved public service and a client-centred service philosophy.
- . We need to change from merely using technology to do the same things faster, to doing different things, in different ways.
- . More emphasis must be placed on the provision of service enabling technology tools for front line staff who work with the public.

6) Internal and External Monitoring

- . We need to monitor service to the public and public satisfaction, and reduce the monitoring of compliance and conformity.
- . There is a need to clearly define and manage client expectations.
- . Client satisfaction data should be made available to all staff.
- . We must establish field level intelligence systems and use this input to improve services.

APPENDIX G

RRCC MISSION STATEMENT



MISSION STATEMENT

The mission of Red River Community College is to provide high-quality educational and training opportunities to assist with economic, cultural and social development in Manitoba within the context of a global marketplace.

To achieve this mission, Red River Community College will work collaboratively with the appropriate sectors of government, education, business, industry, and community organizations to accomplish the following strategic objectives:

- To enhance the quality of the learning experiences by fostering a culture which makes us a client-based customer-service organization;
- To expand the programming support to part-time learners through partnership arrangements both within Winnipeg and with the regional communities;
- To enhance the infrastructure supporting access to programs and the retention of students with a particular emphasis on those with Aboriginal backgrounds and those belonging to ethnocultural minority groups;

- To expand the development of co-operative education as a major mechanism for delivering Red River Community College programs and creating stronger links with all sectors of the community;
- To respond to the training requirements of employers with effectiveness and flexibility;
- To continue to take an active role in supporting the general economic, social, cultural and environmental development of the community and the province;
- To explore initiatives in international education.

These strategic objectives will be actively pursued within a framework that values both learning and teaching excellence; supports a high quality of working life for all members of the college community; and encourages professional integrity, open communication, a respect for diversity, participative management, personal growth and innovative ideas.

APPENDIX H

RRCC STRATEGIC PLAN OBJECTIVES

OPERATIONAL OBJECTIVES

A. OBJECTIVE

To enhance the quality of the learning experiences by fostering a culture which makes us a client-based customer-service organization.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- Total Quality Management (TQM) concepts have been introduced into many aspects of the institutional operation over the past year. Approximately one-quarter of the staff have been directly involved in projects related to improving the processes associated with student registration and the delivery of courses and programs in Market Driven Training;
- formal articulation agreements have been signed with both the Lord Selkirk School Division and the River East School Division, and two further agreements are under discussion;
- the articulated Nursing proposal with the University of Winnipeg has been completed and implementation is on hold pending a provincial review of the need for additional baccalaureate-prepared nurses;
- the articulation proposal with the University of Winnipeg in Child Care Services is also complete, has received all necessary institutional approvals, and is awaiting appropriate funding;
- discussions are in progress with the University of Manitoba regarding articulation proposals in the areas of Business Administration and Medical Laboratory Technology.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- use TQM techniques to improve the ergonomics of the classrooms, labs and office space;
- use a TQM approach to address the recommendations from the President's Task Force on Services to Aboriginal and Multicultural Communities;
- complete the review of all diploma-level curricula by June 1993 for the purpose of incorporating appropriate TQM concepts and methods, the fundamentals of economic sustainable development and an understanding and appreciation for cultural diversity;
- complete articulation agreements with two additional high schools or divisions by June 1993;
- complete articulation agreements by June 1993 to allow RRCC graduates in Business Administration and Medical Laboratory Technology to proceed towards a baccalaureate;
- establish a Student Advocate Service jointly with the RRCC Students' Association by October 1992.

B. OBJECTIVE

To expand the programming support to part-time learners through partnership arrangements both within Winnipeg and with the regional communities

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- a business plan for the expansion of Continuing Education offerings has been completed as part of the pre-governance transition to Special Operating Status;
- the pilot project to offer the first year of the Business Administration program in Portage la Prairie was very successful with 15 of 23 students completing.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- conduct a needs assessment on at least five Native reserves and offer Continuing Education courses for at least 200 additional Aboriginal students;
- implement and monitor the new three-year Special Operating Status plan for Continuing Education to expand the overall enrollment at the five regional centres by 10% by June 1993;
- expand the offerings in distance education to achieve a 10% increase in enrollment by June 1993;
- continue to offer the first year of the Business Administration program in Portage la Prairie.

C. OBJECTIVE

To enhance the infrastructure supporting access to programs and the retention of students with a particular emphasis on those with Aboriginal backgrounds and those belonging to ethnocultural minority groups

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- as a result of the recommendations from the President's Task Force on Services to the Aboriginal and Multicultural Communities, RRCC is recommending the creation of a new division of Aboriginal Education and Institutional Diversity headed by a Dean of Aboriginal descent reporting directly to the President. The mandate of this new area would be to assist in creating permanent institutional change by addressing the access and support requirements of Aboriginal and ethnocultural groups;

- the recommendations from the above task force are being addressed using a TQM-based approach;
- many of the recommendations from the Student Success Committee have now been approved for implementation as resources become available.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- continue to address the recommendations of the President's Task Force on Services to Aboriginal and Multicultural Communities using TQM techniques which utilize cross-college teams;
- prepare a plan by June 1993 to further address the needs of the Deaf community;
- develop and implement college-wide strategies to increase student retention.

D. OBJECTIVE

To expand development of co-operative education as a major mechanism for delivering RRCC programs and creating stronger links with all sectors of the community

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- a total of 33 Business Administration students successfully participated in their first co-operative education work term in the spring of 1992;
- RRCC has received a federal grant to assist with implementation of a co-operative education format in the new Administrative Assistant program as of September 1992;
- the co-operative education delivery mode will be introduced into the Civil Engineering Technology, and Chemical Laboratory Technology programs as of September 1992, and into the second year of the enhanced Motor Vehicle Mechanic program as of September 1993;
- RRCC has been successful in its support of the creation of a tri-college Co-operative Education Coordinator position.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- implement the co-operative education mode into four additional programs for September 1993;
- work with the tri-college Co-operative Education Coordinator to develop position papers in issues related to funding and program rationalization.

E. OBJECTIVE:

To respond to the training requirements of employers with effectiveness and flexibility

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- a business plan for the expansion of Market Driven Training courses and programs has been completed as part of the pre-governance transition to Special Operating Status;
- Workforce 2000 training activities supported to \$15,000;
- an additional section of 15 students will be added to the College Preparation for Natives program as part of the plan to increase Aboriginal student enrollment by 25% in 1992-93, and an additional 15 Aboriginal students will be accepted into the Urban Native Integration and Adaptation Program (UNIAP) Microcomputer Applications program;
- an agreement with the Federal and Provincial governments will increase the number of training days in advanced and specialty-oriented English as a Second Language training by 40%;
- a partnership agreement was concluded with Toyota Canada to jointly support and use a state-of-the-art on-site training facility for Motor Vehicle Mechanic training.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- *New programs for 1992-93:*

Two-year Diploma

- Administrative Assistant, 30 students
- Chemical Laboratory Technology, 30 students
- Telecommunications Engineering Technology, 30 students

Part-time Post-Diploma

- Programmable Logic Controllers, 50 students
- Geographical Information Systems, 30 students
- Technology Management, 30 students
- Bio-Medical Engineering Technology, 20 students

- *Expanded programs for 1992-93:*

- Business Administration
 - two-year diploma, add 35 students for a total of 420;
- Business Accountancy
 - 10-month certificate, add 35 students for a total of 175;
- Library and Information Technology
 - enhance/revise current Library Technician program from a one- to two-year program;
- Developmental Services Worker
 - admit an intake of 30 students each year instead of in alternate years.

- *Program enhancements for 1992-93:*

- pilot project on using interactive videodisc technology;
- add co-op and distance education delivery modes to Civil Engineering Technology;
- pilot project on a summer technology preparation program;
- convert the Motor Vehicle Mechanic program to a two-year co-operative education delivery model with co-op placements after completion of year one;
- update the two-year Advertising Art program to include advanced computer graphics, electronic pre-press technology, publication design and image modification;
- support the activities of Workforce 2000 to the extent of \$100,000.

- *Partnerships:*

- conclude an agreement with the graphic design industry to identify the Advertising Art program as the major trainer of professional graphic designers in Western Canada;
- conclude an agreement with a nationally recognized partner to deliver Total Quality Management training;
- develop an agreement with the Manitoba Aerospace Human Resource Coordinating Committee with respect to the training of technical workers in the aerospace industry;
- conduct a feasibility study by March 1993 on a joint program in Magnetic Resonance Imaging Technology with the Institute of Biodiagnostics, National Research Council.

F. OBJECTIVE

To continue to take an active role in supporting the general economic, social, cultural and environmental development of the community and the province

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- report prepared by the President's Task Force on Sustainable Development and an implementation plan has been drafted;
- have reported and promoted a number of initiatives related to creating an increased culture of diversity.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- use a TQM-based approach to address the recommendations from the President's Task Force on Sustainable Development;
- co-sponsor a major event related to improving the culture of diversity within the institution.

G. OBJECTIVE

To explore initiatives in international education

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- have concluded a second three-year staff exchange and technical assistance partnership with the Shenyang Electrical Power Institute in the People's Republic of China;
- have participated in a management training development project in Czechoslovakia;
- arranged a partnership with Manitoba Hydro to conduct hydro station training for the Khyzestan Water and Power Authority in Iran.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- conclude a further agreement with one other international partner.

H. GENERAL

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- all management staff have received micro-computer training in WordPerfect and electronic mail;
- the work plans have been established regarding the updating of the financial, student and administrative computer-based information systems;
- the Human Resource Development Task Force has concluded data collection activities for the preparation of a final report in the fall of 1992.

1992-93 OPERATIONAL ENHANCEMENT OBJECTIVES

- continue to provide microcomputer system training for management staff;
- complete the manual of policies and procedures for board governance;
- complete the development and implementation of the corporate communications, promotion and marketing strategies for board governance;
- continue to develop the college strategy, in accordance with the Departmental Affirmative Action Plan, to increase the number of staff who are of Aboriginal and cultural minority descent, to identify positions which can be targeted for the physically handicapped and to encourage more female representation within management, with interim reports produced in June and December of each year;
- develop systems for the formative evaluation of all staff based on a combination of input from management, peers, students, self and appropriate external sources for implementation by September 1993;
- establish a college Wellness Committee to increase staff awareness regarding a healthy lifestyle;
- assist the RRCC Alumni Association in the promotion of various alumni development activities;
- use TQM techniques to address the recommendations from the Human Resource Development Task Force.

APPENDIX I

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE BUDGET SUMMARY 1992-93

RED RIVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE

REVENUE BUDGET SUMMARY

1992 - 1993

GOVERNMENT OF CANADA TRAINING PROGRAM

Direct Purchases \$ 8,426,800.

Indirect - M.D.T.C. \$ 1,186,600.

MARKET DRIVEN TRAINING CENTRE \$ 1,043,200.

TUITION FEES

Regular Day Fees \$ 2,623,400.

Extension Division Fees \$ 2,270,700.

BOOKSTORE (Cash Receipts) \$ 1,694,300.

MISCELLANEOUS

Student Parking Fees \$ 221,100.

Shops Revenue \$ 34,400.

Other Fees \$ 99,500. \$ 355,000.

TOTAL REVENUES \$ 17,600,000.

**RED RIVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE
EXPENDITURE BUDGET SUMMARY**

1992 - 1993

STAFFING SUMMARY	STAFF YEARS	DOLLARS
Regular	581.02	\$ 25,275,300.
Temporary	111.42	\$ 4,684,700.
Contract	<u>30.33</u>	\$ <u>1,149,900.</u>
SUBTOTAL	723.25	\$ 31,109,900.
Staff Development Salaries		\$ 30,000.
Turnover Allowance		\$ (155,000.)
Salary Adjustments		\$ <u>269,800.</u>
TOTAL SALARIES		\$ 31,254,700.
OPERATING BUDGET		\$ 8,293,900.
RECOVERIES FROM APPROPRIATIONS		\$ (193,000.)
CAPITAL EQUIPMENT BUDGET		\$ <u>1,273,500.</u>
TOTAL BUDGET ALLOCATION		\$ 40,629,100. =====

1992/1993 EXPENDITURE BUDGET BREAKDOWN

OBJECT SUMMARY CODE	STAFF YEARS	BUDGET	
5C-1 SALARIES			
11 REGULAR SALARIES	581.02	\$25,275,300	
12 TEMPORARY SALARIES	111.42	\$4,684,700	
13 CONTRACT	30.33	\$1,149,900	\$31,109,900
TOTAL	723.25		
		STAFF DEVELOP	\$30,000
		TURNOVER ALLOW	(\$155,000)
		SALARY ADJ	\$269,800
			\$31,254,700
5C-2 OPERATING			
22 BURSARIES		\$699,900	
31 TRANSPORTATION - VEHICLES		\$143,039	
34 TRANSPORTATION - AIRCRAFT		\$43,100	
37 TRANSPORTATION - OTHER		\$2,930	
39 FREIGHT		\$50,109	
41 TELEPHONE		\$300,722	
43 POSTAGE		\$129,030	
44 ADVERTISING/EXHIBITS		\$70,500	
47 MESSENGER COURIER SERVICE		\$23,460	
48 COMMUNICATIONS-OTHER		\$100	
50 FOOD		\$6,195	
51 OPERATING SUPPLIES		\$1,235,775	
52 SMALL EQUIPMENT/TOOLS/APPRUS		\$376,641	
53 OFFICE SUPPLIES		\$419,474	
54 REPAIRS/MAINTENANCE		\$507,074	
56 RENTALS		\$570,693	
57 PROFESSIONAL SERVICES		\$3,000	
58 OTHER FEES		\$270,715	
61 PUBLIC DEBT		\$555	
71 IMPROVEMENTS-LAND/BLDG		\$3,000	
74 FURNITURE & FURNISHINGS		\$22,250	
81 MEAL & ACCOMMODATION		\$37,455	
83 COMPUTER RELATED		\$699,994	
84 LOSS/DAMAGE/INSURANCE		\$4,726	
85 PUBLICATIONS/BOOKS		\$2,034,782	
86 EMPLOYEE EDUCATION ASSIST		\$1,200	
87 OTHER PERSONNEL COSTS		\$4,200	
88 MEMBERSHIP/HOSPITALTY/OTHER		\$94,114	
89 MEMBERSHIP FEES		\$30,657	
91 SOCIAL ASSISTANCE/RELATED		\$12,450	
92 CITIZENS-FEES/SERVICES		\$195,460	
93 ASSISTANCE PAYMENT		\$241,500	
94 TRANSPORTATION HEALTH		\$59,100	\$8,293,900
8A-1 CAPITAL			
76 EQUIPMENT PURCHASES-MAJOR			\$1,273,500
5C-3 RECOVERIES			
12 TEMPORARY SALARIES		\$30,000	
51 OPERATING SUPPLIES		\$163,000	(\$193,000)
TOTAL			\$40,629,100
			=====

APPENDIX J

HRD TASK FORCE TERMS OF REFERENCE

September 1991

RED RIVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

TASK FORCE

Background

The College staff, their growth and development, are the key component to how effectively Red River Community College moves into the future and how well it deals with issues such as change, the shifting student population, board governance, new technology, and economic trends. The College needs people who are professional, confirming, and forward-looking. To develop and sustain a positive organizational culture, the College needs to commit to a strong human resource development plan.

Identification of an appropriate and achievable HRD plan must be an early step. This plan needs to be geared to develop and support people who can move the College forward in its mission. For this purpose, a Human Resource Task force is being formed.

Human Resource Task Force: Terms of Reference

1. The Task Force's purpose is to recommend directions, policy and procedures for College-wide Human Resource Development for the next three years in the following areas:
 - . professional development, including instructional and program development skills for instructional staff
 - . work-related development (job specific)
 - . academic leave
 - . return to industry
 - . College-wide inservice
 - . management development
 - . orientation of new employees
 - . career development
 - . teambuilding, including matrix management concepts
 - . cross-cultural/intercultural development
 - . women's development
 - . training for frontline staff in interacting with non-traditional students
 - . membership in professional organizations
 - . personal growth
 - . wellness, stress management
 - . crisis prevention

The Task Force will:

- 1.1 review the current situation, including current policy and status
- 1.2 take into account the recommendations from the Task Force on services to Multicultural and Aboriginal Communities
- 1.3 identify areas needing attention
- 1.4 develop recommendations and an action plan
- 1.5 recommend desired action, policies, and procedures

2. Reporting Relationship

The Human Resource Development Task Force reports to the Vice-president Academic through the Director of Cooperative Education, Program and Staff Development.

3. Chair

The Task Force is chaired by the Director of Cooperative Education, Program and Staff Development.

4. Task Force Membership

The Task Force consists of fifteen representatives from the College community:

- . The Chair
- . One Dean to be selected by the Deans and Directors Committee
- . One representative from each Academic division (5 in total - one from each of Business and Applied Arts; Health, Family & Related Science; Trades and Technology; Developmental Education and Marketing Centre; and Continuing Education and Regional Centres)
- . Two staff representatives from a student support services area (Counselling, Admissions, Tutorial Services, Educational Support Centre)
- . Two representatives of clerical/secretarial staff
- . Two representatives from Administration and Student Affairs
- . One representative from Personnel
- . The Coordinator of Staff Development

In selecting the above representatives, the need for balanced representation regarding gender, visible minorities, aboriginal and the disabled should be kept in mind.

Membership of the Task Force will be adjusted if circumstances warrant.

The Dean or manager of an area is responsible to see that a representative is selected by election in that area.

5. Task Force Secretary

The College is to provide a secretary to take minutes for each meeting and to distribute agenda materials and minutes.

6. Process

The Task Force will operate on a two-level model:

6.1 Complete Task Force

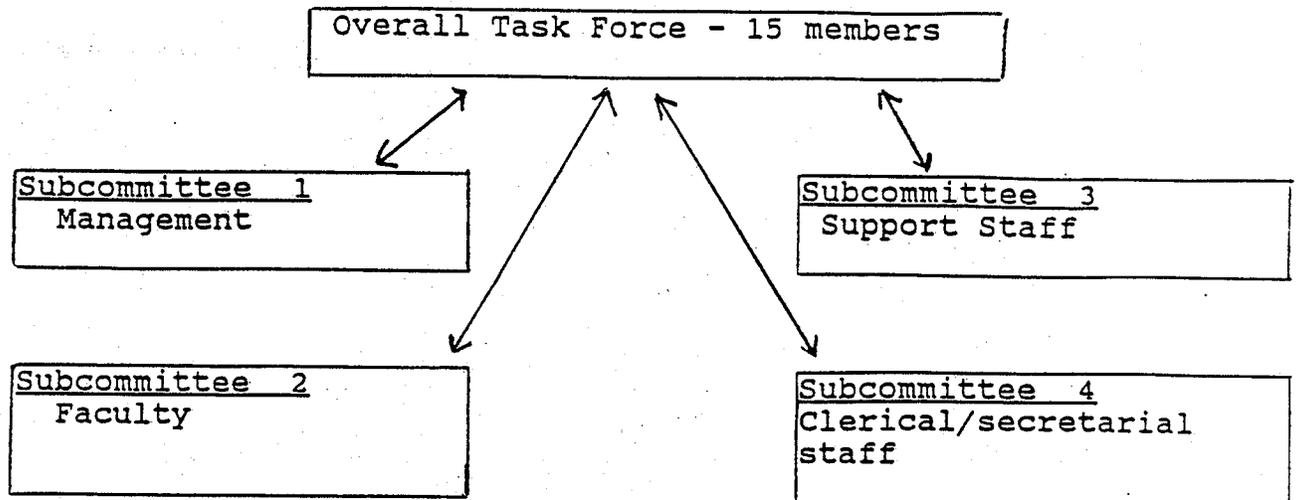
The complete Task Force will set out objectives, timelines and guidelines, will be responsible for the overall process, and has responsibility for developing the overall recommendations in regard to directions, policy and procedures.

6.2 Subcommittees

Four sub-committees representing the staff components making up the College workforce will be formed:

- 6.2.1 Management
- 6.2.2 Faculty
- 6.2.3 Support Staff (Library, Bookstore, Counselling, Admissions, Media, Printing, Personnel)
- 6.2.4 Clerical/secretarial

Each subcommittee is to meet and develop recommendations based on the needs of its membership within the parameters set by the overall task force. These recommendations will feed into the overall task force recommendations, but will have elements specific to the needs of the staff group represented by the subcommittee.



It is recommended that each of the subcommittees:

1. be chaired by a member of the overall Task Force.
 2. elect or otherwise select members for their subcommittee from among the appropriate segment of staff members in the College community to assist them to articulate the needs and directions for development for that group.
 3. conduct needs assessment activities as deemed appropriate to identify the needs of the staff group represented.
7. Communications

The Task Force will:

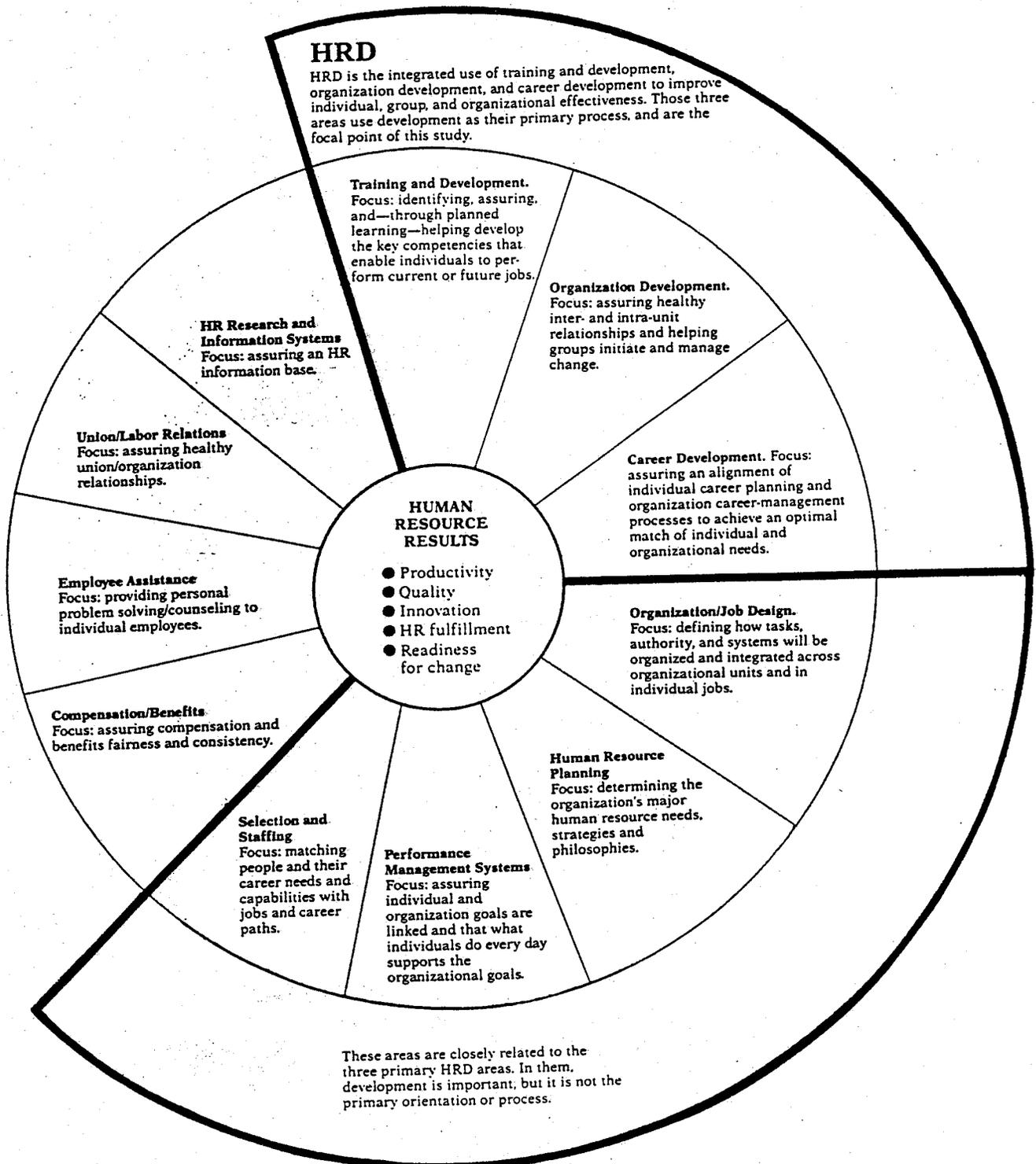
- ensure that minutes of meetings be made available to all College staff.
 - submit a bi-monthly report (once every two months) to the VP Academic
 - submit update reports to the College community through the Red River Community College Exchange newsletter.
8. Timeline

The Task Force is to submit a report by April of 1992.

APPENDIX K

HUMAN RESOURCE WHEEL MODEL

HUMAN RESOURCE WHEEL



Source: McLagan, P. A. and Suhadolnik, D. (1989). Models for HRD Practice: The Research Report. American Society for Training and Development.

APPENDIX L

HRD TASK FORCE SUB-OBJECTIVES

HRD TASK FORCE SUB-OBJECTIVES

1. To create an open, problem-solving climate throughout the organization.
2. To supplement the authority associated with role or status with the authority of knowledge, skill and competence.
3. To locate decision-making and problem-solving responsibilities as close to the information sources as possible and to find synergistic solutions to problems.
4. To build, to increase and to renew trust among individuals and groups throughout the organization.
5. To confront organizational problems both within and among groups, rather than ignoring them.
6. To make competition more relevant to work goals and to maximize collaborative efforts to renew the organization.
7. To increase the sense of self-responsibility, group responsibility, and ownership in planning and implementing long-range organization objectives throughout the work force.
8. To help managers manage according to relevant objectives rather than on the basis of past practices or on objectives which do not make sense for one's area of responsibility.
9. To increase the openness of communications laterally, vertically and diagonally.
10. To increase job-control and self-direction for people within the organization based on a total quality management approach.

(French, 1969; Lubin, Goodstein and Lubin, 1979)

APPENDIX M

FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

MARCH 4, 1992

HRD TASK FORCE

FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

As you're aware, a Human Resource Development Task Force was established by the President last fall to recommend new policies and procedures for human resource development in the College. The objective is to provide a fresh approach to developing the human resources which are the most important facet of the College in providing education and training for Manitobans. This move represents a valuing of the people who work at the College, and an opportunity to update how we support the development of the people who work here.

You have been invited to participate in this group to provide some feedback and direction to the Task Force members. Your thoughtfulness, openness and frankness will help to provide us with the kind of information we need to improve human resource development during the coming years.

My name is Joan McLaren and working with me is my colleague Roy Pollock. We are from the Co-operative Education, Program and Staff Development department, and we are also members of the HRD Task Force.

Thank you for taking time out of your busy day to meet with us. We are using the Focus Group approach here to generate data, which means that we facilitate a structured discussion group in which you have an opportunity to interact with other college staff and put forward your views on the selected topics.

I assure you that your responses will remain anonymous under any and all circumstances. They will be used in an aggregated form when we report them.

Any questions? Then let's proceed.

1. What are the strengths of our current Staff Development policies and procedures as you've experienced them?
2. What weaknesses do you see in them?
3. Do you make use of staff development opportunities? Why/why not?

Probe to ask if not covered in comments on the above:

4. How do you experience using the Staff Development handbook? Are there any problems in using it that we need to be aware of?

5. What would be a workable way of communicating policies and procedures to all staff?
6. What is your opinion on the amount of time it takes to get approval for workshops, conferences, university courses and out-of-province travel?

Now that we've looked at some issues about our current situations, let's talk about how our approach to staff development could be improved.

7. Training & Development

- . What topics would you like to see included in Training and Development?
- . How should the information on Training and Development be made available to you?
- . Should there be more training provided at the time of first coming on staff? What would have been helpful to you?
- . What kinds of activities should receive support? What percentage of expenses should be covered?

8. New areas

Are there areas not included in Staff Development that you'd like to see included?

9. Career Development

Should counselling/career development assistance be available for those who want to advance their careers?

10. Job Enrichment

Are there ways your manager/supervisor does or could acknowledge your skills through job enrichment opportunities?

11. Budget

How much do you know about the amount of money currently in the Staff Development budget and how it is allocated? (Explain).

- . How much should be in the budget?
- . How should it be allocated?

12. Organizational Structure

Are you familiar with Staff Development and the Personnel Department as they currently exist in the organizational structure? (Explain).

- . What do you think would be the best organizational structure for HRD at the College?

13. HRIS

What information should be included in your personnel file concerning your qualifications, experience, interests outside the College, etc.? Who should have access to personnel files? How should the files be brought up-to-date? Who should be able to put in new information?

14. WELLNESS

- . What kind of WELLNESS program should be provided at RRCC?
- . What kind of activities should be included?
- . Should staff be given extra time during the day/week to participate in a WELLNESS program?
- . Should Staff Development pay the fee for certain activities such as aerobics, Tai Chi?
- . Are you aware of the WELLNESS activities currently offered by the Health Centre? Do you participate in any of them?

15. Comments

Any other areas you'd like to comment upon?

Thank you for your participation.

The following are the points that were brought up by members of the Training and Development Sub-committee.

1. Should staff be supported in taking classes during working hours?
2. What information would you like to see included in training and development? How should this information be made available to you? How much money should be available for SD?
3. Should counselling be available for those wishing to advance their careers through Career Development?
4. How would you like to see your manager/supervisor acknowledge your skills through job enrichment?
5. Do you find the policies and procedures for SD clear and easy to follow?
6. What is your opinion on the amount of time it takes to get approval for: workshops; conferences; university courses; out-of-province travel.
7. How much money should be in the SD budget? How should it be allocated to the different groups of employees? Do you know how the money is distributed at the moment? Have you any opinions as to how this process might be improved?
8. What topics would you like to see included in Training and Development?
9. Do you make use of staff development opportunities? Why, or why not?
10. What kinds of activities should receive support from SD budgets? What percentages of expenses should be covered?
11. Should there be more training provided at the time of first coming on staff? What would have made your job easier right at the start?
12. What is the best way to communicate policies and procedures to all staff? What would be a workable way of keeping all staff up-to-date?
13. What do you think would be the best organizational structure for Staff Development within the College organization? Should the Staff Development office be located in a more central place, perhaps with the Personnel and Payrolls staff in a new Human Resources Office?

APPENDIX N

RRCC EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

Employee Questionnaire

We are asking for your cooperation to complete the following survey questionnaire. The purpose of the survey, which is being distributed to approximately 700 College employees, is to obtain feedback on items which will help shape structures, systems, processes, policies and programs relating to the *development* of the people who work at the College, and the College itself.

The survey will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. If you wish to provide additional comments, please write them on a separate page and attach it to the survey. Note that you are not asked to sign the survey. You are assured of anonymity and confidentiality with your individual replies. However, responses will be grouped in various categories to facilitate analysis.

Once you have completed the survey, please mail it in the self-addressed envelope and return it to Room A831, on or before June 12th, 1992. Thank you for your cooperation.

Getting ready

1. Before you begin, please review the terms defined provided below. They provide the overall framework for the items to which you will be asked to respond.

Human resource development is the integrated use of training and development, organization development and career development principles and programs to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness.

Training and development focuses on identifying and helping develop the competencies individuals need to perform current or future jobs.

Career development focuses on aligning individual career planning and organizational processes to achieve an optimal match of individual and organization needs.

Organization development focuses on the relationship of individuals and groups and their impact on the organization as a system.

Because of HRD, people and organizations are more effective and contribute more value to products and services: the cost-benefit equation improves.

2. You can use either pen or pencil to complete the survey. Please write or print legibly where you are asked to comment.

Directions: Please complete this questionnaire by filling in your responses where indicated right on the form.

1. YOUR JOB

Section I contains four items relating to your current job.

- 1.1 Do you have a current job description? (Check one)

Yes _____ No _____ Don't know _____

If yes, how accurate is it? _____

- 1.2 Please place a check mark beside those items which reflect how you think a job description should be used.

_____ as a strict list of duties and responsibilities

_____ general guideline of overall duties and responsibilities

_____ as a dynamic document which my supervisor and I can mutually agree to review annually

_____ Other. Please explain _____

- 1.3 My last performance appraisal at the College was (check one):

_____ within the past year

_____ 1-5 years ago

_____ more than five years ago

_____ never have had my performance appraised at the College

Comments _____

Since I joined the College, I have had my performance appraised about _____ times.

- 1.4 Please place a check mark beside the item which reflects your overall impression of the effectiveness of the performance appraisal process as you have experienced it.

_____ very effective

_____ somewhat effective

_____ not at all effective

_____ don't know

Please describe the appraisal process as you have experienced it. _____

Please explain what you think the purpose of the appraisal is. _____

Please explain how you think the appraisal process could be improved. _____

2. JOB SATISFACTION-

In this section, there are 23 items. Using the following letter rating scale, circle one letter to indicate your level of satisfaction for each item.

	a) very satisfied	b) somewhat satisfied	c) somewhat dissatisfied	d) very dissatisfied	
2.1 challenge in my present job.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.2 accessibility of information I need to do my job.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.3 opportunities to do meaningful work.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.4 recognition I receive for doing a good job.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.5 value that the College places upon me as an employee.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.6 level of pay I receive now.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.7 types of benefits the College offers (e.g. life insurance)	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.8 value of benefits the College offers.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.9 my physical working conditions.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.10 my working relationship with my supervisor.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.11 my working relationship with my colleagues/peers.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.12 opportunities for me to personally develop my knowledge, skills and abilities.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.13 incentives for me to personally develop my knowledge, skills and abilities.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.14 opportunities for me to meaningfully participate in planning.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.15 opportunities for me to participate in decision making at the College-wide level.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.16 incentives for me to do a good job.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.17 job security.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.18 decision-making practices at the College.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.19 the way things get done at the College.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.20 general direction in which the College is moving.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.21 College values.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.22 College leadership style.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____
2.23 College management practices.	a	b	c	d	Comments _____ _____

3. THE COLLEGE AND ITS EMPLOYEES

Section 3 consists of two parts: PART A and PART B. Part A contains 24 items (3.1 - 3.24) which address various aspects of your work including relationships with other employees. In Part B, you are asked to respond to 11 items (3.25 - 3.35) about the way the College is, and the way that you believe it should be.

PART A

Beside each of the items in this section, please circle the letter which corresponds with your response. Use the following for each item.

to a large extent
 to a moderate extent
 to a small extent
 not at all
 don't know

- | | | | | | | | |
|------|--|---|---|---|---|---|----------------|
| 3.1 | My supervisor encourages his/her staff to come up with new and innovative ideas. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.2 | My supervisor provides me with opportunities to learn and grow in my job. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.3 | My supervisor provides me with feedback on my performance on an ongoing basis. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.4 | My supervisor supports me in my efforts to do my job. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.5 | My supervisor has appropriate training to do his/her job effectively. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.6 | My supervisor has sufficient experience to do his/her job effectively. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.7 | My supervisor is forward-looking. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.8 | My supervisor and I communicate regularly. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.9 | My supervisor encourages his/her subordinates to work as a team. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.10 | My supervisor solicits input from his/her subordinates on major items. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.11 | When my supervisor has work issues to resolve, he/she uses group meetings to talk things over with subordinates. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.12 | My supervisor is competent. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.13 | Employees in the College can speak frankly about their concerns to their supervisors. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.14 | Supervisors can speak frankly about their concerns to their subordinates. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.15 | The people in my work group encourage each other to give their best effort. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.16 | My colleagues and I work together as a team. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.17 | I have sufficient training to progress in the College. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.18 | The employees at the College are treated equitably. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.19 | The employees at the College are treated fairly. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.20 | I have a feeling of loyalty to the College. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.21 | For the most part, people are happy working here. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.22 | The College has a genuine interest in the well-being of its employees. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.23 | The health and wellness programs for employees are sufficient. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |
| 3.24 | The recreational and/or athletic activities available are adequate. | a | b | c | d | e | Comments _____ |

PART B

Part B contains 11 items. For each item, you are asked to indicate what you perceive the current situation to be and the level of importance you think that item should be for the College.

Column A:
"Is"

Column B:
"Level of
Importance"

to a large extent
to a moderate extent
to a small extent
not at all

very important
fairly important
not so important
not at all important

3.25 The College fosters a client-based, customer-service operating style.	a b c d	a b c d
3.26 The College is a learning organization that embraces change.	a b c d	a b c d
3.27 The College has clear-cut goals.	a b c d	a b c d
3.28 The College encourages communication across departments.	a b c d	a b c d
3.29 Employees in the College need to upgrade their skills continually to remain current in their jobs. <i>Comments</i> _____	a b c d	a b c d
3.30 Human resource development is seen as being for everyone in the College. <i>Comments</i> _____	a b c d	a b c d
3.31 In the College, decisions are made at the right levels. <i>Comments</i> _____	a b c d	a b c d
3.32 The College promotes understanding of the interaction between humans and the environment (sustainable development).	a b c d	a b c d
3.33 The College encourages employees to get along with people whose attitudes are different from theirs.	a b c d	a b c d
3.34 The College promotes acceptance of cultural diversity.	a b c d	a b c d
3.35 The College promotes acceptance of racial diversity.	a b c d	a b c d

4. CAREER DEVELOPMENT

In this section, there are 14 items which ask you about your developmental needs and some of the ways in which those developmental needs may be addressed.

4.1 I think I need: (Please place a check mark beside those which apply).

- _____ to work on developing key competencies for my current job
- _____ to work on developing key competencies for future jobs (either inside or outside of my current field)
- _____ personal growth activities
- _____ I do not need to undertake any development

Comments _____

4.2 I would like to remain in my present position at the College for (Please place a check mark beside your response).

- _____ 1-3 more years
- _____ 4-6 more years
- _____ 7-9 more years
- _____ more than 9 years
- _____ not sure
- _____ If I had another job, I would leave my current job

4.3 I have a pretty good idea of my career interests: (Please check those which apply).

- _____ for the next 1-3 years
- _____ for the next 4-6 years
- _____ for the next 7-9 years
- _____ beyond 9 years
- _____ I am not sure what my career interests are

4.4 I would be interested in receiving (Please check those which apply).

_____ information about jobs inside the College that are related to my current field/discipline.

Please specify _____

_____ information about jobs in the College that are in fields/disciplines different from the one I am in now.

Please specify _____

_____ information about careers outside the College.

Please specify _____

Listed below are alternative developmental approaches. Please check whether you would be interested or not interested in any of these approaches or options. Space is provided for you to explain your response.

	<u>Interested</u>	<u>Not Interested</u>
4.5 Trade jobs with an employee in my work unit for a defined short period of time. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.6 Trade jobs with a member of another department for a defined period of time. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.7 Take a secondment or special assignment in another department or government agency. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.8 Return to industry to work for a specified period. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.9 Take educational leave or a sabbatical. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.10 Exchange positions with an employee from another College or university for a specified period. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.11 Participate in special assignments at the College. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.12 Participate in applied research projects. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.13 Participate in technology transfer activities. Please explain _____	_____	_____
4.14 Participate in job-sharing initiatives (e.g. job-share, work part-time, work a four-day week, phase-in retirement). Please explain _____	_____	_____

5. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT FUNDING

To help determine possible funding approaches and priorities you are asked to respond to the 13 items in this section.

5.1 Please indicate who you believe has primary responsibility for ensuring your ongoing development:
(Place a check mark on the line which best indicates your response).

- _____ the College
- _____ I do
- _____ The College and I equally share that responsibility
- _____ Other. Please specify _____

5.2 Please indicate who you think should have primary responsibility for funding developmental activities you pursue.

- _____ the College
- _____ I do
- _____ The College and I share that responsibility
- _____ Other. Please specify _____
- _____ It depends. Please specify _____

5.3 I believe that employees have a responsibility to develop their knowledge, skills, and abilities outside of the standard work day.

- _____ Yes
- _____ No
- _____ It depends. Please explain _____

Comments _____

5.4 Developmental activities should only be scheduled during "working hours."

- _____ Yes
- _____ No
- _____ It depends. Please explain _____

Comments _____

5.5 I am prepared to pursue activities to develop my competencies in the hours I am not working at the College.

- _____ Yes
- _____ No
- _____ It depends. Please explain _____

Comments _____

56 I think that a certain amount of the employee's paid working time should be devoted to developmental activities.

Yes

No

It depends. Please explain

Comments

57 If yes, please state what percentage of the employee's paid work week should be devoted to developmental activities.

percentage of the work week should be for development

58 In general, I believe the College should financially support developmental activities not related to the field I am now working in, but in a field or discipline I would like to work in and that is required by the College.

Yes

No

It depends. Please explain

Comments

59 Listed below are nine possible Human Resource Development activities. Please place a check mark beside those items you think should be financially supported by the College.

- courses toward a university degree
- courses toward a diploma or certificate
- seminars or conferences related to my current work
- seminars or conferences related to my personal development
- developmental activities in fields/disciplines different from the one I am in now
- independent learning initiatives
- return-to-industry
- educational leave support
- developmental activities required to maintain professional standing

Other. Please specify

5.10 Who do you think should budget for employee developmental activities?

the department the employee works in

a human resource department

both

Other. Please explain

5.11 Who should decide how the monies allocated for employee development are spent?

the employees

the employee and his/her supervisor

the person above the employee's supervisor

a human resource department

Other. Please explain

6. COMMUNICATING HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT POLICIES AND PROGRAMS

This section contains two items which ask you about the ways you would like to receive information about the human resource development policies and programs.

6.1 Please indicate how you would like to receive information about human resource development policies and programs.

an HRD handbook

colleges-wide information meetings

department meetings

discussion with my department head or supervisor

a college newsletter

information brochures

don't know

Other. Please identify

6.2 I would like to receive information about training and development opportunities in the following ways. Please

check any that apply:

central bulletin boards

internal memorandum

electronic mail

workshop or conference calendar

colleges-wide meetings

department meetings

discussion with department head or supervisor

college newsletter

information brochures

Other. Please identify

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please indicate the appropriate response by placing a check mark in the appropriate space.

Gender: A Female
B Male

Age: A 25 or under
B 26 - 35
C 36 - 45
D 46 - 55
E Over 55

Employment Category:

A Management (include Department Heads)
B Faculty
C Support Staff (include all non-faculty, non-clerical)
D Clerical/Secretarial
E Other

Years of Service:

A 0 - 5
B 6 - 10
C 11 - 15
D 16 and over

Divisional Area:

A Business and Applied Arts
B Trades and Technology
C Health, Family and Applied Sciences
D Developmental Education and Market-Driven Training Centre
E Other (not part of above divisions)

Educational Level: (include all applicable responses)

A High School Graduate
B Trade, Occupation or journeyman's Certificate
C Two-year Diploma
D Bachelor's Degree or equivalent designation
E Master's or Ph.D. degree
F Other

Employment Status:

A Permanent
B Term
C Contract

Please return the survey to Room AB31 on or before June 12th.

*Thank you for your valued participation.
Your feedback will help us with new directions
for college policies and procedures!*