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MIDDLE MANAGERS' RESPONSES TO CHANGE
FROM LIKE ORGANIZATIONS
IN BRITAIN AND SINGAPORE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

S O K K E O W T A Y

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of
the requirements of the Degree of PhD

UNIVERSITY OF WARWICK
SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS STUDIES

APRIL 1992

(1)

DEDICATION

To my parents

TAY LAI HEE AND ONG CHAIK MENG
for their patience, love and support
in more ways than one.

To

Dr. Louise Fitzgerald and Professor Gibson Burrell

To

my friends in the Jesus Fellowship Church
for their encouragement and prayers.

(11)

CAPTION

What can be easily taken away from you
is not worth keeping,
What cannot be easily taken away from you
is worth having.

- Jim Elliot -



ABSTRACT

This thesis compares the responses of middle managers from like organizations in the private and quasi-public service sectors of Singapore and Britain. The intention is to contribute to the understanding of the management of change across divergent cultures, identifying universalities and particularities of what helps and what hinders significant change in organizations in these two countries. To achieve this, a matched pair framework methodology is adopted, supported by both quantitative and qualitative data collection. The thesis has its implications on global issues such as the management of change, quality of human resources, international competitiveness and economic growth. The thesis also represents an attempt to develop a dialectical approach on managing change across cultures.

In the world context, the interdependency of nations has meant that countries need to be alert to their global and regional environment, to survive, compete and grow economically. This study in line with others has found the lack of natural resources and the starting point of nations are no serious impediment to their economic growth and success. In the move towards a knowledge-based society, the quality of human resources, the effect of culture on human resources and the centrality of the management of change in economic growth are all much more important. The significance of this thesis is further emphasized by the latest United Nations report that the Asian 'tigers' (also called 'dragons' or NICs) have proven their economic

'resilience' despite adverse world trade situations. The global shift of economies in the Asia-Pacific region, strengthening and outpacing those in the Atlantic rim, reinforces the ability of the NICs to respond and manage change. What has been particularly apparent among the NICs is their outward-oriented strategy, their government's strong commitment to an export-oriented growth strategy, and their implementation of policies which are conducive and attractive to investors. The findings of this study have shown that Singapore middle managers (SMMs) are relatively more flexible and responsive to significant change than the British middle managers (BMMs), and this probably contributes to the superior economic performance of Singapore compared with Britain.

The theoretical significance of the thesis is its attempt to build a dialectical approach which rejects the 'either/or' approach to opposing theories in the field and accepts mixed methods. This positions the thesis within the new cultural school of thought which 'breaks away' from the historical bias towards universalism. The importance of adopting this position is that it follows a heterogenistic logic and a polyocular vision principle. According to Maruyama (p.101, 1984), the heterogenistic logic regards heterogeneity as "the source of mutually beneficial positive-sum, 'win-win' cooperation", and homogeneity as "a source of competition and conflict"; the benefit of the polyocular vision principle is the differing points of view different persons have and the differences constituting indispensable information which enriches a person's

understanding. These Asian or African concepts have challenged the linear, Aristotelean thinking which has, in many instances, produced a dimensionally reduced interpretation. This is because the European and North American (ENA) epistemology is built on a one-dimensional continuum (in the sense of geometry) between homogenistic hierarchy and random, independent individualism where

"everything is supposed to fit somewhere in this continuum" (p.106, Maruyama, 1984).

The approach in the new cultural school builds on the strength of differing points of view to gain a more complete interpretation.

The findings of this study have shown that there are universalities and particularities in the responses of the BMMs and SMMs on the management of change generally as well as in the areas of communication, commitment and power despite their divergent cultures. The managers of both countries found a need for adjustment to change and they have expectations of being prepared for change. An overall important finding is that there are cultural orientations and tendencies in the SMMs and BMMs that help or hinder the change process. The differences are to do with how 'self' is perceived by the two cultures and the different cultural tendencies towards authority, groupism or individualism, and non-work commitments; these affect responses to change generally and in the areas of communication, commitment and power.

PSEUDONYMS AND ACRONYMS

Pseudonyms

British organizations in the study have been given pseudonyms as follow:

- Educational Institution/Britain = 'EDUC/B'
- Hospital/Britain = 'HOSP/B'
- Fastfood operator/Britain = 'FAST/B'

Singapore organizations in the study have been given pseudonyms as follow:

- Educational Institution/Singapore = 'EDUC/S'
- Hospital/Singapore = 'HOSP/S'
- Fastfood operator/Singapore = 'FAST/S'

It should be noted that I have referred to these organizations as 'companies' or 'company' as the case maybe in the chapters for convenience.

Acronyms

- Association of Southeast Asian Nations = ASEAN
- British Middle Manager = BMM
- European Economic Community = EEC
- Five Power Defence Arrangements = FPDA
- General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade = GATT
- International Monetary Fund = IMF
- Multinational Corporation = MNC
- National University of Singapore = NUS
- Nanyang Technological University = NTU
- Newly Industrialized Countries = NICs
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization = NATO
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development = OECD
- Singapore Middle Manager = SMM
- Trade Union Congress = TUC

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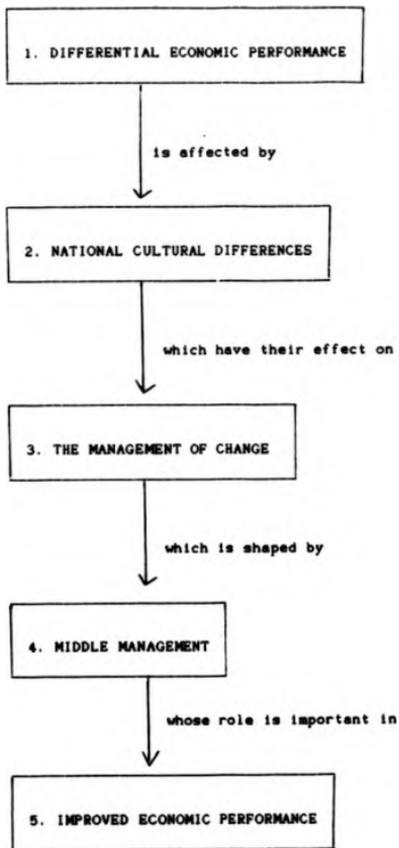
CHAPTER 1

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND THE SURROUNDING DEBATES

This chapter begins with an explanation of my interest in this research which was prompted by the outstanding economic performance of Singapore compared with Britain and the lack of literature in the field of 'management of change' across cultures. This is then followed by an explanation of the general and specific purposes of the research. To locate the research problem, it is necessary to bring together two bodies of literature; one on 'culture' and the other on 'change' including their definitions, development, views/approaches and reviews, before setting the research problem on 'managing change' in the cross-'cultural' context. The discussion on the two bodies of literature will be sequenced to start from a broad angle and then to move to a narrow or more specific angle. The current trends and interest in that field are also examined for their implications towards the end of the chapter.

Let me attempt to explain the structure of the arguments in this chapter and the particular focus on middle management in the study.

DIAGRAM 1



The different economic performance of the nations in the world may suggest their different abilities to manage change in their regional and global environment. The suggestion is that 'culture' and its influence on 'people', has important effects on the management of change and perhaps therefore, on their economic performance (Koontz and Wehrich, 1988; Clegg, Higgins and Spybey, 1988; Strabel, 1989; Sorge, 1991). People are an important unit of change (Plant, 1987; Strabel, 1989) and the particular focus of this research on middle managers is because they are often executors of important and strategic change decisions (Reed, 1989); their ability or inability to respond to change is therefore crucial to the whole organization's success or failure to respond to change. Diagram 1 suggests that a better understanding of middle managers' responses to change would probably help to facilitate the change process and contribute to an improved economic performance.

This thesis is an attempt to explain managers' perceptions and reactions to change in a framework which uses organizational culture and national culture as variables to explain change process and the extent organizational culture or national culture are shaping reactions and perceptions of the SMEs and BMEs.

1. MY INTEREST

1.1 The Difference in Economic Performance of Britain and Singapore

This topic of research has been stimulated by the inevitable changes caused by social, technological and economic factors on businesses (Chong, 1984; Kadia and Bhagat, 1988; Chong, 1990) throughout the world and the economic performances and success stories of Japan (Vogel, 1979; Lee, 14 July 1988; Pascale and Athos, 1988), Germany

(Hofstede, 1986) and the Asian dragons (Grimwade, 1989; Lee, 7 July 1988; Lockwood, 1991): Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan. The sluggish economic growth of mature, industrialized Britain and America (Clegg, Higgins and Spybey, 1988), overtaken in productivity and competitiveness by countries, some of which have hardly any natural resources, has caused considerable interest. The lack of natural resources of a nation has caused an emphasis on human resources especially knowledge. The increasing concern for economic growth stimulates comparisons between nations in the search for the underlying causes of growth. Japan's rise to international reputation and as an economic super-power, despite her lack of natural resources, mountainous islands and population of over 110 million, has attracted the curiosity of many nations. Morgan (p.111, 1986) has suggested that culture and the general way of life of Japan have played a major role in her growth; in addition, Koontz and Weihrich (p. 623, 1988) have pointed out that 'management' is one of the critical elements in economic growth.

The focus on 'culture' and 'management' since the early 1980s, has resulted in the search for excellence in management and a desire to learn from 'successful' cultures like Japan. This wave of research brought with it a proliferation of popular and academic management literature about 'organizational culture' and 'the impact of national cultures'. Many American and British organizations were forced to reassess and change their ways of production, and to become more competitive on a world basis. This resulted in much emulation and transfer of Japanese ideas like 'Just-in-Time' production, 'Total Quality Management' (TQM) and so on, especially in the field of operations management.

In this study, I decided not to focus my attention on countries like Japan, where a lot of research has been carried out; instead I decided to locate the comparative management research between a mature, industrialised country like Britain and a newly, industrialised country (NIC) like Singapore. My interest in NICs arose because they are among the world's most trade-dependant nations,

"prone to serious injury from exchange-rate swings, protectionism or oil shocks" (p. 75, Lockwood, 1991).

Since Singapore is the most vulnerable of the NICs as well as being the one who performed the best economically among the NICs (Lockwood, 1991), I decided to chose her as one of my study locations. In addition, "The World Competitiveness Report 1989" prepared by IMEDE (p.56) reported that Singapore scored head to head with Japan on many criteria of the Report and even leads Japan in some competitive areas like financial deregulation, intellectual property protection, R & D management and industrial relations. My choice of Britain is because she is in the reverse situation of Singapore; a mature, industrialised country with slow economic growth and high level of unemployment. Some of the recent literature about Britain's economy (Toilliday, 1987; Craft, 1988; Meghnad Desai, 1989) has been critical of Britain's lack of international competitiveness. The reasons for the differential economic performance of Britain and Singapore will be discussed in Chapter 2.

A country's ability to compete on an international basis regardless of their natural endowments does draw attention to its human resources. There are suggestions in the literature that Singaporeans' responsiveness to change regionally and internationally (Chong, 1984; Kedis and Bhagat, 1988; Clad, 1989) and the British unresponsiveness to the new (Phelps-Brown, 1986; Leuchuk, 1987; Crafts, 1988) has been the key to their economic success or failure respectively. These

suggestions have stimulated my research on human resource responses towards change from the two countries; the literature on this will be discussed in Chapter 2. Although the studies have indicated that in Singapore, people are familiar with change, there is hardly any research done on the degree to which change is resisted, welcomed or initiated in Singapore (Richardson, 1984). The question is "How do managers in these two countries really respond to change? Are Singaporean managers really more adept at changing than British managers? Are there similarities and differences to be found in their responses to change?"

The importance and direction of this research has also found strong support from Strebela's (p.43, 1989) article on "What is International Competitiveness?"; he said that the key to international competitiveness is

"the quality of human resources, their ability to learn and change. What matters is not so much a country's starting point, but its ability to continually improve. This is important especially for those players, management and employees, who are competing in the international arena - the steeper their learning curve, the more likely they are to outpace the international competition."

With growing international trading and investment activities, including global market concepts (Levitt, 1983) and the interdependent world economy, the ability of organisations from different national cultures to respond rapidly and appropriately to changes to secure their place in the world market is the key to international competitiveness (Garrait and Stopford, 1980); in other words, the management of change is central to economic growth (Toffler, 1971).

1.2 The Lack of Management of Change Literature Across Cultures

My interest in the management of change across two cultures, has also been stimulated by the lack of comparative work on the management of

change (Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1983) as well as the growing interest in the impact of national culture on organizations because of internationalism. The surveys of Adlar (1983), and Roberts and Boyacigiller (1983) have independently identified the need for more cross-national studies at the individual level, on personnel issues and on managing change across cultures; these surveys will be reported nearer the end of this chapter.

The available literature on managing change has largely been limited to the boundaries of a single nation. Those who attempted to compare change in organizations, have largely done so within a single culture (Cole, 1985). The recent literature on innovation (Flynn, 1985; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988) pointed to the importance of societal culture and its effects on willingness to experiment and adapt. A possible reason for the lack of cross-national literature on the 'management of change' may be because of classification which has meant that it is hidden behind categories of management, attitudes, motivation and personnel issues.

On the other hand, one could also perceive that a host of conceptual, design and practical difficulties involved in the management of change studies across national cultures may have been off-putting. For example, the notion of national culture and the disentanglement of the links between the individual, the organization and the environment; the research design of matching pairs of organizations and like change events, the choice of research locations and so on. Additionally, the dynamics and intricacies of the management of change and the methodological issues of cross-national studies may have presented their difficulties.

The study, therefore, is an exploratory attempt to investigate universalism and particularism in the subject of managing change in two different national cultures.

2. THE GENERAL AND SPECIFIC PURPOSES OF THE RESEARCH

Since the management of change has been identified as central in economic growth (p.623, Koontz and Wehrich, 1988), I was led to study managers' responses to change. Depending on the size of organizations, the spectrum of managers can be broad; there are top managers, senior managers, middle managers and junior managers. The decision to target the study at the middle management group was because they are usually the executors of change; how they respond to change and their ability or inability to manage or cope with it affect the success or failure to adapt in their organizations. For example, if they do not respond well to the change, they would find it hard to convince their subordinates of the need for it.

The literature on the management of change (Chong, 1984; Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Plant, 1987) and the preceding paragraphs have in various ways said that however change is triggered, it is something all organizations have to face and manage at all times because the organization's inability to manage it may result in its demise. The seriousness of this implication does mean that the key to it lies in people because it is the individuals who create and maintain change (Strebel; 1989; Marquand, 1989). Unless people are involved, committed and prepared to adapt and learn, objectives, plans and future desired states will be resisted. Change challenges the status quo in any organization and inevitably stirs up forces of varying magnitudes against or for the change. These forces manifested or unspoken, are always present in the face of change. How these forces operate is

dependent upon how the change is perceived by the individuals in the organisation. Richardson (p. 305, 1984) emphasized that

"Perception is an individual's view of reality. Everyone is being constantly bombarded by stimuli received by the five senses. Our cultural experience persuades us to reject information which conflicts with the stereotype view."

The inference is that it is important for managers' responses to be understood if any change is to be successful or effectively managed.

My working hypothesis is that there is universalism as well as particularism in responses to change. The basis of my belief partly stems from my working experience and observations in Singapore and Britain; and partly from what the literature says about the management of change. For instance, during my working experience, I have observed commonalities like the 'politics' of organizations during a change and resistance to change of varying degrees in organizational members of both countries. There were differences like the greater emphasis on groupism and the importance of informal power in securing cooperation in a change in Singapore as compared with Britain. These observations were collected through my experience in various organizations in Britain and Singapore.

The first aim of the study is to investigate and understand the essentials of 'what is important to get right' whenever a change is made. Having two vastly different cultural settings in the study is a powerful way of exposing the important issues and variables in managing change in organizations. The non-cultural essentials relate to universalities 'to get right' in managing change, and they are likely to have application for other countries. The cultural essentials are the essentials for managing change in a particular national culture and it has important implications for foreign investors employing locals from those countries. The awareness of non-

cultural and cultural key elements in managing change is important for overcoming the genuine difficulties of the incumbents of change and for minimising the inefficiencies of resistance and uncooperative behaviour in a change process.

2.1 The General Purposes of the Research

1. The implication of a cross-national study is that we can learn from other cultures and it is one of the most effective ways of getting new ideas in the area of management, organization or politics.

2. The practical application of the study is easily seen for multinational organizations operating in those countries because their dependence on local recruitment requires an awareness of the national culture. For example, different countries may have different motivation patterns and this would have implications on personnel policies for motivating staff and it can affect the choice of leadership style.

3. The findings of the research may provide insight and understanding for managers and employees in Britain and Singapore who originate from other cultures. For instance, some cultural characteristics, such as tendencies towards individualism or collectivism, and attitudes to authority, have important implications for the practice of relations between management and workers, and for what are appropriate modes of work organizations (p. 3, Tayeb, 1988).

2.2 The Specific Purposes of the Study

The earlier paragraphs of this chapter have explained that there is a difference in the economic performance of Britain and Singapore, and

that this is partly explained by differences in national culture which have their effect on the management of change especially 'people'. A paragraph near the start of this chapter also explained the focus on middle managers and their role in the management of change. The specific purpose of the study is therefore the better understanding of middle managers' responses to change to help facilitate the change process and to contribute to an improved economic performance. The purpose of the research is also to explore the differences and similarities in middle managers' responses to change in general as well as in depth for three areas: communication, commitment and power, in order to learn from other cultures and improve economic performance.

Writers like Hofstede (1984a) and Kedia and Bhagat (1988) have pointed out that entrepreneurial skills (Clegg, et. al, 1986), individuals' responses to change, individuals' flexibility and adaptation to innovations are influenced by culture. Singapore's success, for example, does imply her willingness to absorb western technology (Kedia and Bhagat, 1988), adapt and change in the regional as well as world context (Chong, 1984). Britain's difficulty in adapting to change (Marquand, 1989) may benefit by learning from the Singapore 'experience' and Singapore's willingness to change may benefit from learning new ways of encouraging and maintaining her responsiveness to change in their managers and employees.

3. 'CULTURE': DEFINITIONS, VIEWS AND REVIEWS

As the study compares the responses of managers from Britain and Singapore, the location of the research problem in the debate and issues surrounding 'culture' needs to be explored. This section commences with the definitions, debates and development within the two

bodies of literature mentioned at the start of the chapter by first, discussing the 'arm' of literature on 'culture' before drawing on the second 'arm' of literature on 'change'.

3.1 What is Culture?

The word 'culture' has an important place in the study and a review of this concept has revealed a variety of definitions (Ajiferuke and Boddeyn, 1970; Keesing, 1974; Child, 1981; Child and Tayeb, 1983; Sathu, 1983; Smircich, 1983; Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984; Schneider, 1988). Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952), for example, listed 164 definitions of culture. Despite the varied definitions, most authors would acknowledge that the word 'culture' has its roots in anthropology.

There are various schools of thoughts on culture. For example, the 'ideationalists' conceptualize culture "as a system of ideas" (p.197, Allaire and Firsirotu, 1984) and they focus their attention on attitudes and values expressed by organizational members or members of society. The 'adaptationists' view culture as systems that serve to relate human communities to their ecological settings where cultural change is primarily a process of adaptation and natural selection; elements of social organizations tied to production such as technology, are realms of adaptive changes (p. 74-77, Keesing, 1974). Within the sociocultural system, there is harmony, consonance and isomorphism between the two realms of "ideas" and "systems".

Since the study is about managers' responses to change, the focus would be on the values, attitudes and behaviours of managers from the two countries. The study adopted the following definition of culture. According to Tayeb (p. 42, 1988),

"Culture is defined as a set of historically evolved learned values and attitudes and meanings shared by the members of a given community that influences their material and non-material way of life. Members of the community learn these shared characteristics through different stages of the socialization processes of their lives in institutions, such as family, religion, formal education and society as a whole. Not all the individual members of the community need necessarily be assumed to follow all the directives of their cultures in every aspect of their lives. There are variations within a given culture. One can distinguish between individual variations and the dominant general pattern. What is important to note is that the dominant social pattern of a given culture is a recognizable whole which may differ in significant ways from another recognizable whole in another place or time".

3.2 Assumptions in the Eastern and Western cultures about the World

As the study involves a western culture setting, Britain, and an eastern culture setting, Singapore; it is important to gain an understanding of what the available literature says about the differing assumptions in the two cultures' view about the world. Some writers like Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) have said that there is a tendency for western cultures to see themselves as a mixture of good and evil, "in control" of their environment; individualistic, dominant over man and the natural environment. They also tend to orientate themselves to the present as opposed to the future. While they recognise the influence of nature and nurture, they do not see themselves as ultimately limited by their biological or psychological inheritance, or by childhood socialization, or even prior experience (Adler and Jelinek's article, 1986). Instead, they see themselves as almost infinitely capable of self-change as evident from the availability of self-development, self-help or self-change books.

In contrast, many other cultures like Asian cultures, see a substantial portion of human values, attitudes, behaviours, goals and accomplishments as set by factors beyond the individual's control.

There is a tendency to see people as not to be trusted and their orientation is more towards the future than the present; the tendency is to be less individualistic. They believe in a balance between 'freewill' and 'determinism'. Depending on the culture, god, fate, history, social class, or luck may seem to determine one's fate to a substantial degree.

Some comparative management writers like Khin (1988) have proposed that in the east, the boundaries of organizational systems are unclear and underdefined, and the overlap between organizational systems and other systems like family and so on are very extensive; in the west, the reverse is true with limited and clearly defined obligations and responsibilities. They also suggest that in the western culture the individual is extolled whereas in the east, self is to be effaced especially where Hindu and Buddhist traditions are dominant. Maruyama (p.108; 1984) argued that the differences in the way we see things is the essence of the differences between human relations in various cultures; in his approach, 'groupism' and 'individualism', and the authority or 'power distance' (Hofstede, 1990) are the key concepts for interpretations in management. Maruyama therefore summarised the basic concepts of Asian cultures as harmony, inter-connectedness, and mutuality, in contrast to the Western concepts of individuality, linearity, distinctiveness, and symmetry.

There is divergence in the assumptions about the eastern and western cultures and they point to a source of differences at the individual level through "mental programming", socialization and personality. In the same way, one of my working hypotheses views the differences in managers' responses to change as likely to be at the individual level because of the socialization and mental programming they underwent in their cultural settings. The programming and socialization are lasting

in their effect and most of the time, the individual acts in harmony with his or her culture. Adler and Jelinek (p. 85-86, 1986) also emphasized the same point about

"the complex nature of culture: it is both product and process, external reality and internal guide, existing in tension with the individual and evolving over time. Individuals can and do act apart from cultural demands - but most people, most of the time, act in consonance with their culture. In itself culture is indeed subject to change, but typically any single individual is relatively powerless to affect change. Culture changes, but only slowly, as the cumulative result of many individuals' changes. Culture is not fixed, but neither is it infinitely or immediately malleable".

3.3 Convergence and Divergence Perspectives

The position of this comparative management research is located in the midst of the unresolved contentions between convergence and divergence theories. Convergence writers argue that organisations are becoming increasingly alike because of economic development, industrialization, technology, education and the drive for efficiency (Harbison and Myers, 1959; Likert, 1963; Webber, 1969; Lammers and Hickson, 1979; Child, 1981; Lavitt, 1983). Divergence writers, on the other hand, see managerial differences as the impact of national culture as well as personality (Oberg, 1963; Fayerweather, 1965; Megginson and McCann, 1965; England and Lee, 1974; Maurice, 1979; Laurent, 1983; Hofstede, 1986; Schneider, 1986; Tayeb, 1988). The approach in this study is therefore not to adopt the 'either/or' approach because of the evidence which supports both perspectives. The heterogenistic approach adopted follows principles from the new cultural school of thought which maximizes or combines diversity in a beneficial way.

In the same way, Maruyama (p.101-102, 1984) suggested the principle of polyocular vision where

"different individuals have different points of view, and the differences constitute indispensable information which

enriches every person's understanding",

the research is located to adopt the differing perspectives of convergence and divergence to give a more complete understanding of cross-national studies. There are also writers (Adler, 1986; Wilson and Rosenfeld, 1990) who accept that it is likely for both views to be correct. The position which accepts the differing perspectives of convergence and divergence also provides the opportunity to build on the strengths of the two perspectives. This heterogenistic approach will be discussed further under "Theories in the Field" in Chapter 3.

There is empirical evidence listed above, to support both perspectives. Adler (1986) suggested that the difference or similarity in findings was because of the particular focus. Convergence is likely to be found when the focus is on structure and technology because of the common shaping of organizational structure and processes through the influences of business pressures; but divergence is likely to be found when the focus is at the individual's level because organizational members are "mentally programmed" (p. 14, Hofstede, 1988), socialized (Berger and Luckmann, 1971) and influenced by different beliefs, attitudes and values.

3.4 A Cross-National Perspective

The literature on convergence and divergence progressed from a somewhat "black and white" perspective of adopting either a convergence perspective or a divergence perspective to a multi-disciplinary or multi-perspective approach for comparative management study across cultures (Child and Tayeb, 1983; Hofstede, 1984a; Tayeb, 1988; Sorge, 1991). Child and Tayeb (p.54, 1983) in an article concluded that it is erroneous to disregard factors identified by the 'cultural', 'contingency' and 'political-economy' perspectives, and

that "one perspective cannot subsume the others"; the relationship of these three perspectives and their influences are said to be "inextricably bound together" (p.800, Jamieson, 1978). Hofstede's (1984a) work on 40 different modern nations adopted a multi-disciplinary approach, that is, from the disciplines of psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, economics, geography, history, comparative law, comparative medicine, and international market research. He accepts the mental programming of various institutions in society like the family, education systems, politics, and legislation, on the individual and uses four dimensions of national culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity, for comparison across cultures. Similarly, Tayeb (1988) proposed following her comparative study of English and Indian organizations that the new perspective should reflect that organizations are influenced by other national institutions besides culture, such as, social, economic and political institutions. Sorge in a recent article, also acknowledged the societal influences on organizations; he highlighted that

"It is very important for the survival and success of organization forms and human resource profiles in firms and sectors, that these are close to societal norms and articulated with institutions in the organizational environment" (p.183, Sorge, 1991);

he emphasized the factors influencing competitive advantage in terms of the institutional ability to reconcile conflicting contingencies in terms of its strategy and the societal effect.

The preceding arguments above have recommended the adoption of a multi-perspective approach, incorporating both cultural and non-cultural influences for this comparative management study. Historically, the interest of various disciplines like anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science and economics, involving other cultures have resulted in the word 'cross-cultural', being

loosely used and its meaning, less than clear. The different definitions adopted are influenced by the focus of the study and the disciplinary perspective and approach of the author. This section explains my use and definition of the word 'cross-national' in the study, as well as a brief background on how the word, 'cross-national' has superseded the use of the word, 'cross-cultural' in the study.

I share the views of several writers (Kelley and Worthley, 1981; Adler, 1983; Laurant, 1983; Hofstede, 1984; Adler and Jelinek, 1986; Schneider, 1988; and Tayeb, 1988) that the word 'cross-national' captures an all-embracing definition that goes beyond just the anthropological culture concept. In the words of Tayeb (p.6, 1988),

"The term 'nation' not only refers to culture but also to other societal, economic and political institutions which have a bearing on the nature of organizations located in particular countries".

The study rests on the foundation that managerial thinking is probably influenced by a complex mix of factors including political, socio-cultural, economic, industrial and other national characteristics which comprise the manager's working environment (Jones, 1988). An example is that the social, political and indirectly the economic systems of Singapore curtail activities like demonstrations, peaceful or otherwise in the interest of stability, and it has been suggested that this may condition a repressive attitude towards authority say in managers (p.1028, Rieger, 1989). I therefore took on a cross-national perspective for the study.

Roberts and Boyacigiller (p. 382, 1983) stated succinctly that

"the very reason to do cross-national organizational research is just that, examining how behaviours are embedded into organizations and organizations into their environments".

They found that no investigations simultaneously embedded people into organizations and organizations into their environment. The linkages

between the external environment, the organization and individual employees is an important issue in a cross-national research; severing those linkages would treat the environment, the organization and the individual in isolation. Having argued for a national culture perspective which includes cultural and non-cultural influences, my view in the study is to see 'national culture' as the link; its pervasive influence is present in the environment and it has its influence upon the individual and the organization. For example, the individual employee does not enter the organization "tabula rasa"; they enter the organizations with much societal conditioning, many attitudes and beliefs, much prior culture already in place.

3.5 Organizational Culture in the Research

Since the early 1980s, the concepts of 'organizational culture' and 'corporate culture' became dominant in the popular and academic management literature and there is a need to understand their place in this research. The main difference between the two terminologies is that 'corporate culture' arose out of the U.S. literature and 'organizational culture' arose out of the British literature; otherwise the two terminologies have been used almost synonymously. Organizational culture has been criticized as faddish and its emergence was the result of a frantic search for excellence in management as a cure for U.S. business crisis in the 1980s (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Blanchard and Johnson, 1983; Smircich, 1983; Hofstede, 1986; Kirkbride, 1987; Schneider, 1988).

The organizational culture concept is largely leadership inspired (Pettigrew, 1979) and in Hofstede's terminology, the result of 'organizational founder's dominance'. Its presence is felt regardless of the size of the business operation, history or contingencies. The

fundamental belief is that there are "heroes" of organizations in top management who are able to lead their organizational members to adjust themselves in congruence with their expectations, values and norms (Deal and Kennedy; 1982); they affect the way members feel, think and behave at work. The shared values and attitudes also guide the organization's dealings with the external environment (Business Week, 27 October 1980). The organizational culture definition can be described as "the glue" of shared values, ideals, beliefs, myths, (Ouchi, 1981; Siehl and Martin, 1981; Tichy, 1982; Schneider, 1988) that hold the organization together and provides a means of control, coordination and integration (Beluga and Jaeger, 1984; Doz and Prahalad, 1984).

Schein's model (1985) has been a useful way for understanding the link between organizational culture and national culture in the study. In the model, culture is represented at three levels: behaviour and artifacts; beliefs and values; and underlying assumptions. The three levels are arranged according to their visibility; behaviour and artifacts are the easiest to observe and the underlying assumptions need to be inferred. To understand the behaviours and beliefs under the third category, the assumptions need to be surfaced. This is most difficult because assumptions are considered to be taken for granted and out of awareness. According to Schneider (p.233, 1988), this model can be applied to both corporate and national cultures. Laurent (1986) argued that corporate culture may modify the first two levels but will have little impact on the underlying assumptions that are embedded in the national culture. The question following this then would be 'is organizational culture merely compiled with or truly incorporated?' (Sathe, 1983).

The foregoing demonstrates the existence of organizational culture and that it is something which is very difficult to manage because it involves the changing of core beliefs of dominant top decision-makers (p. 266-272, Pettigrew, 1990). I would argue that the answer to the above question is along the same lines as Hofstede (1986) in the sense that although organizational culture is a useful paradigm, the national culture influences upon a manager are more pervasive and have a more lasting effect on managers than organizational culture. Organizational founders' dominance is transient in its effect on managers. When a manager's membership with an organization is terminated, the effect of the old organizational culture fades away and the manager is probably affected or socialized by the new organization culture he joins.

The preference for a national culture perspective does present its theoretical as well as methodological difficulties in disentangling the organizational culture concept from the national culture concept; the methodological issue on this will be discussed in Chapter 3. Since the organizational culture concept is linked with charismatic or dominant leadership personalities, the organizational culture concept is conceived as a subculture within the national culture concept in this research. According to Hofstede (1985), nations are complex and subculturally heterogeneous. The subcultures refer to groups who share the same characteristics like educational level, occupation, religion, socioeconomic status, sex, age and so on; likewise a group of managers are likely to share the same characteristics.

3.6 The development of Cross-'Cultural' Literature

The interest in cross-cultural studies began around the 1950s and the summary of the reviews around the late 1960s (Nath, 1968; Glaser,

1971, Ajiferuke and Roddewyn, 1970; Roberts, 1970; Negandhi, 1974) concluded that the studies and methods of conducting cross-cultural research were few, and that many studies are not well thought out with poor theoretical notions, weak data and unclear conclusions. Negandhi's review in 1974 concluded that 'culture' had an obscure identity and agreed with the other reviewers that there is a need for better approaches (Kraut, 1975), research design, and conceptual definitions of socio-cultural variables and environmental variables.

In 1978, Hofstede reviewed the literature on culture and organization and found that since the 1950s, there were two movements on culture : the "comparative management" school, and the "open systems" and "contingency" theories of organizations school. Comparative management studies veer towards the "convergence theory" and looked for similarities rather than differences. The open systems and contingency organizational theorists were initially more concerned with contextual factors like technology and market uncertainty but, with repeated studies on structure, the influence of culture factor demanded more attention. Both movements suffered from vague notions of "culture" and subsequently, attempts were made to create a general theory of "culture and organization" (Lammers and Hickson, 1979; Hofstede, 1984). The general theory of culture focuses on both similarities and differences between organizations, to be predicted from the theory and it includes those aspects of culture which affect organizational behaviour (Hofstede, 1978).

A more recent review by Negandhi (1986) on "Three decades of cross-cultural management research" briefly examined the basic orientations used in cross-cultural management studies, reviewed some of the empirical studies, identified some of the critical conceptual and theoretical problems in the field and finally argued for the

appropriate linkage of cross-cultural management areas with other social sciences. He found that the interest of scholars from various social disciplines produced three conceptual and methodological approaches: the economic development orientation, the environmental approach and the behavioural approach. The first two approaches are essentially macro approaches; the economic development orientation concentrated on basic trends on managerial development rather than their practices at the firm level. The environmental approach highlighted the impact of the external environmental factors like socio-economic, political, legal and cultural, on management practices and effectiveness (Farmer and Richman, 1964). The behavioural approach focused on culture and attempted to explain behavioural patterns of individuals and groups in organizational settings, concentrating on three aspects: national character, attitudes and perceptions of managers, and prevalent beliefs, value systems and need hierarchies in a given society.

In the review of empirical cross-cultural management studies (McClelland, 1961; Haire, Ghiselli and Porter, 1966; England, 1967; Meade, 1967; Thiagarajan, 1968; Thiagarajan and Bass, 1969; McCann, 1970; Sirota and Greenwood, 1971; Hofstede, 1979), Megandhi (1986) concluded that "There is no one way of doing things".

"There are both similarities and differences among managers around the world. Similarities are explained in terms of industrialization or industrial subculture. Differences are explained in terms of cultural variables. Cultural factors are considered the most important influencing variables."

Megandhi's summary was that the variables and factors lying outside the organizational boundaries are as important as the variables within the organization in understanding organizational practices, behaviour and effectiveness.

In the same review, Negandhi found cross-cultural management studies to have loose links or associations with other disciplines which caused a lack of central focus. He therefore called for a new orientation and focus based on the organization theory area because the discipline itself is interdisciplinary and has borrowed concepts, ideas and methods from sociology, psychology and so on. In addition, he expressed the need for an enlarged focus and rethinking concerning the transfer of management practices in multiple directions instead of just from U.S. to elsewhere.

As mentioned earlier in the section on "Convergence and Divergence Views", the literature has progressed from the "one best way" to a multi-perspective. The development of the literature as summarised by Negandhi (1986) and the more recent empirical studies by Hofstede (1984), Tayeb (1988) and Sorge (1991) support the direction of this study and the concepts in its theoretical framework.

4. 'CHANGE': DEFINITIONS, DEVELOPMENT, APPROACHES AND REVIEW

This section brings in a new 'arm' of literature on 'change', emphasizing a new perspective and discussing the definitions, development, approaches and reviews within its literature.

4.1 Definition of "Change"

An appropriate starting point for this 'arm' of literature on 'change' would be some explanation about the word "change". "Change" has varied meanings; it would be easy to fall into an assumed understanding for the word "change" or adopt a limiting view of change in the work. What is common in all the definitions of "change" is 'to make different'. Goodman and Kurke's definition (p. 2, 1982) that "Change is the

alteration of one state to another" was adopted for this study. This is because their general view of change includes unplanned change and processes of changes which may occur randomly, evolutionary, through adaption or other mechanisms, which is not limiting in its scope for the study.

4.2 Definition of Planned Change

The study of "change" began with "planned change", which resulted in most of the organization change and development literature being based on planned change and adaptation.

"Planned change refers to a set of activities and process designed to change individuals, groups, and organization structure and process"
(Goodman and Kurke, 1982, p. 4).

Some authors use 'planned change' as a generic term for 'any' deliberate effort at changing. Others prefer to use the term more restrictively. The commonality in the definitions is that there is deliberation involved (p. 60-61, Bennis, Benne and Chin, 1970). Kahn (1974) postulated that the different definitions of Organization Development (OD) reflected a series of preferred approaches in selecting different techniques, targets, and processes for creating planned change (Pettigrew, 1985).

Adaptation is concerned with modification of an organization or its parts to fit or to be adjusted with its environment. The distinction between them is arbitrary and the two concepts are not independent. The planned change literature focuses on the process of creating change and is therefore devoted to methods and techniques. The adaptation literature is concerned about the processes of change and it is devoted to theorizing about the change processes or outcomes.

4.3 A Brief History of Planned Change

According to Benne, Bennis and Chin (1970), the history of planned change began in America in 1900 when the ideas and issues of planning and shaping the future in the field of social sciences were first raised together with the relationship between social science and social action. In the first part of the twentieth century, behavioural scientists' initial interest involved helping the new professions like psychiatry, social work, counselling, management and consultation in industrial and public management to take shape; there was also interest in applied research. By the 1950s, it became widely accepted that there is a need for planning continuing social changes; this moved planned change from an ideological form, for example, democracy, communism and fascism, to a technical form, for example, how to plan, in particular, isolated social settings, rather than on the more fundamental questions of who should be involved in processes of planning and of what overarching values and purposes, processes of planning should serve. It was the effects of the American experience in the 1960s of liberation movements and the Vietnam War that exposed the need for agents of planned change to take issues at the human survival level; in other words, link change with human survival.

4.4 Organization Development (OD) and the Management of Change

Section 4.3 above explained the development of the literature on planned change in the 1950s and its close links with organization behaviour theory and OD theory (Friedlander and Brown, 1974). This section distinguishes OD and the management of change. OD emerged in response to the demands of a changing environment and to the knowledge from the applied behavioural sciences; for example, group decision-making and participation for ownership of change via T-groups and

sensitivity training. The literature on the management of change is a recognition of the challenges upon the organizations from within and without, as well as a need to manage changes in its resources and relationships with the environment via social, technical, economic and other sub-systems (Harman, 1972; Katz and Georgopoulos, 1972; Friedlander and Brown, 1974).

There are similarities and overlaps in OD and the management of change but the main difference is in their focus. OD is concerned with method for facilitating change and development in people (eg. styles, values, skills), in technology (eg. greater simplicity, complexity), and in organizational processes and structures (eg. relationships, roles). The management of change is concerned with the content, context and process of change (Pettigrew, 1990a).

4.5 Difficulties in the Development of the Change Literature

The impotence of research in creating practical theory and contributing to improved practice in the change literature may be firstly, because of the lack of cooperation and appreciation of research; secondly, the lack of relevance and applicability of research to the organization (Friedlander and Brown, 1974); thirdly, the limiting view of "change".

4.5.1 Lack of cooperation

The traditional segregation and conflict between theory and practice which persists despite the widespread breaching of the segregation (p.12, Bennis, Benne, Chln and Corey, 1976) is common for most applied behavioural sciences. The result is that research and theory on OD follow practice and there are no clear trends in the theoretical

elaborations of change. This may reflect either the difficulties of doing research on OD or the impotence of research in creating practical theory and contributing to improved practice.

4.5.2 Lack of appreciation of research

The difficulties of doing research on OD may be a reflection of the interwoven nature of the processes and issues that surround the subject of organizational change and development, and strategic change, and the need to appreciate these interconnections. Research on organizations presents a host of difficulties because organizations are complex systems and they have many variables that combine in intricate interactions. The researcher has to cope with size, complexity, responses to events, attitudes toward the research from the boss and respondents, and if comparisons are involved, the task may be difficult and the costs involved, high.

4.5.3 Lack of relevance and applicability of the research

The subject of managing change has been largely 'practice-based' and influenced by organizational consultants and popular management literature. Most of its literature concentrates on answering what needs to be changed that is, the diagnosis; and at the same time answering the question of how change is achieved, in other words, changes of the organization as a whole, to cope with the environment's new challenges and changes in behavioral patterns at the individuals' level for organization adaptation (Greiner and Barnes, 1970).

The divergence between research-theory perspectives and action-change perspectives or the researcher's descriptive stance, required for understanding the problem which may contradict the consultant's

prescriptive stance, required for developing the problem is a strong cause for the lack of mention of any development of new theories of change (Friedlander and Brown, 1974).

4.5.4 The limiting view of "change"

What has been a difficulty in the literature has to do with

"the tendency to regard the change project as the unit of analysis, and change itself either as a single event or a set of discrete episodes somehow or other separate from the immediate or more distant context which gave those events form, meaning, and substance. The impression is created in this view of change that each change has a particular beginning and a finite ending apart from the more generalized processes around it" (p.23, Pettigrew, 1985a)

which is limiting.

4.6 A Summary of Conclusions from Different Reviews on Organization Development and Organization Change Literature

A review by Friedlander and Brown (1974) described OD in terms of planned change and found the human-processual and technostructural aspects of the organization reasonably effective beginnings for organization change. But they also pointed out the need for greater depth in OD, exploring various technologies, different sorts of change-agent relationships, and alternative values currently emerging in our society. While they see the future of OD as dependent in part on its practice, theory and research, their view is that at the practical level, OD should not be simply an avenue for diagnosing and solving problems. Their central concern is the lack of general theory of planned change and they see the need to produce a theory of change which emerges from the change process itself rather than from an uninvolved and distant role.

Tushman's (1974) review on organizational change literature took "The Dynamics of Planned Change" by Lippitt, Watson and Westley in 1958 as the foundational literature because they attempted to develop a general theory of change out of their notion of "planned change". Tushman found that the early literature by Lippitt et al. focussed on the process of change over time like the three-steps of Lewin's model, but not on "change". Tushman felt that the early efforts did not answer the critical question of how the change is to be accomplished. He found that the literature on change can be roughly divided into two areas. The "structural" approach is based on the work of Arensberg, Chapple, Sayles and Whyte, and the "people" approach is based on Leavitt, Maslow and Argyris. Although both approaches produced a number of tools, they have produced few systematic studies. Tushman concluded that both approaches have their sociological and psychological biases, and that it is too simplistic to have an either-or approach to change. He argued for an interdisciplinary approach to change which is more comprehensive and combined structural and behavioural aspects of change. He held the view that the "open-systems" theory (Trist and Bamforth, 1951; Emery and Trist, 1965; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Thompson, 1967; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) and the "role" theory (Weick, 1979; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Taylor, 1990) have direct implications for the study of organizational change.

Goodman and Kurke's (1982) review noted that the different approaches of the change process have some heuristic value but it does not produce a coherent theory about change. How each analyst or consultant makes of his or her approach brings so much variation in approaches in its literature. This probably impedes its theoretical development. Despite the number of consultants or OD practitioners in this field, the overall literature on contingent forms of organization diagnosis (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1969), theories of change (Alderfer, 1976), and

strategies for building and managing consultant groups (Pettigrew, 1975a) is still not abundant. The lack of theory is because of a variety of reasons. The main reason is the lack of link between theory and practice. The researchers and the practitioners limit literature development because they adopt limited frames of reference, methodologies, approach and view of "change". The different focus of the practitioners and the researchers also makes theory building difficult. Overall, Goodman and Kurke felt that the conceptualizing of the change processes seems more fruitful because of a more coherent set of concepts through which to understand change and improve the testing of theories about the change process.

Pettigrew (1985a), in chapter 1 of his book on ICJ, reviewed the limitations of the literature on organizational change and development and strategic change. His conclusion is in the same direction as the other reviewers above, in that, there has been limited frames of reference and methodologies and approaches to the study of change, and that theory and practice have not been well connected. He found that the lack in theory of change was because the attempts at theoretical development are few, highly focussed kinds of conceptualisation and very limited empirical findings. The problems with the literature development are as set out in sections 4.5.1 to 4.5.4. His view is that the study of organizational change is at the stage where

"theory and knowledge is required principally to understand the dynamics of changing in alternative contexts using a framework of analysis which can incorporate different levels of analysis with varying degrees of explanatory immediacy and distance from the change process under examination" (p.25, Pettigrew, 1985a).

He highlighted the need for a proper exploration of the relationship and interplay between the content of change, the context of change, and the process of managing it, examining how and why changes occur in different organizational

cultures and political systems, under different socioeconomic and business conditions, through time.

4.7 Approaches to Change

Whatever the target of change, Blake and Mouton (p.47, 1976) expressed the need for understanding the complexities of change in this way:

"The history of society and its capacity to identify and grapple with complex and interrelated problems of the physical environment, new technologies, and community development is significantly linked with the production and use of principles, theories and models for understanding, predicting and therefore, managing natural and human environments".

An organization includes people, technology, and process/structure, set in the context of its environment. The interaction of these components and its management to achieve human and task objectives is complex; it is unlikely that there is one best way or approach to planned change (Grainer and Barnes, 1970).

A major approach to change is the 'structural' approach but its application was found to be limited to certain kinds of organizations. The other major approach is what Leavitt calls the 'people' approach. Both approaches were criticized as being too simplistic with sociological and psychological biases, as well as conditional success (Tushman, 1974). The work from the Tavistock Institute (Trist and Bamforth, 1951; Rice, 1958) exposed problems with the structural approach and indicated the need for both technical and social factors to be considered. The literature progressed from other studies (Taylor, 1971; Huse and Bear, 1971) towards a more comprehensive, general approach which includes structural and behavioural interventions, and the environment. The closed-system perspective which is deterministic and excludes dependency on the environment, was abandoned for an 'open-system' approach which took in

the exchanges with the environment (Thompson, 1967; Katz and Kahn, 1966). The increasing recognition of change in different organizational cultures and political systems, different socioeconomic and business conditions, through time, pushed the 'change' literature onto a strategic level, beyond the contingency theory which emphasized links with the environment, structure requirements, behaviour or change (Pettigrew, 1985a).

4.7.1 The structural approach

The structural school of thought has its roots in scientific management and administrative science movements initiated by Taylor who focussed on the workshop level and Fayol, on the upper-level administration. In the context of change, structuralists believe that when the structure is changed, attitudes and performance will follow (Lawrence, 1958; Blau, 1955; Chapple and Sayles, 1961; Mouzelis, 1967). They see the levers of adjustment and change to be role definitions, role relationships and role behaviour. Their assumption is that individuals, as role occupants, are considered constant, and tied to and defined by patterned activities within their organization.

4.7.2 The people approach

The people approach was a counter perspective to the structural approach which gave understanding of the 'human factor' in work situations. The 'founding father' of the human-relations movement was Mayo (1990) who emphasized that workers must be understood first as people if they are to be understood as organization workers. In the context of change, the people approach believes that attempts to change organizations should begin with influencing attitudes, values and norms, and that structure is believed to follow (Greiner, 1967;

Blake and Mouton, 1964; Maslow, 1965; Barnes, 1967). They see 'people' as the primary lever of change despite their awareness of technological and structural constraints.

Friedlander and Brown (1974) saw the "convergence" of the techno-structural approach and human-processual approach at the interface of the organization process and structure, which helps to deal with the complexity of the change and OD literature.

4.7.3 The open-systems approach

As explained above in section 4.7, the limitations in the structural approach and the people approach, and the need to include both technological requirements and environmental constraints (Rosangren, 1985) in organizational change (Parrow, 1970) moved the literature on change onto the open-systems approach. The concern with organization environments and its changes is because of implications for its goals; for example, law revisions and change in the political situation. Emery and Trist (1965), Katz and Kahn (1966), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) and Thompson (1967) have contributed to the early literature on the open-systems approach.

4.7.4 Strategic management of change

The early literature on change has been criticized for its ahistorical, acontextual and aprocessual treatment (Pettigrew, 1985). The incorporation of the environment into the organizational change literature (Woodward, 1965; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1974; Aldrich and Pfeffer, 1976; Maick, 1976; Scott, 1981; Rosangren, 1984) with elementary notions of inputs, throughputs and outputs of the open-systems (Katz and Kahn, 1966), progressed with the work of Pfeffer and

Salancik (1974), Aldrich and Pfeffer (1976), Aldrich (1979) and Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) with their highly contextualist orientation of the organization-environment relationships. The work of Klein (1976) and Warrington, Lupton and Gribbin (1977) also increased the awareness for the political and cultural systems of the organizations. The work on processual approach were from Zeltman (1973) and Warrington et al. (1977). A paper by Greiner (1967) emphasized the importance of historical analysis. These researchers conceptually and practically acknowledge the role of social, economic, political, and historical factors, in facilitating and constraining change at the organizational level.

The recognition of the complexities with the dynamic variables of the process, content and context of change (Pettigrew, 1985a) that need managing, moved the literature on change onto a strategic level. The skillful manager must develop a change strategy which seeks a pragmatic "fit" between the elements of people, organization, task and the environment for his particular organization. Not only do these elements take on a different configuration from one organization to the next, but they vary from one time period to another in the same organization; in other words,

"Change and continuity, process and structure, are
inextricably linked"
(Friedlander and Brown, 1974; Pettigrew, 1985a).

Strategic change refers to non-routine, non-incremental, and discontinuous change which alters the overall orientation of the organization and/or components of the organizations (p. 17, Tichy, 1983). Strategic change became necessary because problems, crises and/or opportunities emerging in areas like the environment, diversification, technology and people. Increasing competition, foreign and local, and changes in the economy for example, inflation,

employment legislation, energy costs, resources and the like, are environmental forces for change. The diversification of a business into new areas of business generally requires a strategic change. Rapid shifts in technology impose new data and behaviour requirements on organizations. Types of people entering or already present in the organization may change in terms of education, expectations, or status. In brief, strategic change converges the content of change and the process of change with the aim of dealing with the complexities of organizational change.

Approaches to the strategic management of change by writers like Tichy (1983) recognises strategic management as a complex and dynamic task of making adjustments to resolve the three basic dilemmas which spring from the technical, political and cultural strand. Quinn (1980) approaches strategic change by the concept of logical incrementalism, viewing strategic change as a step-by-step evolutionary process for management to work through purposefully. He sees precipitating events like a crisis, moving an organization in a particular change. The literature on diagnosing strategic change naturally progresses onto formulating strategy with particular focus on process and content of change, implementing strategic changes and monitoring change (Beckhard, 1969; Tichy, 1983; Penninge and Associates, 1985; Pettigraw, 1988).

The strategic management of change is not central to the study but it is an essential background to the development and progress of the change literature.

4.8 Change Process Models

The preceding sections have demonstrated that organization change is complex and that there is a variety of forces usually at work, together with many unanticipated problems. Since the study is about the responses of managers to change, this section on change process models is pertinent to the study. According to Goodman and Kurke, the conceptualizing of the change processes is relatively more fruitful because of a more coherent set of concepts through which to understand change and improve the testing of theories about the change process. The greater attention on process models is probably linked with the 'practice' approaches, and the deliberate efforts to improve systems and help the change agent make changes. The literature on organization change has developed models of change process about the various types of change processes; for example, processes of choice (March and Olsen, 1976; Weick, 1976), decision-making processes (March and Simon, 1958), power processes (Greiner, 1967), political processes (Cyert and March, 1963; Pettigrew, 1973) and cultural processes (Klein, 1976; Warmington et al., 1977).

According to Pettigrew (p. 267, 1990b), the process of change refers

"to the actions, reactions, and interactions from the various interested parties as they seek to move the firm from its present to its future state".

Since the study focuses on the forces which facilitate and hinder the change process, change process model is central to the study. Each of the models has its particular orientation and emphasis as indicated above. The sections to follow will explain the principles of three different change process models and their relevance to the research: Greiner's model, Lewin's model and Pettigrew's model.

4.8.1 Greiner's model

Greiner (1967) sought to identify the conditions that distinguished successful from less successful change efforts. He found that the successful process of change almost invariably hinges on two key factors: a distribution of power within the organization such that traditional decision-making practices move towards the greater use of shared power; and such power distribution within the structure of an organization occurs through a developmental process of change.

Greiner identified six phases common to successful change efforts. In phase 1, the process begins with externally or internally stimulated pressure on top management for arousal to take action; this does not ensure a proper response. In phase 2, there is intervention by an expert, an outsider, which encourages top management to re-evaluate their past practices for possible causes of internal problems. In phase 3, the expert involves lower levels of management in the diagnosis and recognition of specific organizational problems; hence the shared power approach. The less successful change experiences are generally typified by unilateral or delegated power. In phase 4, the expert still involves all management levels and solutions, capable of sustaining high commitment, are found based on shared power. In phase 5, experimentation and testing follows with search for results on a shared power basis. In the final phase, there is reinforcement from positive results and the acceptance of new practices.

This research studies in depth the role of communication, commitment and power. Since Greiner's model captures the role of power in terms of participation, communication, information and decisions made which affect organizational members, the model is a useful way of

understanding why change is not successful or why there is high or low commitment responses generated in the change process.

4.6.2 Lewin's model

Lewin's (1947) model is based on the idea that

"changes in organizations are precipitated by changes in the magnitude, direction, or absolute number of factors that encourage and facilitate change (driving force), by changes in the magnitude, direction, or number of factors that oppose change (restraining forces), or both" (p.371, 1982).

Lewin was the earliest pioneer in identifying three phases of the process of change: unfreezing, changing and refreezing. The unfreezing step involves reducing those forces maintaining the organization's behaviour at its present level. Unfreezing is sometimes accomplished by introducing information that show discrepancies between behaviours desired by organizational members and those behaviours they currently exhibit. The changing or moving step shifts the behaviour of the organization or department to a new level. It involves developing new behaviours, values, and attitudes through changes in organizational structures and processes. The refreezing step stabilizes the organization at a new state of equilibrium. It is frequently accomplished through supporting mechanisms that reinforce the new organizational state, such as organizational culture, norms, policies, and structures (p.47, Cummings and Huse, 1989).

Lewin's model is of particular interest to the study because it is a useful model for crystallizing the aims of the research to study those driving forces for and against change in managers. To understand what pushes the change in a particular direction, requires the investigation of the opposing forces conceptualized in Lewin's model

for what is helpful in moving say, managers in the direction of the change and what is difficult for managers.

4.8.3 Pettigrew's model

Pettigrew's model on change utilises a three point framework for analysis: the 'context' of change, the 'content' of change and the 'process' of change, and a continuous interplay of the three. His model also has application for strategic decision-making. According to Pettigrew (p.267, 1990a),

"Outer context refers to social, economic, political and competitive environment in which the firm operates. Inner context refers to the structure, corporate culture and political context within the firm through which ideas for change have to proceed." "Content refers to the particular areas of change under examination." "The process of change refers to the actions, reactions, and interactions from the various interested parties as they seek to move the firm from its present to its future state."

4.9 Discussion on the Three Models

What is common in all three models are firstly, the move is towards the future state; and secondly, the development involved in moving towards that state. For example, the "move towards the future state", in Lewin's terms involved finding the new state of equilibrium for the driving forces and opposing forces in the change; in Greiner's model, the future state involves forces of power reaching a new equilibrium of redistributed and shared power; Pettigrew's model is general and the future state is not drawn in specific terms. The development phase towards the future state for the models involves for example, developing commitment or, behaviours, values and attitudes in structures and processes to support the new state.

Jackson and Morgan (1982) have pointed out that most of the literature on forces in change tend to concentrate on 'restraining forces' in change or resistance to change because the management of those forces has implications for the direction and success or failure of the change process. While the understanding of those forces is an important source of information for management, it should be reiterated that the aim of the study is not only to examine opposing forces, or forces in general, but also to study in depth the role of power, communication and commitment in the change process.

5. MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE ACROSS CULTURES

Having discussed the two 'arms' of literature on 'culture' and 'change', this last section will concentrate on the 'change' literature in the cross-national context. This section will discuss the current trends and interest in the literature on managing change across cultures; report on a literature survey of the subject of managing change in different cultures; summarize cross-national articles on 'organizational change' from major journals and periodicals between 1980 to 1989; and examine the implications of recent 'organizational change' literature across cultures for the research.

5.1 A Summary of Reviews on the Current Trends and Interest in the Management of Change Across Cultures

Adlar (1983) reviewed the trends in cross-cultural management papers published in 24 journals during the decade, 1971 to 1980 and found that less than 5 percent of organizational behaviour articles published in top American journals focussed on cross-cultural issues. The majority of the cross-cultural articles were single culture

studies and less than 1 percent investigated interactions between employees of different cultures. Her survey demonstrated that corporate activity has internationalized faster than the publishing of articles in American management journals. She concluded that growing internationalism demands the diversity of a global perspective or else the "ostrich in the sand" syndrome appears. She also noted that recent work focuses on the impacts of culture on the behaviour of people within work systems (Laurent, 1979; Hofstede, 1980; Child, 1981).

An independent review by Roberts and Boyacigiller (1983) in the same year, surveyed fifty cross-national researchers with regard to what they assessed to be popular topics of cross-national and single nation research and what topics they felt could benefit from a cross-national organizational research perspective. The top four 'hot topics' were organizational design and structure, values and attitudes, the environment (including systems) and management and leadership in descending order. This is probably because the companies that 'go international' are more interested in personnel issues than any other topics. It was surprising that decision-making was not so emphasized despite the fact that it was a topic emanating from Great Britain and Western Europe's cross-national investigations. The top four topics that the respondents felt could benefit from a cross-national organizational research perspective were again organizational design and structure, the environment (including systems), the impact of culture and motivation in descending order.

These findings are probably because as organizations grow and disperse geographically, personnel issues must increasingly become more important. In conclusion, Roberts and Boyacigiller speculated that the five emerging trends must involve addressing subcultural issues which in the long run will contribute to the field, the trend towards using

multinational research teams and employing advanced communication technology, development of models that require multinational and multidisciplinary research teams, more research on human or organizational implications of robotics in other cultural settings and the increased service industries with its implications on cross-national research.

These reviews have independently confirmed the direction of the research to pursue personnel issues across national cultures with growing internationalism. A search of popular literature such as The Economist, The Harvard Business Review also demonstrated editorial interest in managerial performance (Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1983).

5.2 A Literature Survey on the Management of Change Across National Cultures

In general, the literature survey on cross-cultural and cross-national studies show that there are some comparative studies within the proximity of the United States of America, UK and Europe; the Middle Eastern and Asian countries. The gaps in knowledge are across a much wider cultural span with the exception of Japan and the West.

A computer literature search was made at the Warwick University Library on 17 October 1988, on the subject of "comparative organization change" regardless of the countries of their happening. The search utilized a database of journals and dissertations going back some 10 to 15 years. The database is a USA compilation of journals, dissertations and theses from 1974 or earlier to date. The computer files involved were as follows:

- ABI/INFORM (from 1971 to date)
- Management Contents (from 1974)
- Dissertation abstracts online (from 1974)

The search listed 43 comparative studies on organization change, of which only 2 journal articles relate to cross-national studies of any kind. The others were inter- or intra-organization comparisons within the same nation. There were also articles which compared approaches to cross-cultural studies, transferability of skills and methods to other nations.

The article by Arnold (1988) listed from the computer search compared executive reorganizations which ensued because of reforms in the US and the UK which took place within the same decade. The conclusion was that administrative reorganizations assume a political role defined by the authority and governance relations specific to a political regime. The second article was by Cole (1985) and it was a comparative analysis of the institutionalization of small-group activities over the last 2 decades in Japan, Sweden and the US. It highlights the macropolitical processes that have led to different results and used macropolitical processes to explain microprocesses in the organizations.

A similar computer search was also carried out on 17 February 1989 in Singapore which accesses a database called PERIND. PERIND is a periodical index to articles concerning Singapore, Brunei, Malaysia and Asean nations. The search for articles on the 'management of change' subject yielded one study. That study was on managerial adaptation to environment change in the coffee shop industry in Singapore. Their particular focus was on small business management in Singapore. The second computer search for cross-cultural studies from

the same database yielded four cross-cultural comparative studies. Their focus was on psychological and social environment issues such as drugs, death anxiety, birth and fertility, and cognitive development and languages. None of the studies in the second search were carried out in Singapore.

A systematic manual search was also undertaken to specifically draw out cross-cultural and cross-national studies on the 'management of change' subject which appeared in the major English and American journals such as Organization Dynamics, Organization Studies, Journal of Management Studies, Academy of Management Journal, The Academy of Management Review, Administrative Science Quarterly and Harvard Business Review. The search covered a period of 10 years retrospectively from the middle of 1989 but none were found on the subject of managing change across cultures.

Roberts and Boyacigiller's (1983) survey of popular topics for cross-national research and both the computer and manual searches have suggested that there is no work done on the subject of 'managing of change' in different national cultures. While there is interest and work done on management, attitudes and personnel issues, the cross-national perspective has not been given to the subject of managing change.

It is apparent from the literature searches that this study is a pioneering exercise because there is very little literature that looks at "the management of change" subject from a cross-national perspective. The literature reviews (Adler, 1983; Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1983) have confirmed the lack of studies and they also point to personnel issues as one of the "hot topics" of interest.

5.3 A Summary of Articles on 'Organizational Change' Across Cultures
from Major Journals and Periodicals between 1980 to 1989

The number of articles from major journals and periodicals that had any relevance to the topic of research are few and the following paragraphs chronologically summarizes the current work on the subject of comparative organizational change across cultures within the last decade.

Hannan and Freeman's (1984) paper attempted to clarify the meaning of structural inertia and derived propositions about structural inertia from an explicit evolutionary model. It considered how the strength of inertial forces varies with age, size and complexity at the organizational level.

A subsequent article by Cole (1985) looked at the macropolitics of organizational change in small-group activities over the two decades in Japan, Sweden and the United States. His study focuses on movements involving the interplay between management and labour, managerial responses to perceived problems and mobilization for change through organized infrastructures. In his conclusion, he accepted the limitations of macropolitics in explaining the way factories and enterprises are organized; but his main aim was to understand why small-group activities develop differently in the three different countries. Although Cole's work compares the development of small group activities, their effect on organizations and in three different cultures, his focus is on their overall movements and his interest is not on the change process for individuals.

Flynn's article (1985) compared innovation across different countries and identified contributing and inhibiting factors that affect the

process of innovation within organizations in Japan and US. His conclusion is that innovation at the idea generation stage is scientific and acultural, but the tasks of adoption and organization are affected by culture. He acknowledges both cultural and acultural influences on innovation in organisations in the countries of his study and explains how, for example, Japan's success has been the product of a complex set of cultural, socio-political and other factors.

Feldman (1986), in his article, examined the relevance of organizational culture to understanding organizational change. He assumed that culture is a causal factor in organizational change and should be controlled by the management of symbols. He concluded from his study of a telephone company that organizational culture is a source of change rather than an obstacle to change. He saw the implementation of organization change as always originating, positively or negatively, in the organizational culture. He felt that the literature on 'culture change' has been misdirected and that it is not changes in the culture that will help organizations change more effectively, but changes in behaviour.

Kenny, Morgan and Hinings' (1986) paper was on the reaction of two interest groups in the light of anticipated change to the Australian Services Canteen Organization (ASCO). Their purpose was to explore the values, interests, issue clarity, legitimate action and power of the groups employed at ASCO.

Kedia and Bhagat's (1986) recent article is concerned about the cultural constraints on transfer of technology across nations. They pointed out the general over emphasis on economic factors in transfer of technology in international management, and the lack of recognition

of the constraining influences of cultural factors involved in such transactions. Their conclusion is that cultural variations across nations, the strategic management issues and the organizational culture-based differences between organizations are major factors that influence the success of technology transfer. In terms related to this study, Kedia and Bhagat found that culture affects receptiveness to technology transfer.

Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) in a paper on "Human resource management: An agenda for the 1990s", pointed out themes related to approach, strategy and structure for enterprises of various sizes for future research. They used the concepts of 'inner context', 'outer context', 'content' and 'process' of change, to analyse strategic change and human resource management. They point to the importance of a firm's adaptability or responsiveness to change as well as an international approach to human resource management.

Sorge (1991) in his article on 'Strategic fit and societal effect: Interpreting cross-national comparisons of technology, organization and human resources', reflected on the underlying factors influencing competitive advantage in national sectors or industries, with a proposal on how theoretical approaches can be conceived in relation to others. As mentioned in the section on "cross-national perspective", the survival and success of organization forms and human resource profiles in firms and sectors, requires a "goodness-of-fit" in societal terms and the ability to reconcile conflicting contingencies. The matter of strategic fit for the organization and societal effect, even national-societal impact, affects innovation and change of business strategy, organization and human resources patterns.

2.4 Implications of the Recent Comparative 'Organizational Change'

Literature for the Research

The studies in single nation settings like Hannan and Freeman (1984), Feldman (1986) and Kenny et al. (1986) have some relevance to this study in so far as they do demonstrate some of the current areas of interest in organizational change. But, more central to the study, are articles by Flynn (1985), Kedia and Bhagat (1988) and Sorge (1991) because they demonstrate the importance and impact of culture, in particular, national-societal culture, on organizations' adaptability and receptiveness. In other words, the wider societal culture and societal arrangements have an important impact on organizations and their competitive advantage; a mis-match in responses from the organizations would affect its ability to survive and compete.

What has emerged from the studies by Kedia and Bhagat (1988), Hendry and Pettigrew (1990), and Sorge (1991) is the importance of human resource receptiveness and adaptability as a key to international competitiveness; they have also recognized the effect of national-societal culture on receptiveness and adaptability. Even though Flynn's (1985) conclusion is that idea generation is scientific and acultural, nonetheless his conclusion also acknowledges that culture affects the tasks of adoption and organization. Flynn's study is an important example which shows cultural and acultural findings. These studies do reinforce the view that national-societal culture is important and has its effects on change. A separate study by Feldman (1986) concluded that the key to helping organizations to change is more than changing the organisational culture; he suggested that changes in behaviour are the key to organizational changes. The important implications from these articles for this study revolve around the dual aspects of 'culture' and its impact, and 'people' and

their ability to respond. The implications from the studies are listed below:

1. People are the key to change; their ability to learn, adapt and change is the key to world competitiveness (Feldman, 1986; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988; Strebels, 1989; Hendry and Pettigraw, 1990).

2. National-societal culture affects adaptability, receptiveness and responsiveness to changes. In technology, business strategy, the environment and international competitiveness (Flynn, 1985; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988; Strebels, 1989; Hendry and Pettigraw, 1990; Sorge, 1991).

The above studies and their implications provide strong confirmation for the direction of this study. In the context of change, Feldman's study has encouraged giving a lesser place to organizational culture as the key to helping organizations change which Hofstede (1986) in his review also supports. The other recent studies confirm the need to focus on people and their responses to change for survival, competitiveness and success. Since there has been no study made to compare managers' responses to change in different countries, this study is a pioneering exercise.

CHAPTER 2

THE RESEARCH LOCATIONS: BRITAIN AND SINGAPORE

This chapter sets out the background of the two research locations and compares their similarities and differences; in particular, their differential economic growth rates. The chapter begins with an explanation of the common world context in which they operate, the interdependency of nations in the world and its application for Singapore and Britain. The chapter will also briefly describe the government, geography, the socio-cultural background of the people of Britain and Singapore, including a discussion on their economic history since the Industrial Revolution. The last part of this chapter portrays the traits, values and attitudes of the Singaporeans and the British.

1. A COMPARISON OF BRITAIN AND SINGAPORE

1.1 The Interdependency of Nations in the World

It was after World War Two that world systems were restructured in response to the vulnerability and interdependency of nations; both Singapore and Britain were involved in the second world war. Post World War Two was therefore, a convenient starting point for describing the development of the interdependency of nations in the world, in particular, its applicability to Singapore and Britain.

Britain developed into a nation-state and Singapore, like many Asian countries, repudiated colonialism to become a nation-state after the Second World War. According to Navari (p.13; 1981),

"a nation-state is commonly defined as a polity of homogeneous people who share the same culture and

the same language, and who are governed by some of their own number, who serve their interests."

The state creates common languages, common education systems, common legal systems, national bureaucracies and national armies; these socialize people from different regions and classes. In time these conditions of adequacy as a nation-state were largely superseded by the principle of self-determination (Smith, 1981; Tinker, 1981). Singapore and Britain became nation-states for different reasons.

After World War Two, nations were aware of their vulnerability and dependency on USA for military, economic and financial support. 'Superpowers' emerged as chief arbiters of international affairs (Vadney, 1987) and their world-wide strategic interests drew other states into the network of their alliances and interests, and multilateral defence commitments. The nation-state concept became obsolete because the interdependence of trade and national economies made it difficult for any state to control its own economic system. It was clear that nations could not exist in isolation and that their boundaries were permeable to world circumstances (Kolinsky, 1981). Restructuring of world systems resulted in the establishment of a host of formal organizations at the supranational level to promote economic and political cooperation (Smith, 1981).

Although both nation-states had different experiences of self-government, the influence or roles of the superpowers and supranationals are equally applicable to both Singapore and Britain. The role of the World Bank and the IMF (International Monetary Fund) as international regulatory bodies affects their free trade and the management of their currency arrangements (Miller, 1981). The formation of the United Nations is a symbol of the interdependence of nations, and its formation is based on the formal insistence on

sovereign equality (Wallerstein, 1984), the Non-Aligned Movement and GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade)

The vulnerability of the two nations has been expressed in their interdependence with other nations via protectionist measures, cooperative measures and joint defence systems. In January 1973, Britain joined the EEC (European Economic Community) and Singapore joined the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) trading block in 1967 (Jenkins, 1963). In order to maintain peaceful coexistence for Singapore and her region, Singapore became a part of the Five Power Defence Arrangements (FPDA) with Malaysia, Britain, Australia and New Zealand and the Integrated Air Defence System (IADS) which is operational in the Asian region (Lee, 20 July 1988); likewise the formation of NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) as a protective body in 1949 is the western equivalent (Miller, 1981).

1.2 The Government of Britain and Singapore

Britain was one of the world's great powers and her institutions, political machinery and legal system have been most widely copied in other countries like Singapore, Kenya, Australia, New Zealand, India and so on. The Singapore Parliament is a replica of the Westminster model without the House of Lords. As in Britain, the Prime Minister is the head of the Cabinet. Both countries share the same principles of parliamentary democracy, that is, the sovereignty of parliament and the rule of law; general elections are normally held every five years. Singapore inherited its legal system from the common law tradition. She is recognised as a republic within the Commonwealth whereas Britain is a constitutional monarchy. The leaders of Singapore are the President and the Prime Minister, and the Queen and the Prime Minister are Britain's equivalent leaders (Directorate of Intelligence

of the Central Intelligence Agency, 1988; Ministry of Communications and Information, 1990).

1.3 The Geography of Britain and Singapore

Singapore consists of the island of Singapore and some 58 islets within its territorial waters. The total land area, including the islets, is 626.4 square kilometres : 49% built-up areas, 2% farm holding areas, 5% forest, 3% marsh and tidal waste, and 41% others, non-built up areas like public gardens and inland waters. The climate is tropical with relatively uniform temperature of 26.6 degrees Centigrade, high humidity and abundant rainfall. Thunderstorms are frequent during the inter-monsoon months of April-May and October-November. Singapore has no natural resources except her strategic location; she is the focal point for Southeast Asian sea routes. Her only other resource is her people (Ministry of Communications and Information, 1990; Lee, 11 July 1988).

Britain comprises Great Britain (England, Wales and Scotland) and Northern Ireland. The total land area is 242,400 square kilometres (Central Office of Information, 1991) : 29% arable land, 48% meadow and pastures, 9% forest and woodland, 14% others. The climate is generally mild and temperate, moderated by prevailing southwest winds across the Atlantic. More than half of the days are overcast. Britain's temperature ranges between 32 to -10 degrees Centigrade. The natural resources in UK are coal, crude oil, natural chalk, gypsum, lead and silica (Central Office of Information, 1991).

Both countries have similar island geography with strategic locations on main waterways. Singapore's geography has been the cause of its development as a port city from the colonial days. Her central

position in the Southeast Asia and its strategic location between the Middle East and the growing Japanese economy, drew the oil MNCs. Singapore is now the world's third largest refining centre after Houston and Rotterdam with 1.3% of world refining capacity. Britain has about 80 ports of commercial significance and in addition, there are many small harbours which handle small amounts of cargo or serve fishing or recreational interests. London is one of her principal ports which has made Britain an important port of call to Europe and to the countries east or west of her. Both Singapore and London are major ports and also numbered among the busiest international airports in the world.

1.4 The People of Britain and Singapore

Singapore is a multi-racial country with a composition of 76% Chinese, 15% Malays, 7% Indians and 2% Eurasians and others (Lee, 1989). She has a population of around 2.7 million in July 1989. The majority of the Chinese are Buddhists or atheists and the Malays are nearly all Muslims. The minorities are Christians, Hindus, Sikhs, Taoists and Confucianists. English is the language of administration and Malay is the national language. The other official languages are Chinese (Mandarin) and Tamil. The other Chinese dialects found in Singapore are Hokkien, Teochew, Hakka, Hainanese and Foochow. Among the Indians, the other languages spoken are Telegu, Malayalam, Punjabi, Hindi and Bengali (Ministry of Communications and Information, 1990). The general literacy rate in Singapore, defined as the number of literate persons for every 100 persons aged ten years and over, was estimated to be 87.6 per cent in 1989. The distribution of its 1.24 million labour force is 26.5% manufacturing, 22.9% commerce, 9.7% transport/communications, 9.0% finance/business services, 6.7% construction, 23.2% others (p. 46, Ooi, 1989).

Britain has a population of nearly 57 million in 1989. 81.5% of the population are English, 9.6% Scottish, 2.4% Irish, 1.9% Welsh, 1.8% Ulster, 2.8% West Indian, Indian, Pakistani and other. According to the registered figures, there are 27 million Anglicans, 5.3 million Roman Catholic, 2 million Presbyterian, 760,000 Methodist, 450,000 Jewish. English is the main language spoken although 26% of the population in Wales speak Welsh, and 60,000 in Scotland speak the Scottish form of Gaelic. The distribution of its 27.91 million labour force is 51.9% services, 23.7% manufacturing and construction, 9.8% self-employed, 4% government, 1.1% agriculture, 10.3% unemployed (Central Office of Information, 1991).

Britain has a higher literacy rate than Singapore, that is 99% compared with 87.6%. The 1988 Demographic Yearbook indicated Britain's (8.8%) infant mortality rate to be slightly higher than Singapore (7%). There is little difference in life expectancy in the two nations : 70 (Singapore) and 72 (Britain) for men ; 75 (Singapore) and 77 (Britain) for women. The Book of International Lists (1981) ranks Singapore (63%) and Britain (62%) in the upper middle category of an economically active population as a percentage of the total. The economically active population refers to the total population between 15 and 64 years of age. The same source ranks Britain (97%) among the top ten and Singapore (85%) among the upper middle category in terms of physical quality of life index (PQLI). PQLI is a composite index calculated by averaging three indices - life expectancy, infant mortality and literacy. The index is free from many biases and distortions that affect other measures of human progress. The above figures demonstrate Singapore and Britain as modern nations with a relatively high standard of living.

1.5 The Economic History of Britain and Singapore

The history of Singapore is relatively shorter than Britain. The time Sir Stamford Raffles founded Singapore on 29 January 1819 was the beginning of British influence in Singapore and the beginning of her modernization. This same period coincided with the time of the Industrial Revolution in Britain and her modernization was fuelled from her colonies: the increased natural resources, labour, capital and enterprise (Perkin, 1986). The paragraphs to follow explain the different economic starting points of Britain and Singapore, the changes in world economic and market conditions, and its effect on the two countries, and how Britain's past high economic growth was overtaken by a newly industrialized country (NIC) like Singapore.

1.5.1 Britain's economic rise

The world's economic history has demonstrated that the Industrial Revolution gave Britain a lead over others which she held for over 150 years until World War One. Britain's Industrial Revolution was a period of moving Britain's economy into greater productivity. The era was characterized by economic expansion of commerce and a series of changes in technology of certain industries including changes in agriculture, mining and transport; this led Britain into affluence and a social revolution (Perkin, 1986). The political causes at that time also favoured the Industrial Revolution. At its peak, Britain accounted for a third of global trade. The economic power of Britain in the world was derived not only from industrial production, trade, and shipping but also from its immense investments overseas and its services of banking, credit, and insurance.

In 1914, the economic growth of Germany and the United States reduced the importance of Britain and shifted the global economic activity towards the less highly developed areas of the world (Thomson, 1988). These two new economic powers, growing fast, imported less from Britain and challenged Britain's economic supremacy. The close interdependency between the three countries was affected by the shifts in business trends.

1.5.2 Further changes in world economic and market conditions

At the end of World War Two, the Americans dominated the world economy using mass production. The 1944 International Monetary Fund agreement and 1947 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade promoted the US's role to modulate and moderate aberrations in the financial and trading system of the world. Western Europe's subsequent economic recovery, Japan's dramatic growth as an economic power, and the rapid advance of the NICs like Singapore, began to reduce the US's economic lead (Lee, 7 July 1988).

The 1980s saw further changes in the world economic conditions and market demands. The trend among international businesses was to globalize their operations using networks that link worldwide activities. The new trend brought about a global redistribution of manufacturing and service industries and a new international division of labour. The internationalization of most economies, resulted in the massive global expansion in output and international trade. Mirza (p. 84, 86-87, 1988) noted that the change brought about a shift in international division of labour which meant that ex-colonies were not necessarily producing and exporting agricultural goods and raw commodities. Ex-colonies like Singapore and other developing countries

were enabled through technology transfer, diversification and increased skills, to be producers and exporters of manufactured goods.

1.5.3 Britain's economic decline

Even before 1914, there were some signs of Britain's inability to compete. Thomson (p. 23-24, 1988) suggested that her economy was still so strong at the time that it could absorb such weaknesses. According to Broadberry (1988), the start of Britain's downfall was characterized by the narrow range of commodities exported, and a general unresponsiveness and inadaptability to new conditions, ways and methods.

The debate on the issues over a century of Britain's economic decline seemed inconclusive. Some pointed to her anti-business culture (Wiener, 1981; Hannah, 1989) as the cause of her decline; others (Olson, 1982) suggested her weakness was in her not having experienced the upheaval of revolution or defeat in war which dislodges the old entrenched elites and stimulates economic growth. British businesses have also been criticized for their unresponsiveness to exploit new circumstances, new methods and keeping abreast with best practice techniques and work organisation abroad like coal, cotton, motor vehicles, shipbuilding and steel (Kirby, 1977; Porter, 1977; Lawchuk, 1987; Tolliday, 1987). The weaknesses of Britain's capital market have been noted and these were associated with problems of inadequate information and lax requirements for disclosure and auditing. There were also doubts about the quality of British management and its ability to eliminate bad management (Hannah, 1974). Observers from Europe and America suggested a link between the shortcomings of British industrial relations and its economic performance; that is,

the adversarial system of industrial relations, the strike record and general strain and conflict at the workplace (Phelps-Brown, 1986).

The more recent comments questioned the effectiveness of British education (p. 24, Crafts, 1988; p.28, Congdon, 1991) and Britain turning out an under-educated mass of school leavers compared with the Germans or Americans. Congdon's concern is that this disadvantage lasts not only for one year, but for life.

While the foregoing has listed probable causes of Britain's economic decline, some steps have been taken to redress some of those issues, for example, there is greater attention given to management training and development, and there is the import and emulation of Japanese ideas in the field of operations management. The most difficult to change and probably the most important to change, are probably to do with attitudes and values that govern behaviour (Marquand, 1989).

1.5.4 Singapore's economic advance

Singapore's strategic location has given her an advantage during the global restructuring of business. In the mid-nineteenth-century, Singapore became a centre for entrepot trade and ancillary services, linking resource-rich Southeast Asia with the industrialized countries. More recently, Singapore's central position in Southeast Asia and her strategic location between the Middle East and the growing Japanese economy, drew the oil MNCs and MNCs involved in manufacturing and services. She is the only peripheral economy which intermediates across the entire range of manufacturing, financial and other service activities. Her intermediary role is geographical (within ASEAN and the Pacific Community) and industrial (petroleum, shipbuilding and electronics). As a port, Singapore is the top

bunkering port and the busiest in the world in terms of shipping tonnage.

All the NICs have the same features of being right wing with authoritarian regimes, being industrially diversified, having few raw materials and possessing cheap, skilled, responsive work forces whose power is controlled by tight trade union legislation. However, Singapore's competitive advantage over the other NICs is her high level of inducements and incentives, good infrastructure, location, investment climate, political environment and pacific industrial relations. In an article, Lockwood (p.75, 1991) noted the opportunity for Singapore to benefit from the outflow of funds and people from Hongkong, including the opening to take on the role of Southeast Asia's financial capital when Hongkong is returned to China in 1997.

1.5.5 Discussion on Singapore and Britain's differential economic performance

Quiggin's paper in 1987 pointed out Singapore's real growth rate to be twice UK's : 8.6% (Singapore) and 4.3% (UK). Projections in the same year, based on the assumption that the ASEAN nations can continue their current 1970-81 growth rates, estimated that by the year 2131, Singapore would have a per capita GDP nine times as large as that of the OECD nations (which includes UK) and still be growing more than twice as fast (Quiggin, 1987). While these figures are indicative of economic performance, its limitations are also recognised. Nations such as Singapore who were initially worse off, will tend to show a generally higher economic growth than the more mature industrialized countries like Britain and USA (Clegg, Higgins and Spybey, 1988).

The latest figures and estimates in "The World in 1991" (The Economist, 1991) noted the performance of Singapore and Britain's economies to be as follows:

	<u>Singapore</u>	<u>Britain</u>
GDP (Gross Domestic Product)	\$67.6 billion	£518 billion
GDP growth	7% (1990) 5.3% (1991)	1.5% (1990) 1.5% (1991)
Inflation	4% (1990) 4.3% (1991)	9.3% (1990) 6.4% (1991)

Note: 1991 figures are forecasted.

Singapore's GDP growth is about seven times Britain's growth and they are also twice as successful in controlling inflation. Despite Singapore's vulnerability to shifts in the world trading system, its total trade is almost five times its GNP because of its entrepot for all of Southeast Asia.

The results of Singapore's economic performance have been reported as a miracle because despite her vulnerability and lack of natural resources, she is a success. Many writers like Mirza (1988), Cladd (1989), Ooi (1989) and Tregonning (1990) see the root of Singapore's economic success as a combination of factors listed under section 1.5.4, such as strategic location, responsive work force, good infrastructure, investment climate, stable government and pacific industrial relations. Rieger (1989) and Cladd (1989) see the most important key to Singapore's success as her alertness and responsiveness to changes regionally and globally; in other words, her ability to 'deliver the goods' is significant.

On the other hand, the summarized causes of UK's poor performance in the words of Crafts (1988), are

"inappropriate plant size; industrial-relations problems,

which led to inflexible working arrangements and over-manning; inadequate education and training, particularly of those leaving school at the minimum age; and a shortfall of research and development".

The above explanations for its economic decline are many and varied, pointing to political, social and psychological components, and spanning the ideological spectrum from Marxist to Keynesian to free-market standpoints (p. 305-306, Wiener, 1986). However, Phelps-Brown (p. 176, 1986) saw the main constraint in British economic performance as

"the resistance to change built into the attitudes of employees at all levels and into the structure of industrial relations".

The foregoing has contrasted the decline of Britain and the rise of Singapore economically. The negatives and the positives levelled at each country's economic performance are highly significant to the study because their economic performances are also a demonstration of their ability to manage (Koontz and Weihrich, 1988) their resources, and to adapt and change in order to compete in world trade. Beyond the reasons for each countries' failure or success, is the common point of focus: people and their ability to make the appropriate responses (Garrett and Stopford, 1980). The ability to learn, adapt and change, the ability to create the suitable environment via policies at the government level, the use of new methods and changing practices in organisations, are all examples of the ability to respond appropriately. In chapter one, there was a quote by Strebek (p.43, 1989) which says that it is human resources, the ability to learn, change and improve that is important for international competitiveness, not the country's starting point.

Those who have studied Britain for some years like Dahrendorf, would add that 'economic performance and cultural values are linked', and

that 'an effective economic strategy for Britain will probably have to begin in the cultural sphere' (Dahrendorf, 1976). Eatwell (p. 50, 1982) argued that

"The weakness of the British economy ... is the cumulative product ... of the entire history of Britain since the end of the nineteenth century, when it first became evident that Britain was unable, or unwilling, to adapt to a competitive world in which her pre-eminence could no longer be taken for granted".

Britain's very success with old methods made its managers reluctant to learn the new ones (Hobsbawn, 1986; Phelps-Brown, 1986). Their strength has indeed become their weakness.

At the other end of the scale of adaptability is Singapore's relatively greater willingness to change and their receptiveness to technology transfer (Chong, 1984; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988). Clegg, Dunphy and Redding (1986) explained that the success of NICs like Singapore, could also be because of their work ethic, political stability, market orientation, and interestingly, their lack of natural resources. The ingenuity (Clegg, Higgins and Spybey, 1988) of the NICs to compete at world level despite their lack of natural resources, land and lack of a large domestic market (Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Welhrich, 1988), has been the making of their economic success. Their weakness has indeed become their strength.

The study will address those two statements with particular reference to managerial responses towards change in the two countries. The last two sections of this chapter will discuss the Singaporean and British traits, values and attitudes, including what the available literature says are the underlying causes or influences for them.

1.6 Singaporean Traits, Values and Attitudes

It has been explained in chapter one that the national culture traits, values and attitudes are the result of "mental programming" by social, political, judiciary and economic systems on individuals of a nation. The sections to follow will discuss these influences on the Singaporeans before discussing those on the British.

1.6.1 Singapore's multi-racial immigrant genesis

Singapore has been exposed to a variety of cultural influences, oriental and occidental. This is largely explained by its port city history and the formation of an immigrant society. The migratory history and historical development of Singapore have an important bearing on the study because it reveals the causes and influences of the Singaporean traits, values and attitudes. Soon after 1819, the Chinese, Indians, Pakistanis, Ceylonese and Malays flocked to Singapore, which made her a society of diverse ethnic origins, cultures, religions, languages and social classes (Chiew, 1990). The daily intermingling of ethnic groups contributed to its cultural fluidity (Chong, 1987) and language became a channel of crossing cultural zones (Clammer, 1985). A significant feature of Singapore is its Chinese community which represented the single largest concentration of Chinese outside of China (nearly 2 million). It is the only nation in the region where there is a substantial Chinese majority (76% of the population) and where Chinese exercise political control. The Chinese community is highly diversified by class and economic activities and internally stratified by dialect and custom. Almost all the significant regional variations and language groups within China are represented and reproduced in the island state (Clammer, 1985).

1.6.2 Singapore's economic culture

The establishment of Singapore is the result of the many early Chinese migrants who sojourned to Singapore for economic reasons. They had intentions of returning to China after a period of time or when they had accumulated sufficient savings. The initial Chinese minority rapidly became a substantial majority. Rather than being assimilated, the Chinese became a community which set the cultural and social "tone" as it were for the rest of the inhabitants of the island. Although the Chinese culture may have been modified through interaction with other cultures or through time, it still provided the basis for the organizational life of its population via the Confucian economic culture (Clemmer, 1985; Clegg, Dunphy and Redding, 1986).

Singapore's economy has been built on the talents of three races: Chinese, Indian and Malay, and the harmony between them (Chiew, 1990; Suryadinata, 1990). The early generations of immigrants in Singapore lived in close proximity to other racial, social and cultural groups under British administration. They had to adapt to the British as well as to other immigrants, foreign to their ways. This trait of adaptability to, and tolerance of foreign ways, has remained with present day Singaporeans. Contact with foreigners and their cultures via mass media, education, exposure to life and conditions of many other countries and the presence of foreign businesses and industries in Singapore, have probably caused the formation of an open attitude to change and learning. The wide cultural base has its opportunities for innovation (Chong, 1984).

Many of the Singaporean's traits, values and attitudes are rooted in their migrant background. The belief is that migrants and their immediate descendants work unfettered by the traditions of their

native countries and they usually work harder and better than people who have long been settled in their surroundings. According to Galbraith's book 'The Age of Uncertainty', when people are put in a new place without accustomed support from land or position, it gives them the challenge of survival and forces them to think, which enormously increases their productivity. The foundation of Singapore's overall pragmatic and open response to change is captured in that statement (Chong, 1984; Chong, 1987). Given that the traditional cultures and values of the early Singaporeans are based on agricultural societies, slow to change and inconducive to a rapidly changing urban society, the challenge of survival has nurtured an openness to change. That the island has no natural resources and a small domestic market does mean that it is imperative that Singapore must continually rely on other countries for trade and investments, and that appropriate responses from her are important for her survival and competitiveness. It is therefore understandable that Singapore's traits and attitudes would be relatively more conducive to change and survival.

Singapore's lack of natural resources and market has not caused her to be an aggressor on her hinterland or the neighbouring countries. She turns her sorrow into joy by looking beyond the provincial horizons to the rest of the region and the world for commercial, technological and cultural input. Singapore's separation from Malaysia has also given the government and population great flexibility. Singapore recognises that regional stability and peace are as important for her as a small nation as they would be on an international basis. Her pragmatism (Chong, 1987) moves her into close relationships with all neighbouring countries to consolidate peace, friendship, economic cooperation and defence against communism. She is dependant on Malaysia for water and gas and the older Malaysian and Singapore leaders grew up and were

educated in one milieu, as part of one colonial territory. Of nine ministers in Singapore's first Cabinet in 1959, six were born in Malaysia (Lee, 20 July 1988).

1.6.3 Singapore's political culture

Clammer (1985) suggested that it was because Singapore is very much an experiment that change became the norm. Singapore's development has been one where the "atmosphere" of Singapore is one of a permanent sense of crisis; politically, Singapore is threatened by subversion within and without, and economically, the situation is always precarious. According to Clammer (1985), change, construction and urgency have been the keywords. The ideology and aim of Singapore is the achievement of harmony of economic growth, political stability, ethnic diversity and cultural creativity (Ananteraman, 1990).

Writers on Singapore like Rieger (1989) and Gayle (1986) have said that the Singapore government guards against complacency towards internal and external threats. Communists or Marxists who are considered undermining of Singapore's internal security are severely dealt with under the Internal Security Act. There is a tendency towards restricting or repressing activities that are racially, religiously and politically sensitive, and that may cause unrest. As in politics, its judiciary system is efficient and swift action is meted out without exceptions on errant behaviour. This is probably a reflection of the drive to keep the social system efficient by deterring and discouraging unacceptable behaviour.

Overall, the Singapore government is viewed as stable and has been able to retain the support of its people for over thirty years by open democratic elections (Tregonning, 1988). The Prime Minister, Mr. Lee

Kuan Yew, retired in 1991 but he will remain politically involved as a member of the cabinet (The Economist, 1991).

1.6.4 Singapore's industrial relations

Industrial relations in Singapore encourage peaceful resolutions of industrial conflicts and nurture a responsible trade union movement acceptable to the government (Anantaraman, 1990; Tan, 1990). There have been no strikes in Singapore except for a two-day strike in a tool manufacturing company in January 1986 which disrupted an eight-year strike-free record. The harmonious labour-management relations (Chong and Yeoh, 1990) in Singapore are based on a civilised, Confucian distaste for loss of face which creates a constant procedure aimed at avoiding public clash and discordance. The extreme positions taken by opposing groups in Western society are shunned. The strikes of trade unions, the shut-outs by employers and radical demands by minority groups are viewed negatively (Tregonning, 1988).

1.6.5 Singapore's press

In Singapore the press is not government-owned but the directors of newspaper companies publishing in Singapore, need to be citizens of Singapore. There is no pre-censorship of the press per se, before publication but there are reminders to ensure that the press disseminate news and views responsibly. Singapore newspapers adopt pro-State and pro-government postures with tight discipline in handling subjects involving race, language, religious and geo-political sensitivities. The tight control on local and foreign press dates back to Singapore's historical experience of religious and racial conflicts. Such conflicts and tensions are severely dealt with

because of the implications of discouraging investment, impeding economic growth and reducing standard of living (Chiew, 1990).

However, Tan's (1990) concern is that a society with fettered opinions imposed on it tends to produce conformity, stagnation and abuse of power; therefore the question of disclosure is an important one of "intellectual competition" in the light of the press, entertainment and art. The attitude to information disclosure has implications on the efficiency of the administrative system by almost totally excluding the danger of information leakage. The government of Singapore is probably no different from others in the extent of its trust of the public's intelligence and maturity when disclosing vital information and being less restrictive with access to information. The fear with information control in Singapore may be summed up in the maxim of "My mind is made up, don't confuse me with the facts" (p.1031, Rieger, 1989).

1.6.6 Singapore's educational culture

Singapore's educational system has been one of the major vehicles of ideological "nation-building" and political socialization. It is an agency through which differing value systems have been conveyed. Historically, the Chinese educated in the Chinese language, received Chinese values. On the other hand, those who went to English-medium schools learned English, but in no deep sense learned English culture. With succeeding generations, education perpetuated Chinese culture and it was also adapted in numerous ways to the practical demands of life in a British colony. Christianity was transmitted via the mission schools and "Chineseness" via Chinese schools. Where the transmission of the above values did not happen, a synthesized culture of the English, Malay and Chinese, called the 'Babes' emerged. The Babes were

the financiers, businessmen and agents between the British and the Chinese business community during the earlier colonial period. This group of English-educated Chinese assimilated western education and institutions, and became the political elite of the country (Tinker, 1981).

Today the emphasis in schools in Singapore is very much on learning by rote and on knowing the "right" answer. There is less emphasis on problem solving, creativity, and innovation, and the weighing of arguments in the discussion of issues is regarded as less important than knowing the facts. There is intense anxiety and competition among parents over their children's education. The system of education has its effect on values and attitudes in the Singaporean (Rieger, 1989).

1.6.7 Singapore's social values

Singapore's political struggle has become in part equated with the preaching of a stern morality and vigilant control of bodily boundaries for example, in dress, hair, drugs and so on. The landscape becomes part of the balance of forces (a reflection perhaps of the Chinese idea of *Feng-Shui*, the geomancy of buildings) in which it is a planned environment with defined recreational areas and little toleration of "untidiness". The Government has therefore sought to convince its citizens not to discard their traditional values, such as belief in hard-work, thrift, honesty, self-discipline, regard for education, respect for enterprise and concern over family stability. There is an emphasis on Confucian philosophy for its political and societal value orientation. The nexus between a good government and citizenry is believed to be familial (Gayle, 1986). There are measures against drug-taking, littering and other anti-social behaviour in Singapore.

Douglas' book, "Natural Symbols" (1973, p.93), pointed out that the more a social situation exerts pressure on persons involved in it, the more the social demand for conformity tends to be expressed by a demand for physical control (of hairstyle, dress, sport, the taking of drugs, and so on). The relative rigidity of the symbolic system and its boundaries in Singapore has reflected the emphasis on education and other processes of socialization in Singapore (military service, quasi-military extra curricular activities in schools, sports, quasi-military hands etc). Singapore has its practical problems of inculcating this symbolic system equally in all the different cultural groups.

The foregoing crystallizes the Singapore "official culture". Singapore itself is a paradox: a tiny state with one of the world's most diverse cultural make-ups, once considered politically unviable, but now with one of the highest standards of living in Asia, poor in natural resources, yet, Singapore is known for its orderly society, its cleanliness and its relative efficiency. What is also interesting is the influence of the colonial period in Singapore which still runs very deep. This is instanced by ties of language, commerce, education and culture, political institutions, the ethnic compositions of the country, its legal system and the existence of a subtle cultural understanding which exists between many Singaporeans and British.

Sociologists have asked the question, "Can Singapore modernize without having 'western values'?" The answer has been that actually many of the values that accompany modernization are not 'Western' at all and that they are simply concepts of rationality or efficiency that accompany technology. The definitions of modernization proposed in Singapore does show that in fact they have little to do with the West

(Seah, 1977). It has been because of technology transfer that Singapore is a highly technological society.

Religion in Singapore is ethnically based except for Christianity which is regarded as a western religion. It is one of the most basic and solid markers of social and ethnic identity; traditionally, the Chinese are Buddhists, the Malays are Muslims and the Indians are Hindus. Only a very small percentage of the Christian population is Caucasian. According to Clammer (1985), Christianity is dominated by the Chinese as can be expected by their majority (76%) representation in the population. Clammer noticed the association of language/ethnicity/religion to social stratification or class. By socio-economic status, Christianity and Hinduism are predominately middle class religions, Islam and Chinese religions tend to be heavily lower and lower middle class.

Singapore itself is a product of the interaction of the original migrant groups in a colonial setting. The island city is a "planned" rather than a "natural" city and the physical characteristics of the city and much of the life within the city - order, cleanliness and regulation - reflect the ethos of the government. The Prime Minister of Singapore's speech on 11 July 1988 summarised Singapore's reliance on its strategic location, development of human resource, social and political stability, open economy and upgraded industries, for its economic growth and development (Lee, 1988).

1.7 British Traits, Values and Attitudes

The discussion on British traits, values and attitudes will be dealt with firstly from a social history perspective followed by a look at its economic culture, educational culture and so on. The slightly

different approach taken here is because Britain's social history has played a dominant role in the formation of traits, values and attitudes, and they in turn have had their bearing on society in general, the economy, education, politics and industrial relations. The discussion will demonstrate some ramifications of its social foundations into other aspects of British life.

The Industrial Revolution was a landmark for cultural change in Britain. It was a social revolution with social causes and social effects; central to the revolution was the rise in the scale of human organization, ranging from industry, transport and commerce, to every social activity and from religion to government revolution. The revolution caused the migration of large numbers of people between occupations, between industries and sectors of the economy, between communities, and between the villages and towns (Perkin, 1986).

1.7.1 A social history perspective on British traits, values and attitudes

The class foundations of British society were because of birth, regional, industry, job and income differences. The first Industrial Revolution caused the class gap to be even more significant. Conflicts and social divisions existed even amongst the working class (Ball, Gray and McDowell, 1989). Business like politics in the UK, was affected by the group of general middle- and upper-class culture (Wiener, 1981). According to Royle (1987), there has been erosion, but not the elimination of class differences between the skilled working class and the rest. Social erosion and social mobility took place via education and through consolidation within the middle class. The movement from one stratum to another was difficult (Phelps-Brown, 1986).

A significant consequence of the Industrial Revolution (1780 - 1880), was the creation of a new social class (Perkin, 1986; Royle, 1987). The new class was the means by which the industrially and politically suppressed, could more effectively break through the old structure of relationships. Despite the struggle between the ideals of the aristocratic, the entrepreneurial and the working-class, the entrepreneurial middle-class emerged triumphant. The tension was particularly between the aristocrats and the new industrialists. The aristocrat was portrayed as

"the leisured gentleman, the ideal citizen of the old society... a useless parasite who contributed nothing to society and abused his indefensible wealth and power"
(p. 228, Perkin, 1986).

The entrepreneur was seen as the self-made man, self-raised, self-sustained without external aids. His condemnation of idleness and commendation of self-help and independence were old themes from the old society; like the other class ideals, his ideal was rooted in the old (Perkin, 1986).

Traits and values from social classes have their influence on societal culture, organizational life and non-work life. The traits and values of the entrepreneurial ideal probably explain much of the 'individualism' observed in studies on Great Britain by writers like Hofstede (1984). Kedia and Bhegat (1988) have characterised individualistic countries like Great Britain, with generalities of people being inner-directed and having loose ties between individuals; they also supposed that individualistic people look after their own self-interests in the domains of both work and non-work. Steels in an unpublished paper, also noted the strong value placed on privacy and the inviolability of one's person and one's home. In the organizational context, these values promote 'personal ownership of their life space' with a deep sense of legitimacy of hierarchical

authority. Those in the upper echelons of organizations feel that their own struggle to get to a comfortable position should not have been in vain and that they deserve more personal influence and control over their own and others' lives than those who have neither inherited it nor worked their way up to it.

Historically, Britain never had a straightforward bourgeoisie or industrial elite because it was a case of the old values giving way to the new, effecting a compromise. Worsthorne (22 April 1979) saw the Victorian aristocracy giving way slowly to the industrialists, so that,

"the transference of power protracted over a century, resembled a merger rather than a conquest", with the "civilizing (of) the bourgeoisie".

My suggestion is that the dominant feature of self-possession and the tendency towards "individualism" in the British, may be strong causes of the compromise. The social and cultural matrix preserved both the forms and values of tradition as well as accommodated the new groups, new interests and new needs (Wiener, 1981) with no fundamental antagonism between the old aristocracy and the industrial elite. Accommodation between the two groups yielded political and social stability. What is significant is that the internalized industrial bourgeoisie still carried the imprint of the old aristocracy. The British habit of preserving form while modifying the spirit and function also runs deep in the preservation of social classes. Britain's aristocratic heritage and their ideals resist change (Parlin, 1986) and it is likely that this heritage may have implications in the business world in terms of power and status, and the management of change.

These values and attitudes of both the new elite and others, such as politicians, civil servants, churchmen, professional men and

publicists, shaped and dominated Britain's political opinion and policy. The gentlemanly aristocratic values discouraged economic dynamism and spoke against the social evils of the Industrial Revolution, directing attention to the "quality of life". There was a lack of enthusiasm for "wealth, as such" (The Times, 29 April 1971). It concluded that

"The secret hope of Britain is indeed that the monetary obsession has penetrated our society less deeply than it has others. There are probably still more people in Britain who will give total effort for reasons of idealism than for reasons of gain."

1.7.2 Britain's economic culture

Britain's economic culture has been affected by social class ideals, reinforced through its educational system, policies, strong traditional values and its relative unresponsiveness towards business and competition. Hobsbawm (1986) argued that Britain's failure to adapt to new conditions was not because it could not, but rather that it did not wish to. The spirit of resistance to change in Britain could otherwise be said as the "movement to protect English culture" (Wiener, 1981). There are many explanations for the economic decline. The social stigma of being 'in trade' is a strong deterrent. For example, it has been said that the British capitalist after being absorbed into a higher stratum or class with his money, ceases his strife in order to preserve respectability. The British entrepreneur is also said to lack a built-in urge to maintain a constant rate of technical progress for its own sake.

The cultural revolution of industrialism contained both the achievements and the failures of modern British history (Wiener, 1981); the crux being adaptation to new circumstances. A changing environment requires the system to be adaptive in terms of its

structure and process. Perhaps the dominant 'self-possession' mentioned earlier and adherence to tradition and continuity, including its imperialist history, impedes productivity and economic growth in Britain. This weakness is seen in her unresponsiveness to exploit new circumstances and new methods, and the failure to keep pace with best practice techniques and work organization abroad. There are many views on this. For example, Phelps-Brown (1986) suggested that Britain was held back partly because its success with old methods made its managers reluctant to learn the new. Hobsbawm (1986), on the other hand, suggested the adherence to traditional methods of making profits was because those methods had not been exhausted, and that they provided a cheaper and more convenient alternative for modernization for a while. He preferred to think that the British are not unadaptable, but that they did not wish to adapt for a variety of reasons. Steele (unpublished paper) was of the view that many people still seem to feel and act with an old mentality, bounded by processes and products they had mastered in apprenticeships. Ball, Gray and McDowell (1989) preferred to say that the relatively larger scale of any change of its structure was what affected Britain's economic performance.

It was apparent that the fresh start was largely inhibited by cultural values and social attitudes from a society dominated by the leisured landowner who was not as affected by the Industrial Revolution. But, whatever the causes of the inhibition and economic failure, the heart of the concern was Britain's unresponsiveness to the business environment. Britain's island geography isolation may have also contributed to the assumption postulated by Steele that

"we don't have to adapt to the outside world since it will always remain outside".

1.7.3 Britain's educational culture

The educational system traditionally has an important role in inculcating and reinforcing cultural values which permeate business, politics and the media in Britain. Arnold (1965) and Darwin (1929) identified the ancient universities, such as Oxford or Cambridge, and the Anglican Church as the custodians and transmitters of the English culture. The universities were initially serviceable to the upper class until 'History' became compulsory in secondary schools. The schools then became co-guardians of the English cultural life (Dodd, 1986). The values of the new elite of civil servants, professionals, financiers and landed proprietors were then inculcated by a common education in public schools and ancient universities, permeated by these cultural values. They emphasized the social evils of industrialization and encouraged attention on the 'quality of life', moving her into an anti-business culture (Wiener, 1986).

Wiener saw the development of these gentlemanly anti-business ideals, and their transmission through the public school and university system, along with the myths of rural innocence which had been lost in industrialized Britain. He also saw the middle classes' persistent ambivalence towards science, innovation and entrepreneurship. The anti-business prejudice was also said to lurk among left-wing politicians, in the media and in the schools and universities (Wiener, 1981). Hannah (1989) concluded that there was a preference for the more socially acceptable role of a gentleman. International comparisons of the higher education of businessmen also confirmed that directors of British companies were paragons of under-education compared with America, Germany or Japan; this scenario changed only slowly (Hannah, 1989). It was thought that perhaps the disdain for the academically inclined or university graduates was still present.

1.7.4 Britain's Industrial Relations

Britain has traditional weaknesses in its adversarial system of industrial relations and strike record (Phelps-Brown, 1986; Crafts, 1988). Although its society has changed so much, the institutions and procedures of today, together with the assumptions and attitudes that activate them are a result of its history. According to Crafts (1988), trade unions entered the post 1945 economy in a position of unprecedented potential strength because their 'sclerotic tendencies' (Olsen, 1983) which mitigated government policies had given them legal immunities. Their membership levels were very high and the labour market was at an extremely low level of unemployment. Faced with this situation, the government sought, together with the TUC, cooperative solutions to a possible inflationary crisis. The approach failed as the focus of bargaining switched to the plant level and shop stewards became more important in exploiting the latent bargaining power of workers. For as long as cooperation was pursued as a solution to the changed bargaining power of organized labour, there was a major constraint on attempts at reforming industrial relations in pursuit of a system of collective bargaining more conducive to productivity growth (Crafts, 1988).

What this has produced is resistance to change in workers who have little chance of getting as good or a better job. There is the value of keeping 'a place' (or job) and the tradition of insecurity is from the early days of industrialization in Britain, reinforced by the experience of permanent loss of jobs and the shut downs of mines and so on (Phelps-Brown, 1986). Phelps-Brown saw the substantial handicap in the resistance to change as built into the attitudes of employees at all levels and into the structure of industrial relations.

1.7.5 British social values

According to Robbins (1989), 'British Christianity' was an artificial construct without institutional foundations. Consciously or not, the various churches of England, Scotland, and Wales were all 'carriers' of traditions which they believed to be deeply embedded in the spiritual life of their peoples. All the main religions like Roman Catholic, Anglican, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, Congregationalist/Independent, Unitarian, Quaker were present in all parts of Britain. Parkin (1986) pointed out that the new class society affected church life; the aristocrats tended to be Anglicans, the middle classes tended to be old or new dissenters and the lower classes, the old or new non-conformists. Engels agreed with bourgeois writers that workers have no religion and do not go to church, with a few exceptions, while the middle classes and aristocracy do. When workers migrated from the countryside, it was social pressures in favour of or against 'church-going' that influenced them. Changes in denominational allegiance occurred as one moved up or down the social hierarchy.

Symbolic reference to and maintenance of the monarchy, for example, may have also encouraged the strong emphasis on continuity of form and tradition in social systems, independent of the functionality of that form. The monarchy is an indicator of this attitude, if not a contributor to it. The general attitude of valuing the past also shows up in many aspects of British life, from entertainment to styles of dress to ceremonies. This is not necessarily bad but it can have some costly consequences when it spills over into work organisations where members need to deal with things as they are, not as they used to be.

Steele believed that there is a strong strain of fatalism in British culture, which tends to orient people toward adapting to what fate brings to them, rather than towards trying to influence what the future will be. The tradition of the "stiff upper lip" is thought to be symbolic of this, as is the prodigious ability of the British public to buckle down and muddle through crises that are often caused by decisions taken by fellow members of their society. Steele sees strength and gutsiness that is admirable in this trait but recognizes the danger of it being overvalued.

Steele also noted the long intellectual tradition of rationality which could lead British managers to reject the concept of taking actions whose consequences are not predictable even though this condition is actually true for many of the actions they take every day. In addition, there is a strong bent toward the attitude "prove it will be practical", rather than an acceptance of the fact that less than perfect foreknowledge of the future is part of mankind's fate. Nor is there very much proof of practicality for many of the traditional practices which are holding the system back.

Steele observed a general mistrust of the professional's input into the day-to-day life of organizational members. Members feel that their own experiences must have made them experts in organization development. This mistrust may be related to the British tradition of the gifted amateur - the person who knows a great deal about a number of areas, but who does not concentrate on any one thing. This concept relates back to social class notions about "well-roundedness".

1.7.6 The British identity

This section portrays, in a lighter vein, the British identity from the literature. The fundamentals of the British identity consisted of the 'English', 'the Scottish', 'the Welsh' and the 'Irish' producing 'the British'; however, the self-reliance or self-possession trait in these dominant races has made fusion or integration difficult (Robbins, 1989). There has been mobility between parts of Britain including intermarriages, but Emerson (Robbins, 1989) noted the gap between the identities of the 'north' and the 'south'. The 'northerner' is 'pragmatic, empirical, calculating, Puritan, bourgeois, enterprising, adventurous, scientific, serious'. He believes in struggle. The 'southerner' is 'romantic, illogical, muddled, divinely lucky, Anglican, aristocratic, traditional, frivolous.' He believes in order. Such images, though they must not be taken too seriously, imply a cleavage between England and Scotland (Robbins, 1989).

Wiener (p. 307, 1986) summarized the English way of life as "non-industrial, non-innovative and non-material". Baldwin's (Wiener, 1986) view was that

"England as a country is ancient,
slow-moving, stable, cosy and 'spiritual'";

it is not economic or technical but social and spiritual. Its preference is for preserving, harmonising and moralising. Wiener saw the British character as not naturally progressive, but conservative. This outlook was a source of pride which conflicted over the years with industrial reality and made the task of modernization, for Britain, difficult. The reason for this difficulty lies in the long-lasting consequences of this outlook which produced psychological and ideological stresses and strains.

1.7.7 The main research location in Britain: Coventry

Britain is a vast country compared with Singapore and since most of the British organizations involved in this research are located in Coventry, a brief explanation of the social and industrial history of Coventry provides a useful background understanding of the research location.

At the end of the nineteenth century, Coventry was a city of great economic and social change. The decline of the traditional crafts gave way to the motor car industry and Coventry also became the principal centre of the cycle industry. This broadened to include related manufacturing industries like machine tools, electronics and aeronautics. The restructuring of Coventry's economy also included the establishment of Courtauld and Coventry Ordnance works. The general explanation of the restructuring of Coventry's economy is located in broader national and international trends, though many of the specific problems and opportunities relate to the particular characteristics of the city's industrial history (Thome and Donnelly, 1986).

In Coventry, as in most other areas of Britain, the population can be divided into four main groups, characterised by country of birth. These groups are: the locally born, which increasingly includes black Coventrians (310,200); British born internal migrants from Ireland, Scotland and Wales (34,000); settlers from eastern Europe, including Ukrainians and Polish people (5,000); people born in other parts of the world, in particular New Commonwealth and Pakistan (between 18 - 20,000), who arrived in the fifties and sixties (The Lord Mayor's Committee for Racial Harmony, 1982). A more recent update by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys reported that 306,200 people lived in Coventry in mid-1988 (Collins, 27 July 1989).

According to Newbold (1982), Coventrians today are almost classless because it is a city of people working for a living, and management has had to learn to live on equal terms with labour which has often in the past been in short supply. The comradeship from the war-time, the city's history of drawing people to work in its motor industries and the fact that Coventry's company directors and executives rose from the shop floor, all help to explain its general classless society. What is interesting about Coventry is that it is similar to Singapore in terms of the large proportion of its migrants, internal and external, who came to Coventry mainly for economic reasons.

Summary

The start of the chapter has explained the interdependency of nations in the world, in particular, Britain and Singapore, and the common context in which they exist and operate. That Britain and Singapore do not move in isolation or independently of other nations, has its implication; there is a need for these countries to be aware of their global and regional environment so that they make appropriate responses to survive and compete in business. In other words, managing change is an important key in business.

Britain and Singapore have similarities and differences; but the differences of particular interest in the chapter have been in their economic history and social background. On the one hand, Britain has an imperialist past, was a colonizer and is a mature industrialized country. On the other hand, Singapore has its immigrant genesis and was a British colony with no natural resources. Their contrast in background and the high economic growth of Singapore overtaking Britain makes the two countries interesting locations of study. A country with no natural resources and high economic growth does have

its implications on people and their ability to learn, adapt and change. As mentioned in Chapter one, Strebel (1989) has said that the key to international competitiveness is the quality of human resources, their ability to learn and change, not so much a country's starting point. These points highlight the importance of the management of change, and the cross-national setting makes it possible to learn from other cultures, how better to cope with managing change at various levels.

CHAPTER 3

OUTLINE METHODOLOGY AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

This chapter addresses the key methodological choices and issues, and explains my thinking, my decisions and choices for the approach to study managers' responses towards change in Britain and Singapore. The implementation and details regarding the sample and the method such as the selection of organizations, management levels, the matching process, the fieldwork, the pilot study and techniques will be discussed in Chapter four.

This chapter comprises of three main sections; the first discusses and explains the dialectical approach in its outline methodology, the second discusses the methodological issues, and the third section explains the main framework of the research which emerges from the first two sections including the major decisions made.

1. OUTLINE METHODOLOGY

This first main section focuses on the discussions and decisions for adopting a position which sees value in accepting opposing theories in the cross-cultural comparative management field. The second section discusses the approach of mixing or combining methods to obtain information which is more enriching.

1.1 Theories in the Field

Chapter one has explained that the research is a cross-national study, involving two countries, Singapore and Britain. A starting point would be to examine the theories in the field of comparative management. The

dominant position in comparative management is that some forms of functions or behaviours are universal while others are culture-bound or contextual (Adler, 1983b). The researcher's prime task is to differentiate between these two categories.

Historically, there was a bias towards universalism because in the period between 1971 and 1980, 80 percent of the single-culture studies were conducted in the United States and by Americans; most of the cross-cultural management studies replicate what has been done in the West or use the concepts and instruments derived from western cultures (Adler, 1983b). What has also added to the universalistic bias is that 'good' comparative survey is very costly and the time and effort involved in sectioning relevant concepts from a sample of cultures and developing an instrument meaningful across the cultures can be difficult. What is also interesting, according to Khin (1988) is that most researches done in the last 15 years are concerned with the cross-cultural study of managerial values which is an aspect of cross-cultural social psychology (Haire et. al, 1966; Hofstede, 1984a). The commonly-held notion is that culture-related studies are unsuitable for comparison across cultures, which also contributes to this universalistic bias.

The economic success and efficiency of Japan stirred new interest in their use of traditional methods and practices which were previously thought obsolete. The further study of ways to apply traditional management principles and methods to improve productivity and efficiency in other "backward" countries encouraged the emergence of a new cultural school. Maruyama (p.100, 1984) asserted that

"Large-scale, complex business planning and management existed in the ancient civilizations of Egypt, Mesopotamia, India, China and several other parts of the world. In our age there has been a misconception that theories of business and management are something new, or

that the ancient theories and methods would be useless in modern business."

The new cultural school emerged with the move from the universalistic approach of the European and North American (ENA) theories to Asian (Maruyama, 1984), African (Camara, 1975) or Arabic theories. According to Maruyama (1984), the studies on Japan and Africa are challenging the epistemological foundation of management theories and the applicability of western management principles in the West to the oriental setting. The key difficulty is the linear thinking and Aristotelean logic in western concepts as opposed to the non-linear thinking and non-Aristotelean logic represented for example, in the Japanese and the Mandenka concepts. In Maruyama's view (p.108, 1984), ENA theorists misinterpret Asian and African concepts like the heterogenistic logic and the polyocular vision, and they have come up with a dimensionally reduced interpretation

"in the sense that a three-dimensional object is reduced to a two-dimensional shadow".

The ENA epistemology is built on a one-dimensional continuum (in the sense of geometry) between homogenistic hierarchy and random, independent individualism, and "everything is supposed to fit somewhere in this continuum". An example of a misinterpretation is the Japanese sense of "conformity" which corresponds to the English word "flexibility", but the American sense of "conformity" implies "rigidity and inability to change". This point is further elaborated using the African study by Camara (1975): The study found that in the Mandenkan culture,

"each person heterogenizes himself/herself through these different activities, and learns to see the same situation from different points of view... The Mandenka are afraid of westernization which locks a person into one job and makes him/her incapable of seeing a situation from other persons' points of view" (p.102, Maruyama, 1984).

The heterogenistic logic and polyocular vision (explained in Chapter 1) does recommend the rejection of the 'either/or' approach to the convergence and divergence perspectives on cross-cultural management studies. As explained in Chapter 1, there is empirical evidence to support both perspectives but none more strongly than the other. This has led me to take the view that both are probably correct. One can expect to find commonalities in organizational structures and processes as well as differences at the individual level. In the same way, Adler (1986) has argued that the debates surrounding 'convergence' (Harbison and Myers, 1959; Likert, 1963; Webber, 1969; Lammers and Hickson, 1979; Child, 1981; Levitt, 1983) and 'divergence' (Oberg, 1963; Fayerweather, 1965; England and Lea, 1974; Laurent, 1983; Rojek, 1986) theories in cross-cultural management literature emerged because of the perspective or level of focus of the researcher.

The heterogenistic logic and the benefits of having opposite views which includes the polyocular vision (Maruyama, 1984) strengthen the position of this research which accepts the place of the foregoing divergent perspectives. In the ENA cultures, heterogeneity is often considered to be a source of conflict while homogeneity supposedly fosters peace. According to Maruyama (p.101, 1984), in non-ENA cultures,

"heterogeneity is the source of mutually beneficial, positive-sum, 'win-win' co-operation, while homogeneity is regarded as a source of competition and conflict".

His view is that this is more scientific and ecologically correct. For example,

"Animals convert oxygen into carbon dioxide, and plants do the opposite. In so doing, animals and plants help each other. The richness of life on the coral reef or in the tropical rain forest is due to the heterogeneity of species..... If there were some animals whom no other organisms ate, there would be an intolerable accumulation of corpses."

In the same way, a new type of efficiency emerged from the heterogenistic logic that maximizes mutually beneficial combinations of individual differences or combines diversity in a mutually beneficial way, the principle of the polyocular vision explained in Chapter one, uses different points of view to harness enriching information. In other words, the dialectical stance adopted helps to gain enrichment in knowledge by building on the strengths of opposing theories.

The main hypothesis is that there are similarities and differences in responses to the change process in like organizations in the two countries. This is based on empirical studies mentioned above. The research also adopted the concept of having three layers of perspective or focus to facilitate my investigation and analysis: microlevel which looks at the behaviour of people within the organizations on an inter-company basis, mesolevel which views from an inter-economic sector perspective and macrolevel which views from an inter-country perspective. It is from these different perspectives that similarities and differences are expected to be elicited.

1.2 Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

Methodology textbooks have outlined two traditional schools of thought in social sciences about where methods should be derived; they are positivism and phenomenology. Positivism stresses that

"firstly, reality is external and objective; secondly, that knowledge is only of significance if it is based on observations of this external reality"
(p. 22, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991).

Phenomenology on the other hand is concerned about reality, which is socially constructed rather than objectively determined; the focus is

"therefore to try to understand and explain why people have different experience, rather than search for

external causes and fundamental laws to explain their behaviour" (p. 24, Easterby-Smith et. al., 1991).

While there are two sources to derive methods for this study, there are strengths and weaknesses in using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The combined strength of both methods to unravel universalism and particularism in the study was attractive because of the twofold purpose in the thesis. The first is the broad study of responses towards a change, in particular, what managers find helpful or difficult in a change. The second purpose is the in-depth study of the role of communication, commitment and power in a change episode. What was clear is that adopting either extremes of methods would not enable the gathering of data of wide coverage as well as richness and depth. The particular yield of data for the study therefore persuaded the researcher's use of a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods.

Khin (1988) found an emerging consensus among organization theorists towards accommodating differing schools of thought in the field. For example, Morgan (1983) in his book on various methodological approaches to the study of organizations argued for a more reflective social science rather than a search for a fixed framework. While he appreciated the role of each paradigm whether it be the positivist or the interpretative, he also encouraged the understanding of the merits of diversity and conversing with alternative view points (Morgan, 1983). Maruyama (1984) advocated the mixing of methods and an approach that mixes paradigms. There are also examples of quantitative and qualitative methods that have been used to combine different forms of data to good effect (Fielding and Fielding, 1986); for example, a study on the National Front in Britain.

The quantitative approach was applied to achieve the first purpose of the study because of the advantage of studying responses to a wide range of variables in a variety of circumstances or situations. In view of the pressures of time and money, a statistical package was used to process the volume of data collected from the two countries in a quick and relatively inexpensive way. The quantitative methods have their disadvantages of being inflexible and artificial, and not being as effective in understanding processes or the significance people attach to actions; nonetheless, because the initial purpose is broad and general, the deficiencies of the quantitative methods would be minimized and augmented by combining methods (Legge, 1984).

Besides analyzing and studying the breadth of data from the two countries, the aim was also to tap into the richness and depth in my study. Given the constraints of time and resources, three variables were selected to probe in depth by qualitative means. The writers on change have identified 'Communication' (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988), 'Commitment' (Hall et. al, 1970; Sheldon, 1971; Hrabiniak and Alutto, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; Porter et. al, 1974; Etzioni, 1975; Salancik, 1977; Bartolome and Evans, 1979; Romzek, 1989) and 'Power' (Handy, 1988; Kanter, 1988; Daft, 1989; Grainer and Schein, 1989) as important variables in the change process. The prime intention of the study is to gain both the breadth and the depth of data from the two countries within the limitations of time and resources; in other words, 'to have the best of both worlds'. To this end, the methodology is designed to include both quantitative and qualitative methods.

The qualitative approach was used to investigate the role of communication, commitment and power in a change process, to understand the respondents' meanings and to adjust to issues and ideas as they

emerge. The approach also seemed a natural and appropriate way to gather perceptual data for understanding the change process in the two countries. Miles (p.590, 1979) outlined the merits of qualitative data as being

"rich, full, earthy, holistic, "real"; their face validity seems unimpeachable; they preserve chronological flow where that is important, and suffer minimally from retrospective distortion; in principle, they offer a far more precise way to assess causality in organizational affairs than arcane efforts like statistical methods. Furthermore, their collection requires minimal front-end instrumentation and qualitative data is capable of producing more powerful analyses".

The obvious disadvantage with qualitative methods is that the data collection took up a great deal of time and resources, and the analysis and interpretation of data is laborious. Miles (p.590, 1979) also pointed out the overload caused by volume of notes, the time required for write-up, coding and analysis. A more serious drawback is that qualitative methods of analysis are not well formulated.

There are potential weaknesses in the quantitative and the qualitative methods from the start but the strategy of adopting both quantitative and qualitative methods is to maximise their combined strengths. Both qualitative method and quantitative method have their place in organizational research (p. 630, Downey and Ireland, 1979) and the foregoing discussion has demonstrated that to some extent. The pertinent questions of appropriate tools for the research must be resolved, as expressed, by the ultimate aims and purpose of this research.

2. METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

This second main section will discuss the methodological issues of focus of analysis, time, the matching process, strategy and

validation, distortions and memory failure, language and words, and the investigator's identity.

2.1 Focus of Analysis and the Issue of 'Time'

Change is a topic of recent interest for management and as explained in Chapter one, the literature on change has not been abundant because of its historical development; the frames of reference and methodologies and approach used to study change are therefore limited. According to Pettigrew (1985a), most of the studies on change have been ahistorical, aprocessual, and acontextual.

Pettigrew's view of a theoretically sound and practically useful research on change and strategic decision-making utilizes a three point framework for analysis: the 'context' of change, the 'process' of change and the 'content' of change with a continuous interplay of ideas among the three. The definitions of these concepts have been explained in Chapter one and his tested framework is used to locate the focus of the analysis. Since the focus of the investigation is first, the comparison of the general responses of managers towards a change; secondly, what is difficult and helpful to a manager in a change and finally, what is the role of communication, commitment and power for managers in a change, the focus of analysis would be the 'process' of change to address these issues. Pettigrew's concept of the 'content' of change is used as an approach for matching similar or same events of change and this application will be explained in Chapter four.

Process implies the analysis of the inter-relationship of variables over time and their movement from one position to another; process can also be said to be about change. The work of writers like Pettigrew

(1973; 1985a; 1985b), Mintzberg (1976) and Hickson, et. al (1986) in the area of change processes and decision-making processes, have their implications on this research. Studies on processes varied from longitudinal studies such as Pettigrew's study (1985a) of change in Imperial Chemicals Industries, to episodic studies like Mintzberg's (1976) report on 25 strategic decision processes. Pettigrew's work on ICI was over the period 1960-83 and Mintzberg's study was for a duration ranging from less than 1 year to less than 4 years. They are examples of empirical studies over different time spans. Pettigrew's longitudinal research on ICI captured the holistic and dynamics of change over time unlike Mintzberg's episodic research which has a clear beginning and a clear end, spanning over a relatively shorter timescale than a longitudinal study.

The focus of this research is on recent changes in organizations with an imposed cut-off period for the occurrence of the change to be any time within the recent 3-year period. This study does not fall neatly into either the longitudinal study or the discrete episodic change category because it was not designed to capture change over a long period of time neither was it designed to follow a change through from beginning to end. The study could also not be classified as a snapshot study of responses to change because the data was collected over periods of four to five months at a time in each country. The location of the study would more likely be closer to the episodic end of the timescale.

Pettigrew (p.9, 1990a) in his unpublished paper pointed out some words of caution on the issues of time; some of those issues were not relevant to this study because this is not a longitudinal study. Where the issues of time may have application are 'When is the appropriate moment to make assessments about the respondents' responses to change?

What influences does time have on the behaviour of the respondents?' My argument is that the lack of synchronization of the significant changes in the two countries is not a difficulty because my interest is in the experience of change of people and not the organisation's experience of the change, and the responses to a significant change would still be there for analysis one day later, one month later or six months later. This is because the experience of others and my personal experience have been that the impact of a SIGNIFICANT change is unlikely to be easily forgotten, be it good, bad or neutral. The definition of a significant change will be given in Chapter four. It is in anticipation of this issue, as well as the forethought of avoiding the situation where it is critical for the researcher to be in several research locations at precise stages of the change, that the concept of 'significant' change was adopted to minimise the difficulty of time and practical arrangements.

A more important related issue is the phase of change the respondents are at in each organization may affect the responses to change in a particular way. If the researcher arrives at the scene "too soon", it may be too early for the managers to say how they feel about the change; if it is "too late", it may be that the manager has got over the shock of the change. The timing of the data collection for all the organizations is not a simple matter because it is outside of the control of the researcher and is dependent on negotiations for access. There is also the practical question of being in the right country, right organization and at the right time. My argument is that this situation is not a methodological difficulty but presents an opportunity to enrich the perspective of the data. For example, if the managers are unable to respond because the researcher has arrived "too early", this is useful data because it may indicate that managers need time to absorb or digest the change. If the researcher arrived

during the change, the responses would demonstrate how they cope in the midst of the change. If the responses are on a postmortem basis, the most important and significant parts about the change, and how it has affected managers would be equally enriching. My view is that whichever the entry point in time, there will be useful data collected for analysis and the particular phase of change the managers are in, would provide the full-blown picture of managers' responses towards a significant change.

It should be re-emphasized that the choice of direction and strategy of the research is also bound by pragmatic considerations about the sequencing of work and the general management of the study in the two countries. The details of this will be discussed in Chapter four on Sample and Method.

2.2 The Matching Process

Writers on comparative studies across cultures have warned about the importance of matching in comparative research because it can always be suggested that the differences are due to the fact that the pairs are not perfectly matched (p. 49, Sorge and Warner, 1986). But, on the other hand, in real life, it is not really possible to find perfect matches or organizations that are mirror images of one another. The problem raised was minimized to a large extent by following the strategy suggested by Hofstede (1980) for matching organizations and the subculture group.

The rationale behind matching like organizations or organizations which provide the same type of service from the two countries is that there is similarity of purpose and more or less the same way of organizing itself to fulfil its purposes. This minimizes differences

which may be due to them being in a particular type of business for example, being in a custom-made goods business as opposed to a standard goods business. The choice of organizations in this research from the same type of business minimizes the differences due to technology, customers, suppliers and the business process variables.

A related point in choosing like organizations is that it also minimizes to a large extent the founder's dominance in organizational culture including its business philosophies and operations. As Hofstede (1985) pointed out

"there is something American about I.B.M. the world over, something Dutch about N.G.S.F., something Swiss about the Red Cross."

There is criticism against studying subsidiaries of multinational organizations because they are atypical for their country; but the advantage of the functional equivalence of the samples rather outweighs the criticism. For example, a comparison of British nurses and Singapore nurses would show that they fulfil more or less the same functions regardless of their countries. The concern that they are atypical is minimized as long as they are atypical in the same way for both countries.

A similar argument in selecting a subculture group such as middle managers for the study regardless of their country, is the likelihood that these managers have the same educational level, socioeconomic status, occupation or age group. There is, therefore, justification for matching the middle managers from Britain with those from Singapore. Comparing management at the equivalent level of matched organizations minimizes the subcultural variable like educational level and function. The details of implementing the matching process and the selection process at various levels will be discussed in Chapter four.

2.3 Strategy and Validation in the Research

There are the inevitable questions of validity that confront any field researcher which include accusations of

"being branded as subjective, impressionistic, idiosyncratic and biased" (p. 143, Burgess, 1984).

In a similar way, methodology textbooks (Bryman, 1989; Burgess, 1984; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991) have stated that every research method or measure has its limitations (Abrahamson, 1983). On the one hand, there are imminent demands of validation to be met and on the other hand, there are the more important research aims of acquiring broad coverage of data as well as richness and depth of data. The decision was taken to follow a strategy which has dual benefits. I chose 'triangulation' as the answer to meet both needs. Triangulation provided the research with the aggregated strengths of mixed methods for a fuller perspective as well as validation by cross-checking through the 'three points of view'.

Triangulation is broadly defined by Denzin (p. 291, 1978) as

"the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon".

Originally, triangulation was borrowed from navigation and surveying where a minimum of three reference points are taken to check an object's location (Smith, 1975). It can have other meanings and uses (p. 602, Jick, 1979) such as multi-sourcing of data, more than one investigator of the same situation, multi-methods on the same study or the use of same method on different occasions. Methodological textbooks have listed four categories of triangulation: theoretical, data, investigator and methodological triangulation (p.143-146, Burgess, 1984; p.133-134, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991). The crux of the value behind the triangulation approach lies in the

implication of the notion of three points of view within a triangle (p.146, Burgess, 1984).

The rationale in combining methods has been discussed in the section on 'Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Methods' but there is a need to point out the application of methodological triangulation 'between method' which was not elaborated earlier. The construction of the unstructured interview schedule includes two sections at the start which aimed to elicit responses for validating the quantitative data. Although the sample sizes for this are small, nonetheless, there is strength and value because of its representation in terms of numbers, organizations, economic sector and country. The interviewees were selected by senior managers in their respective organizations as being most affected by the change. Within mixed methods, an information base has been built up using a variety of methods like documentary evidence, informants and personal observations.

The comparisons on an inter-country and inter-economic sector bases in this study, also demonstrated 'space triangulation' in the research. The richness of data produced at each of those levels of comparison serves as validation, one for the other.

Despite the time constraints, a decision was taken to indulge in 'investigator triangulation' to minimise personal biases and other subjectivities; two neutral professionals examined the same data for bias.

While mixed methods acted as a check, it was accepted that convergence does not necessarily portray the completeness of the reality of cases studied. What is important to point out is that convergence enhances the belief that the results are valid (p. 602, Jick, 1979) and that we

are closer to the 'truth'. The other side to this is that disagreements between methods would reflect weaknesses in one or both methods and the need for refinement in them. Campbell and Fiske (1959) advocated the importance of having more than one method in the validation process to ensure that the variance reflected is of the trait and not of the method.

2.4 Distortions and Memory Failure

The research examines managers' responses towards a significant change from a reflective perspective. This implies reliance to some extent on the respondents' memory of how they have responded to the change. Distortions and memory failure can affect the respondents in the study, but since this study focuses on 'recent' and 'significant' changes in the organisations, the argument is that these difficulties would be minimized. It should be emphasized that the changes being current would mean that the respondents are less likely to have problems remembering. The additional facts that the significant change had a prescribed criteria (which will be explained in Chapter four) and was identified by the incumbents as 'significant' does mean that the respondents are less likely to forget. This is based on the principle that action or non-response is dependent on the conviction of reality (Holzner, 1968).

Respondents participating in interviews are prepared through a circular letter, telling them what the interview is about and explaining to them the areas of interest in the study. This step taken is based on the point made by Flanagan (p.339, 1954) that

"Memory is improved if it is known in advance that the behaviour to be observed is to be remembered".

A final word is necessary about the possibility of responses to change being influenced by the organization's history of changes, the frequency of changes, other changes going on at or around the same time in the organization, the organizational climate (Schneider, 1975), the phase of change the managers are at and the amount of relevant experience managers have had of change. For example, continual unpleasant experiences of change may reinforce negative responses towards future change. Relevant experience of change may facilitate the change process. The argument is that the foregoing is not a disturbing barrier that needs to be overcome but, that it exemplifies the complexities of studying the change process. While efforts have been made to minimize distortions by as close a match as possible, the view is that the awareness of the 'context' provides an additional dimension of richness to the data. What is important is that notes of comments from the interviews about the context as well as background experiences have been made to add to the richness of the interpretation of the data.

2.5 Language and Words

When comparing two countries, there is inevitably the question of language and differences in usage of words in this research to resolve. The question would be 'Is language a problem? Is translation necessary? Do the same words mean the same in both countries? Can their responses be accepted as consistent with the approach?' To resolve the questions, it is needful to examine the historical and current situation of languages in both countries.

The official language and the language in prevalent use in Britain is the English language although 26 per cent of the population in Wales are said to speak Welsh and 60,000 in Scotland speak the Scottish form

of Gaelic (1988 figures, Central Office of Information, 1989). The second research location, Singapore, has Malay, Chinese (Mandarin), Tamil and English as her official languages. Malay is the national language and English is the language of administration (Ministry of Communications and Information, Singapore, 1990). There is an inheritance of the English language from when Singapore was a British colony and under British Military Administration.

On the basis of the foregoing, a pilot questionnaire schedule was constructed using the English language with the assumption that the English language and words have the same meanings in both countries. The questionnaire was piloted on a sample of Singapore MBA students from various Universities in UK and it was found that language was, in fact, not a problem. While there is the awareness that words in different cultures have different connotations, a decision was taken to adhere to the assumption that the English language and words have the same meanings in both countries because the Singapore sample in the pilot study did not experience difficulty with the language and words. In the same way as it was accepted that the same words mean the same in both countries, it was accepted that their responses would be consistent with the approach. Although the validity of this assumption is open to question, in the circumstances it seemed acceptable.

2.6 Population Composition of the Locations

A related point to 'Language and Words' is the population composition of the two countries. As explained in Chapter two, Singapore is a multi-racial country consisting of 75% Chinese, 15% Malays, 10% Indians and others which include a few Eurasians (Lee, 1989). UK, on the other hand, comprises 81.5% English, 9.6% Scottish, 2.4% Irish, 1.9% Welsh, 1.8% Ulster, 2.8% West Indian, Indian, Pakistani and

others (1988 figures). The dominant races in Singapore (75%) and UK (81.5%) are Chinese and English respectively. A probable concern is that a racially mixed population composition would have its influence; the argument is that the focus of the analysis is 'national', not 'racial'.

2.7 Investigator's Identity

A further point to highlight about the population composition of the two countries is that the dominant races in Singapore (75%) and UK (81.5%) are Chinese and English respectively. A relevant point here is the identity of the investigator. I am a Malaysian national with a Chinese origin. As an investigator, my foreign background to the British context gives the advantage of an objective viewpoint when studying British managers. On the other hand, I also recognise the possibility of the investigator's bias in the Singapore context. I would argue that not being a Singapore national does minimise this bias to some extent. There is a need also to point out that the investigator's Chinese identity does provide an enriched perception of the Chinese managers in Singapore. In addition, the fourteen years I have spent in Britain also provide a particular understanding of the British managers in their context.

3. THE RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND MAJOR DECISIONS

The position at the start of this chapter is that the research problem is about comparative management and that it involved a cross-national setting. The 'Outline Methodology' section has explained the value of adopting the polyocular vision, accepting opposing theories in the field of comparative management as well as recommending the soundness of the basis of this approach which is rooted in the heterogenistic

logic. The application of the heterogenistic approach was then extended to the combining of quantitative and qualitative methods for an added appreciation of the merits of diversity and combining different forms of data for a richer and fuller effect. The strategy and validation in its framework took on 'triangulation' as a way of cross-checking biases and subjectivities, and for validation purposes.

From the methodological outline and other issues discussed, the main framework that has emerged about the cross-national research comparing British and Singaporean managers' responses to change are:

1. The two-staged methodology which allows first, the broad and general study of a large number of people using quantitative methods; secondly, the indepth study using interviews which allow more freedom of expression via unstructured interviews. In other words, the general study stage is the foundation or 'backdrop' to the indepth qualitative study at the second stage.

2. The other major issue involves the matching process. The study follows Hofstede's (1980) strategy for matching like organisations and its subculture group which in this case, are the middle managers of like organisations.

The next chapter will explain the implementation of the methodological framework and its decisions, including its timescale and sequencing.

CHAPTER 4

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SAMPLE AND METHOD

This chapter describes, discusses and explains firstly, the selection process (Section 1) for the two countries, its organizations and the management levels for the study; and secondly, the matching process (Section 2) for the organizations, the content and scale of 'like' change events. The definition of a 'significant' change and the criteria for matching organizations (Section 3) are also given prior to the explanation of matching 'like' changes. A section on 'Method' (Section 4) discusses the literature survey, preliminary and proper fieldwork including the schedules and timescales. Section 5 explains the design and piloting of the questionnaire, the structure of the questionnaire and the scale used. Section 6 explains the piloting of the interview schedule, the structure of the interview schedule and the Critical Incident Technique used. The last section explains the analytical tools and techniques for organizing the different forms of data for manipulation.

Cross-cultural management studies are often criticized on the reliability of their conclusions. A potential criticism is the 'poor' matching across cultures. The other criticism is to do with the tendency in such studies to attribute differences in findings to differences in culture. To minimize the first drawback, much attention has been given to designing and finding closer matches of samples for the research as is one of the tasks of this chapter; to minimize the second drawback, a survey of the cross-cultural and management literature on the two countries has been used to cross-check and substantiate the findings on cultural characteristics. The

researcher's 'hands on' experience in these two countries has also helped to elicit particularism and universalism in the study.

1. SELECTION PROCESS

1.1 Selection of Research Locations: Singapore and Britain

Chapter two has explained my interest in the two locations, Singapore and Britain, and that it is largely to do with what the literature has said about their economic history, social background, attitudes towards change and the situation of Singapore being twice as successful in keeping inflation down and outstripping UK in GDP, seven times (The Economist, 1991).

What emerged strongly from the literature was, on the one hand, Singaporeans have been said to be familiar with change (Chong, 1984; Richardson, 1984; Clammer, 1985) and there are indications from various writers that Singaporeans are relatively more receptive to technology transfer (Kedia and Bhagat, 1988; Clad, 1989) and responsive to change; her economic success despite her lack of natural resources has also drawn considerable interest (Tregonning, 1980; Clegg, Dunphy and Redding, 1986; Clad, 1989; Ooi, 1989; Sandhu and Wheatley, 1989; Tregonning, 1990). On the other hand, the literature has suggested that the difficulty in Britain's ability to adapt to changes (Phelps-Brown, 1986; Marquand, 1989) together with attitudes incompatible with changing, has affected her failure to grow economically (Vogel, 1979; Phelps-Brown, 1986; Broadberry, 1988; Crafts, 1988; Marquand, 1989). Maybe the difference in adaptability to change and the difference in economic performance can be explained by a deep-rooted attitude that goes back in history to the complacent

British golden empire days in contrast to the 'fortune seeking' or even 'survival mentality' of the immigrants who settled in Singapore.

The two national culture settings are therefore selected as an interesting contrast for comparing like organizations operating in them. Their contrast is not a setback because according to Strebela (1989), regardless of a country's starting point, 'people', their ability to learn, change and adapt is the key to economic success; national-societal culture also affects competitiveness (Kedia and Bhaget, 1988; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990; and Sorge, 1991). The two countries are representative of modern and developed eastern and western nations, operating within the same world context and subject to more or less the same types of forces and business pressures. Much of their background and setting have been described and discussed at length in Chapter two.

An additional reason for selecting the two countries is because my previous work experience in organizations has been in both these countries which gives the advantage of familiarity with people, systems and institutions in those countries. This was important for practical reasons because it facilitated the progress of the study. I should mention that my previous employment in one of those organizations gained me access to that organization and the contacts and informants from the organization have proved to be invaluable on a formal and informal basis.

1.2 Selection of Organizations

It is generally accepted that all modern nations are complex and subculturally heterogeneous when considering how their national characteristics are determined. Within a nation, there is the public,

private and charitable or voluntary sectors in an economy. Since the public and private sectors have the most influence on any economy at the national level, a decision was taken to focus on organizations from those sectors. Since the researcher's past experience has been in services industry, the decision was to take advantage of that experience by focusing on organizations from that sector.

The original intention was to secure access to four matched pairs of organizations, two pairs per sector per country, but access was refused at the last stage of negotiation on the last pair. The efforts to gain access elsewhere to replace the last pair was fruitless. The access gained by then, were two matched pairs of organizations from the quasi-public sector and one matched pair from the private sector.

Organizations from the service sector involved in the research were those providing education and fast food, and hospitals. For the sake of confidentiality and anonymity, pseudonyms were given to the matched pair organizations as follows:

<u>Type of service</u>	<u>British organizations</u>	<u>Singapore organizations</u>
Hospital	HOSP/B	HOSP/S
Education	EDUC/B	EDUC/S
Fast food	FAST/B	FAST/S

Note: B=Britain and S=Singapore

The organizations in this study from the quasi-public sector are the hospitals and those engaged in education. The organizations in the private sector are those who provide fast food.

1.3 Selection of Management Levels

Chapter one has explained that the focus of the investigation would be on middle managers. The interest in middle managers is because they are often the executors of upper management decisions or policy and they have a central role to play in the change process. The understanding of this particular group of managers is important. Their potential to resist change is equally present; their resistance affects their ability to convince their subordinates of the advantage of the change and may result in a failed change or a change implemented with great difficulty. Management literature has tended to focus on top management or senior managers or managers in general. There has not been much attention given specifically to 'middle' managers in organizations. Perhaps the lack of literature on middle managers is partly indicative of the difficulty in defining 'what a middle manager really is'. Soong (p.30-32, 1986) described them as the "energy and vitality" of their organization and likened them to the filling in the middle of the sandwich or hamburger which determines its actual taste. In other words, if a change is not well received by the middle managers, this would show in the 'taste'.

Middle managers, in practice, include a large group of managers whose functional level may vary anywhere between the 'senior middle managers' end' to the 'junior middle managers' end'. For the purpose of this study, the decision was to adopt a broad definition of 'what a middle manager is' that included the 'senior' and 'middle' middle managers; the definition will be explained in the next paragraph. The broader definition allows for the variations in structures of organizations.

Middle managers are defined as those who manage others, although in some specialized functions which have a more individualized role such as research and development, these middle managers would be seen to work alone. Middle managers also have delegated power and are involved in the operations management of the unit or department they are responsible for. They are the link between the 'thinking end' and the 'doing end' of the organization. The managers may be involved in some of the stages of policy decision-making but their main role is to operationalize the policy decisions which are made. The designations may vary from organization to organization and it may also depend on the organization structure; however, the overall role and function of the middle manager would conform to the above definition.

The research also considered the immediate subordinates of these middle managers. They are the junior middle managers or the 'next-in-command' who report to them directly. These would be the deputies of their role whose duties are mainly operational in nature.

Investigating responses from the two corresponding tiers of an organization structure does act as a counter check. This strategy of matching narrow samples and using samples from different parts of society, gives the research, breadth and solidity.

2. THE MATCHING PROCESS

2.1 Definition of a Significant Change

There was a concern that the study would not be limited to a particular event of change (for example, technological change or structural change) because the focus of the study is understanding the direction of managers' responses in a significant change, not a

particular event of change. The event of change is regarded purely as a force of change which triggers the reactions in the receptors of change.

In the method used, the incumbents were permitted to identify the significant change for their organization; to avoid the lack of standardization, a working definition of what a 'significant change' is, was used. Stage one involved a questionnaire survey whereby respondents were asked to focus on a range of significant changes which had had an impact on them, their work and their work environment. Such changes might include a merger or takeover, the installation of a new computer system, restructuring or reorganization, use of new technology, new work environment, new chief executive, etc. The respondents were also told that the focus of the study was their overall response to significant changes at work, and that the significant changes should meet the following criteria:

1. The change should be affecting or have affected them.
2. The change should affect at least two sections or departments in their organization.
3. The change (such as those listed above) should affect at least two aspects of their work life; for example, their responsibilities, their routine, their physical work environment, their work relationships.
4. Change can include successful or unsuccessful changes.
5. The change should be recent, say in the last 3 years.

For the indepth interviews in stage two, matched events of significant change were identified following the same criteria above. The difference between the questionnaire and the interview on this matter is that the independent observer holds the superior status in deciding the event of change for interviewees to focus on and all responses elicited are in relation to that change. This approach is necessary because stage two is an indepth study, requiring a more narrowed focus. The identification of the event was done via the preliminary interviews and discussions with senior managers of each of the organizations.

Allowing the incumbents to select the change within the definition is important because if a change is perceived to be 'significant', there is an assurance that the respondents can express their responses in a useful and meaningful way. This is based on the principle that action (or non-response) is dependant on the conviction of reality (Holzner, 1968). The second reason for allowing the incumbents to identify the change is to provide the first approximation of the significant change. A second stage check to the above definition would be that the change has a significant impact on any two major systems.

The implications of the approach adopted does mean that the independent observer will ultimately have a superior status in assessing and interpreting the responses to change.

2.2 Criteria for Matching Organizations in Britain and Singapore

The criteria used for matching like organizations in Britain and Singapore are:

- size, for example, staff strength and capacity,
- purpose of the operation,
- services offered, for example, hospital or fast food operators and
- mode of operations.

The common denominator for comparing size, purpose and mode of operation, will depend on the type of organization it is; for example, while staff strength may be the unit of comparison for one organization, student enrolment may be a better unit of comparison for an educational institution.

As explained in Chapter three, Pettigrew's definition of the content of change, to match similar or same events of change was adopted here.

2.2.1 The content of the change

The 'content of change' refers to the particular areas of change under examination (p.267, Pettigrew, 1990a); in other words, the particular aspect(s) of organizational life or system which is affected by the change process; for example, rationalization of departments or changing management structure would come within the 'organizational restructuring' category for the content of change. Another example would be an 'incentive scheme' which would affect reward systems and it may have career promotion implications while it achieves better company performance.

2.2.2 The scale of the change

The 'scale of change' definition has been explained under the definition of a significant change in a preceding paragraph. The

significant change is identified by the incumbents for a first approximation. A second stage check for the scale of change is its impact on any two major systems. The independent observer has superior status in the final decision of the matches.

3. PROFILES OF MATCHED ORGANIZATIONS IN BRITAIN AND SINGAPORE

3.1 Public and Quasi-public Sector

Organizations are in this category by virtue of their dependence on government resources and/or affected by government policies and decisions in their administration and operations.

3.1.1. Matching HOSP/B and HOSP/S

The first matched pair are hospitals and the focus is on the services provided to the public, not the teaching and training aspects such as student nurse training. By virtue of the organizations being hospitals, both their purpose and mode of operation can be expected to be very similar. The major spheres of attendance of the two hospitals are outpatient, emergency and inpatient care. Both hospitals offer the general range of services including the following services: medicine, obstetrics and gynaecology, orthopaedic surgery (at a different site), paediatrics, general surgery, cardiology/endocrinology, metabolic investigation unit and oncology unit. A comparison of their size and general profile are as follows:

	<u>HOSP/B</u>	<u>HOSP/S</u>
Country	Britain	Singapore
Type of service		
Industry	health care	health care
Age of the organization		
(years)	22	5
Catchment area (in millions)	5.4 (2.8)*	2.7
Number of beds	1,200 (600)*	700
Staff strength as at		
1 January 1990	3,000 (1,500)*	1,900

Note: HOSP/B=hospital in Britain and HOSP/S=hospital in Singapore.

* - denotes half the number of HOSP/B's bed and staff

Based on the catchment area figures, HOSP/B serve roughly twice as many people as HOSP/S and they have twice as many bed and staff as HOSP/S. Although both hospitals are not mirror images of each other in terms of their age, capacity and size, compromises were accepted to match them on the basis of their similarity in purpose and mode of operation for the following reasons. Singapore is a much smaller and younger nation than Britain with only 25 years of nation-building since 9 August 1965; therefore there were limitations to finding a closer match to HOSP/B's age. An additional reason for the compromise is because the catchment area of HOSP/S is limited by the size of the population of Singapore. The organization charts of HOSP/B and HOSP/S are in Appendices 1 and 2 respectively.

3.1.1a Content of change: HOSP/B versus HOSP/S

HOSP/S in Singapore underwent three significant changes during the recent three years. One involved the change of leadership that is, the chief executive officer (CEO), the other was the major reorganization of the administration departments and the third change was the change of governance of the hospital from being under the Ministry of Health to the Ministry of Education. The hospital had undergone three changes of CEO and the role of the CEO is under consideration. Changing the role of the CEO had major impact on individuals in terms of expectations and the overall style of management. The reorganization particularly affected the following departments: systems management, support services, building management, and the role of the chief operating officer (COO). The middle managers in HOSP/S who participated in the questionnaire survey were the 13 Assistant Directors, 11 Senior Executive Officers, 2 Managers, 14 Executives and the 5 chiefs of the paramedical departments.

HOSP/B is like one of the many units in Britain, experiencing major change in terms of its management structure. The change was advocated in the wake of the white paper, "Working for patients". To achieve the aim of "putting patients first", hospitals had to be given greater freedom and control in management at the local level which puts them indirectly in competition with other hospitals because their allocation is contracted on patients treated. The middle managers in HOSP/B are the 18 clinical managers (which includes the senior nurse managers) and 13 support services managers involved in Finance, Personnel, Works and Building, Catering and other services.

For the purpose of matching like change events in HOSP/B and HOSP/S for the indepth interviews, this study will focus on both the

'reorganization' and the 'change in CEO' in HOSP/S as the equivalent happening of the 'reorganization in management structure' experienced by HOSP/B. I decided to include both the changes as a focus point of the interviews because the aggregated changes demonstrated equivalence of happening. The change in HOSP/B indicated change of control and reorganization of management structure; likewise the aggregated changes in HOSP/S imply the same. In both cases, the reorganization affected at least two major systems like the human resource system and the organizational structure.

3.1.2 Matching EDUC/B and EDUC/S

The second matched pair from the public or quasi-public sector are tertiary level educational institutions: EDUC/B and EDUC/S. Their purpose is to train and provide their students with particular skills and qualifications for their careers. Both institutions offer part-time and full-time courses for their students. The mode of operation is basically the same although the way they are organized may not be identical.

	<u>EDUC/B</u>	<u>EDUC/S</u>
Country	Britain	Singapore
Type of service industry	education	education
Age of the organization (years)	21	26
Student enrolment	10,500	11,341
Staff strength as at 1 January 1990	1,500	1,250

Note: EDUC/B=educational institution in Britain and
EDUC/S=educational institution in Singapore.

Both institutions are close matches of each other in terms of purpose, mode of operation, size, age and capacity. The organization charts of EDUC/B and EDUC/S are in Appendices 3 and 4 respectively.

3.1.2a Content of Change: EDUC/B versus EDUC/S

EDUC/S in Singapore experienced an organizational structure change and also reorganized their administrative departments. On 1 February 1987, the reorganization affected administration and support functions. Some sections were given new emphasis in their role while another was disbanded with its functions and redistributed to the rest. The reorganization also included changes of headship by rotation and a new appointment. In late 1989 EDUC/S had a change in Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and just before that the Deputy Principal (Administration) retired. The arrival of the new CEO brought changes which focused on bridging the link between potential students and industry as well as implications of a new management style. Around the same time, a new wave of changes arrived such as the formation of the SME (Small and Medium Enterprises) Unit and the Student Liaison Unit, together with new approaches in activities like the selling mission, vacation training programme and consultancy. The purpose was to form better links with potential students and industry.

EDUC/B in Britain, on the other hand, was faced with a significant change which moved it to corporate status. The operational implications of the change were that all departments of EDUC/B especially Finance, Personnel, Administrative computing services, the Directorate, and Buildings and Estates, would assume additional or more responsibilities and functions than previously under the Local Education Authority (LEA). The removal of the institution from the aegis of the LEA imparted substantial responsibilities on the Board of

Governors. Other implications would be the need for enhancing its public image, public and political.

Whilst the changes undergone by both organizations are not absolutely the same, the similarity is that there is a major reorganization of departmental functions. In general, the departments of both institutions have gained more responsibilities as a result of disbanding the Administrative Services Office in EDUC/S and the greater independence of EDUC/B from the LEA. The middle managers of EDUC/S are the Administration Officers, Executive Officers and a selected number of academic staff who have administrative duties. EDUC/B is organized differently and their middle management level includes the 20 Heads of department and Administration Officers from the academic as well as the equivalent 22 from the administration and support services.

3.2 Private Sector

Organizations in this category are privately funded and independent of government support, directly or indirectly.

3.2.1 Matching FAST/B and FAST/S

The matched pair organizations from this sector, FAST/B and FAST/S, is an international fast food operator which makes and sells fast food in a standardized manner and style whichever part of the world it is located.

	<u>FAST/B</u>	<u>FAST/S</u>
Country	Britain	Singapore
Type of service industry	restaurant	restaurant
Age of the organization (years)	15	9
Catchment area (in millions)	55	2.6
Number of outlets	220	18
Staff strength as at 1 January 1990	6,500	750

Note: FAST/B=restaurant chain in Britain and
FAST/S=restaurant chain in Singapore.

FAST/S began its operations in April 1985 and they owned a total of 18 restaurants. FAST/S has 18 restaurant managers who report to 3 area managers and they, in turn, report to the Operations Manager. FAST/B opened its first restaurant in the UK in 1973. Today FAST/B has around 220 restaurants. For FAST/B, there are 160 restaurants reporting to 23 area managers who in turn report to the 3 regional directors.

FAST/B and FAST/S were matched in terms of their similarity in purpose, mode of operation, context and content of their change, not in terms of their age, size and capacity. Although the context of private sector organizations may be based on economic factors such as turnover, profitability, market share and its strategic growth or decline, recourse to the data revealed that none of the host organizations referred to that list of economic factors. It was therefore decided that the matching proceed based on other factors reported by the respondents from FAST/B and FAST/S because their perceptions affect their responses to change. The context or main focus for most managers of FAST/B and FAST/S are the stores or restaurants they are responsible for and operate in. As there is a large degree of standardization amongst international food operators,

differences in technology and delivery of the service are minimized. The organization charts of FAST/B and FAST/S are in Appendices 5 and 6 respectively.

3.2.1a. Content of change: FAST/B versus FAST/S

The incentive schemes of FAST/S and FAST/B are very similar in purpose, content and context. They were implemented on 1 August 1989 for FAST/S and between July to December 1989 for FAST/B. The purpose of the scheme is to stabilize turnover and to increase the quality of performance. The scheme affected the salaries and career prospects of restaurant managers and provided other tangible incentives.

The scheme, based on quality, service, cleanliness and hospitality, and inspection, is made by area managers and representatives of the organizations with scores allotted against those factors. All restaurants have to meet the operating percentage and percentage targets, which are computed based on historical statistics, to obtain reward. The change would affect, at least, the human resource system and its financial system.

The fieldwork was located in Coventry (1989 population figure=304,100), Birmingham (992,500) and London (6.8 million) because about half of Britain's population live in a belt across England, with South Lancashire and West Yorkshire at one end, the London area at the other and the industrialized Midlands at its centre. It therefore, seemed reasonable to select all restaurants in the Midlands and include some of London to come up with the equivalent number of restaurants for comparison. The South Lancashire and West Yorkshire area were precluded to reduce travelling and the financial costs

involved. The other reason for choosing those locations is that they are multi-cultural settings.

4. METHOD

4.1 Literature Survey: Schedule and Timescale

The research base was at the University of Warwick in Coventry, Britain. The research commenced with a month of intensive literature surveys using the computer search facilities and also by manual searches. Literature was gathered on Britain as well as Singapore from official, unofficial and academic sources. They included local newspapers, magazines, periodicals and academic literature. The literature survey covered the understanding of 'culture', the two countries as well as literature on its management and cross-cultural studies done in the two countries.

Three months were spent in Singapore, repeating the search for literature particularly by local writers including relevant information from official and unofficial sources. Local journals, periodicals, magazines and newspapers were also potential sources of information.

4.2 Preliminary Fieldwork

The second purpose of the first trip to Singapore was to negotiate access to organizations for research and to gather preliminary information about the potential host organizations for the matching process. Since most of the time would be spent in Britain, it was important to gain a reasonable number of accesses to organizations in Singapore prior to attempts at gaining access to British

organizations. British organizations were then matched to Singapore organizations who were open to participation.

Reference books on 'Key' companies and 'Key' personnel in Singapore and UK provided the initial source of names and addresses of companies in services industry to write to. Large organizations and competitive international organizations were potential targets to approach because they were more likely to face significant changes. Of the 19 organizations in hotel, retailing, telecommunications, fast food operations, hospitals and educational institutions in Singapore who were written to in advance, invitations were received from five organizations to meet with their senior managers to discuss the research further. Four of the five subsequently decided to participate in the research.

To facilitate the preliminary process of matching 'like changes' that have occurred in the last 12 to 18 months in their organizations, senior managers were interviewed about the recent changes they had undergone or were going through. Relevant written information, such as background information about the company and their organization chart were also collected. Tentative arrangements about the fieldwork were made at the same time. The negotiation process in Singapore was subsequently repeated for the British organizations. Prior to the actual fieldwork, contacts were made between six (for British organizations) to twelve months (for Singapore organizations) ahead of the time schedule for the fieldwork in each location. The time lag was necessary to gain suitable matches and for confirming arrangements appropriate for the particular organizations in each countries.

4.3 Actual Fieldwork

Before the commencement of the actual fieldwork in Britain or Singapore, senior managers in each organization had to be re-contacted; firstly, to renew the contact and secondly, to either confirm or renegotiate arrangements for starting the fieldwork in their organizations. It was at this late stage that a British organization of a matched pair communicated their 'change of mind'. Efforts were made to replace the lost company but without success.

Fieldwork on the British organizations began with a distribution of questionnaires to all middle managers of the host organizations on a staggered basis. The time taken over each survey was 5 to 6 weeks per organization. An internal collection point, usually a secretary, was arranged to assist in the collection and for chasing the 'stragglers'. The response rate was good because of the arrangement as well as the intense effort made, ringing and chasing the remaining respondents. Managers were happy that their forms could be returned confidentially and anonymously using a sealed envelope. This arrangement operated well for EDUC/B, EDUC/S, HOSP/B, HOSP/S and FAST/S. A business reply licence had to be arranged for FAST/B because it suited the managers of the various stores better.

Indepth interviews began around more or less the same time as the questionnaire surveys. Since all the interviewees met had no objections, liberty was taken to tape record all interviews. Notes of important observations and information in each interview were also made. Attention was also given to non-verbal information about the way the organization functioned. Being adequately warned about the laborious task of transcription, every effort was made to transcribe all tapes more or less immediately after each interview. Notes on

observations and information were also compiled while they were fresh in mind about each manager.

After completing all data collection in the British organizations, the questionnaire survey and the interviews commenced for the next research location, Singapore. The time taken for the return of the questionnaires in Singapore varied between 2 to 3 weeks. The relatively shorter time taken was because the Singapore managers had expressed a particular interest and curiosity in the study. The fieldwork in each country took between 4 to 5 months excluding the previous 3 months spent per country, negotiating access and gathering preliminary information from the organizations for the initial matching process. The practical problems involved in getting access to matched samples in the two countries were present and some compromises had to be accepted in order to obtain data.

5. QUESTIONNAIRE

5.1 Design and Piloting of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was tested out on 7 members of staff; lecturers and researchers, from Sociology, Organization Behaviour, Industrial Relations Unit and the Centre for Corporate Strategy and Change at the University. 2 postgraduate students were also involved in the pre-pilot test stage. The questionnaire underwent several revisions before some service organizations were approached to pilot the questionnaire survey. 32 middle managers from a university, banking, wholesaling, retailing, supermarket and garage services, responded to the pilot study and made useful remarks and comments for the revision of the questionnaire.

A pilot study in Singapore was not possible because of the enormous cost involved. As a compromise and by proxy, Singaporean students on full-time MBA courses in UK were contacted via their pigeon-holes for participation because these MBA students were likely to have had management experience of some sort in Singapore. Although it was appreciated that they may not be fully representative of all middle managers in Singapore, nonetheless they were a good testing ground as well as an opportunity to try out the language and wordings of the questionnaire. 16 Singaporean MBA students responded to pilot study and provided helpful comments about the construction of the questionnaire. They also indicated no great difficulty with the language or wordings.

About 4 or 5 persons commented that the questionnaire was too long. The questionnaire was subsequently rationalized and reduced by a page; the time taken to complete it was therefore reduced to an average of 15 to 20 minutes. Some found that having a written section at the beginning of the questionnaire was off-putting so the layout was restructured by putting the written section at the end.

A key point of concern was whether the 'focus' of the respondents was sufficiently narrowed to avoid the situation of comparing 'oranges with apples'. The argument is that the study of overall responses to change would be incomplete if the focus of the respondents is limited to only one event of change. Besides having a broad definition of a significant change which is not too restrictive facilitates managers in giving answers that are useful and meaningful for application. Holzner's principle about conviction has application here; whatever is most important to the manager would easily surface. The other important point is that the use of the 'episode' concept, that is, having a clear beginning and end have been heavily criticized as

inappropriate for studying processes of change. Approaching the study with a more flexible boundary does overcome this difficulty. Another important point is that all the respondents of the pilot study have not found any difficulty with the concept or approach.

5.2 The Questionnaire

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (p.117, 1991) listed four main ways of gathering quantitative data: interviews, questionnaires, tests/measures, and observation. None of them was appropriate for the study except questionnaires. The interviews suggested are more apt for market research or opinion polls, and they use a handful of short questions. Tests/measures are for finding out how, or what, the individual thinks and they have particular application on personality tests, aptitude tests and so on. Observations or activity sampling technique are more suited for use in work study and operations management. In this method, observations are made and recorded over time. It was therefore, decided that a questionnaire survey was more suitable for the purpose of the research.

The questionnaire (see Appendices 7.1 to 7.7) begins with a front page covering general matters like the purpose of the questionnaire, completing and returning the questionnaire, promise of confidentiality and anonymity, together with a note of appreciation.

The identification of the respondent's job title/position, department and organization at the beginning is for administrative purposes of identifying 'the stragglers' who have not returned their forms. There is also a detailed definition of significant changes to help the respondent focus his or her responses.

On the whole, the questionnaire is constructed using a 5-point scale except for the last section which allows the respondent to write their responses without restriction. The questionnaire explores managers' overall experience of change and a host of variables under the following sections:

- Section 1: What managers find demanding or helpful in a change;
- Section 2: Power, communication, commitment, work relationships, perceived benefits in a change and managers' ability to cope with change
- Section 3: Managers' experience of change;
- Section 4: What is important to managers;
- Section 5: Work preferences;
- Section 6: Written responses to 7 questions with additional space given for anything else the respondents would like to say about their responses to change.

There is also a section to capture details of the respondent's background.

The questions that were constructed for exploring managers' overall experience of change were based on my own change experiences over my three years as a middle manager of large organizations in Singapore and Britain. The first block of twelve items in section 1 were constructed based on what the literature (Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988; Daft, 1989; Cummings and Huse, 1989) says is difficult or demanding for managers. The 5-point scale aims to determine the extent, these items are demanding. The second block of ten items in section 1, was also constructed based on what the literature suggested are 'helpful'

items in a change. The aim is to explore the extent, to which these items are helpful.

The six sets of 4 statements in section 2 were constructed around the following variables to elicit responses to a significant change:

- power (statements 1 to 4),
 - ability to cope with change (statements 5 to 8),
 - work relationships (statements 9 to 12),
 - communication (statements 13 to 16),
 - commitment (statements 17 to 20)
- and perceived benefits (statements 21 to 24).

This is because they are described as important in the management of change literature (Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Plant, 1987; Handy, 1988; Kanter, 1988, Cummings and Huse, 1989; Greiner and Schein, 1989).

The statements in section 3 likewise explore the role of the following in a significant change:

- formal education (statement 1),
 - managerial and supervisory experience (statement 2),
 - religion (statement 3),
 - age (statement 4),
 - gender (statements 5 and 6),
 - past experience of change (statement 7)
- and relationship with boss (statement 8).

The checklist of items in section 4 requires the respondents to rank or prioritize so as to understand what managers find most demanding or

difficult and what 'times' (eg. lunch, weekend) are most important to him or her.

The five questions in section 5 on managers' work preferences were copied from Child and Partridge's (1982) measure of flexibility.

The classification and coding of qualifications (p. 239, Ellis and Child, 1973; p.63, Griffin, 1989), nationality, country, religion and and so on, were literature based (Central Statistical Office, 1989; Griffin, 1989; Central Office of Information, 1990; Ministry of Communications and Information, 1990).

5.3 The Scale Used in the Questionnaire

The Likert scale (p. 133-142, Oppenheim, 1968) was used because its primary purpose is unidimensionality which concurs with the purpose of the study. The most serious criticism against the Likert scale is its lack of reproducibility in the sense that the same total score may be obtained in many different ways; in other words, the scores may have little meaning. The argument here is that the prime interest is not scores but the pattern of responses. Any question about equal intervals or equal-appearing intervals which is Thurstone's main concern becomes redundant for the same reason. The use of the Likert scale therefore suffices and is appropriate in this study. The Likert scale has the advantage of being easy to construct and less laborious. A decision was made for a 5-point scale because on the one hand, having a shorter scale would not be enriching but on the other hand, having a scale of 7 points or more, would complicate matters in terms of wider choice and it may give managers difficulty in perceiving themselves along a longer scale. The advantage of the Likert scale is

its reliability and it tends to perform very well when it comes to an ordering of people with regard to a particular attitude.

6. INTERVIEWS

The most fundamental of all qualitative methods is indepth interviewing and in the study observations and diary methods have been used to supplement the interviews.

6.1. Piloting the Interview Schedule

The interview schedule underwent the pre-pilot testing stages of being circulated to four lecturers at the University for comments before it was piloted. I tested and timed the interview schedule on two managers; one from a wholesale healthfood company and the other from the heating and plumbing department of another company. On average, the interviews took anything between forty-five minutes to an hour to complete. This varied from person to person. Overall, there were no difficulties expressed about the nature or structure of the questions.

6.2 The Interview Schedule

The indepth interview involved a selected number of middle managers and their immediate subordinates from each organization who have been particularly effected by the significant change. The number of middle managers involved depended on negotiations and were as follow:

<u>HOSP/B</u>	<u>HOSP/S</u>	<u>EDUC/B</u>	<u>EDUC/S</u>	<u>FAST/B</u>	<u>FAST/S</u>
8	8	6	7	8	8

All interviews were done on a one-to-one basis to encourage a free flow of information which may be inhibited by the presence of colleagues or peers.

The first two parts of the unstructured interview explored the overall responses of managers towards a significant change and what they found difficult or helpful in the change; the rest explored indepth the role of communication (part 3), commitment (part 4) and power (part 5) in a change. (See Appendices 8.1 to 8.4 for the Interview Schedule). The first two parts aimed to cross-check the findings of the questionnaire as well as add depth and richness to the overall responses to change. The rest of the instrument aimed to understand indepth the importance of the three variables in a significant change. Those variables have been given frequent mention in the management of change literature (Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Plant, 1987; Handy, 1988; Kanter, 1988, Cummings and Huse, 1989; Greiner and Schain, 1989) as important items of focus in the change process.

8.3 The Critical Incident Technique

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (p.71-72, 1991) listed six 'instruments' or approaches to gain insights into people and situations. They are the Critical Incident Technique or CIT, repertory grid technique, projective techniques, protocol analysis, group interviews and cognitive mapping. Some of the techniques were complicated to use for a single researcher, others were more suited for eliciting the 'hidden' or 'non-verbalised', and still others were more appropriate for action research (p. 83-96, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991). The CIT was decided as the most appropriate technique for the study because it focused on a problem or area intensely and unearthed specific reasons or causes by getting the respondents to

tell you about it; it also follows leads in the responses rather than being guided by questions.

The CIT was developed by Flanagan while he was connected with the Aviation Psychology Program of the U.S. Army Air Forces. The technique grew out of studies like the analysis of the specific reasons for failure in learning to fly or causes of pilot failure. He defined CIT as a

"set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behaviour in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles"
(p.327, Flanagan, 1954).

'Incident' refers to any observable human activity that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act. To be 'critical', an incident must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and where its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects. His technique is highly objectivist and has been used to great effect by qualitative researchers. Respondents may be asked to explain their actions and motives with regard to instances that have occurred. The main criticism of the technique relates to recall and the tendency in individuals to rationalize the past. Measures have been taken to minimize this difficulty by improving memory through advance notice of the areas of interests for the interviews. The findings were further substantiated by interviews with senior management of the organizations concerned. The Unit General Manager and two consultants were interviewed for further information from HOSP/B but access to interview senior managers from EDUC/B and FAST/B was not available in the same way. In Singapore organizations, one senior manager in

HOSP/S, two senior managers in EDUC/S and one senior manager in FAST/S were interviewed for further information.

The CIT consists essentially of a collection of reports of behaviours which were critical. The incident is acceptable as a critical one only if in the judgment of the observer it relates to an important aspect of work and includes behaviour which is outstandingly effective or is ineffective with respect to the specific situation. An ineffective incident leads to significant delay, mistakes, omissions, lack of accomplishment, or obstacles to achievement of work (p.21, Mayeske, Harmon and Glickman, 1966). They made the difference between success and failure in the observed work situations (Flanagan, 1951).

The steps (Flanagan, 1949; 1954; Barnes, 1960) in using the technique might be outlined thus:

1. Determine the aim or purpose of the investigation carefully and completely.
2. Secure the reporters/respondents and inform them of the aim of the investigation. These reporters must be responsible persons in the field of investigation and competent to recall and relate incidents in the area being studied.
3. Collect the incidents by individual interviews, group interviews or mailed questionnaires. Each respondent should be asked to report in detail one incident which is outstandingly effective and one which is outstandingly ineffective in the field of study.

4. Include in the final study only incidents that report behaviour that was actually observed by the reporter/respondent recently enough to be recalled accurately.
5. Analyse the results, make classifications with the help of a professional jury and tabulate the results.
6. Interpret the findings.

The first four objectives explore the requirements that are crucial in the overall sense. They probe indepth 'What pleases managers about a change?'; 'What displeases managers about a change?'; 'What is difficult for managers in a significant change?' and 'What is helpful for managers when in a significant change?' They also probe the extremes of 'communication', 'commitment' and 'power' variable as follow: 'What was lacking in the communication on the change?'; 'What was helpful about the communication on the change?'; 'What was difficult that put managers off in their commitment to change?'; 'What encouraged their commitment to change?'; 'What were the things they found difficult not to be in control of or have influence on in a change?' and 'What control or influence should be delegated to them at the before, during and after stages of change?' The CIT is useful for studying extreme behaviour such as those above.

The 'reporters' or respondents were middle managers who had been identified by senior management as those most affected by the change and therefore were in a competent position to report about their experience of the recent, significant change. They were also informed and prepared by circulars in advance of their interviews. The interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis to remove problems or inhibitions and fear of what their colleagues and peers thought of

them. As explained in Chapter 3, two neutral professionals formed the team for triangulating the data.

The overall structure of my interview schedule was modelled on the interview format of a Health Authority's 'Customer Services Project' which used the CIT (Caple and Dalghan, 1986). The schedule of questions for each of the five parts followed a pattern of opening question(s), question(s) on expectations and questions about the critical incident until this line of questioning was exhausted. Anticipated prompt questions were also constructed in case they were needed.

The interview schedule is a useful checklist to ensure that the important points are not missed out. Some of the questions in the schedule may seem repetitive but the purpose is to have a ready set of questions should the researcher lose her way during the interview. The schedule was not strictly adhered to and ad hoc questions were asked to pursue leads in the responses to elicit further details.

7. Analytical Tools and Techniques

The accumulation of large masses of interview data and quantitative forms pose difficulties with processing and analyses.

7.1 Analysis of the Quantitative Data

A combination of factors such as costs, the capability of the tool and that it is simple and user friendly, were what influenced the choice of the tools for processing and analyses. The SPSSX statistical package was employed to process the large amounts of quantitative data and the Draw Perfect package was used to construct bar charts.

The statistical measures used for the study was the mode as a measure of central tendency (Amos, Brown and Mink, 1965; Moroney, 1986). The overall pattern of 'average' responses to all the questions and the extent responses were similar or different for 50% of the managers from the six organizations, recommended the use of such a measure. According to Moroney (p. 43, 1986), a mode is "the most commonly occurring value". Since an integer scale is used for all responses, the mode is an appropriate measure because the typical value will not have problems of non-integers, usually produced by arithmetic averages. As the purpose is to examine trends or broad overall patterns of responses to change, it is meaningless to compute averages with decimalized values.

7.2 Analysis of Qualitative Data

While it is generally accepted that the analysis of qualitative data is an art and it is intuitive (Miles, 1979), a systematic approach to the data is still necessary. Ferner in an unpublished paper, advised about the importance of

"not just the content of the information provided, but also the form of words, the types of recurring phrases and concepts used. These could provide cues to underlying issues, as well as to the deeper management 'culture'".

Ferner also recommended a system of producing summaries of each interview, listing the main points, issues and themes. The summaries then served as a sort of index, to locate issues at hand. In principle, Ferner's approach was adopted for the organization and processing of the qualitative data as far as technique is concerned except that a card index system was preferred in this research. The approach systematically combed the interview data for themes and the position adopted was one of allowing the data 'to speak' and for themes to emerge from the data (Miles, 1979; Mintzberg, 1979). The

neutral professionals who were involved in processing the interview data were briefed on the approach and technique.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA. PART ONE

The next two chapters will present the results of the quantitative data collected from the questionnaire. Chapter 5 will present the 'general background' of the managers in terms of their typical profile and past experience of significant change. Chapter 6 will present the 'responses' of managers about various facets and items in relation to significant change. The approach for this chapter will be the presentation of facts followed by discussions on the following:

- Section 1: A report on the response rates from the questionnaire survey
- Section 2: Managers' typical profiles (Appendix 9 and 25),
- Section 3: A discussion on 'Qualifications'
- Section 4: A discussion on 'Years of Management Experience, Years of Service, Age, Sex and Dependents'
- Section 5: Managers' background experience of change (Appendix 10 and 26),

The quantitative data will be viewed from three perspectives: inter-country, inter-economic sector and inter-company, collectively or separately to gain the richness of the data. Some variables may also be discussed collectively with other variables because of their connections with them. For example, 'Length of service', 'Management experience' and 'Age' are connected to some degree; it is probable that the older the person, the more likely he or she will be to have longer service and experience, unless there has been a late start or change in career. It is therefore according to such criteria that these variables are discussed collectively or separately.

1. A REPORT OF THE RESPONSE RATES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

	<u>Number distributed</u>	<u>Number completed</u>	<u>Percentage return</u>
EDUC/B	38	32	84%
EDUC/S	43	33	77%
HOSP/B	44	39	88%
HOSP/S	50	45	90%
FAST/B	200	83	42%
FAST/S	49	46	94%

Note: /B=Britain, /S=Singapore

The questionnaire survey commenced on 19 April 1990 for EDUC/B. The commencement dates for HOSP/B and FAST/B were staggered, and the entire survey for all British companies was completed by 4 June 1990. The high return rates have provided the study with a strong and sound database for analyzing the results from the two countries.

I believe the high return rates were because of a letter negotiated with the senior management of all six organizations, for circulation to all respondents. The letter strongly encouraged middle managers' participation in the study. Having an internal collection point via the secretary of a top or senior manager has also helped because it demonstrated visible support from top management for the research and the secretary helped in reminding or prompting managers' participation.

The lowest response rate of 42% was from FAST/B. The reasons for the low response rate may be because of the nature of the business. I gathered from speaking with various managers of FAST/B that they are often inundated with forms and papers from headquarters, all of which seem important, if not urgent; the pressure of such paperwork discouraged their participation. Unlike most of the participating

British organizations, FAST/B's outlets are not concentrated within Coventry but scattered throughout Britain. It therefore necessitated enclosing prepaid envelopes for their return, rather than using an internal collection point.

2. MANAGERS' TYPICAL PROFILE

2.1 Inter-country, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-company Comparison: The Typical Manager

This section portrays the typical profile of Singapore and British middle managers in the three perspectives mentioned and their various features will be discussed in the subsequent sections of this chapter as explained earlier. On an inter-country comparison, most of the British and Singapore managers who participated in the study are administrative staff except for the restaurant managers from FAST/B and FAST/S. The typical manager originates from his/her country, is a national of their country and has lived most of their life there. (See Appendix 25). The profile analyses of British and Singapore managers in Appendix 9 illustrated a strong similarity in the basic pattern of their profiles; the difference lies in their intensities, or values. The main differences are that the British managers are better qualified, male dominated, slightly older, more experienced but have shorter lengths of service with their present organizations.

On an inter-economic sector comparison, managers from the quasi-public sector of the two countries are in general, better qualified, older, with more management experience, longer service and tend to have more dependents than those in the private sector of their countries. Conversely, fastfood operators have higher staff turnover and younger-aged staff with relatively less years of experience. They are groomed

in-house and their length of service and years of experience illustrate this. Private sector managers in the sample tended to be less qualified, younger, with less management experience, fewer years of service and without dependents than those in the quasi-public sector.

2.1.1 EDUC/B vs EDUC/S

According to Appendix 25, the typical manager from EDUC/B holds a higher degree, is male, with dependents, 36 years old, with 4 years of management experience, 2 years of service with their present organisation and is a Christian. EDUC/S managers are mostly degree holders, female, with dependents, 26 years old, 5 years of management experience, 7 years of service and are Christians. They are similar in their religious affiliation, in having a degree, having dependents and more or less the same length of experience. Where they differ is that EDUC/B managers are better qualified, male dominated, generally 10 years older, and having less experience and length of service.

2.1.2 HOSP/B vs HOSP/S

A typical HOSP/B manager has professional qualifications, is male, without dependents, 27 years old, 10 years of management experience, 5 years of service and is a Christian. HOSP/S managers are mostly degree holders, typically female, with dependents, 30 years old, 2 years of management experience, 5 years of service and are Christians. They are similar in their religious affiliation, years of service and age.

2.1.3 FAST/B vs FAST/S

The typical managers from FAST/B and FAST/S are very similar; they tend to be male, without dependents, young in age (say, 24 and 23 years respectively) compared with managers from the other two services, with less management experience and years of service, and are Christians. FAST/S managers have 'O' level qualifications and FAST/B managers, degrees including HND and HNC.

3. A DISCUSSION ON 'QUALIFICATIONS'

3.1 Inter-country Comparison: Qualifications

The typical British middle manager (BMM) surveyed is better qualified than the Singapore middle manager (SMM). They have qualifications of higher degree (PhD, MA, MSc), professional qualification (in nursing - RGN, accountancy, radiography, pharmacology) and degree (BSc, BA) compared with the degree and 'O' level qualifications of the SMMs (p.239, Ellis and Child, 1973; p.63, Griffin, 1989). See Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Qualifications of BMMs and SMMs

EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
higher degree	professionl qualifns	degree	degree	degree	O levels

3.1.1 'Paper chase' in Singapore

Although credentialism via education with all its implications for title, salary level and work schedule has been said to weigh heavier in the Singapore context than in Britain, the above results have not

shown this. In Singapore, education is access to knowledge and 'specialists' represent symbolic power (Clammer, 1985). The attraction and possibility of this power, according to Clammer (p.166, 1985) is its ability to produce and impose on others that which best expresses one's own interests. The competition for knowledge begins at a young age. Children are subjected to a high degree of competitiveness by a streaming system that decides a pupil's future options at a very early stage of his development. According to Steger (p.1027, 1989), there is intense anxiety and competition among parents, who often coach their children for purposes of their own personal prestige rather than with the future happiness of their proteges in mind. Khin and Wickramasuriya (p.53, 1984) have also said that

"Singaporeans are giving increasing value to educational achievement or the 'paper chase' syndrome. Educational prowess appears to carry heavy weight in the business and commercial world."

Education is regarded as the primary vehicle for career advancement.

3.1.2 Lack of formal education in Britain

On the other hand, recent studies and reports (Wiener, 1981; Gordon and Randlesome, 1988; Hannah, 1989; Congdon, 1991) have pointed out that the lack of formal education in Britain is probably plagued by "...unusually strong anti-industrial, anti-enterprise or anti-business strands in British culture" (p.1, Hannah, 1989). As discussed in chapter two, the concern is the under-education in management and school leavers (Crafts, 1988; Congdon, 1991), and the adherence to traditional methods and apprenticeships (Kobsbawn, 1986) which favours on-the-job experience and a playing down of academic study. Bain in the "Times Higher Education Supplement" (23 February 1990) reported that

"less than 25 per cent of managers in Britain have a university degree or a professional qualification compared

with 85 per cent in, for example, the US and Japan".

Constable and McCormick (April 1987) in their study on British managers also concluded a lack of development, education and training in British managers compared with their competitors.

A study by Gordon and Randlesome (p.1, 1988) on "The Making of Managers" in the United States of America, West Germany, France and Japan, pointed out that first, the common belief in those countries is that managers need to be well and appropriately educated before they start managing and to be helped to develop and educate themselves throughout their working lives. Secondly, by comparison, Britain with some notable exceptions among the large corporations, does not appear to take the preparation and development of her managers as seriously as the other countries. Apparently, there is no well-understood process of formation, both before and after entry into a management career in Britain. That study highlighted the need for Britain to do much more and to do it more systematically if she wants her managers to be as good as they can be (p.2, Gordon and Randlesome, 1988).

3.1.3 Discussion about the differential in levels of formal qualifications in BMMs and SMMs

The foregoing provided the background to the differential in levels of formal qualifications held by managers in the study. By comparison, the results of the study do contradict what other studies and reports have said. This has been particularly obvious in the comparison of FAST/B (degree holders) and FAST/S ('O' level holders) managers. The tendency to value paper qualifications more in Singapore than Britain is not reflected in the results of this study. To add to the contradiction, a study by Khin and Wickramasuriya (p.58, 1984) has concluded that although there is a 'paper chase syndrome' and a view

that education is important for career advancement, yet they found 38 percent of the managers without such formal education, holding secondary or upper secondary education.

There were several reasons for educational deficiency in Singapore. According to Pang et al. (p.131-132, 1989), part of the problem lies with the complex school system which the government created to cater for the multilingual population. The initial emphasis of the education system was on expansion of the system to meet the schooling needs of a fast-growing population rather than on educational design and quality. The wastage rate was high, with only half the starting primary-school population continuing to the secondary level. Another reason was the unsettling policy changes which sought to achieve a multiplicity of conflicting objectives. The home language of many students was different from that taught in school, which further increased learning difficulties. The combination of colonial neglect and the high attrition rate in the 1960s and 1970s also contributed to the lack of improvement in educational attainment of the Singapore work-force during that period.

In 1980, only about half the workforce had received schooling beyond the primary level. According to Pang et al. (1989), the low formal educational attainment of the workforce in the 1960s and early 1970s apparently did not slow Singapore's economic progress because the early years of industrialization in Singapore demanded largely low-skilled labour. With rapid growth and diversification in the 1970s, the demand for skilled manpower increased. By the late 1970s, the official view is that there had been under-investment in human resources, and that a major effort to expand educational and training opportunities was needed to produce a supply of trained manpower adequate for the next phase of Singapore's development. Around 1980,

educational and training institutions especially those offering post-secondary and university courses were greatly increased; for example, National University of Singapore (NUS) more than doubled its enrolments between 1980 and 1986.

Table 5.2: Qualifications, age and sex of BMMs and SMMs

Qualfn.	Age	Sex	
EDUC/S - degree	- 26 yrs	- F	- probably went to University between '83-'86
HOSP/S - degree	- 30 yrs	- F	- probably went to University between '79-'82
FAST/S - O level	- 23 yrs	- M	- probably obtained their 'O' levels in '85

According to Table 5.2, the relatively younger-aged SMMs in the sample would have had the opportunities of the expanded NUS enrolment open to them and therefore were unlikely to be less educated for lack of opportunity. I would suggest some other explanation of the differential in level of educational qualification between BMMs and SMMs. HOSP/S and EDUC/S managers are female-dominated and traditionally the careers of women have been less orderly and routine because of their husbands' own career paths, their family and domestic obligations and including the associated tendency for many employers to assume limited ambitions among female managers (p.82, Scase and Goffee, 1989). According to Appendix 25, the SMMs from EDUC/S and HOSP/S have dependents and are therefore unlikely to pursue a higher degree because of having to consider their family and domestic obligations. On the other hand, the BMMs being strongly male dominated would not have the same interruptions in their careers and are therefore more free to pursue higher qualifications. FAST/S is male dominated. In Singapore, all male citizens and permanent residents of

or above the age of 18 are required to serve a period of two or two-and-a-half years' full-time national service. FAST/S managers probably entered national service in 1985/86 and left in 1988/89; I would suggest that they probably worked for about a year before they were promoted to be managers. According to Appendix 25, FAST/S managers would be holding their first jobs with their organization following national service without pursuing higher education. This may explain the lack of formal qualifications among FAST/S managers.

Typical of most quasi-public/public organizations in Singapore is the practice of sponsorship where the employee, financed for a particular course of study, is bound by contract to work for the sponsor on completion of their study. Usually the funds available for this are limited and the bond of service varies from 3 to 5 years or more depending on the educational costs involved; the bond of service maybe off-putting. The willingness of employers to release employees for further education locally, on a part-time basis or overseas is limited and affects opportunities for upgrading qualifications. Although there are two universities, National University of Singapore (NUS) and Nanyang Technological University (NTU), the places offered are limited and the costs of overseas tertiary education are high. These factors may have also contributed to the lower formal qualifications of the SMEs.

The background to formal qualifications of the SMEs need some discussion. Hannah's (1989) paper on "Anti-Business Culture and the Changing Business Establishment" noted that the small number of graduates among the postwar business elite would suggest that in the first half of the twentieth century, business careers were not popular in British universities. This was confirmed by statistics that only a third of graduates opted for careers in business. By 1960s, the

proportion of university graduates opting for a career in industry and commerce increased to two-thirds and it has remained around that level since. It is believed that Britain's relative position in comparison to Japan and Germany could be picking up even more rapidly than shown in the shift in British cultural attitudes towards business (Hannah, 1989).

According to Hannah (1989), there has been a transformation in the quality of British students who opt for careers in business. Those who make the choice early; for example, by opting for undergraduate courses in engineering, accountancy or business management, are not only increasing in numbers but also improving in quality, as measured by 'A' level examination scores relative to the scores of those in more traditional academic subjects. In the increasingly popular business-orientated courses "more" has not meant "worse". KNOWN Home Employment Destinations 1950 and 1966-1988 (p.26a, Hannah, 1989) showed that the increased output of British university graduates with first class honours in the postwar period has gone almost entirely to the business sector. The trend favours business and the probability of continuing success in business recruitment of first class honours graduates in all recent decades. According to Hannah, the signs are that the British business world is likely to be substantially more meritocratic than it was a generation ago. The men already at the helm of top British businesses in the early 1990s are largely drawn from the intellectual cream. The forecast is that their successors in the late 1990s will also be drawn from the pool of first-class talent.

While there are reports and studies that show a lack in formal qualifications among British managers, the foregoing discussion, the relative situation in Singapore to Britain and the above trends in British management may explain some of the contradictions with other

reports and studies. Hannah's (1989) recent analysis does support the results of the study that BMs are better qualified than SMs.

3.2 Inter-economic Sector and Inter-company Comparison: Qualifications

On the whole, managers from the quasi-public sector in the sample hold a minimum of a degree qualification. There is probably a lot more bureaucracy and requirements in securing responsible posts in the quasi-public sector than in the private. Additionally, it is fairly well-known that fastfood managers are groomed from within and are further acculturized by operation standards and manuals.

Having spoken to various managers from the two countries about their jobs, most managers except those from FAST/B and FAST/S, function towards the senior end of the scale. The degrees or professional qualifications of those managers are probably a reflection of the equipping needed for their functions and a more pressing demand for formal qualifications and meritocratic selection in quasi-public/public organizations of the two countries. The enforcement of meritocratic criteria of selection and promotion, and equal opportunities legislation are probably taken more seriously in quasi-public/public organizations (Scase and Goffee, 1989). The higher degree qualifications of EDUC/B managers compared with EDUC/S managers probably reflect their functions towards the senior middle management end of the scale. It is also probably true that 'managers' from academic departments are likely to hold postgraduate qualifications because of their past or current teaching commitments. The dominance of professional qualifications in HOSP/B compared with HOSP/S may demonstrate a tendency for British managers to favour on-the-job experience and a playing down of academic study. The restructuring in

British hospitals has brought in managers who have formal management training from elsewhere as well as those who acquired management skills with experience from within the hospital. The latter may be nurses who were groomed from within and through vertical mobility, diversified their professional duties into management functions.

FAST/B and FAST/S managers are international fastfood operators, trained in-house and dominated by their organizational culture. The focus of their functions is well-defined, intense and strictly operational in nature. The basic requirements or qualifications of restaurant managers are probably dictated by the labour market conditions to a large extent. Although the market conditions and in-house training of FAST/B and FAST/S may have played down the insistence on graduate qualification, it is still interesting that FAST/B is able to attract graduates but not FAST/S. This, on the one hand, may be a positive change in trend towards careers in British businesses as explained earlier. On the other hand, this may be a reflection of the rising expectations in lifestyles of Singapore graduates (Khin and Wickramasuriya, 1984) and their 'choosy' attitudes towards shift work and unsociable hours offered by the catering industry (Cheah, 1988). Chew (1983) in his article, "Work attitude and worker loyalty in Singapore", expressed typical complaints about Singapore workers' reluctance to work overtime and to do shift duty. Szilagyi and Wallace (p.217, 1980) also suggested that status can be a function of the title of the individual, salary or wage level, work schedule, age, skill, sex, education and so on, which may explain the expectations of the Singapore graduates and their tendency to move in symbolism (Clammer, 1985).

A pilot study I conducted on 25 January 1990 involving middle managers from various services like education, banking, retail, wholesale,

building services and garage services, indicated that on the whole, those managers in the public or quasi-public sector tend to hold a minimum of a degree qualification which also support the above findings. In contrast, those in the private sector who participated in the pilot study, tend to hold GCE 'O' or 'A' level qualifications. These private businesses have particularly indicated a preference for their managers to be groomed from within their organizational culture.

4. A DISCUSSION ON 'YEARS OF MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCE', 'YEARS OF SERVICE', 'AGE', 'SEX' AND 'DEPENDENTS'

Table 5.3: Experience, length of service, age, sex and dependents of BMMs and SMMs

	EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
MGTEXP	4 yrs	10 yrs	3 yrs	5 yrs	2 yrs	1 yr
SERVICE	2 yrs	5 yrs	3 yrs	7 yrs	5 yrs	1 yr
AGE	36 yrs	27 yrs	24 yrs	26 yrs	30 yrs	23 yrs
DEPN	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
SEX	Male	Male	Male	Female	Female	Male

4.1 Inter-country, Inter-economic sector and Inter-company Comparison

By inter-country comparison, FAST/B and FAST/S managers are the youngest managers in the sample from their country. (See Table 5.3.) British managers in the sample span between 24 to 36 years old and Singapore managers, between 23 to 30 years old. The age band common to both is between 24 to 30 years old. In the pilot study, managers varied from 20 to 49 years old, with the majority in their twenties. By comparison, SMMs are relatively younger and have stayed longer with their organizations except for FAST/S managers. On average, BMMs have

twice as much experience as SMMs but shorter lengths of service with their present organizations. The younger age of SMMs to some extent, explains their lesser management experience. What is interesting is that more SMMs are with dependents than the BMMs. Overall, British managers are male dominated and Singapore managers are female dominated. The pilot study has also concluded that there was approximately twice as many male British managers to females. Male dominance in British management was further reflected in the results of the 1989 Labour Force Survey as having twice as many male to female managers (p. 640, Employment Gazette, December 1990).

By inter-economic sector comparison, managers from the quasi-public sector in the sample tend to be older, with dependents and more management experience than those in the private sector. The longer years of service with the same company for those in the public sector, may be a reflection of the long wait for promotion vertically because of limited openings at the top in most quasi-public organizations. Managers from the private sector have fewer years of service probably because of higher staff turnover. The catering industry is typified by a lot of horizontal mobility (Kyi and Wickramasuriya, 1984). British managers from the quasi-public sector in the sample, are male dominated but the Singapore managers are mostly female. Managers from the private sector in the sample of both countries are mostly male. Perhaps the quasi-public sector of the Singapore sample is predominately female because the equal opportunities and meritocratic criteria of selection and promotion is more rigorously enforced in that sector (Alban-Metcalf and Nicholson, 1984; Rothwell, 1985; Scase and Goffee, 1989). Writers have suggested that there are more women in middle and senior management positions in the public than in the private sector.

By inter-company comparison, FAST/B and FAST/S have the youngest managers. Their younger age probably means that these managers would not have yet gained as much experience. This is probably because the nature of fastfood businesses requires energy and flexibility, demanding a greater dependence on the young and energetic labour of Britain and Singapore who are less likely to have dependents or family commitments. It is probably strategic that fastfood companies source their labour from younger people because they are less likely to be 'tied down' by non-work commitments and are therefore more available to their organization. Scase and Goffee (p. 129, 1989) also confirmed the time constraints, leisure and home life can have on jobs. The typical manager from EDUC/B is 10 years older than EDUC/S. The age of EDUC/B managers may be a reflection of the time those managers took to gain higher degrees and industrial experience. EDUC/S managers have a year more management experience than EDUC/B. (See Table 5.3.) HOSP/S managers have less years of experience than HOSP/B. This may be because of the tradition of gaining professional qualifications by experience and examinations in Britain. The educational institutions in Britain, on the other hand, have undergone major changes which may have caused a lot of horizontal mobility over time. This may explain the relatively shorter length of service of the EDUC/B managers compared with EDUC/S managers. The EDUC/B and HOSP/B managers are mostly male whereas their counterparts are mostly female. FAST/B and FAST/S are also male dominated probably because of the nature of their jobs. EDUC/B, EDUC/S and HOSP/S managers have dependents but not those from FAST/B, FAST/S and HOSP/B.

4.1.1 Years of management experience and years of service

The longer years of experience among BMMs maybe a reflection of the general preference for on-the-job training or in-house grooming in

British organizations. This does find support in the results of the pilot study particularly in banking, retail and small operations. On average, Singapore managers in the sample hold longer years of service with their organizations than British managers. Despite the recent 'brain drain' complaint in Singapore (p.26, Liah, 27 August 1990) and observations of the job-hopping syndrome (Khin and Wickramasuriya, 1984; Low, 1984), common among Singapore managers, the SMMs seem to have stayed longer with their jobs than the BMMs. Since SMMs from the quasi-public/public sector have the longest years of service, it is probably the case that employment contracts are in practice. These contracts are common in quasi-public/public organizations in Singapore. Another reason for their longer service may be for reasons of promotion opportunities open to those SMMs on long service and functioning towards the senior end of the scale. If they are established and in secure positions, it is less attractive for them to change their jobs and start all over again.

The job-hopping problem began in the early 1970s when Singapore experienced labour shortages. The Government sought to deal with it via campaigns to encourage loyalty similar to Japanese practices; they also established a 'special fund' in conjunction with the Central Provident Fund (CPF) to reward employees who remain with the same employer for a minimum period, varying 5 to 10 years (p.273, Cheah, 1988). In 1984, it was decided that the problem of job-hopping was for management to solve. While there may be other reasons suggested by Low (1984) for job-hopping such as economic conditions and proximity of the workplace, my argument is that for a small country of 626.4 square kilometres, proximity is probably not a great constraint, especially when its infrastructures are good. Interviews with some SMMs also confirm that managers are prepared to travel from one end of the island to the other for work. Job-hopping probably occurs in FAST/B

and FAST/S but not as much in the quasi-public/public organizations in the study. A great difference is the 2 years of service of most EDUC/B managers compared with the 7 years held by EDUC/S. I would suggest that the recent restructuring and changes in British educational institutions may have caused turnovers and bringing in older staff from industry who wish to pass on their experience. Additionally, the desire to gain experience may encourage the changing of jobs among the SMOs.

4.1.2 Years of management experience and qualifications

Khin and Wickramasuriya (1984) suggested from their study of Singapore managers that there is a relationship between levels of education and years of experience of managers; the relatively less educated managers have a much longer working experience than graduates and postgraduates. The results of the study in Table 5.3 is inconclusive because the findings on the SMOs do not clearly demonstrate this relationship. As discussed under 'Qualifications', the higher degrees of EDUC/B maybe related to their more senior functions or the knowledge for teaching. For HOSP/B managers, their experience may be partly to do with them gaining professional qualifications. Those in catering from FAST/B and FAST/S are the youngest with less experience. The relationship between years of management experience and qualifications mentioned above, would not probably emerge for EDUC/S and HOSP/S because most of the SMOs in the sample are female dominated and their careers are more likely to suffer interruptions because of family and domestic obligations, and their husbands' careers (Scase and Goffee, 1989). The section to follow will elaborate on the relatively greater pressure to marry and have children in the Asian society which probably affected the pursuit of higher qualifications among female SMOs.

4.1.3 Age, sex and dependents

The results of the study show that those who are older in years among the managers of the two countries, are those with dependents. By comparison, managers in the Singapore sample are younger and more of them have dependents than their counterparts. This relative position may reflect a combination of the stronger pressure to marry in the Asian society and the trend in Britain of moving more away from marriage into 'partnering' or cohabiting. According to McDowell (p.195, Bail, Gray and McDowell, 1989), the proportion of couples who cohabit has increased, particularly in the last decade. Between 1979 and 1985, the number of women aged between eighteen and forty-nine cohabiting with a man doubled, and two-thirds of live births coming from the 'illegitimate' category have suggested that cohabitation is the predominant family form. An earlier chapter has mentioned that British tended towards individualism and independence which may also explain this feature. Having more dependents in Singapore may be a reflection of Confucianism which influences Singapore's societal life. Family life is central in the Asian culture. In addition, there is pressure from the Singapore Government encouraging marriages and a combining of careers and family life (p.57, Lee, 1987). The Social Development Unit or SDU is a visible establishment formed by the Government to encourage its members into graduate marriages (p.27, Liak, 1990). This probably explains early marriages and having dependents in the SMEs. Confucianism governs family life, relationships and responsibility toward the nearest kith and kin in Singapore (Lee, 1989). For example, care and responsibility for the old and the young is very much a family matter for the Singaporean. The SMEs are therefore more likely to have dependents beyond their own immediate family like parents, siblings and grandparents.

In terms of gender, the SMEs are female dominated and the SMEs are male dominated. The emphasis on family in a Confucianist society including traditions of males taking precedence over females (p.35, Lee, 1989) and the occurrence of female dominated SMEs may appear contradictory at first hand. This problem is further exacerbated by large shortfalls in birth, for example, in 1986 when that was the 'Year of the Tiger' according to the Chinese Lunar calendar, there was a drop in births by 15,000. This has its impact on labour shortage in time to come and increases the pressure for women to go back to work. The 'Year of the Tiger' also affected the number of marriages (Lee, 1987). Traditionally, Years of the Rabbit and Dragon are popular years for births and marriages. The trend towards small families was also noticeable and tax exemptions for every child born to graduate working women was introduced to induce such mothers to continue working and to encourage single, educated women to marry and have children (Pang et al., 1989).

The change in population trends in Singapore has resulted in a maturing workforce. The size of Singapore's workforce is largely determined by demographic trends and changes in their labour force participation rates. The participation rates increased to 63 per cent in 1980s with increased participation from the entry of more females into the labour market and the admission of 150,000 foreign workers into Singapore (p.31, Lee, 1989). Since then there has been greater employment of the economically inactive, like older workers and housewives, and more control over foreign workers in Singapore. Female dominance in Singapore managers is probably a cumulative result of older workers and housewives being encouraged back into employment (Lee, 1987; Ong, 1988; Lee, 1989), and the trend of graduates placing career first before marriage and a family (Yao, 1989). There is an observation that 50 per cent of Singapore graduate women either marry

non-graduates, non-Singaporeans or stay unmarried (p.27, Liak, 27 August 1990). These have implications on the female predominance in Singapore's management.

The male dominance among BMMs finds confirmation in other studies like the one by Scase and Goffee (1989) and the Labour Force Survey data (1985). The Survey reported that women managers, by contrast to male managers, tend to enter into managerial positions at a younger age and because of the particular nature of their careers; many choose or are forced to disrupt their careers in their late 20s and early 30s. Both studies also reported that the highest proportion of the male managers are middle-aged and concentrated within the 35 to 44 age range. The categories (senior, middle or junior) of these managers are not known and are therefore, incomparable for those in this study who are in the 36 to 24 age range.

Scase and Goffee (p.195, 1989) also found male dominance among British managers at the senior, middle and junior levels of management. This feature is probably a reflection of the interruptions in the careers of women for family and domestic obligations (p.194, Scase and Goffee, 1989). There are also interruptions of pregnancy and child rearing or by their partners' own career moves. According to Scase and Goffee (p.85, 1989), women have been forced to adapt to restricted opportunities by becoming 'job' rather than 'career' oriented, concerned with the immediate, intrinsic rewards of their tasks rather than long term career benefits. All of the married women recognize that having children can seriously jeopardize careers, often to the extent that it might require them to resign from their jobs. Even with hired domestic assistance the demands of child rearing on the one hand, and those of career pursuit on the other, are generally

incompatible. The foregoing are suggestions for the lack of female managers in BMMs in the study.

Although studies (p.17, Kanter, 1977) have found that women have had more opportunities in certain fields like education, the arts, social services, personnel work, public relations, advertising and so on, the results of this study finds concurrence to this finding among SMMs but not the BMMs. A combination of the factors in the foregoing discussion may offer some explanation but it is inconclusive. The general lack of dependents among BMMs in the study has been explained in a preceding paragraph.

5. MANAGERS' BACKGROUND EXPERIENCE OF SIGNIFICANT CHANGES

By inter-country and inter-economic sector comparison, BMMs from the three organizations responded in the same way about the frequency of change (fairly frequent), their experience of the change (fairly rewarding), 'who instituted change' (top/senior management) and 'who was at a disadvantage by the change' (certain employees) (See Appendices 10 and 26). The BMMs' view on who benefitted, varied from 'others', 'everyone' to 'certain employees'. On the other hand, the SMMs responded in the same way about the frequency of change (fairly frequent) and 'who instituted change' (top/senior managers). Most of the quasi-public sector and private sector British managers in the sample agreed that their experience of change was 'fairly rewarding', but the SMMs found their experiences to be varied.

By inter-company comparison, the profiles of EDUC/B and EDUC/S are almost identical except for their view of who benefits (see Appendices 10 and 26). HOSP/B with HOSP/S and FAST/B with FAST/S demonstrate the same responses for two to three of the five items (see Appendix 10).

What is important is that all organizations rated the frequency of significant change in exactly the same way and they all concurred that it is top/senior management who institutes significant change. While EDUC/B, HOSP/B and FAST/B managers found their experience of change to be 'fairly rewarding', EDUC/S managers found theirs, 'fairly rewarding', HOSP/S found theirs, 'not rewarding' and FAST/S, 'rewarding'.

5.1 Frequency of Change and 'Who Institutes Change?'

That the BMMs and the SMMs agree on the frequency of significant change in their organizations as being 'fairly frequent' does confirm first, the appropriateness of using these organizations for the study. Secondly, the fairly frequent changes demonstrate the fast changing economic or market conditions, these organizations are in. That they also agree on their top or senior management being those who institute significant changes in their organizations demonstrates consensus that power to make significant changes lies at the top of the hierarchy. Top management see middle managers as the executors of change. As Soong (1985) had reported, middle managers are the executors of a corporation's business strategies and they ideally inspire the workers, cementing cooperative ties between top management and the rank-and-file. The result basically demonstrated the importance of who is at the 'driving seat of change' and orchestrating it (Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Greiner and Schein, 1989; Kanter, 1983; Plant, 1987).

5.2 Managers' Experience of Change

Managers in the sample found differing experiences of the change they experienced. Most British managers in the sample described their change experience as fairly rewarding, veering toward the positive end

of the scale. This appears to be inconsistent with the belief that British managers are probably more resistant to change. EDUC/S, HOSP/S and FAST/S managers vary in their experiences of significant changes: fairly rewarding, not rewarding and rewarding respectively. Much of the literature has suggested that Singaporeans are accustomed to change because they have a migrant genesis (Clammer, 1985) which caused them to be flexible and learn the use of the strengths of others. The open and pragmatic Singapore society has helped them to compete with businesses worldwide and within itself (Chong, 1987). Perhaps, the apparent contradiction in what was believed of the managers from the two countries and what they actually say, could be explained by a biblical reference to the parable of two sons, who when asked to go and work in the vineyard, the first son answered negatively but afterward repented and went; the second son said 'yes' to going but did not go (Mathew 21: 28-30). This observation is not conclusive.

5.3 'Who Benefited from the Change'

The tendency is for most managers in the sample to see 'some', 'others' or 'everyone' as benefiting from the change. Although there is no consensus among BMMs or SMMs on an inter-country, inter-sector or inter-company basis (See Appendix 10), the interpretation is that the BMMs and SMMs do see change as a positive thing even if they themselves do not directly benefit from the change or enjoy change. There may also be what I call a "seeing stars" syndrome, where the impact or the blow of a significant change needs time to absorb and adjust to understand its implications, what is more, the question of 'who benefits'.

5.4 'Who is at a Disadvantage through the Change'

There is almost a consensus among the managers who participated in the study that 'certain employees' are at a disadvantage because of the change. Only HOSP/S managers felt that 'certain section/department' are at a disadvantage because of the change. The perception of who benefits or who is at a disadvantage may be politically based or it may have sprung out of a disorientation from a significant change or the temporary inconvenience suffered by those managers. It may be an interesting matter to delve into managers' perception of a change in this respect in future research.

6. MAIN FINDINGS FROM PART ONE OF THE ANALYSIS ON THE QUANTITATIVE DATA

The analysis has sprung from a strong and sound database with high return rates from the two countries. These rates have been as high as 88 and 94 per cent for Britain and Singapore respectively. The lowest returns have been 42 per cent (Britain) and 77 per cent (Singapore). Most managers originate from their own country and have lived most of their life in their country; this showed that the greatest cultural influence on these managers' lives are probably from these countries. The typical SMM is said to have dependents, female, Christian, less qualified, younger, less experienced but having longer lengths of service than the BMMs. On the other hand, the typical BMM is without dependents, male, Christian, better qualified, slightly older, more experienced but having shorter lengths of service with their present organizations. The interesting findings from the analysis were from two areas: 'Qualifications' and 'Gender' (or 'Sex'). They are summarised as follows.

6.1 Qualifications

The importance of formal education in Singapore has been reflected in the competition for knowledge at an early age, its necessity for career advancement and its symbolic value in terms of title, status, work expectations and salary. Despite the strong anti-business culture, which Britain is said to have, and the reports of under education among British managers, this study has not shown the BMMs to be less qualified than the SMMs. The results from studies on Singapore managers (Khin and Wickramasuriya, 1984) and British managers (Hannah, 1989) also have their conflicting views about the qualifications of their managers. It may be that there are signs of improvement in the level of formal education among British managers or conversely, that Singapore is still catching up following its expansion of higher educational opportunities, or may be that the strong family orientations of the female dominated SMMs have not reflected better formal education.

What is also interesting is that the quasi-public/public sector organizations from the two different cultures in the study have a strong similarity in terms of their demand for formal qualifications and meritocratic selection among their managers.

6.2 Gender

The results of this study have found concurrence with others that BMMs are strongly male dominated. But among the SMMs, despite the strong family orientation in its culture with pressures from the family and the Government to marry and have children, there is still a strong female dominance among SMMs. This has been especially the case for the quasi-public/public organizations. What is also interesting is that

the catering industry in both countries is male dominated; this may reflect the domestic considerations and constraints on female managers in those countries to work unsociable hours or shift work.

5.3 Managers' Background Experiences of Change

Finally where there is a strong similarity is the BMMs and SMMs see top/senior managers as those at the 'driving seat of change', and while the responses may be inconclusive about experiences of change, both BMMs and SMMs do see change as a positive thing to one degree or other, to be benefited from. Both groups of managers also hold the view that 'some' are disadvantaged by the change.

CHAPTER 6

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA: PART TWO

This chapter presents the findings on the responses of the BMMs and SMMS about specific facets and items in relation to significant change. As with chapter 5, the analysis and interpretation will adopt three perspectives: inter-country, inter-economic sector and inter-company, collectively or separately, to gain the richness of the data. The general approach will be to present the facts followed by a discussion of the following areas:

- What managers find demanding in a change (Appendices 11 and 27),
- Relativity of demand on or difficulty for managers (Appendices 12 to 15 and 28),
- What managers find helpful in a change (Appendices 16 and 29),
- Individual power and influence in a change (Appendices 17 and 30)
- Ability to cope with change (Appendices 18 and 31),
- Work relationships in a change (Appendix 19 and 32),
- Communications in the change (Appendices 20 and 33),
- Commitment in a change (Appendices 21 and 34),
- The effect of perceived benefits on responses to change (Appendices 22 and 35),
- What managers' preferences are at work (Appendices 23 and 36),
- The effect of miscellaneous factors in a change (Appendices 24 and 37).
- Written responses about significant change.

1. WHAT MANAGERS FIND DEMANDING IN A CHANGE

1.1 Inter-country, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-company Comparison

The profile analyses in Appendix 11 demonstrate that most managers in the sample respond in basically the same way for most items and that they only differ greatly on 1 (HOSP/B vs HOSP/S, FAST/B vs FAST/S) to 3 items (EDUC/B vs EDUC/S) out of a list of 12 items. Five out of six companies are in agreement that the demanding or fairly demanding items are:

- 'working under a new boss'
- 'dealing with a diversity of things quickly'
- 'innovation by others' (except EDUC/S)
- 'managing work relationships at all levels'
- 'transfer of authority and responsibility from your unit/department' (except EDUC/B)

What is significant from the profile analyses is that the BMMs and SMMs found the same items demanding to more or less the same extent. These are items that demand of their time, affect work relationships at various levels, encroach on their sphere of influence, communication with others, stress and anxiety (See Appendix 27). There are four main features from the analyses in Appendices 11 and 27. First, what is common to BMMs and SMMs is the difficulty with time-related stress demands on managers, reflected by obvious 'dips' or 'troughs' in the barcharts, especially on managers from EDUC/B and EDUC/S, and FAST/B and FAST/S in Appendix 11. There is also a full consensus among all BMMs and SMMs in the sample that 'working to a tight schedule of change' is demanding. Secondly, it is significant

that BMMs from two organizations in Britain found 'relocating their office' not demanding but SMMs from two organizations in Singapore found that 'fairly demanding'. Thirdly, common among the SMMs and BMMs is the difficulty they expressed in 'communications with others in a change'. Finally, almost all organizations in the study except EDUC/S found 'innovation by others', fairly demanding.

1.1.1 Time and stress

The list of items like 'working under a new boss', 'dealing with a diversity of things quickly', 'innovation by others', 'managing work relationships at all levels', 'transfer of authority and responsibility from your unit/department', involve the management of ambiguity, incompatibility, conflicts, overlapping areas of work, time pressure, work relationships, managers' role as a co-ordinator, the management of power boundaries and negotiations with others. They are, in fact, demanding for managers because they are potential areas of stress (Handy, 1988).

Pattigrew (1972b) similarly pointed out that the four most familiar causes of job stress are role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload and role underload for managers. Being middle managers, they are in positions of role conflict, reconciling conflicting messages from above and below in the hierarchy, facing interpersonal conflicts and managing work relationships at various levels. Role ambiguity may arise from say, 'working under a new boss' and 'transfer of authority and responsibility'; these may cause stress because of ambiguity over new expectations and performance standards, and managing new power boundaries. If an individual is both unclear what performance he has to aim for and whether his superiors think he has reached the appropriate level, he is likely to be under a great deal of stress.

Role overload for example, 'dealing with a diversity of things quickly', is demanding because the individual has little control over the volume of work coming to him and there may be unpredictability, large peaks and troughs in the flow of work. Role underload arising from 'transfer of authority and responsibility' can be equally disorientating, difficult and paranoid, because of lack of stimulation from work.

The 'troughs' in the bar charts in Appendix 11 have indicated that at the top end of the scale of 'what is demanding' are pressures of time in a change, and anxiety and stress. Pressures on time like 'working to a TIGHT schedule of change', 'being given SHORT NOTICE of change' and 'dealing with a diversity of things QUICKLY', are viewed as demanding by most British and Singapore managers in the study probably because of the pressure of having a shorter time to do things. It may be also that these BMMs and SMMs are expressing a need to absorb the change as well as the need of time to adjust to working at a different pace or to change. Most BMMs and SMMs find 'mental preoccupation with work' demanding or fairly demanding. This is stress and anxiety related and is the result of meeting the demands of change or learning to cope with change. Handy (1988) pointed out that worrying, uncertainty and rapid changes can quickly become stressful and demanding for managers.

The time-related stress demands expressed through various areas like the job and work relationships are important because they are common difficulties for SMMs and BMMs; even though they are from dissimilar cultures, they still perceive stressful events in the same way. This finds concurrence in a cross-national research by Holmes and Masuda (1973) which concluded that despite the different emphasis and orientations of Western European culture (for example its democratic

ethic and tendency towards Christian moral values) and Japanese eastern culture (for example hierarchical system and orientation towards the family), perception of stressful life events is very similar.

1.1.2 Physical environment and symbolism

That most SMEs found 'relocating their office', not demanding and most SMEs, find it demanding may be because 'moving in symbolism' (Clammer, 1985) is an important part of Singapore's ideological system. There may be more of a status symbol attached to physical locations or surroundings for Singaporeans similar to that reported in the BOSTI Survey (Gray and Starke, 1984). Clammer (p.166, 1985) has described Singapore as one of the most highly inegalitarian societies in the world and a society of hierarchies in its education, business, government, the army and sport. According to Clammer (p.167, 1985), social control in Singapore is exercised at one level via the control of the bureaucracy, the educational system, material rewards, the economy and the political system itself, and at another level via the government's near monopoly control of the processes of social classification (races, wages, education etc.), symbols (including those which other political parties may use), the mass media, censorship, immigration, housing, trade unions, and its ability to define the rewards system in terms of its own values. His view is that there is very nearly a coincidence of physical and symbolic power. This may offer some explanation of the difficulty most SMEs have with 'relocating their office' because of the associations of the physical location with symbolism. Another reason may be that SMEs find 'relocating their office' relatively more inconvenient. That Selmer's (1987) study also found good physical working conditions more

important to the SMNs than the Swedish top managers in the study, is pertinent to this study.

Perhaps, the tendency in Singapore to restrict or repress activities that are racially, religiously and politically sensitive including peaceful demonstrations (Rieger, 1989), and their emphasis on 'order', means that expressions in symbolic ways like the physical office location become more important. On the other hand, the British have relatively less control or restriction exercised over them in many areas like education, politics and the media as manifested, in for example, the relatively greater freedom of expression over politically sensitive issues and the influence of pressure groups like Amnesty and trade unions. The differing cultures of the two countries may have meant that it is probably less needful for the BMNs to express themselves symbolically in the same way as the SMNs.

1.1.3 Communication with others in a change

BMNs and SMNs in the study agreed that 'communicating with others in a change' is fairly demanding. This may be explained by the purpose of communication and the difficulties of making effective communication. According to Drucker (p.92, 1970), communication always makes demands that the recipient become somebody, do something, believe something. His view is that effective communication is a difficult exercise because "men perceive, as a rule, what they expect to perceive". Drucker also explained that the tendency is for the human mind to attempt to fit impressions and stimuli into a frame of expectations; but it resists vigorously any attempts to make it 'change its mind' - to perceive what it does not expect to perceive, or not to perceive what it expects to perceive. In other words, unless communication fits in with the aspirations, the values and the purposes of the

recipient, it is likely not to be received at all and would be resisted. Drucker's (1970) view is that communications may not be dependent on information and that perception has primacy over information. The task of 'converting' the recipients' thinking, combating wild rumours and misinformation, as well as overcoming the limits of trust and fear of candour (Bartolome, 1989) can make the process of communication, a demanding, delicate and sensitive exercise.

1.1.4 Innovation by others

Almost all organizations in the study except EDUC/S found 'innovation by others', fairly demanding. Despite what other studies have said that Singaporeans are receptive to innovations and technology transfer (Kedia and Bhagat, 1988), the responses of most SMEs have been that 'innovation by others' is fairly demanding; this prima facie does seem contradictory. Perhaps the SMEs' response is an expression that they do find learning and adapting to innovation and change, fairly demanding but this is not necessarily a reflection of inability "to deliver the goods". Having spoken to British managers in the study, the impression is that negative experiences of innovation have produced a cynical attitude of "what next!" about future changes. This may partly explain these managers' weariness and why they find 'innovation by others', difficult.

2. RELATIVITY OF DEMAND ON OR DIFFICULTY FOR MANAGERS

2.1 Which Have You Found Demanding?

2.1.1 Inter-company Comparison

Table 6.1: Ranking additional workload, work relationships, new boss,
new physical environment and overtime, little or no
breaks by company.

	EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
Additional workload	most	most	most	most	most	most
Work relationships	averg	most	fair	averg	fair	averg
New boss	less	fair	most	most	most	most
New physical environment	least	least	less	least	least	least
Overtime, little or no breaks	least	least	least	less	least	most

Note: - Scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least

- Abbreviations: 'fair'=fairly, 'averg'=average

By inter-company comparison, EDUC/B and EDUC/S managers rank 'additional workload', 'work relationships' and 'new physical environment' identically. The greatest difference lies in EDUC/S managers finding relating to a new boss most demanding when EDUC/B managers do not. (See Appendices 12 and 28.) HOSP/B and HOSP/S managers are more similar in order of their rankings of what they found demanding in a change. Identical ranking are found in 'additional workload', 'new physical environment' and 'overtime, little or no breaks'. FAST/B and FAST/S managers have identical ranking for 'additional workload' and having a 'new boss'. Their divergence in ranking was greatest for 'overtime, little or no breaks'. This may be due to the Singapore workers' reluctance to work overtime and to do shift duty (Chew, 1983; Cheah, 1988).

2.1.2 Inter-economic Sector Comparison

Table 6.2: Ranking additional workload, work relationships, new boss,
new physical environment and overtime, little or no
breaks by sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pta	Q-public	pta
Additional workload	most	most	most	most
Work relationships	fair	fair	averg	averg
New boss	less	most	most	most
New physical environment	least	less	least	least
Overtime, little or no breaks	least	least	least	most

Note: - Scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least
 - Abbreviations: 'fair'=fairly, 'averg'=average,
 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pta'=private.

By inter-economic sector comparison, it was more apparent that the quasi-public BMMs in the study ranked what they found demanding in almost the same way as the quasi-public SMMs; the differences were in the ranking of 'work relationships' and having a 'new boss'. (See Table 6.2). In the private sector, the order of ranking for what is demanding for the BMMs and SMMs is also similar except for the divergent view on 'overtime, little or no breaks'.

By inter-country comparison, there is full consensus among BMMs and SMMs that 'additional workload' is the most difficult. (See Table 6.2). This has been reflected by the same heights in the bar charts in Appendix 12. There is 83 percent consensus for ranking 'new physical environment' and 'overtime, little and no breaks' as the least difficult. A significant difference was in the way the SMMs viewed having a 'new boss' as most difficult while the BMMs found it less so. The profile analyses in Appendices 12 and 28 illustrate the points of similarities and differences of the organizations.

2.1.3 Discussion

Analyses by inter-country, inter-economic sector and inter-company comparison, all point to the same items as points of divergence or convergence. The full consensus among BMMs and SMMs is that 'additional workload' is the most difficult. There was almost full consensus that 'new physical environment' and 'overtime, little and no breaks' was the least difficult. The divergence is where the SMMs viewed having a 'new boss' as most difficult while the BMMs found it less so. A related item is 'work relationships'; from an inter-economic perspective, the BMMs and SMMs found that 'fairly demanding' and 'averagely demanding' respectively.

To reiterate from an earlier section on 'Physical environment and symbolism' in this chapter, most SMMs found 'relocating their office' demanding while the BMMs did not. In this section, there has been almost full consensus that 'new physical environment' is least difficult. This seems contradictory. The suggestion for reconciling this is that within the narrow selection of items in this section, the relative ranks of the items has given 'new physical environment', the lowest place. What is also significant is that while 'new physical environment' has changed in its importance in this section, the importance of other items that are related to work and work relationships have not greatly diminished. The item 'overtime, little or no breaks' will be discussed with a later section on 'the types of times' managers are prepared to sacrifice to accommodate the change process. The ensuing paragraphs will focus their discussion on 'additional workload', having a 'new boss' and 'work relationships'.

2.1.3a Additional workload

'Additional workload' and its encroachment on a managers' private life is viewed as very demanding for BMMs and SMMs. It is difficult for an employee of an organization to maintain sharp boundaries on where his responsibilities as a member of an organization begins and where his responsibility to other competing social units such as family and kin ends (Khin, 1988). The difficulty probably pivots around stress and 'family life' or 'private life'. Stress is a related aspect of additional workload which probably has its application for both BMMs and SMMs in the study. A study reported in Miles' book "Macro organizational behaviour" pointed out that

"the extent of boundary-spanning activity was directly related to the level of work stress..."; "the greater the performance of boundary-spanning job activities, the greater was the level of role conflict experienced..." (p.346-347, 1980).

The emphasis on family life, relationships and responsibilities towards the nearest kin is important among SMMs (Selmer, 1987; Lee, 1989) as explained in chapter 5. The commitment and emphasis on family in the Singapore culture is a competing demand on managers which explains to a large extent why the SMMs may have found 'additional workload' very demanding. There is evidence from other studies (Aryee and Wyatt, 1989; Hsu, 1984) that support this finding.

The view that 'additional workload' is very demanding in the Singapore context may also be explained by the Confucian endorsement of a generalist orientation of life (p.77, Tu, 1984) and 'pragmatism' (Chong, 1987), often described of the Singaporeans. A study by Aryee and Wyatt (1989) have also noted that a significant proportion of the Singapore workers have a dual commitment to both work and non-work. Their sample of Singaporean employees considered it pragmatic to distribute energy across a number of activities in various locations

rather than devoting all of one's energy to one facet of life, such as work.

Although it has been said of the BMs that they are relatively less family oriented nonetheless 'private life' which includes the family may be a consideration or a constraint. A study on cultural patterns in professional lives versus private lives by Bartolome and Evans (1979) reported that while the British executive may perceive a less clear divide between private and professional life, they have found the tendency in spouses to react to overinvestment of time and energy in work. The psychological preoccupations with work can often spill over into 'free' time (Evans and Bartolome, 1980) and affect family life. Scase and Goffee (1989) also found that the jobs of most managers continue to impose strong constraints upon the development of personal, couple and family relationships and there are attempts to resist this imposition via say, the demands of 'additional workload'.

2.1.3b Having 'a new boss' and 'work relationships'

That most of the SMs found having a 'new boss' most demanding and the BMs, not to the same degree, is probably a reflection of the Confucianist values in the Singapore culture. Traditional Confucianism is based on the hierarchical system and its tenets are its focus on the group rather than on the individual and its acceptance of authority (Limlingen, 1986; Chong, 1987). These values are probably deeply rooted in the SMs about submission to authority; in this case, superiors and the primacy of group harmony may result in hesitance to contradict a superior's statement (Limlingen, 1986). The stress of conforming to another's ideas and suppressing conflict can be most demanding for these SMs as expressed in the study. But this has not affected the BMs in the same way because of their emphasis on fair

play and consideration for others. Other studies (Limlingan, 1986; Tayeb, 1988) have found that there is easier access to the boss and less fear of the boss among westerners than non-westerners which meant that 'having a new boss' was not as demanding for the BMMs. Changing attitudes towards authority, replacing management by edict with consultation and participation, said of the 'UK personnel scene' (Barry, 1986) also supports the finding that having 'a new boss' is less demanding for the BMMs.

The area of 'work relationships' has been expressed as an area of demand of varying degrees for the BMMs and SMMs in the sample. Managing interpersonal relationships is a demanding and sensitive exercise; for example, 'tighter' or 'closer' forms of supervision may easily lead to staff resentment, low morale and poor performance (Fielder and Chatters, 1974). 'Relationship problems' is also known to be a potential area for stress (p. 69, Handy, 1988) especially if people have difficulties with their boss, their subordinates or their colleagues. The need to work with and through other people can be a worrying complication for the life of some managers because the demanding nature of the whole area of managing work relationships horizontally, vertically and below (Stewart, 1976).

3. WHICH HAVE YOU FOUND DIFFICULT TO FACE WHEN YOU HAVE BEEN
CANDID ABOUT YOUR ABILITY TO COPE WITH CHANGE?

3.1 Inter-company and Inter-economic Sector Comparison

Table 6.3: Ranking relationship tensions, jeopardizing one's career prospects, bosses' disapproval, loss of financial reward and feelings of personal failure by company

	EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
Relationship tensions	fair	fair	fair	averg	fair	less
Jeopardizing one's career prospects	fair	averg	averg	fair	most	averg
Bosses' disapproval	averg	averg	least	most	averg	fair
Loss of financial reward	least	least	less	least	least	less
Feelings of personal failure	most	most	most	most	most	most

Note: - Scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least
 - Abbreviations: 'fair'=fairly, 'averg'=average

HOSP/B and FAST/B compares most closely with their Singapore counterparts in the order of their responses. (See Table 6.3.) EDUC/B and EDUC/S is slightly less similar. Despite this, the findings are clear that managers in the sample find 'feelings of personal failure' most difficult to face and 'loss of financial reward', least difficult. Some difficulty is also indicated for the other items for both BMEs and SMEs.

By inter-economic sector comparison, most BMEs and SMEs from the quasi-public and private sectors in the sample have identical responses regarding the order of what they find difficult to face when they have been candid about their ability to cope with change; where they differ is on 'jeopardizing their career prospects'. (See Table 6.4.)

Table 6.4. Ranking relationship tensions, jeopardizing one's career prospects, bosses' disapproval, loss of financial reward and feelings of personal failure by sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Relationship tensions	fair	fair	fair	fair
Jeopardizing one's career prospects	averg	less	fair	fair
Bosses' disapproval	averg	averg	averg	averg
Loss of financial reward	least	least	least	least
Feelings of personal failure	most	most	most	most

Note: - Scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least
 - Abbreviations: 'fair'=fairly, 'averg'=average,
 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

3.2 Inter-country Discussion

Although the inter-company comparison has not shown identical responses for most items like the inter-economic sector comparison, what is important is that there is a consistent indication from three perspectives that most BMEs and SMEs in the study find 'feelings of personal failure' most difficult to face and 'loss of financial reward', least difficult. This has been reflected by the troughs of the same height in the barcharts for 'feelings of personal failure' and the peaks for 'loss of financial reward' in Appendix 13.

Most BMEs and SMEs have indicated some difficulty with other items like 'relationship tensions', 'bosses' disapproval' and 'jeopardizing one's career prospects'. That 'relationship tensions' is fairly difficult serves to confirm the results in an earlier paragraph on work relationships and the importance of managing them. 'Jeopardizing one's career prospects' probably has its associations with 'feelings of personal failure'. There are mixed responses about 'jeopardizing one's career prospects'. (See Appendix 28.)

The discussion to follow will concentrate on the important findings about 'feelings of personal failure' being most difficult and the 'loss of financial reward' as least difficult.

3.2.1 'Feelings of personal failure' and the "face" concept

'Feelings of personal failure' is probably related to the concept of "face" and all that entails. That this concept has been said by Redding and Ng (1983) to be not exclusive to Orientals although it may have greater meaning for easterners, encourages an extension of its application and meaning for westerners. According to Hofstede (p.89, 1984),

"'face' is the English translation of a Chinese term that indicates both the front part of the head and the dignity based on a correct relationship between a person and the collectivities to which one belongs".

Face is the equivalent of self-esteem or the individual's view of himself; where a lot of face is gained means strong feelings of satisfaction and pride and enhanced confidence. The loss of face are the negatives of these, felt equally strongly, plus shame or feelings of personal failure and the like. The interpretation is that 'feelings of personal failure' is most difficult because it basically attacks the pride, ego and self-esteem of the BMMs and SMMs. It would be difficult for anyone without a sense of self-worth to function in any capacity especially as manager. It is therefore reasonable to find 'feelings of personal failure', a very difficult matter to face for these eastern or western managers.

The SMMs and BMMs in the sample have also expressed various degrees of difficulties with 'jeopardizing one's career prospects'. This may have its associations with the 'losing face' concept and a concern for

'individualism', independence and self-reliance which may be threatened by jeopardized careers.

3.2.2 'loss of financial reward'

It is profound that 'loss of financial reward' is the least difficult in the list of items for both the BMMs and SMMs in the sample to face. The relatively low priority in this item probably demonstrates that there are other securities, maybe intrinsic securities like 'feelings of personal achievement/success' that are more important to managers than monetary gain. Maslow postulated a hierarchy of human needs, from 'basic' to 'higher': Most basic are physiological needs, followed by security, social needs, esteem needs and finally, a need for 'self-actualization'. The finding is that both BMMs and SMMs pursue 'higher' needs than the 'basic' and this may have important implications for motivating these middle managers.

4. WHAT MANAGERS ARE PREPARED TO SACRIFICE TO ACCOMMODATE THE CHANGE PROCESS

Table 6.5: Ranking types of time by company

	EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
Leisure time	averg	averg	less	averg	averg	averg
In-between breaks	most	most	fair	most	most	most
Lunch time	fair	fair	fair	fair	fair	fair
Time for your family	least	least	least	least	least	least
Weekends	less	less	averg	less	less	less

Note: - Scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least
 - Abbreviations: 'fair'=fairly, 'averg'=average

4.1 Inter-company Comparison

EDUC/B, EDUC/S, HOSP/B and HOSP/S managers are prepared to sacrifice their time in the same order to accommodate change. (See the profile analyses in Appendix 14.) FAST/B and FAST/S differ in how they view the priority of types of time. (See Table 6.5.) An important feature in this section is that the order of priority of types of time, managers from EDUC/B, EDUC/S, HOSP/B and HOSP/S are prepared to sacrifice to accommodate change, are identical. (See Appendix 14).

Table 6.6: Ranking types of time by sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Leisure time	averg	less	less	averg
In-between breaks	most	fair	fair	most
Lunch time	fair	fair	fair	fair
Time for your family	least	least	least	least
Weekends	less	averg	averg	less

Note: - Scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least

- Abbreviations: 'fair'=fairly, 'averg'=average,

'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

4.2 Inter-economic Sector Comparison

On an inter-economic sector comparison basis, the priority of the types of time between the quasi-public British companies and the private Singapore company in the sample, and between private British company with quasi-public Singapore companies in the sample, are identical. (See Table 6.6.)

4.3 Inter-country Discussion

That the order of priority of the types of time BMMs and SMMs are prepared to sacrifice to accommodate change are almost identical, is

an important and interesting finding for two divergent cultures. This feature is reflected in the identical 'peaks' and 'troughs' in the bar charts on British and Singaporean managers in Appendix 15; the only difference in responses were from FAST/B. (See Appendix 28 and Table 6.6). Most managers in the sample are least willing to give up their weekends and time for their family to accommodate change.

The finding emphasizes the strong similarity in the way 'time' is perceived in different cultures (Holmes and Masuda, 1973) and the importance of non-work time to managers of divergent cultures (Bartolome and Evans, 1979; Selmer, 1987; Khin, 1988; Scase and Goffee, 1989). That BMMs and SMMs are unwilling to give up their weekends and time for the family to accommodate change is a reflection of the importance of non-work time to the manager. For example, Aryee and Wyatt (p.287-289, 1989) in their study have noted the tendency in Singaporeans not to invest themselves totally in work because of the "dual commitment to work and non-work roles". The Confucian generalist orientation (Tu, 1984) also explains the unwillingness among SMMs to invest all their energy only in work. Similarly, the BMMs also avoid spillover effects onto non-work life like family, leisure activities and general lifestyles; their tendency is to maintain privacy.

An earlier discussion on the implications of 'Additional workload' on the lives of BMMs and SMMs also has its application here. The discussion pointed out that work has its spillover effects on non-work life like family relationships, leisure activities and more general lifestyles (Scase and Goffee, 1989). Bartolome and Evans (1979) also reported pressure from spouses against encroachment on non-work time. Another writer, Kyi (1988) asserted that it is difficult for an employee of an organization to maintain sharp boundaries on where his responsibilities as a member of an organization begins and where his

responsibility to other competing social units such as his family and kin ends. What emerged from this section is the importance of non-work time for BMMs and SMMs.

5. WHAT MANAGERS FIND HELPFUL IN A CHANGE

In this section, the three perspectives are discussed collectively because there is a very high degree of consensus in the profile analyses for all the six companies from the two countries. (See Appendices 16 and 29.) The only point of difference is that some managers in the sample feel that it is helpful to change their present staff while others do not.

Table 6.7: 'What managers found helpful in a significant change' by sector and country

	<u>Britain</u>		<u>Singapore</u>	
	<u>Q-public</u>	<u>pte</u>	<u>Q-public</u>	<u>pte</u>
Being consulted before a change	most	most	most	most
Being well informed	most	most	most	most
Having more status	helpf	helpf	helpf	helpf
Financial incentives	helpf	helpf	helpf	helpf
Perceived benefits of the change	helpf	helpf	helpf	helpf
Peer and staff cooperation	most	most	most	most
Having full discretion	helpf	helpf	helpf	helpf
Changing your present staff	helpf	helpf	not *	not *
Having more authority	helpf	helpf	helpf	helpf
Being able to go home on time	fair	most	helpf	helpf

Note: - Abbreviations: 'most'=most helpful, 'helpf'=helpful,
 'fair'=fairly helpful, 'not'=not helpful,
 'not at all'=not helpful at all
 - 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

5.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country Comparison

The very high consensus is particularly obvious on an inter-economic sector and inter-country comparison. (See Table 6.7.) The inter-country comparison reveals that Singapore managers strongly feel that

'changing their present staff' is not helpful while their British counterparts feel the reverse. (Note the asterisked items in Table 6.7.) An earlier section has pointed out that managers in both countries do find the area of 'work relationships', demanding in varying degrees; this may confirm 'difficulties' that the SMEs experienced in their organizations.

5.2 Discussion

That managers in the sample find the above items 'helpful' or 'most helpful' in the face of change indicates a strong association and throws light on what are the 'facilitators' and 'motivators' in a change. (See Table 6.7.) Change can be challenging to managers and it may bring with it a sense of psychological upheaval and insecurity. The responses of most SMEs and BMEs emphasized that they want to be consulted and well informed. Knowledge about 'the state of affairs' during a change mitigates the sense of threat change brings. The very high score in 'peer and staff cooperation' may indirectly reflect the stress and strains of working with and through people and the appreciation of how cooperation minimizes that (Handy, 1988). This also indirectly confirms why SMEs and BMEs find managing work relationships, demanding in varying degrees.

The other items in the list reflect the need in managers to have some stability and a sense of 'feeling in control' in a change like having authority, full discretion and status during a change; being consulted and being well informed are also 'stabilisers' in a change. That information is power related (Pettigrew, 1972) and "status is the cloak of power" or the visible form of power, brings security to the SMEs and BMEs, facing an insecure or threatening change.

Having 'financial incentives' and 'perceived benefits' reflect the need in managers to be motivated, convinced and drawn into a commitment that the change is worth their effort. Managers find 'being able to go home on time' is helpful because of competing non-work commitments (Bartolome and Evans, 1979, Aryee and Wyatt, 1989).

5. A NOTE ABOUT THE SCORES IN THE ANALYSES

In the sections to follow, scores were reversed for some statements, as indicated in the notes, to ease the comparison. Average scores per manager per statement were subsequently computed using the frequency tables drawn up by the SPSSX package. The maximum score per manager would be 5 and the minimum would be 1; the average score is 3. These scores were summated to produce total scores for each area of concern such as 'individual power and influence' or 'communications', by sector and by country for comparison. The highest total score possible would be 20 and the lowest, 4; the average score is 12.

7. INDIVIDUAL POWER AND INFLUENCE IN A CHANGE

7.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country Comparison

By inter-company comparison, there is some divergence in managers' perceptions of their own power and influence in a change. (See Appendix 30.). This is reflected by the 'peaks' and 'troughs' occurring for the same item in the profile analyses in Appendix 17. The 'peaks' in the bar charts occurred more frequently among the SMEs and the 'troughs', more frequently among the BMEs. This reflected the tendency for BMEs to experience more individual power than the SMEs.

By inter-economic sector comparison, quasi-public sector managers from both countries scored slightly higher than those in the private sector in the sample, implying that they wield relatively more power and influence. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.01$). (See Table 6.8.)

Table 6.8: 'Individual power and influence in a significant change' by sector and country

Number of cases	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
	71	83	78	46
1. In your organization, you have often exercised discretion	2.89	3.61 (1)	3.16 (1)	3.28
2. You have been able to reverse a decision or seek a compromise	3.62	3.38 (1)	3.03 (2)	3.20
3. Normally staff are expected to accept orders without question	3.65 (2)	3.19	3.22 (1)	3.05
4. Senior management consults your views on change	3.61	3.14 (2)	3.17 (1)	2.88 (1)
TOTALS	13.77 (2)	13.32 (4)	12.58 (5)	12.41 (1)

Note: - The higher the score, the more power and influence is wielded.
 - Reverse scores were applied to statements 1, 2 and 4.
 - Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
 - Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
 - The numbers in parenthesis indicate the missing values.
 - Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

By inter-country comparison, the responses of the SMMs in the sample tend to veer from the middle towards to the lower end of the scale with regard to perception of their own power and influence while their British counterparts tend to score towards the middle and upper end of the scale. (See Table 6.8.) The total scores demonstrate a divergence in perceptions of their own power and influence in the change; the BMMs perceive themselves to wield relatively more power and influence

than the SMs in the study. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.01$).

7.2 Discussion

The significant finding from the above analyses is that the BMs perceive that they have relatively more power and influence than the SMs. That the SMs perceive that they wield relatively less power and influence than the BMs does find support in other studies. Those studies (Mok, 1973; Deyo, 1976; Low, 1984) found Singapore firms to show a distinct authoritarian style of management with most decision-making residing with the upper echelon of management. Its other features are high control, close supervision, less delegation and participation. According to Low (1984), despite the popular notion about contemporary Chinese managers in Hong Kong and Singapore being different, these managers have continued to exhibit a traditional authoritarian style of leadership (Deyo, 1976). The result being that the SMs are likely to find that they wield less power and influence.

The BMs, on the other hand, find a greater ability to influence which is consistent with what many have said of the British culture (Limlingan, 1986; Marquand, 1989). 'Democracy' and 'equality' are in the British culture which encourage the assertion of rights and individual's influence in society. British have been said to believe in 'sharing fairly' and 'considering others'; this is probably because of imbedded Christian morals. Hofstede's (1984a) findings on Britain is that it is a small 'Power Distance' country; this is characterized by both managers and subordinates preferring a consultative and give-and-take style, unafraid to disagree with their boss and a dislike for close supervision. In addition, where periods of recession may have discouraged participative management styles as inappropriate because

of the need to generate a quick solution to problems, Barry's (1986) view is that the general trend is still away from authoritarianism and towards consultation and participation in UK.

Tayeb (1988) compared employees from England, a western nation, with those from India, an ex-British colony and an eastern nation in a study. She reported that the English employees in the sample perceived themselves and their colleagues to enjoy greater power than did the Indian employees. In the words of Tayeb (p.112, 1988),

"... :English employees were less afraid to disagree with their boss, they called each other by the first name, they had easier access to their boss, they were less obedient and loyal to their superior, they agreed less that a good employee does not contradict the boss, they believed less that people in authority are more knowledgeable and intelligent than their subordinates, they were more prepared to argue with people in higher positions, but they perceived themselves to have less chance of a say in the decisions which concerned their job, compared to their Indian counterparts."

This does support the finding in the study about BMMs having more influence and power in the change than the SMMs since decisions are likely to be made with their consultation.

The foregoing points to a suggestion that the cultural root does offer some explanation for the divergence in power and influence wielded by these middle managers. A number of studies (Limlingen, 1986; Lockett, 1988) have shown that the management system of Confucianist societies like Singapore, are very much governed by underlying principles of respect given to age and hierarchical position. Even when decisions appear to be made from the 'bottom-up', there is still a strong and continuing influence from above (Lockett, 1988). According to Limlingen (1986), respect for age and the hierarchical position entail 'acceptance of authority' and 'submission to authority' rather than a concern for equality; these values play down the power and influence of the SMMs.

In addition, the tendency in eastern cultures like Singapore is towards collectivism (Hofstede, 1984a; Khin, 1988; Lockett, 1988) and the importance of group consensus, also plays down individual power. Khin (p.216-217, 1988) suggested that

"In Western culture, the individual is extolled", but "In the East, individualism or 'self' is to be effaced".
As "flaunting authority or one's own power is considered bad taste and one is expected to subdue or play down one's own superiority and merge with the group".

It is perhaps not a surprise that Singapore managers in the sample score lower than British managers.

8. ABILITY TO COPE WITH CHANGE

8.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country Comparison

By inter-company comparison, the responses of like organizations are in the same direction but with the BMMs scoring consistently higher for most statements. The higher scores of the BMMs means that they are less able to cope with change. This has been reflected by the 'troughs' in the barcharts of the BMMs' responses in the profile analyses in Appendix 18 except in the case of FAST/B, EDUC/B, EDUC/S, HOSP/B and HOSP/S managers in the sample concurred on 'Change often upsets routines and bring inconveniences for you'. FAST/B and FAST/S managers concurred on their responses to 'the pace of change at work is increasing'. (See Appendix 31).

Table 6.9: 'Managers' ability to cope with significant change' by
sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Number of cases	71	83	78	46
1. The pace of change at work is increasing.	4.68	3.37	3.62 (2)	3.76
2. The pace of change creates constant work pressure for you.	4.20	4.02	3.38 (1)	3.63
3. Change often upsets routines and brings inconveniences for you	3.31	3.29	3.17 (1)	3.37
4. Continuing change is increasingly difficult to accommodate	3.29 (1)	3.13 (1)	3.11 (1)	3.11
TOTALS	15.48 (1)	13.81 (1)	13.28 (5)	13.87

Note: - The higher the score, the less able to cope with change.
 - Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
 - Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
 - Reverse scores were applied to all statements.
 - The numbers in parenthesis indicate the missing values.
 - Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

By inter-economic comparison, the BMMs in the quasi-public sector had the highest score, reflecting the least ability to cope with change. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). Managers from the private sector from both countries in the sample scored nearly the same above average score. A 't' test confirmed this. (See Table 6.9.)

By inter-country comparison, the significant finding from the above average scores is that both BMMs and SMMs do not find significant change easy. The overall lower scores of the SMMs demonstrate that Singapore managers cope better with change than their British counterparts. (See Table 6.9.). The obvious 'troughs' and 'peaks' occurring for the same item for most statements in the profile

analyses in Appendix 18, demonstrate more clearly the divergence in the BMMs and SMMs' ability to cope with change.

8.2 Discussion

That both BMMs and SMMs do not find significant change easy, does reflect on the fact that change challenges the status quo, whatever that may involve. It is not difficult to see and feel the turmoil and movement that come with change (Plant, 1987); much about the forces for and against change have been discussed in chapter one. The point of greater interest is the indication that the SMMs cope relatively better than the BMMs in a significant change. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.01$).

There are studies that support this finding. For example, chapter one mentioned that Kedia and Bhagat's (1988) study found Singaporeans more receptive to technology transfer, implying a greater ability to adapt or cope with change. Chapter two discussed the differential in economic performances of Britain and Singapore, giving evidence from a human resource angle that Singaporeans are relatively more able to adapt, learn and change (Chong, 1984; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988) while the British tend to show a greater resistance to change (Wiener, 1981; Phelps-Brown, 1986; Marquand, 1989) for a variety of reasons set out in the same chapter. As explained in chapter two, Singapore's economic culture and its migrant genesis probably nurtured an open attitude towards change unlike Britain's anti-business culture (Hannah, 1989); the details and discussions are in that chapter.

9. WORK RELATIONSHIPS IN A CHANGE

Table 7.1: 'Managing work relationships in a significant change' by
sector and country

	Britain Q-public	pte	Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Number of cases	71	83	78	46
1. You can often count on the help of others in your organization during a significant change.	3.66	3.70	3.19 (2)	3.15
2. Others in your organization find you cooperative in any significant change.	4.19 (1)	2.98	3.82 (2)	2.70
3. Whenever there is a significant change, you have found quite a lot of friction and not such cooperation between departments.	2.93 (1)	2.84	2.72 (2)	2.95
4. You have found your boss(es) not very approachable in a significant change.	2.31	2.31	2.34 (2)	2.51
TOTALS	13.09 (2)	11.83	12.07 (8)	11.31

Note: - The higher the scores, the better at managing work relationships.
 - Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
 - Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
 - Reverse scores were applied to statements 1 and 2.
 - The numbers in parenthesis indicate the missing values.
 - Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

9.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country Comparison

By inter-company comparison, the responses of like organizations such as EDUC/B and EDUC/S, and FAST/B and FAST/S are identical and almost identical respectively. This has been reflected in the same heights of the bar charts for several statements in the profile analyses in Appendix 19. The responses of HOSP/B and HOSP/S are roughly in the

same direction except that HOSP/S's scores are slightly lower than HOSP/B's concerning 'friction and cooperation during a change' and 'counting on the help of others in a change'; in other words, HOSP/S managers find less friction and more cooperation in a change. (See Appendix 32).

By inter-economic sector comparison, quasi-public sector managers in the sample scored higher than those in the private sector in the sample. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$). This suggested that the quasi-public sector managers are better at managing work relationships. (See Table 7.1.) The scores of the private sector managers in the sample are generally below average, indicating their relative weakness at managing work relationships.

By inter-country comparison, the total scores of the SMMs in the sample are either average or below average; their British counterparts span between just below average and above average. The tendency towards higher scores in the British managers in the sample suggests that the BMMs are better at managing work relationships in a change than the SMMs. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$).

9.2 Discussion

The finding that the BMMs are better at managing work relationships than the SMMs is probably significant ($p < 0.001$) and there may be a cultural root for the divergence. According to Lockett (1988), 'relationships' and 'continuing relationships' are of great importance in Chinese organizations; in addition, the strict observance of social rules in relationships including the respect for age, hierarchical positions and the emphasis on group harmony

(Limingen, 1986) are likely to make the whole process of managing work relationships more demanding and difficult for the SMEs. The earlier sections on 'Individual power and influence in a change' and 'Having a new boss and work relationships' have discussed difficulties and their effect on work relationships; they also confirm that the SMEs do find these areas, demanding. As explained earlier, the tendency to emphasize 'democracy', 'equality' and 'considering others' in the British culture probably explains why the SMEs do not find managing relationships difficult to the same degree. In addition, the trend mentioned earlier towards consultative and participative style in UK seems consistent with those characteristics like 'democracy', in the British culture. The culture conditioning in Britain and Singapore probably brought forth its particular difficulties in managing work relationships. For example, Low (p.38, 1984) felt that

"...imposing a democratic system of management on the Singaporean workers may evoke anxiety and result in job dissatisfaction"

probably because of the absence of social rules, less control and supervision, and more delegation which they are used to.

The results of the same study by Low (1984) on 'Interpersonal relationships' in organizational settings showed that most of the Singapore-based subsidiaries of US firms were actively involved in creating a supportive and cooperative organisational climate among their employees. In contrast, subordinates of the local Singapore firms felt that their management paid little attention to these factors. The main difficulty is that the Singapore managers were found to be more concerned with the work itself and paid little attention to the 'pain' or difficulty of interpersonal relationships. Another study reported by Soong (p.30, 1986) confirmed that the finding is probably true of Singapore managers because

"although middle managers co-operated well among themselves, they were found to be less adept at

'soft' management, weak in people-management skills such as counselling, motivating and providing performance feedback to their subordinates. They were seen as less capable at handling problem employees".

10. COMMUNICATIONS IN A CHANGE

10.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country

Comparison

By inter-company comparison, the responses of like organizations are in a fairly similar direction. The concurrence between like organizations are reflected in the same heights in the barcharts of the profile analyses in Appendix 20. EDUC/B and EDUC/S's responses concurred that it is not very true that they '...found that you know of changes within a short period (eg. 2-3 weeks) before they happen'. HOSP/B and HOSP/S concurred that it is true to some extent that 'Management is approachable and good at listening ...' and 'You get conflicting orders and instructions in a change'. FAST/B and FAST/S concurred that it is true to some extent that they 'have withheld information from management during a change'. (See Appendix 33.)

By inter-economic sector comparison, quasi-public sector managers in the sample scored above average compared with those in the private sector in the sample, suggesting that they may be better at communication than those in the private sector in the sample. However a 't' test did not achieve significance at the 0.05 level. (See Table 7.2.) There was hardly any difference between the scores of BMMs and SMMs from the private sector in the sample.

Table 7.2: 'Managers' communications in a significant change' by
sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Number of cases	71	83	78	46
1. You have found that you know of changes within a short period (eg. 2-3 weeks) before they happen.	3.42	3.58	3.06 (1)	3.07
2. Management is approachable and good at listening to explanations when there are problems in a change situation.	3.61 (1)	3.52 (1)	3.24 (2)	3.21
3. You get conflicting orders and instructions in a change.	3.08	3.13	3.29 (2)	2.57
4. You have withheld information from management during a change.	4.30	2.41	4.22 (2)	3.72
TOTALS	14.41 (1)	12.64 (1)	13.81 (7)	12.57

Note: - The higher the score, the better at the communication in a change.

- Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
- Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
- Reverse scores were applied to statements 1 and 2.
- The numbers in parenthesis indicate the missing values.
- Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

By inter-country comparison, the BMMs in the sample scored higher than their Singaporean counterparts. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). This indicated that the British managers in the sample were better at communication than the Singaporean managers.

10.2 Discussion

The significant findings from the analyses are that the British managers in the sample are better at communication than the Singaporean managers in the sample ($p < 0.001$). The BMMs find that they

have better notice of change and that their management is more approachable and better at listening to explanations when there are problems; they are apparently less likely to withhold information from management during a change compared with the SMMs. This seems consistent with the other findings already discussed in the earlier sections of this chapter which have said that the SMMs are relatively better at managing work relationships at various levels and the 'softer' interpersonal skills.

The survey reported by Soong (1986) found middle managers in Singapore technically competent but needing to improve their 'soft' management skills. In the same article, almost half of the SMMs in the survey thought their top management did not set clear policies for them to follow and pass on to their subordinates. A National Productivity Board survey on the behaviour and attitudes of SMMs reported that these SMMs have difficulty communicating, motivating, and counselling their subordinates. It was said of these that they do not interact enough on a professional level with those who work under them (Soong, 1986).

11. COMMITMENT IN A CHANGE

11.1. Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country

Comparison

By inter-company comparison, the responses of like organizations have been varied. This has been reflected by the variation in heights in the bar charts for several statements in the profile analyses in Appendix 21. EDUC/B and EDUC/S agreed that it was true to some extent that they '... would go to any length to support the changes...' and they are '... more concerned about the interests of their section or

department...'. HOSP/B had identical responses to HOSP/S except that HOSP/B responses are all consistently one point lower than HOSP/S. FAST/B and FAST/S are only able to agree that it was fairly true that they '...would go to any length to support the changes...'. (See Appendix 34).

Table 7.3: 'Managers' commitment in a significant change' by sector and country

	<u>Britain</u>		<u>Singapore</u>	
	Q-public	pta	Q-public	pta
Number of cases	71	83	78	46
1. You see future prospects with this organization.	3.55	3.71	3.53 (2)	3.64
2. You would go to any length to support the changes your organization tries to make.	3.18	3.42	3.53 (3)	3.69
3. ...in fact, you are often willing to volunteer help to see a change successfully implemented.	3.86	3.83	3.66 (4)	3.79
4. In a change, you tend to be more concerned about the interests of your section or department rather than the wider organization objectives.	2.94	2.43	3.16 (1)	3.17
TOTALS	13.53	13.38	13.88 (10)	14.29

Note: - The higher the score, the stronger the commitment to change.
 - Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
 - Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
 - Reverse scores were applied to statements 1, 2 and 3.
 - The numbers in parenthesis indicate the missing values.
 - Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pta'=private.

By inter-economic sector comparison, the two sectors of Britain and Singapore in the sample scored above average, indicating some commitment to their organizations. The difference in those total scores by sector is marginal which seems to suggest that there is not

a significant difference between the commitment of managers by sector in the sample. A 't' test confirmed this. (See Table 7.3.)

By inter-country comparison, the individual scores per statement do indicate that the BMMs and SMMs from both sectors have slightly above average scores for commitment to their organizations and the closeness of their scores may be indicative of similar competing demands of the BMMs and SMMs' non-work or private commitments. The scores centering around the average score may be a reflection of, possibly, near equal demands on the BMMs and SMMs' work and non-work commitment. A 't' test confirmed that there was no significant difference by country. Earlier sections on 'Relativity of demand on managers', 'Additional workload' and 'Non-work time' in this chapter have discussed areas of competing demands in detail; they are family orientation among SMMs, a generalist orientation of life and the importance of private life to BMMs.

12. THE EFFECT OF PERCEIVED BENEFITS ON RESPONSES TO CHANGE

12.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country Comparison

By inter-company comparison, the responses of like organizations are very close or in a fairly similar direction. This has been reflected by the identical heights of the barcharts for EDUC/B and EDUC/S, and the fairly similar heights of the barcharts for the other organizations in the profile analyses in Appendix 22. HOSP/B and HOSP/S's managers proceed in the same direction with HOSP/S scoring consistently one point lower than HOSP/B. They agreed that it was true to some extent that their 'participation would be to a minimal extent...if they did not perceive benefit from it'. FAST/B and FAST/S

managers responded in a very similar direction to each other. (See Appendix 35.)

Table 7.4: 'The effect of perceived benefits on managers in a significant change' by sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Number of cases	71	83	78	46
1. In recent years, you have found the significant changes in this organization, purposeful.	3.69 (1)	3.70	3.28 (2)	3.29 (2)
2. Although you disagreed with the purpose of some changes, you were always willing to cooperate.	2.09 (1)	2.00	2.34 (1)	2.27 (1)
3. You accept change if you perceive benefit from it.	4.44	3.34	3.77 (1)	3.74
4. You would participate to a minimal extent in a change if you did not perceive benefit from it.	3.15	3.25	3.18 (1)	3.35
TOTALS	13.37 (2)	12.29	12.57 (5)	12.65 (3)

Note: - The assumption is that if there are perceived benefits, managers will be more persuaded to support and participate in the change.

The higher the score, the greater the participation in the change because of perceived benefits.

- Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
- Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
- Reverse scores were applied to statements 1 and 3.
- The numbers in parentheses indicate the missing values.
- Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

By inter-economic sector comparison, there was no significant difference comparing the scores of the quasi-public and private sectors of both samples. A 't' test confirmed this. However, the participation of the BMMs from the quasi-public sector was greater if there were perceived benefits in the change. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$).

By inter-country comparison, most total scores centred around the average score except for the British quasi-public sector companies. According to Appendix 22, the higher bars were because of the responses of the SMMs. By overall comparison, it seemed relatively more important to the BMMs to be persuaded to a fuller participation than the SMMs. (See Table 7.4.)

12.2 Discussion

The higher scores of British quasi-public sector managers in the sample do suggest a greater importance for them to be convinced about the change to secure their full participation. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). The slightly lower scores of the Singaporean managers may reflect the greater openness to change, their willingness to experiment, to put aside individualism and conform to authority than the British managers. This is consistent with the earlier findings of this chapter about the SMMs' greater ability to cope with change and what the other studies discussed in chapter two have said about the 'open and pragmatic' Singaporean who is relatively more willing to learn, adapt and change (Chong, 1984; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988) compared with the more resistant BMMs (Phelps-Brown, 1986; Marquand, 1989).

13. MANAGERS' PREFERENCES AT WORK

Table 7.5: 'Managers' preferences in a significant change' by sector and country

	Britain		Singapore	
	Q-public	pte	Q-public	pte
Number of cases	71	83	78	46
1. I prefer a job which is always changing.	3.52	3.48	3.56	2.96
2. I enjoy finding myself in new and unusual circumstances.	2.75	3.76	3.04	3.07
3. I like to have a regular pattern in my working day.	3.63 (1)	3.43	3.12	3.17
4. I would generally prefer to do something I am used to rather than something that is different.	3.66 (1)	3.54	3.36	3.39
5. I get a lot of pleasure from taking on new problems.	3.03	4.02	3.45	3.40
TOTALS	16.59 (2)	18.23	16.53	15.99

Note: - The higher the score, the less flexible.
 - Maximum score per manager per statement=5, average=3 and minimum score=1.
 - Maximum total score=20, average=12 and minimum score=4.
 - Reverse scores were applied to 1, 2 and 5.
 - The numbers in parenthesis indicate the missing values.
 - Abbreviations: 'Q-public'=quasi-public, 'pte'=private.

13.1 Inter-company, Inter-economic Sector and Inter-country

Comparison

By inter-company comparison, the responses of like organizations are in a similar direction except for a difference of one point in the scale for some of the statements. (See the profile analyses in Appendix 23.) The most identical profile analysis compares FAST/B with FAST/S. (See Appendix 36).

By inter-economic sector comparison, the BMMs and the SMMs from the quasi-public sector in the sample had very similar above average scores. The highest score came from the BMMs in the private sector, suggesting least flexibility in work preferences. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.01$). Those in the private sector are in the fastfood trade with a standardized way of selling and delivering their product including routines and standards that need to be strictly adhered to. What is interesting is that the SMMs from FAST/S had the lowest total score, reflecting the greatest flexibility at work. (See Table 7.5.)

By inter-country comparison, the higher total scores came from the BMMs, reflecting less flexibility from them compared with the SMMs. A 't' test indicated a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). The profile analyses of British companies in Appendix 23 have their 'peaks' and 'troughs' in fairly similar way for the same statements. (The responses of the BMMs are in striped bars in Appendix 23.) This demonstrates that most British managers in the sample feel the same about their preferences at work. EDUC/S and HOSP/S managers also have very similar profiles. (The responses of the SMMs are shaded.)

13.2 Discussion

That the BMMs are less flexible than the SMMs about their work preferences is consistent with the finding discussed in the previous section on 'ability to cope with change' and chapter two's discussion on the SMMs' pragmatism and openness to learn, adapt and change, as opposed to the greater resistance from the BMMs.

14. THE EFFECT OF MISCELLANEOUS FACTORS IN A CHANGE

By comparison, the profile analyses in Appendix 24 illustrate a very close similarity in the responses of all BMMs in the sample; the pattern of responses from the SMMs were also the same. (See Appendix 37.) These BMMs and SMMs' experiences are as follows in this section:

1. There is full consensus among these BMMs and SMMs that there is no difference in whether change is directed by men or women. The challenge against the prevailing views about the roles of women in the late 1960s, the enforcement of equal opportunity legislation (Seese and Goffas, 1989) and the expanded demand for female labour (Ball et. al, 1989), have emphasized more equality between the sexes. This may have added to the view that there is no difference in whether change is directed by men or women.

2. There is full consensus among these BMMs and SMMs that managerial or supervisory experience helps them to cope better in a change. Relevant experiences give practical knowledge and confidence in managing change better.

3. There is 83% consensus among these BMMs and SMMs that age does not affect ability to cope with change. This is a 'surprise' and contrary to the traditional thinking about age, habits and routines conditioned over the years which tend to produce resistance to change or adapting to the new. For example, Johns (p.53, 1973) said that

"Closely associated with the fear of the unknown in determining resistance to change is the factor of age, since anxieties about the future understandably begin to accelerate significantly with advancing years".

4. The SMNs and BMNs found themselves in agreement to more or less the same degree that:

- Formal education helps them cope better with change. In the words of Johns (p.65, 1973),

"there is a very high correlation between level of education and all forms of mobility, whether geographical, occupational and technical. ... the experience of higher education enables the individual to develop specific expectations and wider career possibilities.. "

For example, Marquand (p.147, 1989) has pointed out that whilst basic education is by no means all that a manager needs, those who lack it will find it hard to think long or strategically. Formal education does help in crystallizing the understanding of change and the formulating of ideas to cope with change better.

- It is false that change is better received if directed by men. This has been explained under 1. What is a "surprise" is that the SMNs accept that there is no difference even though they are from a Confucianist society where "males take precedence over females" (Lee, 1989). This is probably the influence of westernization in Singapore that has changed this outlook.

- It is false that past experience of change in the organization has given them a negative outlook to future changes. Plant (p.18, 1987) endorses that "historical factors" may cause resistance to change but the experience of these managers has been that it does not affect them.

- It is false that religion helps them cope with change. Ethics of hard work, character building and moral rules rooted in religion for guiding behaviour at work (Jackall, 1988) are apparently not helpful to these BMNs and SMNs.

The BMMs, unlike the SMMs, found it not difficult to speak to their boss about change they disagree with. This is probably a reflection of the cultural hesitancy in the SMMs to contradict a superior's statement because of respect for age and hierarchical positions in the organizations (Lockett, 1988). The purpose of this section has been to provide a broad understanding of what the SMMs and BMMs found helpful in a change rather than a detailed discussion.

15. A SUMMARY OF THE WRITTEN RESPONSES

In the section on written responses about significant change, most managers in the sample referred to the same significant change and they were able to express positively the objective or rational purpose for the change. There was consensus that the change achieved its original purpose. Most BMMs and SMMs in the sample found significant change very helpful because they brought such enhancement and improvement to their situation. The BMMs in the sample found it 'helpful' when change centred around improvements on control and communications but the SMMs' concerns were more for work relationships, incentives and efficiency. The divergence confirms the tendency towards individuality, distinctiveness and the importance of control for the BMMs as opposed to the tendency towards group consensus and harmony among the SMMs; these have been discussed in the earlier sections. What managers in the sample found difficult was to see the change through as well as carry others with them. The demanding and difficult items mentioned here were the same as the earlier sections.

The BMMs and SMMs who responded were of the view that senior management should be aware of their need to be consulted and to have more participation such earlier on when implementing a significant

change. Change upsets the status quo and the demand for more communication in terms of explaining, clarifying, keeping everyone well-informed with mutual feedback are for reassurance of the need for the change. It is important to these managers that senior management are aware of the effect of change on workloads, work patterns, responsibilities, their ability to cope or adjust to change, morale and feelings.

Most managers in the sample felt that consultation with open discussion and participation in decision-making would help them accept and implement change in their organization. They were also of the view that involvement would encourage greater commitment on their part. What does put them off is a "no choice" situation of change. These managers felt strongly that top management should explain and "sell the change" to them; in other words, "propose not impose" change on them. Managers in the sample also felt that the following would help them accept and implement change: preparation of staff, being given more time, being shown the benefits of the change, motivation via rewards or incentives, having flexibility, material and moral support, and training.

16. MANAGERS' PERSONAL VIEWS ON CHANGE

On the whole, managers from both countries in the sample have a positive attitude towards change; they expect and accept the need for change. Their concern is that top management are fully aware of the implications and repercussions of change including time to adjust to change; to a lesser extent, their expressed need is for moral and material support during the change. The BMMs and SMMs constantly express the need for participation and consultation to encourage them

In their commitment to the change. These managers also believe that preparation for change minimizes stress and other negative effects.

A summary of EDUC/B managers' views (10 of 39)

EDUC/B managers who responded enjoyed change because it brings new challenges and variety. Their greatest concern is that the "implications of change need to be made explicit" to avoid suspicions and threats, and that "poor communication makes change appear destructive".

A summary of HOSP/B managers' views (13 of 32)

These managers say they expect and accept change in their organization. Their greatest concern is the pace of change and their ability to cope with the change. They also expressed the need for training to compensate their lack and to make the change effective. Managers expressed the need for more consultation to ensure that the change is not imposed or without clear benefits. Manager 1 said that "Change is stressful for all staff.." and would like more "people skill" to remove the "us and them" syndrome which gets in the way of change. Manager 2 felt the need for assurance that change is not politically motivated. Manager 3 felt that it is common to expect responses against any change and believes that it can be turned into enthusiasm if it is properly managed.

A summary of FAST/B managers' views (14/82)

These managers accept the necessity of change for their business to progress, compete and profit. They expressed their willingness to conform and change as long as it is "not just change for change sake".

There is a repeated cry for consultation and to be shown the benefits from the change.

A summary of EDUC/S managers' views (9/45)

Their concern is for there to be full consultation and for the full implications of change, negative and positive, to be carefully considered and communicated. They also expressed the need for change to be implemented with sensitivity and not force.

A summary of HOSP/S managers' views (4/33)

These responses were concerned that there be adequate participation or involvement as well as preparation of the staff. They emphasized better communication in the change. An interesting quote from one manager is that "Changes arising from the needs of the organization helps improve systems and the organization as a whole. But changes in management leading to changes in style of management and policies may be stressful to staff and lowers morale, if changes are frequent."

A summary of FAST/S managers' views (13/46)

These managers view changes as positive and necessary to improve in every sense of the word. Their concerns are the implications and repercussions of change on them and their work or interests. They have found that while change improves efficiency, it can also cause 'people' problems. Managers expressed the need for time to adapt to change which they do not always have. They also appreciate support in the change so as not to be "thrown there (in a situation) to live or die" which can be insufferable. They expressed the need for consultation, communication (especially feedback) and to be reassured

of the benefits of the change. Those who have experienced several changes of superiors, found it particularly difficult to have to adapt to the new bosses' way of doing things.

17. A SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

The above analyses and interpretation have demonstrated similarities and differences in the responses of the SMMs and the BMMs from Singapore and Britain. This summary of the significant findings provides the broad and general findings from the data obtained by quantitative methods; this will serve as the backdrop for the findings from the qualitative data. The significant findings are divided into three areas in this summary:

- Demanding/difficult items: Similarities and differences
- Helpful items: Similarities
- Specific areas of comparison

17.1 Demanding/difficult items: Similarities and Differences

BMMs and SMMs found the same items demanding to more or less the same degree. The main difficulties have been with time-related stress demands, communications with others and innovation by others. In terms of comparing demanding or difficult items in their various groups, items like 'additional workload', having 'a new boss', 'work relationships', 'feelings of personal failure' and 'time for the family' have been amongst the most difficult or demanding items for both SMMs and BMMs. The reasons have been mainly because of difficulties with a cultural root such as the emphasis on 'privacy, equality and democracy' for the BMMs and Confucianist values on family (Hau, 1984), general life (Tu, 1984), hierarchical positions and age

(Lockett, 1988), and the "face" concept (Redding and Ng, 1983; Hofstede, 1984) for the SMMs. It was interesting that in the particular group of items, the pursuit of 'higher' needs rather than 'basic' needs did result in the 'loss of financial reward' being the least difficult for the BMMs and SMMs to face. It may also be true that 'new physical environment' probably has more symbolic importance among SMMs than the BMMs.

What has also been important in the finding is the very close similarity in perceptions of 'time' and 'types of time' (like weekends, time for the family and lunch time) that emerged from the study and the strong support from other studies along the same line (Holmes and Masuda, 1973; Bartolome and Evans, 1979; Aryee and Wyatt, 1989). This is likely to have important implications on personnel policies, motivation/incentive schemes and the management of time generally.

17.2 Helpful items: Similarities only

There is a strong similarity in what the BMMs and SMMs find helpful in a significant change. Aspects described as "most helpful" are being consulted, being well informed and peer and staff cooperation. What has been described as "helpful", the next point down the scale, are having more status, financial incentives, perceived benefits, full discretion, changing present staff and having more authority. This has thrown some light on what facilitates change and what motivates change.

17.3 Specific Areas of Comparison

In the specific areas of comparison, the responses of the BMMs and SMMs from the two countries are demonstrated as follow:

Power and Influence

The BMMs perceive more ability to influence and exercise power than the SMMs. The different cultural tendencies discussed of the BMMs and SMMs demonstrate smaller power distance for the BMMs and larger power distance for the SMMs (Hofstede, 1984a).

Ability to cope with change and managers' work preferences

The SMMs demonstrate more flexibility and they cope better with change than the BMMs; this is probably because of the economic culture, social history and general cultural conditioning of their nation.

Work relationships

Although both SMMs and BMMs find managing work relationships difficult, the BMMs seem better at managing work relationships than the SMMs. The relative difficulty experienced by the SMMs may have been exacerbated by the adherence to strict social rules of conduct (Limlingen, 1986) and the emphasis on hierarchical positions.

Communications

The BMMs were found to be better at communications than the SMMs although the BMMs and SMMs from the quasi-public organizations seem generally better at communications than those in the private sector. It may be that the bureaucratic organizations have their standard procedures and communication channels which they are obliged to follow.

Commitment

Both BMMs and SMMs have above average scores for commitment. The results probably reflect near equal pulls or demands on the BMMs and SMMs' work and non-work commitment. There is probably a cultural explanation for this which relates to the 'private life' of the BMMs and the emphasis on the family obligations for the SMMs.

Effect of perceived benefits on responses to change

The findings have said that both BMMs and SMMs preferred to be convinced of the benefits of the change if they are to participate more fully. By comparison, this is more important to the BMMs than the SMMs. It probably reflects indirectly a greater openness to learn and adapt to change on the part of the SMMs as discussed.

Effect of miscellaneous items

The BMMs and SMMs fully agree that formal education and relevant experience help them cope better with change. Both groups of managers also agree that gender, age, religion and past experiences of change do not hinder or affect future significant changes.

T-TEST TABLES

----- T - TEST -----										
GROUP 1 - COUN		E3	11	SRIT						
GROUP 2 - COUN		E9	21	SPORE		* Pooled Variance estimate				
Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	2-tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Prob.	
TM1	GROUP 1	153	3.3306	.768	.062	1.36	.080	2.71	274	.007
	GROUP 2	123	3.0942	.659	.059					
TM2	GROUP 1	153	3.7032	.726	.059	1.03	.840	2.65	274	.008
	GROUP 2	123	3.6675	.740	.067					
TM3	GROUP 1	153	3.6329	.630	.051	1.12	.502	3.85	274	.000
	GROUP 2	123	3.3669	.594	.056					
TM4	GROUP 1	153	3.5871	.589	.044	1.42	.043	3.85	274	.000
	GROUP 2	123	3.3313	.493	.044					
TM5	GROUP 1	153	3.4232	.627	.051	1.03	.452	-1.95	274	.052
	GROUP 2	123	3.5705	.617	.056					
TM6	GROUP 1	153	3.3101	.417	.034	1.55	.012	3.54	274	.000
	GROUP 2	123	3.1660	.335	.030					
TM7	GROUP 1	153	3.6471	.615	.051	1.09	.606	5.96	275	.000
	GROUP 2	124	3.1964	.607	.055					

NOTE:

- TM1 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'Power and influence in a change'.
- TM2 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' ability to cope with change'.
- TM3 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'work relationships in a change'.
- TM4 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'communications in a change'.
- TM5 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'commitment in a change'.
- TM6 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'the effect of perceived benefits on responses to change'.
- TM7 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' preferences towards work'.

Please refer to the appropriate sections of Chapter 6 for explanations of reverse scores.

T-TEST TABLES

----- T - T E S T -----

GROUP 1 = COUN E2 1: BRIT
GROUP 2 = COJN EQ 2: SPORE

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F value	2-tail Prob.	* Pooled Variance estimate	
							t Value	Degrees of Freedom

TM1								
GROUP 1	153	3.3306	.768	.062				
GROUP 2	123	3.0942	.659	.059	1.36	.000	2.71	274 .007

TM2								
GROUP 1	153	3.7032	.726	.059				
GROUP 2	123	3.4675	.740	.067	1.03	.840	2.65	274 .008

TM3								
GROUP 1	153	3.6329	.630	.051				
GROUP 2	123	3.3669	.594	.054	1.12	.502	3.85	274 .000

TM4								
GROUP 1	153	3.5871	.589	.049				
GROUP 2	123	3.3313	.493	.044	1.42	.043	3.85	274 .000

TM5								
GROUP 1	153	3.4752	.627	.051				
GROUP 2	123	3.5705	.617	.056	1.03	.452	-1.95	274 .052

TM6								
GROUP 1	153	3.3701	.417	.034				
GROUP 2	123	3.1600	.335	.030	1.55	.012	3.54	274 .000

TM7								
GROUP 1	153	3.6471	.615	.051				
GROUP 2	124	3.1964	.607	.055	1.09	.606	5.96	275 .000

- NOTE:**
- TM1 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'Power and influence in a change'.
 - TM2 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' ability to cope with change'.
 - TM3 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'work relationships in a change'.
 - TM4 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'communications in a change'.
 - TM5 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'commitment in a change'.
 - TM6 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'the effect of perceived benefits on responses to change'.
 - TM7 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' preferences towards work'.

Please refer to the appropriate sections of Chapter 6 for explanations of reverse scores.

'T'-TEST TABLES

T - T E S T

GROUP 1 = SECT 03 13 PUBLIC
GROUP 2 = SECT 03 21 PTE

variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F		t		Degrees of Freedom	Signif. Prob.
					Value	Prob.	Value	Prob.		

TM1	GROUP 1	116	3.3874	.774	.064	1.42	.243	3.04	274	.003
	GROUP 2	178	3.0810	.650	.057					

TM2	GROUP 1	110	3.3820	.773	.064	1.20	.281	-1.75	274	.084
	GROUP 2	170	3.0761	.704	.067					

TM3	GROUP 1	144	3.3815	.590	.049	1.28	.210	1.83	274	.03
	GROUP 2	178	3.1375	.688	.059					

TM4	GROUP 1	110	3.3207	.547	.045	1.10	.269	1.83	274	.034
	GROUP 2	178	3.1101	.573	.051					

TM5	GROUP 1	144	3.4210	.674	.055	1.14	.254	-1.97	274	.049
	GROUP 2	178	3.3814	.643	.057					

TM6	GROUP 1	144	3.2815	.399	.033	1.09	.284	-1.52	274	.062
	GROUP 2	178	3.2712	.382	.034					

TM7	GROUP 1	169	3.4416	.685	.056	1.17	.270	-1.82	275	.078
	GROUP 2	178	3.4809	.634	.056					

- NOTE:**
- TM1 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'Power and influence in a change'.
 - TM2 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' ability to cope with change'.
 - TM3 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'work relationships in a change'.
 - TM4 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'communications in a change'.
 - TM5 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'commitment in a change'.
 - TM6 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'the effect of perceived benefits on responses to change'.
 - TM7 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' preferences towards work'.

Please refer to the appropriate sections of Chapter 6 for explanations of reverse scores.

T-TEST TABLES

Group 1 - CS 80		11.00	British quasi-public sector				Pooled Variance estimate			
Group 2 - LS 12		21.00	Singapore quasi-public sector							
Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	T Value	2-tail Prob.	T Value	Degrees of Freedom		
TM1	GROUP 1	71	3.6515	.763	.088	-1.17	.252	5.07	140	.000
	GROUP 2	77	3.6586	.689	.078					
TM2	GROUP 1	71	1.8721	.718	.085	1.80	.079	4.97	140	.000
	GROUP 2	77	1.2857	.717	.082					
TM3	GROUP 1	71	3.6526	.592	.070	1.84	.067	1.80	140	.074
	GROUP 2	77	3.6794	.580	.066					
TM4	GROUP 1	71	3.6568	.674	.072	1.58	.051	1.78	140	.078
	GROUP 2	77	3.4481	.680	.075					
TM5	GROUP 1	71	1.3838	.558	.070	1.11	.262	-1.70	140	.085
	GROUP 2	77	3.4533	.670	.071					
TM6	GROUP 1	71	1.3556	.440	.052	1.80	.073	3.33	140	.001
	GROUP 2	77	1.1419	.329	.037					
TM7	GROUP 1	71	3.7488	.633	.075	1.86	.062	5.49	140	.000
	GROUP 2	78	3.1789	.617	.076					

- NOTE:**
- TM1 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'Power and influence in a change'.
 - TM2 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' ability to cope with change'.
 - TM3 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'work relationships in a change'.
 - TM4 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'communications in a change'.
 - TM5 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'commitment in a change'.
 - TM6 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'the effect of perceived benefits on responses to change'.
 - TM7 - Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' preferences towards work'.

Please refer to the appropriate sections of Chapter 6 for explanations of reverse scores.

T-TEST TABLES

T-TEST									
GROUP 1 = CS 10	12.00	British Private Sector						Pooled Variance estimate	
GROUP 2 = CS 11	72.00	Singapore Private Sector						t Value	Degrees of Freedom
variable	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	F Value	Pr > F	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	Pr > t

TM1									
GROUP 1	52	3.0467	.673	.074					
GROUP 2	46	3.1504	.610	.090	1.21	.489	-1.87	126	.089

TM2									
GROUP 1	52	3.3549	.709	.078					
GROUP 2	46	3.7727	.643	.101	1.08	.798	-1.67	126	.098

TM3									
GROUP 1	52	3.6139	.663	.073					
GROUP 2	46	3.1250	.555	.082	1.43	.192	4.23	126	.000

TM4									
GROUP 1	52	3.3701	.376	.084					
GROUP 2	46	3.1359	.456	.067	1.61	.086	4.39	126	.000

TM5									
GROUP 1	52	3.4373	.661	.073					
GROUP 2	46	3.7503	.396	.083	1.36	.261	-2.67	126	.009

TM6									
GROUP 1	52	3.3179	.397	.064					
GROUP 2	46	3.2029	.346	.051	1.32	.117	1.30	126	.136

TM7									
GROUP 1	52	3.5639	.628	.089					
GROUP 2	46	3.2368	.594	.088	1.12	.605	2.92	126	.004

- NOTE:**
- TM1 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'Power and influence in a change'.
 - TM2 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' ability to cope with change'.
 - TM3 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'work relationships in a change'.
 - TM4 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'communications in a change'.
 - TM5 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'commitment in a change'.
 - TM6 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'the effect of perceived benefits on responses to change'.
 - TM7 = Average mean score over all questions relating to 'managers' preferences towards work'.

Please refer to the appropriate sections of Chapter 6 for explanations of reverse scores.

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA: PART ONE

These next two chapters will present the results of the indepth interviews. Chapter 7 will cover broader themes about the BMMs and SMMs' expectations and their difficulties in significant change. Chapter 8 will cover specific themes emerging from these managers' responses in relation to communication, commitment and power in significant change. The qualitative data was content analyzed to search for consistent themes and patterns in respondents' perceptions of change.

The approach in this chapter will be to concentrate on the prominent 'terrain' of those chunks of data, and the criteria for what is prominent will be as decided by the majority of those interviewed. The term 'majority' represents at least two thirds of each of the six (EDUC/B, EDUC/S, HOSP/B, HOSP/S, FAST/B and FAST/S) groups of managers. The paragraphs to follow will first, present and discuss the significant findings on managers' expectations when facing significant change, followed by managers' difficulties in significant change and evidence from the two countries to support the findings.

1. MANAGERS' EXPECTATIONS WHEN FACING SIGNIFICANT CHANGE

In the comparison, the BMMs and the SMMs who were interviewed pointed out that their two central areas of need were to 'Be prepared for change' and the need to 'Prepare others for change'. This finding is significant because despite their divergent cultures, the expectations were the same. The analysis of the data resulted in a number of consistent patterns for these two central areas. The majority of BMMs

and SMMs in the study were of the view that 'Being prepared for change' involved the following:

- 1.1.1 Being convinced of the need for change
- 1.1.2 Clear goals and roles in the change
- 1.1.3 Implications of the change
- 1.1.4 Having resources to change

They also view 'Preparing others for change' as involving:

- 1.2.1 Convincing others of the change
- 1.2.2 Demand for information in the change.

The discussion on these will be supported by evidence throughout the discussion.

1.1 Being Prepared for Change: Discussion

The majority of the BMMs and SMMs who were interviewed expected the significant change. Those in the quasi-public sector tended to hear about their change either through official sources and the media, or they could 'see it coming' because of the way things were developing. On the other hand, FAST/B and FAST/S managers expected their significant change because both organizations were experiencing high turnovers. A quote from a FAST/S manager which is echoed by all who were interviewed from both countries is: "They have to because a lot of managers are leaving. ...they have no choice...I expected it to happen because of the way things are...losing people". All BMMs and SMMs in the study, found it difficult to suggest a better change than that which they were in. What is interesting is that most offers of

alternative change were changes operationally linked to their area rather than a change which took on a wider scope.

The important finding is that even though the BMMs and SMMs expected the change, they still expected to 'Be prepared for change' and to 'prepare others for change.' These expectations were consistent with the earlier section on 'what managers found difficult in the significant change'; they confirmed that the BMMs and SMMs found adjusting to significant change, difficult. Although most writers (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987; Connor and Lake, 1988) on change recognise the need of preparation for change, the significant finding expressed here is that these groups of middle managers from divergent national cultures feel the same need to be prepared for change. Connor and Lake (1988) in their book have made similar points. For example, it is important for change targets to understand the need for change; secondly, it is important to explain the need for change; finally, there is a need to repeat details using consistent words and phrases to describe what needs changing, and what the new system and direction will be.

The BMMs and SMMs in various ways have expressed how "people feel insecure and unsure as a result of the change" and how "they see change as a threat!" In the words of Johns (p.50, 1973),

"Newness is always strange and threatening, surrounded by uncertainties, even if it is superficially an improvement over the existing situation, like the prospect of promotion".

Managers need time before they can "deliver the goods". To quote a FAST/B manager: "Change takes time and if insufficient time is given, managers will appear inefficient because of the short notice of change." Although the precise ways in which each manager needs to be prepared may vary from person to person, the interviews reveal a need

for managers to be prepared for change. To quote a HOSP/B manager: "I think it needs to be explained before it happens, giving plenty of time." It is generally true that people accept change if they are given ample warning so they have time to become accustomed to the idea well before being personally affected (Johns, 1973).

The preparation of the BMMs and SMMs involves first, their need to be convinced or 'sold' the change so that they are prepared to go through the upheavals of change; secondly, they need a clear understanding of the goals and their roles in the change; thirdly, to know as far as possible the implications of the change so that they are more prepared for it; finally, managers expect time to prepare their staff for the change.

1.1.1 Being convinced of the need for change

Being convinced of the need for the change is a crucial part of the preparation for change. If they are not 'sold' the benefits of the change or convinced that the change is for the better, their commitment to the change is likely to be lessened. Moreover, they will find it hard to carry staff with them if they themselves are not convinced of the need for change. For example, a EDUC/S manager stated her expectations in this way: "...I like to be assured that it is contributing...don't want to be taken as a digit to go and sell and at the end of it...it doesn't pay off!" A similar example from a HOSP/B manager expressed his need to be convinced or 'sold' the change to gain his full commitment: "...I like to know that the change is well thought through...want a good reason... want to know why."

Part of the process of winning the commitment of managers to change is by consultation. There is support for this from most writers on change

(Staw, 1982; Plant, 1987). According to Staw (p.101-102, 1982),

"Commitment is the glue that holds individuals in a line of behaviour, encompassing those psychological forces that bind individuals to an action as well as those situational forces that make change difficult".

It explains why all managers who were interviewed expected to be consulted prior to the change. A quote from a FAST/B manager to illustrate this is: "They should have been speaking to us and getting the ideas from the operators...get our ideas. The change should not come to us as a total surprise. They should not chuck something at us. They should talk to us." Another example is a quote from a EDUC/B manager: "...hope we don't just get the briefing coming down but we get the consultation going up!...It is wise to seek comments from the next tier management, to get an idea of problems or advantages."

Another reason why all managers who were interviewed expected to be consulted was because they were nearer the grassroots and felt in a better position to contribute. Early involvement prepares these managers so that the change is not a surprise. For example a FAST/B manager said: "The changes that are going to work are the ones that come from below. We are the ones who have to put up with it and we are the ones who know the real problems, they don't." Another example is a quote from a FAST/S manager: "...if a change is to take place, parties concerned should be consulted."

What also surfaced through the majority of the interviews is that change which seemed so obviously good to top management still appeared threatening to others unless they were sold the change. This has to do with the perception of the incumbents of the change (Richardson, 1984) and how change is commonly perceived as threatening with its unknown aspects and uncertainties (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987). A quote from a EDUC/B manager to illustrate this is: "When faced with a major change,

people will automatically see it as a threat and you've got to do more than just tell them what's going on; you've got to sell it to them as something positive. ...The change seemed so obviously good to the ... that as long as we tell people what's happening, they'll be happy. They didn't realize that people see any change as threatening." A EDUC/S manager echoed the same concern in this way: "...give us more time, seek our opinions. There are some problems we can see that they can't see." Another example from a FAST/S manager demonstrates how a change which is 'sold' removes its threatening effect: "The ideas should be sold to the person especially if it involves more work so the person accepts it and they are comfortable in it... the end result will be more positive!"

1.3.2 Clear goals and roles in the change

The majority of managers expected clear leadership in the change with a definite idea of where they were going and in what timescale. These managers also expected to receive written documentation on objectives, priorities and maybe a strategic plan for them to refer to. These expectations were consistent with what most writers on change say that "Change requires leadership..." (p.125, Kanter, 1986) and "Building a vision for change" (p.73, Plant, 1987) or defining its future state (p.45, Beckhard and Harris, 1987) are very important. A pair of quotes to illustrate this is as follows. A HOSP/B manager said: "We need to know where the organization is going. Whether you agree or disagree with it, at least you know where the organization is going... in other words, where are the goal posts?" A manager from HOSP/S expressed his expectations in this way: "The change should be listed out clearly with a bit of explanation as to the rationale of the change... there must be a certain degree of explanation." A FAST/S manager shared his frustrations with unclear objectives in this way: "One of the problems

with the incentive scheme is that it was not made clear, what was its objective. ...it was not discussed with us and just announced. Very often, it was very vague and managers are not keen and do not really know how to participate... and it becomes not an incentive after all..." The latter portion of this quote surfaces an expectation in managers to be able to locate themselves within the change in a meaningful way. Another example from a EDUC/B manager is: "I think the first thing a manager at my level needs is a brief of what is expected. I didn't get one... At no time was I taken to one side and given a brief of what I was supposed to do." A similar quote from a HOSP/B manager expressed her need to understand what her role was in the change: "Having a clearer understanding of what clinical directorate is about, that is, role clarification, what are my objectives etc."

1.1.3 Implications of the change

Part of being well prepared for the change includes communication regarding the anticipated implications of the change; this is to facilitate the managers' role as decision-makers as well as a source of knowledge to those whom they are directing in the change. For example, a EDUC/S manager said: "They should also consider the impact of the change on people - I feel that some changes instead of having a positive impact, have a negative impact on others. They didn't anticipate it...that's difficult for us!" In a different way a EDUC/B manager expressed his concern in this way: "They should bear in mind that certain people's lives are going to be affected. They should bear in mind that people worry about change and the use of words such as 'audit', 'review', 'restructuring' - they start people worrying about what's happening - running with this in anxiety. There is no way you

can cover people's mind but be sensitive to that when you are planning."

Half of the managers found negative implications in some of the directives from senior management but found that there was not a readiness to deal with those effects. For example, a FAST/B manager said: "I think they need to consider the whole effect on the whole organization...every level of the organization. And as you communicate, communicate the effects of the organization also. You can then be prepared to deal with those effects and not have to react to it. To be proactive instead."

1.1.4 Having resources to change

The majority of managers found it difficult if they were not prepared with sufficient resources to cope with the change. They did expect to have the right manpower and the right skills to accompany the change. The majority of the managers acknowledged their limitations and felt that training would help them cope better with the change. A quote from a HOSP/B manager is: "I found my experience isn't that great and I am aware that...I don't have accounting or financial background. Those are skills I feel I need." A FAST/B manager also concurred that training would be a good preparation for him: "...training to handle changes.."

Having the appropriate numbers in human resources was also an important support for these managers when implementing the change. A quote from a EDUC/S manager on this is: "Some of the changes have demands on manpower or resources that's difficult for us." Managers have expectations to be able to supplement deficiencies in expertise by buying them in; for example, a EDUC/B manager shared how some of the

resources were tied up by the changeover and therefore, "...we could not actually appoint the staff in advance of the change, to do the work."

1.2 Preparing Others for Change

Preparing others for change is an extension of the managers' responsibility in the change. The main task is communicating the change and its implications to the staff; the remainder of the task is to alleviate insecurity, threats and fears especially about how the change may affect them and their position. These words of Plant (p.33, 1987), "Communicate like you have never communicated before" express the importance of preparing the way by communication. While no one can dispel entirely the anxieties created by the individual's own fears of how they will react to the new (Johns, 1973) nonetheless preparation via communication minimizes the risk of rumour and misinformation. Beyond the preparation stage, there is the task of continual updating, informing of staff and feedback; a quote from a EDUC/B manager to illustrate this is: "You've got to look at where you are at present and where you are heading for. Got to have a group of individuals who meet regularly, then got to look at where most changes are going to be invented.. Unless everyone understands where they are going to fit in...your management of change is extremely difficult." There may be the need to acquire expertise to support the change as may be needed and so on.

1.2.1 Convincing others of the change

The staff like the manager also need to be convinced that the upheavals of change they go through are necessary; for example a EDUC/B manager said: "You have staff who are not unable to perceive

the problems. This is a sort of institution where you need a well-argued position to go forward on because if they don't accept your argument, you can't go far... because if they don't want to, they won't change." The majority of managers who were interviewed felt that if their staff were not well prepared and informed, they would not have received the same support from them. For example, a quote from a HOSP/S manager is: "...all my staff must understand why I'm doing it...what is the reason for doing it...if they understand, you have their support."

1.2.2 Demand for information in the change

Information is high in demand in the change and if the information is not forthcoming, "the grapevine fills the vacuum with wild rumours and misinformation" (p.33, Plant, 1987). This was EDUC/B's experience. A quote to illustrate is: "The biggest thing is people wanting information. A lot of time is wasted by rumour, by lack of accurate information coming out quick enough from higher management... people are hearing wild stories about the superannuation scheme not going to be so good... you are going to lose your holidays... things that are important to them...so a lot of time is spent trying to reassure people. And it would have been better if these areas have paperwork issued on them before the rumour started. It was obvious that a lot of people were going to have a lot of worries in a change. I attended several meetings where various members of staff got really upset abouts issues that turned out not to exist." A HOSP/B manager also said: "...better communication is important...spending time to talk to people, making sure rumours don't go round, people know what they are doing so everybody understands." Similarly, a FAST/S manager encouraged the release of more information to curb suspicion in this way: "...should publicise the pay structure...I don't know how much

I'm going to get as a result of the change...tends to provoke suspicion...antagonism."

Part of preparing staff for change involves helping them to adjust to the change, mitigating conflicts, encouraging, reassuring and so on. A quote from a EDUC/B manager to illustrate this is: "the other thing is you do get more conflicts! As you set up more controls, get people to become more responsible then they become more aggressive. Time spent on a lot of reassurance, resolving conflicts between staff in who does what..."

1.3 The Findings

The foregoing sub-sections have demonstrated that the expectations of the BMMs and SMMs were the same despite their different national cultures; they also expected to prepare their staff for change. The fact that these expectations find support among many writers on change (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988) is significant and the finding probably has application on a universal level. The foregoing also demonstrates some of the pressures and conflicts that these BMMs and SMMs had to face with their bosses and subordinates because of their 'middle' position in the hierarchy. Section 2.1.1 will discuss the position of middle managers in organizations further.

2. MANAGERS' DIFFICULTIES IN SIGNIFICANT CHANGE

In the comparison of the BMMs and SMMs who were interviewed, two common areas of difficulties emerged. They were 'difficulty with adjustment to change' and difficulty in the area of communications. Although communications is acknowledged to be an area of difficulty for the BMMs and SMMs alike, this chapter will only concentrate on

the first of the two difficulties. This is because the discussion on 'communications' will be taken together with the analysis of the data from the in-depth interviews on 'communications' in chapter 8. The common complaints about the difficulty with communications are that they are insufficiently consulted and have problems with the timing, volume and quality of the information.

2.1 Difficulties with Adjustment to Change: Discussion

Almost all BMMs and SMMs from the quasi-public sector who were interviewed perceived significant change positively whilst the majority of those from the private sector perceived their change negatively. The important finding is that whether the change is positively or negatively perceived, the BMMs and SMMs in the study still find adjustment to change difficult. Even differences in the details of their circumstances have not affected these BMMs and SMMs making the same references to difficulties with adjustment to change.

The 'adjustment' difficulties are varied. They include adjusting to the work itself, difficulties in working with and through people vertically, laterally and at the subordinate level, difficulties in coping with inadequate or imperfect conditions when implementing change, pressurised timescales, their own personal adjustments to change and the stresses and strains that come with uncertainty. Chapter 6 has discussed in detail, difficulties about many items like 'Time and stress', 'Physical environment and symbolism', 'Additional workload', 'Having a new boss and work relationships', work and non-work time and 'Managerial preferences at work', eliciting similarities and differences at the cross-national level. This chapter will not focus on what has already been said about their similarities and differences at the 'item' or 'facet' level. The concentration here

will be on 'adjustment to change' as a central issue of the aggregated facets and items of difficulty with the focus being on the commonality at the aggregate level.

When a significant change impacts on managers, the BMMs and SMMs are 'dazed' by the impact of the change and it does take them some time to reorientate themselves and find a new equilibrium in their work, their role with others and their role in the organization generally; there is a need for adjustments all round. This is described as the "seeing stars" syndrome at the initial stages of a significant change. Most BMMs and SMMs in both sectors have verbalized their disorientation in a variety of ways; for example, they may feel that things are happening too fast or that they are still trying to keep on top of work demands or that there is a level of uncertainty to contend with or there are difficulties working with and through people, and coping with inadequate circumstances when implementing change. These are in fact 'symptoms' of difficulty with 'adjustment to change'. The evidence on these will be given in section three of this chapter.

That this finding has application for both BMMs and SMMs in the study is important because of its implications for the planning and preparation for change. This may also have its application on a universal scale. One of the early fundamental models of planned change process by Lewin expresses similar adjustments of different forces to reach a new equilibrium. The 'adjustment' or 'disorientation' expressed in the preceding paragraphs does parallel Lewin's model. His model (p.46, Cummings and Huse, 1989) which has been described in chapter one,

"conceived of change as modification of those forces keeping a system's behaviour stable. Specifically, the level of behaviour at any moment in time is the result of two sets of forces - those striving to maintain the status quo and those pushing for change. When both sets of forces are about equal, current levels of behaviour

are maintained in what Lewin termed a state of 'quasi-stationary equilibrium'.

Change therefore involves the changing of those forces to 'unfreeze' and 'move' behaviours of the organization or department on to a new level before 'refreezing' or stabilizing the organization at a new state of equilibrium. Using Lewin's model, one could perceive the 'battle of forces' at work during a change and the disorientation those forces produce on the incumbents of change until the adjustment for the new state of equilibrium is completed.

There are two central issues involved in 'adjustment to change'. First, there is the hierarchical position of BMMs and SMMs in organizations which hinges on relationships with those above and those below them; secondly, there is the learning, adapting and adjusting to change involved.

2.1.1 The position of middle managers in organizations

The middle management position is an important pivotal position which is difficult to manage at the 'best of times'. During a significant change, the complexity and difficulties experienced in the adjustment to change could be better understood by virtue of these managers' position or location in the organization. In the words of Reed (p.85-86, 1989),

"They (middle managers) are likely to feel their location in the social organization to be more congruent for their aspirations than do those at the bottom of the hierarchy. Yet their goals are certainly not identical with those of top management. Their dependence upon higher management for approval, support and promotion is itself a differentiating factor, for dependence introduces its own frame of reference which by definition cannot be shared by those upon whom the dependence rests. Another factor distinguishing middle management from its superiors is its more immediate exposure to the day-to-day pressures on the shop floor. These two factors alone may result in goals which relate less to top management goals than to a satisfactory personal accommodation of conflicting

pressures from above and below".

The foregoing captures the difficult and complex circumstances these middle managers operate in as well as expressing something of the intricate and delicate political relationships and understandings that these managers have for operational continuity. These make adjustment to change a difficult task.

2.1.2 Learning, adapting and adjusting to change

The 'process' of change, refers to the actions, reactions and interactions from the various interested parties as they seek to move the firm from its present to its future state. In the literature on change, there is a concurrence, if not, a frequent mention that "change demands new learning" (p.123, Kanter, 1988) or

"Change almost always imposes a learning burden on the individual" (p.46, Johns, 1973).

This makes life difficult because people generally resent the expenditure of energy on learning new procedures especially when (to them) their existing methods are perfectly adequate. An earlier paragraph has said that whether change is viewed positively or negatively has not made it easier for managers to learn, adapt and adjust to change. Diamond (1986) explained that there are defensive tendencies in organizational members that usually protect the status quo and block learning. The focal point of the analysis is

"the basic unit of change must be the individual..." (p.37, Plant, 1987)

and the question of whether the individual manager is able to change depends on his/her ability to learn, to use power, and to influence effectively from his/her role. Plant is of the view that capacity to change is the capacity to learn. Chapter one and two have also mentioned that the ability to make appropriate responses (Garratt and Stopford, 1980) and that the ability to learn, adapt and change is

important for international competitiveness (p.43, Strabel, 1989). The process of 'adjustment' therefore includes learning. Attitudes and values towards learning and adjusting to change, are likely to be affected by the "mental programming" (p.14, Hofstede, 1988) of their country. Several of the cultural attitudes and values have been discussed in the quantitative data in chapter 5 and 6.

A further point is that at the very root, it is individual people who take decisions. The process of being convinced to change itself requires some adjustment. Marquand (1989) has argued that change and adaptation are no different in kind from any other decisions to change the ways we do things and any other learning to do things in a different way.

2.1.3 The findings

The foregoing paragraphs demonstrate that there is literature explaining the position in which middle managers operate as well as literature on the importance of the manager's ability to learn and adjust to change. The important finding which emerged is the need to understand that the difficult and complex position of middle managers is further exacerbated by the need to adjust to significant change. The significance of this may have universal application because the position and function of middle managers anywhere in the world is more or less the same, and the need to learn, adapt and adjust to change would apply to any middle manager in the face of change. The findings imply a need to prepare the BMMs and SMMs for change and that there may have been a tendency to underestimate the difficulty of the position they are in.

3. THE EVIDENCE FOR DIFFICULTY WITH ADJUSTMENT TO CHANGE

This section will present the evidence from the BMOs and SMOs in the study, on 'difficulty with adjustment to change' discussed in section 2. The discussion will cover four major areas: time-related difficulties, difficulties with the work itself, difficulties at the individual level and difficulties with work relationships.

3.1 Time-related Difficulties

3.1.1 Time to absorb the change

At the top of all difficulties is managers' need for time to absorb the change and prepare themselves for change before they prepare others for the same change. A quote from a HOSP/S manager which clearly illustrated this point is: "If change is too close - within a short time, it doesn't even allow the manager to digest the change itself. And if you haven't had time to digest the implications of the change for yourself then how can you explain what you haven't digested to your staff. I think it is very difficult."

3.1.2 Timescale of change

The majority of the managers from the two countries had difficulty in coping with the timescale of change or pressurised timescales. The difficulty with this factor is first, to do with the timing of the information for example, a manager from EDUC/S found it difficult being given information of change at short notice and felt it was like "dashing from one thing to another" which made it tiring and frustrating for her. Similarly a quote from a EDUC/B manager which illustrates the same point is: "A major annoyance is that a lot of the

documents that come out say things like, 'Sorry about the timescale but you will do this within 3 weeks'. A FAST/B manager said: "Timing is important... can't have ___ within 2 days and it happens so often!" During the change, the majority of managers have expressed that they found it most difficult "trying to keep on top of all..." and "...we still have a lot of work...we are still in it..." (from a EDUC/B manager). The short timescale adds pressure to the upheavals they are already experiencing and creates stress. A manager from EDUC/S said: "It's mainly the timescale required and the stress", which made change difficult for him.

The second angle of difficulty with the timescale was that managers concurred that the timescale for change was too short or rushed for the scale of change and the size of the organization. Quotes to illustrate this point are as follow. A EDUC/B manager remarked that it was, "...too short a time. The change tends to happen within a short timescale. In terms of the size of the organization, time is the main problem. From the announcement that the change was going to take place, to the date it was fixed for EDUC/B to be changed, it was really not enough time". The second quote from a HOSP/B manager: "It was a severe change and it was done at break-neck speed. It was done in a way ... as from next week, this is the management structure, go away and get on with it." A FAST/S manager also said: "Better communication with top management... they should give us more than sufficient time to adjust and get the feel of it ... as far as my experience goes, change usually takes place suddenly. It is quite difficult to adjust."

3.2 Difficulties with the Work Itself

3.2.1 Making changes and the work involved

A common complaint in the face of significant change is the difficulty with adjusting to the changed work scope and functions, and the 'increased' workload. What emerged from the interviews with various managers of the two countries was that some of the increased workload was connected with establishing the 'new'; for example, establishing a new information system geared for HOSP/B's purposes which was different from its past, or the upgrading of the computer systems in HOSP/S, or replicating services previously not available in EDUC/B. A quote from a EDUC/B manager to illustrate the increased workload is: "... we were part of the Council and virtually exempt from most now, everything has to be applied. So the negative side is there is a lot more paperwork, bureaucracy..."; likewise another example from a HOSP/S manager is: "With the change, we have to push ourselves to give more focus to training and research areas. But as I have said because of the limited number of bodies that I have, there is only so much I can do. There's no way, no matter how hard I want to work the staff. There's a limit how far I can go...we do a lot of overtime and the workload had increased by 15 to 20 percent every year but the increase in number of staff has not."

There are two facets in adjusting to the new; one affects managers who are bringing in the change and the second facet affects managers who are on the receiving end of the change. Those on the receiving end have to adjust to embrace the new systems, procedures and so on. A manager from EDUC/B expressed his difficulties and reservations with adjusting to the new in this way: "...what we have now is people making up rules as they go along. All sorts of people are in new posts

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- they don't have any rules to go by; they don't have any history...so they make up new rules. It's inevitable but that will settle down". A FAST/B manager shared his experience in this way: "The change comes in and ... I think the planning in the change isn't well thought through. Change on one section of the business is made without calculating the effect on the other sections of the business. For example... we run out of _____. People didn't judge its real effect correctly... didn't get on to _____ so we didn't have the necessary _____."

3.2.2 Learning and coping with the work

What also emerged was that the increased workload is probably associated with these managers learning and adjusting to the new functions which they had no previous experience in or which was an expansion to their previous work scope, for example, a manager from HOSP/B shared this: "I moved from _____ to take up an area where I had no previous managerial experience in... now the job is very different... 6 months into my previous job I knew my job but 6 months into my present job, I still don't know my job...I only know it on paper... the bulk of my previous job is more personnel...my present job is more management." A EDUC/B manager shared that his adjustment was to the new job which came as a result of the change: "I came to this job as a promotion so consequently I've been going through what we all go through with a new job, doing things for the first time. You try to learn yourself." A EDUC/S manager found that her difficulty was with the diversified academic duties, being a link officer in EDUC/S's recruitment or selling mission: "It's quite different from what we usually do...going to the school to liaise with them and finding out what they need and feeding back, trying to arrange for 'my school' (meaning the one she has special responsibilities towards) to come to EDUC/S. It's quite a lot of work!...I'm also the guide!"

3.3 Difficulties at the Individual Level

3.3.1 Establishing expectations

In the midst of the adjustments on all sides, there is also a common feeling among the majority of the interviewees of "not knowing what's expected of you". Changes in management structure in HOSP/B, HOSP/S and EDUC/B, or changes in new jobs or expanded functions in EDUC/S and HOSP/S, expose the difficulty with role expectations and how it fits into the corporate objectives. A pair of quotes from interviewees in each country to demonstrate this is as follow.

A HOSP/B manager said: "Am I spending my time in the right work? Am I doing what's expected of me? Am I effective?the more varied the job, the more difficult it is to establish what expectations etc... the problem is seeing how I fit into the corporate objectives". Similarly, a HOSP/S manager said: "...tend to feel quite 'lost' as to which way we are going - maybe it is the schizophrenic structure of HOSP/S. You are a social institution and ...not sure whether you are supposed to make money or not. Are we social? Are we supposed to make money?...can't profit but...can't lose...so where do I go from here?" These quotes demonstrate that change challenges the status quo in a manager's life and surfaces uncertainty and self-doubt expressions from the majority of managers until a new equilibrium or "new status quo" is established (p.29, Plant, 1987).

A quote from a HOSP/B manager which is shared by the majority of managers illustrates not only the unsettling that change brings but also that it takes a long time for a manager facing a significant change to reach any kind of equilibrium: "I found it difficult at first knowing exactly what is expected of you or am I doing this right

or not... At the time, it was quite unsettling about the change, there were no answers to be had. And also, where you would have looked for some kind of guidance, there wasn't a lot forthcoming... the White Paper has brought in so many issues to be tackled, it can be a bit mind boggling. Yes, it's beginning to settle after 11 months. I find the time seems to fly. ...It's taken a long time! There are still things happening where you feel you have little control that I ought to have control over." The recovery time or equilibrium probably varies from manager to manager; a manager from EDUC/B found that it took more than 12 months before they saw "the light!" and in spite of that, they have a lot of work to get through because of the change. The significant point here is that the time needed for absorbing the change and for managers to adjust to their new areas and functions varies according to individuals.

3.3.2 Stresses and strains

Connected with personal adjustments to uncertainty and increased workload in the change are the difficulties with stresses and strains suffered by these managers. A quote from a HOSP/S manager which is shared by the majority of interviewees is: "When you asked me how has change affected you and your work - well, it has created more stress. ...It's very stressful because it is on top of other things." The difficulty the majority of managers found is that of being in a situation where there is uncertainty as well as needing to get to grips with the new. So many things are going to change and all are new to all concerned. There is a lot of thinking on their feet and coping with uncertainty as well as keeping on top of the new responsibilities which is very difficult and stressful. A manager from EDUC/S shared that, "Anything unknown is stress! Even if you are the unflappable type, you don't feel the pressure but the stress is still there!" A

significant change is emotionally and psychologically taxing because of the unknown, the new, the timescale of change as well as the personal conflicts with role expectations. A EDUC/B manager said: "When you've got these challenges, it's worrying!" Likewise a FAST/S manager and a FAST/B manager expressed their difficulty in these ways respectively: "This affects assistant managers, managers alike adversely... they feel that the work is so demanding, in addition, there's _____ to battle with..." and "... these sorts of things upset people. They'll say, I'd rather work elsewhere where there aren't the pressures."

3.4 Difficulties with Work Relationships

An area of difficulty is working with and through people at various levels. Managers who were interviewed verbalized their difficulties with managing relationships at 3 different levels within the organization in the change: the vertical level, the lateral level and the subordinate level. Relationships at the vertical level involve boss(es) or superiors these managers report to, and lateral work relationships involve those at the same level in the organizational hierarchy.

3.4.1 Vertical relationships

Difficulties with work relationships at the vertical level arose first because of the adjustment difficulties with new appointment of boss and therefore, different management styles; secondly, the need to fit managers and their bosses into a new management structure and thirdly, difficulties with reporting to more than one boss. Examples are provided.

In the first situation, the difficulty with the vertical relationships, common to these organizations, has to do with adjustment to a different management style. This entails the degrees of freedom given in that style, the amount of documentation required in that style or the approval process involved. For example, a HOSP/S manager expressed his need to adjust to his bosses' working style: "...previous boss is a very operational person...believes in things done directly without much paperwork. ... It was the need of the time. (Now) I think there is a need for certain amount of documentation, otherwise when people leave, you lose track...if your director is very academic, that probably slows you down...it does take a long time to put those things together.. and that in a way takes your time off from the ground." Another quote from a HOSP/S manager illustrating difficulties with vertical relationships from a different angle is: "...we have top people leaving... it's quite upsetting... a lot of people leave... the department becomes very new...I have to start all over again because they may not understand why certain things have to be done, may not cooperate, so the process takes longer - also those people who started at the beginning are more committed and they know exactly what we want...so those are my frustrations." Similarly, British managers have their difficulties coming to terms with a different style of management, for example, a EDUC/B manager said, "...the style has shifted to a much more industrial style and I was not enthusiastic about that. The kind of operation of an academic institution is a different kind of operation. Business-like managerialism removes the sense of 'colleague'".

More than fifty percent of the managers found stress in their vertical relationships; a quote from a HOSP/S manager echoed by others is: "The previous ___ would very much leave it to us - 'I don't care how you do it, you just do it. ...We felt better then - less stressful and we

took a lot of things in our hands; we did it our way. Now, management are being very careful. There are certain procedures we must follow. It is really for the better...sometimes you feel that they are checking on you ... and you get used to it". There are frustrations of working with and through superiors; for example, a FAST/B manager said: "A lot of the time you can't approach your direct boss. And you try to say something and he's not interested so you give up." A FAST/S manager shared similar difficulties in this way: "... top management has an approach that they do not take our views seriously and that middle managers are on the receiving end and that these managers 'just have to take it'...."

In the second situation, the difficulties entailed forbearing with a boss who is totally new and untrained in management by qualification. There were 'teething pains' of adjusting to becoming a support to a tri-part management team, comprising three different professions. There was a need for a lot of adjustments all round because firstly, the boss has had a background of being senior in his profession, used to being autonomous and independent in the run of things; now he had to learn to manage, to delegate, to be a team with other professions, using others in decision-making as well as coping with difficult decisions that might affect his colleagues. Managers had a lot of frustrations about their bosses' management ability and fears about overcoming their old ways and attitudes such as the "the clinical suprema" syndrome which may mean that managers are not as needed as they would like to be in the team. Such frustrations were shared by all managers in HOSP/B and given vent as follows: "...he is not used to... making decisions on an informed basis. He is used to being a one-man band so it is difficult to tell him what to do. You inform him but his decisions show that he hasn't taken in what you've said. And we bear the effect of that decision....This is the 'clinical suprema'

syndrome. I feel what is the point of me being here if he is not going to take any notice of me....He doesn't need me. He believes he's got all the knowledge... that's fine in medicine but I'm not talking about medicine, I'm talking about management."

Managers have taken to 'selling themselves' to overcome their bosses' independence but, HOSP/B managers say, "It's painful, I think, for us!" There are threats for managers to overcome, stepping into other professional areas and this has been verbalized as follows: "... we are expected to relate to the doctors at a much junior level than they might have expected. They don't really know how to deal with us, or how to use us properly and they are feeling a little bit threatened because they think we are stepping into their areas in some cases. ... so there are some relationship difficulties in that sense....I am certainly aware that it's a selling job to the doctors that we are here to do good for them and for their patients. You have to show them".

There were growing concerns about managers' effectiveness being hindered by these vertical relationships and their divided commitment which meant that the best decisions were not made because their bosses avoided contentious implications on their colleagues. There was mounting frustration in HOSP/B managers for example, culminating in expressions like: "I'll give it my best shot but if my best shot doesn't work then I can't take it much more!"

The third situation of difficult vertical relationships involved reporting to more than one boss. There were examples from both countries that illustrate this, for example from HOSP/S: "...it has had quite a major effect on us (referring to heads of paramedical departments). Prior to reorganization, we answered directly to the

CEO...now, we answer directly to the CEO on admin matters,...answer to the Chief Operating officer on.... but I also answer directly to the clinical chief of the department on clinical and professional matters...the response time becomes slower and the justification process is also longer". A HOSP/B manager expressed her conflict in reporting to two bosses in this way: "I'm responsible to my CD who is a consultant for the day-to-day. I'm professionally responsible to the Deputy General Manager. This in itself causes conflicts as you can imagine. Conflicts of loyalty, conflicts of interests, in what you're supposed to be doing. I have a loyalty to them both and I believe that is right. It's important to understand that I'm responsible to more than one person."

3.4.2 Relationships at the lateral level

For relationships at the lateral level, change also exposed insecurities, fears and suspicions in managers about their work situations, their influence and position. These may be manifested as uncooperative behaviour, inflexibility, breakdown in communication and stress. These difficulties are first, about power and status, secondly, about uncooperative personalities, thirdly, about selling the change at the peer level and fourthly, conflicts. This difficulty has not the same application for FAST/B and FAST/S managers because each manager is responsible for the operations of their restaurant and there is no direct competition.

3.4.2a Power and status

Change may affect power and status of various managers and how they are viewed by others in their organization. The difficulties that emerged are rivalry, difficulties with improved status and

difficulties in decision-making in this area. For example, in EDUC/B's case, where there is no precedent for the new situation, mistrust and suspicions exacerbate the difficulties of work relationships. Departments with expanded size can become a threat and a source of difficulty for some. Rivalry has also added to difficulties in relationship at the lateral level, for example, a EDUC/B manager said, "...there has been quite a lot of personal rivalry going on which is inevitable. Because it is rivalry for place and position in EDUC/B in terms of how one is regarded. I had trouble with department Y because my job is, their job is.....there's a certain amount of strong language between us. And they will say to me, 'Why did you do that? That should be....it's not helpful...should act as one.'"

Decision-making is part of exercising power and influence and if that is threatened or overridden, it can cause relationship difficulties. In the change, working together may require a decision, different from what would have been decided if it was made independently; this may be viewed as interference and encroachment on professional competence, culminating in rebuffs like this: "...it really gets my hackles up and I feel like telling them both - sssssss! I know what I need.... - full stop!... It's coming to the point where I've got to say 'You do yours and I'll do mine! You mind your own business and stop interfering!'" This quote is kept anonymous to respect confidentiality.

3.4.2b Uncooperative personalities

At the peer level, working with uncooperative personalities in the change can be a sensitive and trying exercise, for example: A EDUC/S manager: "I'm working with equals - it sometimes takes a bit longer to get them to do things.... we have to be more careful, more diplomatic... In terms of relationships, there are staff who can be

quite difficult...in a sense, uncooperative. We don't wish to upset anybody... so we are more careful, more diplomatic ...it's different! Here I find that when we want to do something, we have to use the resources of others and we have to work more as a team.... We are more dependent on others." Change is a sensitive operation and actions which appear uncooperative can easily create difficulties in work relationships for example, a HOSP/B manager shared his difficulties on working with others: "We don't cooperate. I used to pass information to J and I found out that it wasn't happening the other way - so I thought two can play that game! We don't work together!"

At the peer level, 'fear of what others think' can hold managers back from saying 'No' to being more involved; for example a EDUC/S manager: "Our understanding was someone would take over.. I've been on it from the start and I've not got out of it. I don't mind but it can be frustrating. You get fed up with it. Not only this.. but sometimes ... I get involved again! G and I... we don't know how to say 'No' also; because if we say we do not want to do it, it is not very good."

3.4.2c Selling the change

Managers also found that encouraging their peers to adopt new ways and approaches may be a difficult and time consuming exercise. There is a need to sell the change. For example, EDUC/B managers who were coaxed into focussing on particular items, found it difficult to get out of the old mentality, partly because of fear: "We spent quite a lot of time going round, educating them, showing what the budget is created for... it'll take us some time to get some of the key messages to them."

Another aspect to this difficulty is resistance to change, exacerbated by suspicions and misunderstandings. A EDWC/E manager shared about his difficulties in this way: "...some things we were trying to introduce weren't received very well...got misinterpreted... I think there is a great resistance to change. Some people are not interested in change, progress or anything else. They'd rather tick over as they are." A strong factor behind the resistance is 'fear of things going wrong' because they felt safe with a big organization and feared the possibility of going bankrupt.

3.4.2d Conflicts

Difficult relationships at the peer level can create a lot of stress and strife. Change can cause insecurities in managers and result in protectionist measures of increasing documentation to avoid future conflicts; such moves often create negative impressions on the recipient and adds stress and tension to the situation. A quote from a NOSP/S manager illustrated this: "there's a lot of stress - inter-departmental stress. Department D is completely new and they are not familiar with the operations. ...I feel there should be more cooperation ...everyone is hard pressed for time...everyone wants to protect their own interests...there is a lot of inter-departmental conflict...a lot of fighting...if I have a problem...you can't tell me, 'O this is your problem and I'm only interested if this is the case.. that's your problem. I get cheesed off. They must own the problem also. ...I'm not against documentation but this is excessive - everything down in black and white reflects ...a lack of trust of us. I think it is sometimes overboard!!"

Staff turnover has added to the difficulties in a change. Kenter (p.122, 1988) ironically pointed out in her book that

"Change requires stability. To make employee participation a permanent part of its operations, any department needs to be able to hold other things still for a while".

Xanter (p.123, 1988) also said that

"Change demands new learning, but turnover requires endless re-learning - unless the new people come in already schooled in the 'new way', which is unlikely until an organization has shifted its whole culture sufficiently."

New people require new beginnings, to convey information and to learn to work together. In the change, there is a measure of security and understanding needed; for example, assurance that the flow of resources will continue and that some areas will work without much attention. A HOSP/S manager expressed the difficulty she has working with new staff in this way: "...because of all these changes, it affects our day-to-day running. ... The difficulty is you are constantly dealing with new peoples - when you get down to trying to perfect a system, they are gone. Then you have to start from scratch again." FAST/B and FAST/S managers also experience high labour turnover and the continual training and re-training of staff in addition to the changes they face.

3.4.3 Relationships at the subordinate level

Difficulties with managing work relationships at the subordinate level involve bringing people along with the change, fighting their attitudes, overcoming their fears, suspicions, apprehensions and other difficulties, staff may have. Managers find themselves in positions where they are 'squeezed between two nutcrackers', with those on the top expecting them to deliver and those underneath, to be defended from the top. Change has its implications on people at the bottom and managers who have to deal with people at the bottom on a daily basis, have the task of trying to bring them along in the change. A FAST/B manager expressed the demands on him by his subordinates in this way:

"Every member of staff looks upon you as boss. You have to be available to talk to them. They are unhappy if you are not. If you neglect them, you have an unhappy crew... managing people is very difficult.. 80 percent of my time is spent on managing people..." Staff tend to anticipate the worst, culminating in suspicion and apprehension about their position in the organization and about their ability to cope with the change. A EDUC/B manager projecting the fears of his staff, said: "... we are concerned about how much more admin... we don't have the extra staff to manage it. We are told that it is not going to involve very much more admin but we think it will".

To bring staff along in the change, managers have to fight attitudes; for example a HOSP/B manager said, "if people are feeling that they are getting more forms and reacting to it as 'more bureaucracy' and 'more paper' and 'what's the point of it all?'...it is very hard to fight attitudes. I think it is all to do with explaining, consulting...going out of your way to collect feedback." The difficulty is where managers have to overcome the fears in their staff and their unions. They find that, "...the employees and the unions are still coming to terms with the significant change". Staff in EDUC/B and HOSP/B for example, felt threatened by emotive phrases like 'appraisal', resulting from the change. There is a need to reassure as well as fight through attitudes that hinder the progress of the change.

4. SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS FROM PART ONE OF THE ANALYSIS ON THE QUALITATIVE DATA

The first of the significant findings in this analysis is that even though the BMMs and SMMs in the study are from divergent national cultures, they found 'adjustment to change' difficult. The consistency

in the way the same aggregated facets and items of difficulty all point to the central issue that 'adjustments to change' are found to be a prime difficulty by both samples of managers is of paramount importance. This difficulty has been exacerbated by their hierarchical position and the learning, change demands of them (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988; Marquand, 1989). The second significant finding is that, despite their divergent national cultures, the BMMs and SMMs in the study have the same expectations to be prepared for the change and to prepare others for the same change. These findings do confirm that significant change is not easy to adjust to and that there is a need for preparation for change. That these findings are also supported by studies on change are important and these may have application on a universal level.

CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA: PART TWO

This chapter will analyse and interpret the qualitative data on communication, commitment and power in significant change. The approach for each of the three areas will be to first, examine the background to each area before comparing the responses and expectations of the BMEs and SMEs in significant change. The exception will be the discussion on difficulties in communication brought forward from Chapter 7; this will be discussed in section 2 of this chapter.

1. BACKGROUND TO COMMUNICATION

In the background to communication on the change, the BMEs and SMEs from the same economic sector in the study referred to the same channel or mode of communication. What was also interesting was the mixed responses as to whether there was sufficient notice given about the change and the overall tendency to view most communication as useful or helpful in one degree or other.

What is similar in the channel of communication is that those from the quasi-public sector in the study found there to be a build-up via the media and grapevine prior to the official announcement of the change; those in the private sector in the study were given a memo followed by a managers' meeting. Quotes from each country to illustrate this is as follow. A MOSP/S manager said, "Even before the announcement, a lot was coming through the grapevine. The newspaper and what the minister says in parliament...I have followed closely." The second quote is from a EDOC/B manager: "A decision was taken in Parliament and we knew

the change would be implemented so we all were watching the telly to see... so everybody had known it before the institution announced it. A lot of publicity leading up to it... so I was waiting for it." A FAST/S manager said, "We were told together with the rest... through a managers' meeting."

The responses of the BMMs and SMMs in the study varied from there being sufficient notice on the one extreme, to insufficient notice on the other. Almost all the EDUC/B and EDUC/S managers concurred that there was sufficient notice given because of the build-up through the media and the grapevine. Those from HOSP/B and HOSP/S were almost equally divided in their response about whether there was sufficient notice given to them. What was interesting is despite the build-up of publicity to the change, the majority of HOSP/B and HOSP/S managers felt that they were not ready for the scale of change they had to face. The majority of FAST/S managers felt that there was insufficient notice given but FAST/B managers, on the other hand, were divided in their responses; for example some said "I can't comment"; others said, "yes...sufficient notice" and still others said, "no, not enough notice." That the scheme had been expressed as "unfair" by FAST/B and FAST/S managers of both countries, may have caused the externalising of the change with expressions of "insufficient notice" of the change. What is also interesting is the new appointments focus their attention on getting to grips with the new job. For example, a FAST/B manager said: "I'm happy with my basic pay and not bothered about bonus. We are not achieving our target this year so I'm not getting a bonus this year. I've been in this job since It's going to be a whole year before I get this place the way it should be. I'm concerned about getting the place 'in shape' and up to company standard.....not much insight about bonus...don't know the real structure... I had no paper on it. I have to ask people... no one explained it to me."

Most BMOs and SMOs were in agreement that "... any communication is useful. If people are trying to tell you something - that's communicating and if they are trying, that's a positive thing." This quote is from a EDUC/B manager. The interviewees preferred to be prepared rather than be surprised by the change; for example, a HOSP/S manager said, "It helped when we were told it was going to happen... it is one step better than knowing it on the nine o' clock news." The exception being HOSP/B managers whose communication difficulties had much to do with work relationship difficulties. All FAST/B and FAST/S managers responded negatively about the communication because of various ill feelings about the change they had no part in. A FAST/B manager said: "No. They are trying and it's gestures and one-way communication. We can't go up the communication chain."

2. DIFFICULTIES IN COMMUNICATION

The difficulties common to all six organizations about communications were the lack of consultation, the timing of information, the lack of information, the quality and the volume of information. In the words of Handy (p. 356, 1988),

"If there is one general law of communication it is that we never communicate as effectively as we think we do".

The BMOs and SMOs from five of the six organizations also found that negative attitudes caused barriers and difficulty in communication. That these difficulties about the technicalities of communication are a common difficulty to the SMOs and BMOs in the study, and that writers on change (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988), also pointed them out as important is a significant finding.

The majority's view is that lack of communication affected their commitment to change, their ability to "deliver the goods", their morale, and lack of preparedness for the change also provoked insecurity and uncertainty. For some, difficulty in communication was a reflection of externalising a change they disliked. A quote from a HOSP/B manager to illustrate this is: "Very often attempts have been made to communicate about the change but for some unknown reason 'they don't understand' - they fall through the net. There are individuals who do not like change and it doesn't matter how much you communicate."

2.1 Lack of Consultation

The difficulties with lack of consultation have to do with a lack of participation, lack of ownership, not being 'thought of' and not being prepared personally, and capacity-wise to receive the change. Under this heading, the difficulties managers had are many issues of a sensitive nature. Managers found it hard to support changes that were imposed because they did not feel a sense of ownership on their part. For example, a manager from HOSP/B said he found it difficult, "Not being consulted - not being explained to why the change is having to happen. If you can't see what the benefits of the change are, then your approach is going to be very half-hearted." A HOSP/S manager also said, "If they understand, you have their support."

'Not being consulted' also had negative implications of a dictatorial style of management that excluded the rights of managers to participate in some decision-making; this left them with a feeling of being taken for granted, ignored or unappreciated. A HOSP/S manager shared how a decision made without consultation with himself, produced negative reactions inside and left him, feeling undermined in his

authority as the manager. He felt as though he had lost control and command of his situation. A EDUC/B manager also shared how he felt when there was a lack of consultation: "... feeling of a loss of that sense of colleague..." A different quote from a FAST/B manager is: "They didn't ask the staff what they want and the staff think it's laughable!" Consultation does the work of preparing managers for change, for example, a EDUC/S manager said, "... sound them up - at least give them the opportunity... people have to be mentally prepared..." The opportunity is there to assess their situation in terms of problems and capacity constraints. For example, a EDUC/S manager said, "... seek our opinions ... there are problems we can see that they can't see..." The same manager also said that some changes have demands on manpower and resources that are difficult for them to meet.

What all managers found painful about the communication is the impression they had been given, of being interested in their views but the final outcome demonstrating otherwise. For example, a FAST/S manager said: "... we felt we were not consulted sufficiently... they probably were serious about listening but they still continued with the change. Our views do not affect the company's action." Another from the same company said, "... we did give feedback but they didn't take note and just went ahead with it. That irritates me." Managers who are not convinced about the change also feel cynical about it, for example a FAST/B manager said, "I don't believe the scheme makes you work harder... I believe the idea of the scheme is so you treat the business as your own business. But how can you treat it as your own business when you don't get a say in anything. I think it is contradictory."

2.2 Timing of Information

Managers from the quasi-public sector of the two countries who were interviewed, preferred sufficient notice before any change takes place. They expressed their need to be prepared for change. A EDUC/S manager said: "...it was a bit sudden for me... management did not consult me about the change...I feel my boss should tell me so that I'm more psychologically prepared". Timing the release of information may minimize uncertainty in a change; for example, a HOSP/B manager said that there was "far too much last minute when with a little bit of planning and a bit of foresight, it could be resolved....not just suddling through". They found that last minute notices produced negative implications in them of being taken for granted and a feeling of not being consulted or thought of. A HOSP/S manager said: "Sometimes they don't even tell you until the thing happens and it's 'Sorry I didn't tell you'... there is not sufficient notice of change". A EDUC/S manager also concurred that last minute notices are disorganised and not helpful.

Even though there may be genuine reasons for confidentiality and not releasing information earlier, nonetheless managers have found it hard to make changes at short notice. They expressed the need of time to absorb the change and prepare oneself and others for the change. For example, a HOSP/S manager said: "It's not that our top management has delayed passing things down but it is those right at the very top who have not passed things down. ...Nothing to do with bottlenecks. Maybe it is a genuine strategy. I'm not in the know.... some of these changes are so quick I have to make a 360 degree turn. .. it is difficult for us managers to explain these changes to our staff."

2.3 Lack of Information

Managers who were interviewed shared that they found it difficult to operationalize change that had not been properly explained to them; for example, a HOSP/B manager found it difficult to face the change where they were, "Not being given information. Not being told why the change is happening. Sometimes not being told that the change is going to happen and the change arrives..." A different manager from the same hospital said, "People tend to feel negative about change when they claim they don't know anything about it...then they feel it's an imposition." Likewise, a ED/IC/S manager expressed her difficulty on the same matter in this way: "...when changes are not well communicated to us...they change without telling you why - the rationale? They just expect you to do it. It's like an instruction, you must do it."

Managers found it difficult to function and participate fully because of a lack of information. For example, a HOSP/B manager explained that: "...message is okay but doesn't say how it's to be worked out...no specifics but general information only.." A HOSP/S manager said, "A lot of us didn't really know what was involved...okay there's a change... so meaning what? We had to ask a few questions but some of them were unanswered at that time...We don't know until the policies have been agreed...It's not on paper."

The other difficulty with lack of information is that it created uncertainty and there is a lot of speculation which can be threatening and unhelpful; for example, a quote from a HOSP/S manager is: "You rely a lot on the top to pass down information...but things change so quickly that a lot of information is not passed down. So people are guessing what's going on and that's no good...then you hear from the

grapevine... speculating towards what's going on... and that's no good!" A EDUC/B manager also expressed his difficulty with a lack of information: "There was a lack of information on the change. We asked a lot of questions about various aspects of the change and we had to keep waiting for the information to come..."

2.4 Quality of the information

There was a demand from managers for "decent" information (to quote a HOSEP/B manager) and for information that could help them implement the change. For example, a EDUC/S manager said, "I would like more information...it wasn't very clear...nothing in writing, very uncertain, very new area, nobody knows exactly what's involved." Managers from HOSEP/B for example, felt they knew what was said on paper but found it difficult to translate it into practice.

Managers who were interviewed expressed various difficulties with the quality of the information. Some found the information incomplete for example, a FAST/B manager said: "...my concern is if a page is missing...or if I need clarification on the memo I've received... sometimes the attitude of people at HQ is 'don't care'. Their attitude is 'I'm not the one who received the memo, you read it yourself!' But my concern is maybe a page is missing etc..." Others have expressed difficulties with nuances and jargon in the communication for example, a EDUC/B manager said: "It was the jargon I couldn't understand. It was the definitions. One shortcoming was things weren't defined well enough for me. ..But gradually, we got to grips with it all.." A manager from FAST/S expressed his difficulty in this way, "...piece of paper...but complicated...I didn't understand it."

Difficulty with the quality of information has also resulted in misunderstandings or lack of cooperation and even relationship breakdowns at work because of the quality of the information. For example, a quote from a HOSP/B manager to illustrate this is: "...when people in the organization come to us about questions like... I find I do not have enough information to give them... once you've done that, what's next. All these people are wondering what's going to happen.... There is a tremendous amount of bad feeling understandably, just because information is not passed on."

2.5 Volume of Information

During the change, there was a huge volume of information circulating in the organization; it does mean that some of it may not get read or understood by their recipients, for example, a EDUC/B manager confessed that "yes" they do circulate the information but he has not kept up with it. He felt that maybe it is his fault: "I don't read it!" The other side to this same situation is that while documents are not read and understood, there was a feeling that the manager implementing the changes is not supported in the change. A EDUC/S manager said, "...others are not reading the documents you are producing or giving the support that you feel you need then that'll start to drive negative reactions. If they don't do that, it makes life difficult. ...if you are not getting the support you feel to sort out my area..."

2.6 Barriers in Communication

The majority of managers who were interviewed expressed difficulties because of barriers in communication. Managers themselves have speculated on the cause of this as partly personality difficulties and

partly the situation that "...there is so much on everybody's plate" that it is easier to get managers to sort their own problems out. The pressures in significant change created stresses and strains which may have caused difficulties in open communication. 'Fear of not being well thought of' or negative attitudes can hinder free communication on the change; this it did in the majority of managers. Managers' difficulty was with the inhibiting factors of free communication and they express the need for there to be "an open door for people to go and voice things." A EDBC/S manager asserted from her experience that, "openness is very important without regard to the fact that 'I'm the boss and because I say so - you take it!' If a boss comes down to my level and tells me this and this... and therefore, we have to do this, I think I'll be more appreciative of him. Communication is very important... and convincing people... and don't stuff it down a person's throat!"

Lack of continuity because of staff turnover and impersonal communication also made communication difficult. For example, a HOSP/S manager said, "...when people change, the continuity is lost - so we have a breakdown in communication." A FAST/R manager shared his difficulty with impersonal communication: "We always read it from the memo first.... that is very impersonal. Then we get the verbal communication afterwards."

3. BMSs AND SMSs' RESPONSES ABOUT COMMUNICATION

What emerged from the comparison of the BMSs and SMSs' responses about communication were two types of difficulties; the first related to the 'technicalities' of communication such as the timing, the quality and the volume in the communication on change. It has been in this area that most similarities of view and perception are found. The second

type covers difficulties of a 'non-technical' nature like 'attitudes towards authority' in communication, and 'individualism and collectivism' in communication. Section 2 of this chapter has discussed and presented evidences of difficulties of the first type that is common to the BMs and SMs in the study; they conversely revealed managers' expectations and what to get 'right' to help managers face the change. The study revealed that universalities about communication were found in the 'technicalities' of communication. The focus of this section will be on similarities and differences of a cross-national culture type.

What emerged from the data speak were concerns that centred around three aspects of communication. The first aspect was about 'consultation'; the second was about 'the need to be convinced about the change' and the third was about 'fear of what others think'. The significant finding is that although there was a strong concurrence in concern about these three aspects of communication, what underpinned the differences in responses about communication were attitudes, values and perceptions that are culturally rooted. For example, cultural attitudes about 'authority' and perceptions of 'self' affected the conduct of communication, expectations in behaviour and responses to communication. The earlier chapters have explained that people of a particular culture,

"having been programmed in a certain way or direction for a long time, will tend to behave in ways different from another people in another culture for similar situations" (p.211, Khin, 1988).

The national culture has its impact on communication for British and Singapore managers. Confucianist's values in the Singapore culture emphasize harmony, groupism and strict rules for social conduct but the western values in the British culture emphasize equality, rights and individualism (p.133, Limlingan, 1986). The paragraphs to follow

will discuss values, attitudes and perceptions with a cultural underpinning for the three aspects of 'consultation', 'the need to be convinced about the change' and 'fear of what others think'.

3.1 Consultation

BMs and SMs in the study have stated explicitly that they want to be consulted about changes. They expressed objective as well as psychological reasons for consultation. The objective reasons were that consultation prepares managers for change and consultation helps gain ownership and commitment of the incumbents to the change. The psychological considerations involve overcoming negative feelings like resentments of an imposed change, and the sense that 'Nobody likes to be taken for granted'. The BMs and SMs expressed the need to be reassured that the upheavals of change are for a worthy cause. A quote from a ROEP/B manager which summarized the expectations of most BMs and SMs is: "...comes back to being consulted...getting a commitment, giving managers a chance to think and come back to senior managers...like to feel that you are needed, not just a pawn in a game..." Similarly, a quote from a EDCC/S manager is "...if change is imposed, of course, I react badly to it."

While there was a consensus that 'consultation' is essential for both BMs and SMs in the study, the culturally linked themes about 'attitudes to authority' and 'individualism and groupism' affected the process of consultation; they caused differences to emerge in the responses of the BMs and SMs about consultation. These themes are discussed as follow.

3.1.1 Attitudes to authority

Although the BMMs and SMMs in the study expected participation or influence in decision-making for more or less the same reasons, the significant finding is that there are culturally rooted attitudes towards authority that affect their participation. On the one hand, the driving force behind the BMMs' demand for participation are the knowledge they have, the drive for equality, fair play, considering others and right of participation by virtue of them being managers in the change (Limlingan, 1986; Marquand, 1989). For example, a manager from BOSP/B expressed that their early involvement is also a reflection of whether they are regarded as "intelligent human beings" and she felt that this regard for them was somewhat lacking. On the other hand, the respect for age and hierarchical position (Lockett, 1988), the strict observance of social rules among different members in Confucianist societies like Singapore (Limlingan, 1986) and the tendency towards authoritarian style of management in Singapore (Low, 1984), affected the extent the SMMs were able to participate and be consulted.

There is evidence from the qualitative data of the BMMs demanding the right of participation in decision-making. A BOSP/B manager said: "He doesn't take any notice of my opinion. He doesn't need me...clinical directors are a one-man band. They give orders and others jump to it. They believe they've got all the knowledge...that's fine in medicine but I'm not talking about medicine. I'm talking about management... they may not have taken in all the issues to gain a full managerial perspective." A FAST/B manager said: "It would help if they get a little bit more feedback from us. Take our opinions because at the end of the day, people who deal with customers etc.. have more experience and more knowledge than senior management. Practice and theory are two

different things." What did affect the demand for participation in the BMMs was the perception of their greater ability to influence in decision-making than the SMMs in the study. There was also evidence from the quantitative data in the section on 'Power and Influence' in Chapter 6 which supported this. As explained in Chapter 6, 'Democracy' and 'Equality', embedded in Christian morals, have their influences on British values and their participation. The BMMs differed from the SMMs and tended not to accept barriers of position in communication and their demand was for face-to-face communication regardless of authority and seniority. A FAST/B manager expressed his disappointment with communication on paper in this way: "...it was done by post...face-to-face or a half hour meeting would help to tell me to pass on to other crew members."

Regard for authority did not have the same inhibiting effect on the BMMs as it did the SMMs in the study. The cultural difference is in how 'self' is viewed in the east and the west. In western culture, the individual is extolled whereas in the east, individualism or self is effaced (Khin, 1988). In the study, the BMMs had not bowed down to rank or authority but they challenge it; for example, a HOSP/B manager shared her struggles with her boss over difficult decisions: "There is an assumption that if you are a doctor or consultant then you are a good manager....My experience has been 'not true'. ...Some of the issues we have to address are very painful for him and he doesn't want to tackle them..." Similarly, a FAST/B manager shared about their challenges: "...most people do voice to their area managers but..."

Conversely, the strong Confucianist values among Singapore managers constrained the SMMs' ability to participate and exercise power and influence in decision-making. There is also evidence from the quantitative data that the SMMs perceived themselves to have

relatively lesser power and influence than the BMs. Adherence to the principles of respect for age and hierarchical position (Lockett, 1988), and the strict observance of social rules does mean that there is a tendency to accept an unspoken divide between senior managers and themselves. For example, a HOSP/S manager said: "I think we are too low down to note displeasures about changes. ...Just follow the policies made..." These values are likely to inhibit communication especially with senior management (Selmer, 1987). The tendency towards authoritarian leadership style in the East also restricts participation in decision-making and consultation with the upper echelon of management (Dayo, 1976; Low, 1984).

Although the majority of SMEs in the study stressed the need for consultation, they found conflict between their respect for senior managers' prerogative to regulate and disseminate information in the change against their own demands for more information. The tendency towards submission to authority rather than a concern for equality in the SMEs (Limingan, 1986) also affected the extent to which 'consultation' was able to take place. A pair of quotes to illustrate this is as follows. A HOSP/S manager resigned himself to the way things were conducted by saying, "...they have their reasons." A ED&C/S manager said: "...sometimes things are decided at the top and it's a bit difficult to consult everytime and I understand that they want to do things fast. If they want to consult everybody...it may take too long!" In addition, respect and deference for authority and seniority also surfaced a tendency among the SMEs to justify senior managers in their organization. For example, a FAST/S manager said: "I guess they have their reasons. I don't know the reasons. It might be confidential... usually they have the reason to do that and that's why they tell us last minute."

3.1.2 Individualism and collectivism/groupism

What has also emerged as affecting communication in this study is the primacy of group harmony in the Singapore middle managers, that is the valuing of harmony or "smooth interpersonal relationships" (p. 133, Liulingan, 1986) rather than individual preferences; for example a EDUC/S manager said: "... X and I ... we do not know how to say 'No'... Because if we say we do not want to do it - it is not very good." Another example of this tendency towards harmony is from a EDUC/S manager said: "Here we are dealing with equals ... so we have to be more careful, more diplomatic as such. In terms of relationships, there are staff who can be quite difficult... in a sense uncooperative etc.. we don't wish to upset anybody.... so we are more careful, more diplomatic..."

Conversely, British managers who were interviewed, expected their individualism to be accommodated; for example a EDUC/B manager projected himself in this way: "He'll say, 'we'll do that and that's the.... so you do it' - that is most unsatisfactory. I intensely object to that. And I make my feelings quite well known... very irritating!" A HOSP/B manager shared her difficult experience with individualism in a management team: "...they don't see why they have to declare their business to you. Why do they have to be involved... You do encroach on professional competence or decision... need to build relationships carefully and let them know you are not here to take over".

Underpinning the divergent expressions evident in the preceding paragraphs are cultural tendencies which influence communication for the BMEs and SMEs in the study. A major theme is the tendency towards individualism in westerners as opposed to collectivism in easterners.

Additionally, there is a particular emphasis on 'harmony' in the Singapore culture and being 'self-effacing' as easterners. According to Hofstede (p. 83, 1984),

"Individualism stands for a preference for a loosely knit social framework in society wherein the individuals are supposed to take care of themselves and their immediate families only. Collectivism, stands for a preference for a tightly knit social framework in which individuals can expect their relatives, clan or other in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. The fundamental issue addressed by this dimension is the degree of interdependence a society maintains among individuals. It relates to people's self-concept: 'I' or 'we'."

Hofstede (1984a) in his study found individualism to be more strong among western societies like Britain and collectivism to be more strong among eastern societies like Singapore.

Chapter 2 has explained Singapore's immigrant genesis and her lack of natural resources which encouraged an openness to learn from others (Chong and Jain, 1987); in this, there is the combining of strengths of diverse ethnic groups with an emphasis on 'harmony' for pacific investment climate ((Ananteraman et. al, 1984; Rieger, 1989; Chiew, 1990; Suryadinata, 1990). The harmonious labour-management relations (Chong and Yeoh, 1990) in Singapore has also been said to be based on a civilised, Confucian distaste for loss of face which has its pressures for avoiding public clash and discordance. The pursuit of 'harmony' in Singapore has its implications on communication, consultation and participation for the SMEs in the study. Consistent with what other writers (Lialingan, 1986; Khin, 1988) have said of Eastern cultures, 'self' is to be effaced and the flaunting of authority or one's own power is considered bad taste; the tendency, therefore, among the SMEs is to merge with the group rather than encourage conflict and individualism.

On the other hand, as discussed in Chapter 2, Britain and its traditional weakness in its adversarial system of industrial relations and strike record (Phelps-Brown, 1986; Crafts, 1986), reflect a scenario opposite to that of Singapore. At the root of the demand for fair play and the assertion of rights is the force of 'individualism', characterised by generalities of people being inner-directed and having loose ties between individuals (Kedia and Bhagat, 1988). The discussion on 'British traits, values and attitudes' in Chapter 2 has also pointed out the dominant feature of self-possession and the tendency towards individualism in the British; this has been reflected in the British habit of preserving form while modifying spirit and function. Even in British social history, this characteristic of self-possession has meant effecting a compromise and the accommodation of the ideals of the aristocracy with the industrial elite rather than the relinquishing of the ideals of one for the other (Weiner, 1981; Perkin, 1986). The tendency of the BMOs toward individualism and the SMOs toward collectivism therefore have its implications on communication for these managers.

3.2 The Need to be Convinced about the Change

The significant finding is that the need to be convinced about the change was important and had equal application for the BMOs and the SMOs in the study; it had to do with securing the cooperation and commitment of the incumbents in the change. As explained in Chapter 7, writers on change (Johns, 1973; Diamond, 1986; Kanter, 1988) have explained that change demands new learning or imposes a learning burden on the individual. As this makes life difficult because of the need to invest time and energy in learning the new, the need to be convinced about the change is particularly important. It persuades the

incumbents of change into a willingness to invest time and energy for the change.

Underpinning this aspect of communication is the 'self-esteem' of a person that needs to be appealed to and appreciated to gain commitment; if not, the change would be viewed negatively. Managers in general, react badly to dictates; for example a EDWC/B manager said: "...you've got to do more than just tell them what's going on; you've got to sell it them as something positive." A FAST/S manager said: "...the ideas have got to be sold especially if it is going to affect me significantly! Otherwise I'll flare up in abhorrence of the kind of treatment and respect they have for me as an individual!"

In essence, the unit of change is 'the individual' (Plant, 1987) and the root is the individual taking a decision to change or learn or adapt (Marquand, 1989). As explained in Chapter 7, deciding to change or adapt is no different from any other decision to change the ways we do things. Being convinced about the need to change, removes the defensive tendencies in organizational members to protect the status quo and block learning (Diamond, 1986).

3.3 Fear of What Others Think

Although the BMOs and SMOs in the study expressed the same need to have a two-way communication, the significant finding is that they also had the same apprehensions about open communication. They 'didn't want to look stupid' or 'be thought less of' by their peers and their boss(es). These apprehensions inhibited the free two-way communication. A quote from each country to illustrate this is as follow. A BOSP/B manager shared his difficulty in getting over his hurdle in this way: "Need to give opportunity to say things... I

haven't got confidence to say...personally I don't agree with that'..." A EDUC/S manager said: "...he (boss) will not be advised...he's quite determined - that's his style!"

What probably underpinned these apprehensions of 'Fear of what others think' is the Chinese 'face' concept (Redding and Ng, 1983) which has as much application for the BMMs as for the SMMs in the study. As explained in Chapter 6, 'Face is the equivalent of self-esteem' and the fear of these managers is the loss of self-esteem by others. This was consistent with the findings in Chapter 6 on 'feelings of personal failure' and how the BMMs and SMMs found that most difficult. 'Fear of what others think' probably implies the tendency to protect the loss of "face". It has been suggested by various writers (Redding and Ng, 1982; Lockett, 1988) that 'losing face' is more important to a Chinese manager than to a Western one but the findings in this section and from the quantitative data are saying that self-esteem or "face" has the same importance to the BMMs and SMMs in the study. The importance of attaining a certain position and being recognized by others was important to both groups of managers.

In the communication arena, how one appears before others is particularly important and 'fear of what others think' can easily inhibit managers' assertiveness and exchanges. A FAST/S manager said that he found top management's approach of not taking their views seriously difficult. It affected their morale. He shared that the tendency is to keep quiet about it and that he would resign when he had enough. There is a tendency to repress their views and when they "...can't take it anymore, they will quietly leave." Doz and Prahalad (p.60, 1984) have also pointed out that senior or top managers can influence the conduciveness of exchanges in communication

"via the nature of meetings held, the way in which top managers spend their time and encourage or discourage

dissent, or the respect they show for analysis, and so forth*.

For example, a HOSP/B manager shared how he found it difficult that his reply met with an impatient, dismissive response; he also said, "...you get to the stage when you go to a meeting....and 'anybody's got a problem with that' and everybody just sits there and say, 'Great! Fine!' And after the meeting you swear and say, 'I don't like that'..."

3.4 Managers' Expectations in Communication

From the data collected, managers' expectations in communication in significant change may vary according to the managers' background and according to its impact on managers. For example, managers from academic departments wanted "broad brush" information for example, a EDUC/B manager said, "... a broad brush answer would be alright... don't actually want to know all the nitty gritty reasons why D did it this way." On the other hand, those from administrative departments wanted more details: "What came through was useful. I think there wasn't enough of it. It didn't really cover the aspects that we really wanted to know..." Alternatively, the change in incentive scheme had particular implications on managers' pay and fast food managers' attention was on the lack of simple explanation about the computations for the scheme so that they can work out what they are to receive from the scheme.

The significant finding is that the expectations of the BMs and SMs in the study, are the reverse of the difficulties in communication they have expressed. In other words, their expectations are for those difficulties to be met, accommodated or overcome. These managers expected improvements in communication like more consultation, better timing and quality of information, and for the barriers in

communication to be removed through better work relationships and so on.

4. BACKGROUND TO COMMITMENT

Prior to the discussion on 'Background to Commitment', some explanation is needed on the word 'commitment'. The literature on 'commitment' shows that there is a diversity of definitions and measures of employee commitment (Hall, Schneider and Nygren, 1970; Sheldon, 1971; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974; Etzioni, 1975 and Salancik, 1977). What is in common in the various definitions is

"a view of employee commitment as a sense of attachment to a work organisation" and where they differ is on the emphasis of the attachment (p. 649, Romzek, 1989)

in terms of behaviour invested in a course of action (Sheldon, 1971; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Salancik, 1977) or in terms of an affective, emotional component like a sense of loyalty and psychological attachment (Hall et al., 1970; Buchanan, 1974; Porter et al., 1974; Etzioni, 1975). In this study, the focus is mainly on 'commitment' in terms of time and energy (Bartolome and Evans, 1979) a manager invests and is willing to invest to see a change through. This is not to say that any expressions of attachment from the BMMs and SMMs of an affective, emotional or psychological nature would not also be recognised and pointed out.

What emerged from the interviews was that the majority of the BMMs and SMMs in the study expected change to affect their work and non-work life; they also expected that at the very least, change affects them in its initial stages. A quote from each country to illustrate this is as follows. A HOSP/S manager said that she expected change to affect her at the beginning when she was coping with it and getting used to

it. A HOSP/B manager said that change affected her work and non-work life but she does try to control it "... because you can go over the top and it affects your personal efficiency." The period of adjustment to change varies for these managers and for some, the period has been longer than what they expected.

A significant finding from the interviews was that both the BMMs and SMMs in the study, fought to keep their non-work time free and that they adhered to a strong principle of keeping work and non-work life separate. A quote from each country to demonstrate this is as follows. For example a FAST/B manager said, "I don't believe in 'living to work' but 'you should work to live'..." Equally so, the SMMs have indicated that besides work, they have their non-work commitments. For example, a HOSP/S manager said: "I've never allowed it to creep into my family life ..."

5. BMMs AND SMMs' RESPONSES ABOUT COMMITMENT

In the comparison of the BMMs and SMMs' responses about commitment, the significant finding is that both their responses are the same although their economic sector, organization and detailed circumstances may be different. The responses which emerged from the study does fall into the two expressions of 'commitment' explained in section 4 of this chapter.

In the interviews, most BMMs and SMMs in the study found that their commitment was affected if work time often 'eats into' their non-work time and for a long period; they also found that their emotional and psychological attachment to their organization was affected if they were frequently not sufficiently prepared for the change and there was a lack of esteem from senior management. That a change was 'thrown' at

them without consultation or consideration meant that there had not been the participation and ownership of the change that these managers would have expected. The difficulty with longer hours of work is primarily to do with its encroachment on family life and private life. The sub-sections to follow will discuss managers' commitment to change in terms of its encroachment on 'non-work time' especially time for the family and how the 'lack of esteem and appreciation' and 'lack of preparation for change' affected the BMMs and SMMs' commitment to change.

5.1 Non-work Time (especially time for the family)

The BMMs and SMMs from the two countries had the same strong views about protecting their non-work time especially time for their family. This finding is important because it is consistent with the findings from the quantitative data; for example, in Chapter 6, 'time for the family' was the time the majority of managers ranked as the most difficult to give up to accommodate change. Although managers from FAST/B and FAST/S accepted encroachment on their non-work time as typical of the catering industry nonetheless they still appreciated minimal interference on this time. Quotes giving evidence on this from the two countries are as follow. A FAST/S manager said: "...if you are in the restaurant line, you have no social life... if you want to do well, you need to put in a lot of time..." and the same manager also said that nonetheless, "awareness of the implications on the restaurant managers' personal life...would be helpful!" Similarly, FAST/B managers who echo the same understanding about their type of business said: "I knew when I took up the job, it was going to be like this. But they (senior management) need to understand the effect on non-work time. They are seemingly unaware of the importance of non-

work time. They expect us to put in a lot of non-work time into the business."

As explained in the earlier chapters, Singapore is predominately Chinese and they subscribe to Confucianist values whereby

"The Chinese show loyalty to their families..."
(p. 155, Yeh, 1988).

hence the strong family orientation among the SMEs. In the organization context, family and kin group are competing social units for the SMEs' responsibility and commitment (p. 216, Khin, 1988). The quotes to follow demonstrate the determination of the SMEs to keep work life separate from non-work life. A HOSP/S manager to illustrate this: "It affects my work life but it doesn't affect my non-work life... Work is work and family is family. ... I keep the two separate..." A EDUC/S manager said: "...I keep to my hours of work. I try hard - no matter how to keep to my normal working hours." The finding here, consistent with the findings in Chapter 6, is that commitment to change is affected by familial commitment (Limlingen, 1986; Salmer, 1987; Lee 1989) and the generalist orientation of life endorsed by Confucianist values (Tu, 1984); in addition, 'pragmatism' often described of the Singaporeans (Chong, 1987) may also have its affect on not devoting their 'all to just one thing'. The generalist orientation encourages the distribution of energy across a number of activities rather than devoting all energies into one facet of life like work.

While the emphasis on family may not be the same for the SMEs nonetheless there was the demand for minimal interference on their private life as explained in the preceding paragraph. Privacy (Tayeb, 1988) and 'self-possession' (Wiener, 1981) are some characteristics said of British that drive the need for 'having their own space' and

the avoidance of the spillover effects of work on aspects of non-work life like family relationships, leisure activities and general lifestyles. The quotes to follow illustrate a great reluctance on the part of the BMMs to encroach on family time and non-work time generally. A HOSP/B manager said "... I resent spending my time - all hours God sends at work. I was resentful that I wasn't getting home, wasn't getting the time with my family I would like to. I felt guilty not seeing my family and that my job was all important..." A FAST/B manager similarly expressed her difficulties with giving up her 'home' time: "The cascade system... the executive meeting then regional meeting then the area meeting with restaurant managers and then the restaurant managers have a meeting with their managers and then they have the meeting with their staff... The problem with that is that it happens every 4 weeks and people come in on their day off and that's eating into their home time." A EDUC/B manager also explained the pressures from his spouse about the time he spent at work: "My wife had a part-time job and it developed into a greater commitment - a major change for her - two afternoons and two evenings a week! When she had additional pressure, evening work, she's reluctant for me to work as I have done. Even the most understanding wife would start to question."

These findings were consistent with the findings in the quantitative data that 'Additional workload' is viewed as "very demanding" for the BMMs and SMMs in the study and that 'Time for the family' and 'Weekends' are what both groups of managers are least prepared to sacrifice to accommodate change. The similarity in the way the types of 'time' are prioritized by the BMMs and SMMs in the study in Chapter 6 is also consistent with the findings that these managers want to keep work and non-work time separate and uninterfered with. Studies about the dual commitment of Singaporeans to both work and non-work

life (Aryee and Wyatt, 1989), and other studies on the familial commitment and generalist orientation among the Chinese (Tu, 1984; Limlingen, 1986; Aryee and Wyatt, 1989) mentioned in Chapter 6, also support the findings in this study. What is important is that a similar study by Bartolome and Evans (p.27, 1979) have found the British invest on average an equal proportion of time and energy in professional life and private life, and that that

"Both career and family are equally important and satisfying" (p. 5, Bartolome and Evans, 1979).

A study on the way dissimilar cultures perceive stressful life events in the same way (Holmes and Masuda, 1973) also supported the similarity in the way the BMMs and SMMs in the study value non-work time.

What is evident from the foregoing discussion and the quantitative data in Chapter 5 is that non-work time is important to both the SMMs and BMMs in the study, and that these managers expect any encroachment of non-work time to be kept at a minimum. The paragraphs to follow will provide further evidence from the two countries about the importance of non-work time for these managers.

5.2 Lack of Esteem and Appreciation

What emerged in the comparison of the BMMs and SMMs in the study were expressions, giving evidence that there is a link between 'esteem and appreciation', and commitment. If managers are ignored, not considered, not consulted and 'taken for granted', their commitment would be negatively affected. Managers from Britain and Singapore in the sample have expressed how they found 'not being appreciated' or treated like "an intelligent human being" (a quote from a HOSP/B manager) puts them off giving their time and energy to the change. For

example a HOSP/B manager pointed out her difficulty with the change as: "I think it was - 'not being appreciated'. It sounds petty but it's important..."

The sense of appreciation which managers said was important to them was expressed in a variety of ways. Some would have liked appreciation to be expressed verbally for their time and effort, others preferred it in monetary terms and still others liked it in terms of being thought of or considered. What was significant was that these managers found 'not being appreciated and esteemed', demoralising and put them off giving their time and energy to the change. For example, a EDC/S manager said: "I feel we spend a lot of time and effort doing... then these are not noticed!...we are not given a team ...to help us...no support...if the content of the work is then not appreciated, you would feel put off by it..." Her time and effort reflected her commitment to the change and when that was not appreciated, it put her off. A quote from a EDC/B manager to illustrate the second point about money is: "There's always things that put you off - pay!! I have advanced very well ...I want performance related pay..." This manager felt that his commitment in terms of time and effort, needed to be rewarded because his department performed well visibly for the organization, following the change. A quote from a FAST/S manager which expressed his need to be recognized to strengthen his commitment to his organization is: "All they are interested in is a job done well. The appreciation is not there by saying so or moneywise!..."

The BMs and SMs in the study found it difficult to feel committed to an organization that does care for its own and what they have to face in a change. They expressed in the quotes to follow that a caring management nurtures and strengthens their commitment to the organization. For example, a HOSP/B manager said: "There is an

assumption that 'you are married to the job' or 'you are here to do the job'. We are not terribly good at looking after our own. Somehow our family, married life etc.. is ignored because it doesn't go with the macho style of management. You are here to do the job. There's almost a 'you don't take your holiday', 'you don't have time off'. It's a culture where the work ethic is very strong. There is a need for a culture release that says that's your time, you take it." A FAST/S manager expressed a similar need in these words: "To show people that they are concerned about how changes affect them... that changes are not meant to hurt anybody..." Another FAST/S manager shared his difficulty with being taken for granted and not being thought of in the change that came his way: "...I've been on the move quite often - when it's time to relax, they send me to another store which is in a mess to get it 'into shape'...It becomes a very tiring job... Why should I do all this and somebody goes and mess up the business ...it gives me the feeling that I'm being made use of.... If they don't look into the personal aspect, they'll lose a lot of people. Not many are willing to have this kind of life."

That both the BMOs and SMOs in the study who were from dissimilar cultures, found their commitment affected by a lack of esteem and appreciation is significant. Writers on change (Johns, 1973; Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988) have also expressed the importance of gaining the commitment of the incumbents of change and 'bringing people along with you in the change', if the implementation of the change is to succeed. For example, Beckhard and Harris (1987) have explained that beyond defining the need for change, the present state and the future states (in terms of visions, missions and end states), is the transition management of 'getting from here to there'; the commitment of 'getting from here to there' is crucial. Plant

(1987) also wrote about 'recognizing the need of change and mobilizing the commitment to change'.

5.3 Lack of Preparation for Change

The BMEs and SMEs who were interviewed felt that insufficient preparation for change affected their commitment to the change. This was because first, it gave managers a feeling of the change being 'thrown at them' without proper planning and secondly, it made adjustments to the change more difficult. The majority of these managers found significant change disruptive and suggested that managers be prepared for change with the full facts given as far as possible.

The majority of managers appreciated time to prioritize and plan the implementation of the change. Planning is more than 'the timing of events'; it extends into financial, material and human resources, and includes a clear understanding of the implications of the change. Managers interviewed recognized from their experience that adequate provisions should be made for the smooth implementation of the change. The following are quotes from host organizations in Britain, expressing the need to be prepared for change. A EDUC/B manager expressed the need to know the implications of the change in practical terms: "...telling us what's involved ... whether it will involve extra work etc..." A FAST/B manager shared his concern about resources for the change: "It is important to know whether you've got enough resources to implement the change because a lot of people haven't got enough management staff to be able to give their time to change..." A HOSP/B manager said: "Give as much notice as possible. Start implementing the bits as soon as you can so that you don't have it all arriving in a big doll-up or all at once! It is difficult for change

not to impact your non-work time because people feel obliged to stay on." An example of concerns about resources to facilitate the change from the same hospital is: "...need to see the fulfilment of objective in the context of how much resources.... for example, was there enough budget or money in the first place... instead of being condemned as doing 'badly' subsequently...".

Similar quotes from the SMOs of various organizations, expressed their need for planning and the awareness of the implications of the change on their resources. A HOSP/S manager said: "... that changes should not come close to each other ... so many changes at the same time with little time for people to digest, to work through, to work through implications and how to respond to the changes so there's very little time and it's like fire fighting and it is very stressful." A EDUC/S manager said: "Providing the support for example, clerical support ... resources - materials and labour - whatever that'll help in facing the change..". A FAST/S manager also said: "They should plan ahead... how many changes are they having and then implement slowly and not bulldoze through. I don't feel I have sufficient time to inform the staff and make them understand fully what's going on because I have a lot of part-time staff and it is difficult to get round everybody...."

The BMOs and SMOs in the study also pointed out the need for 'training' as part of their preparation for change. These managers were of the view that training helps them to manage the change better. A pair of quotes from each country to illustrate this are as follows. A EDUC/B manager said: "...you need to be trained to manage change so that you know in advance what's happening, what the main threats are, both in terms of scheduling your own time and in terms of trying to project the staff you are trying to manage", and a HOSP/B manager also said: "...recognition of what you are good at ... what you are bad at

is important so that you can do something about it... development, education, training ...". Similarly, a pair of quotes from the Singapore managers, expressing their need for training are as follow. A KDBC/S manager said: "... I don't have that kind of expertise which means the job is harder to do...", and a FAST/S manager said: "...they (senior management) should come up with courses to upgrade the managers... I feel that we learn everything by ourselves... not sure if I'm learning the 'right things'.... only had the basic five-day course... and no other training."

These managers also expressed reservations in their commitment towards the change if they did not see benefits from it. A quote from each country to illustrate this is as follows. A MOSP/B manager said: "I think people would be happy to implement change if they can see benefit from it." A MOSP/S manager said: "If I'm not fully convinced of the change then there's not one hundred percent commitment".

That the BMMs and SMMs do not like 'surprises' and want to be prepared materially and morally for the change is significant and consistent with the findings in Chapter 7. In the previous chapter, the discussion exposed various 'Adjustment to change' difficulties like 'Having resources to change' and 'Preparing others for change'. Whether the preparation for change involves having full information, adequate resources, planning and training or being convinced about the change, what has emerged through the foregoing is that commitment is negatively affected if there is a lack of preparation for change.

5.4 Managers' Expectations about Commitment in the Change

The discussion on managers' responses about commitment in the change has also conversely surfaced and explained the expectations of these

managers in the study. These managers had firm expectations of minimal encroachment on non-work or private life especially time for their family. They also suggested more use of planning as a tool for minimizing the encroachment on private life and for dealing with the implications and needs in the change. What was also important was the re-emphasis of managers' expectations to be prepared for change as explained in Chapter 7; lack of preparation for change affected negatively managers willingness to commit their time and energy to the change. The BMMs and SMMs also expected to be convinced of 'perceived benefits' in the change as well as be consulted and considered in the change if their commitment was to be positively strengthened towards the change.

6. BACKGROUND TO POWER

Prior to the discussion on 'Background to Power', some explanation is needed on the words 'power' and 'authority'. The literature on 'power' (Lukes, 1974; Handy, 1988; Kanter, 1988; Daft, 1989; Greiner and Schein, 1989) has described it in its popular usage as a personal characteristic and referred to it as informal power or influence; whereas 'authority' refers to formal power. According to Daft (p.400, 1989), the definition of power

"is the ability of one person ... in an organization to influence other people to bring about the desired outcomes. It is the potential to influence others within the organization, but with the goal of attaining desired outcomes for power holders". "Authority is also a force for achieving desired outcomes, but only as prescribed by the formal hierarchy and reporting relationships".

In this study, the focus will be on the power of middle managers in the change process, in particular, their ability to achieve the desired outcomes.

The background is that the BMMs and SMMs in the study have unanimously pointed to someone at a higher level than themselves as being those who made the decision to change. In other words, the hierarchical level of the decision-makers is superior to those whom the decision affected. Decisions involving restructuring of the economic sector were taken at the government level for organizations in both countries and has its relevance for EDUC/B, HOSP/B and HOSP/S. The decision to make significant changes within the organization were said to be as decided by the Board of directors or the CEO for HOSP/S and EDUC/S. FAST/B and FAST/S managers who were interviewed said that the change in incentive scheme was decided by "...the executive team" or top management at headquarters.

The BMMs and SMMs who were interviewed and were affected by government decisions accepted their position and emphatically agreed that they should not expect to be consulted at the high level decision-making. A quote from each country to illustrate this is as follow. A HOSP/S manager said: "No for the high level stuff..." and a HOSP/B manager said: "... we should like to be involved in the discussions at district level not at the White Paper stage. That would be wrong..." At the organizational level, these managers expected consultation in so far as they were affected by the change within the organization. A quote from each country to illustrate this is as follow. A HOSP/B manager said: "We would expect to have input to everything in this Unit." A EDUC/S manager said: "It would be helpful if some level of consultation is given to respond... which may have direct bearing on us ..." For the fast food operators, the BMMs and SMMs interviewed, unanimously agreed to being consulted because the change in incentive scheme affected them individually. For example, a FAST/B manager said: "It would help if somebody asked me. It's good to get everybody's points and make a final decision, ..."

The majority of managers who were interviewed, were not delegated or responsible for specific activities or tasks associated with the change; the exception was three managers from EDUC/B who were involved early in the change and one from FAST/S who was involved in the survey and feedback prior to the implementation of the new incentive scheme. Within the spectrum of activities in the change, most of these managers found themselves more toward the 'executing' end of the spectrum rather than being toward the 'initiating' and 'key role' end.

7. BMMs AND SMMs' RESPONSES ABOUT POWER

When comparing the BMMs and SMMs' responses about power and authority in the change, what emerged were similarities and differences in their responses. The two main similarities which emerged were first, that there was a positive relationship between control or authority and the manager's experience; the tendency was that managers with more experience in the study preferred to wield more power and authority in the change. The second similarity was that within their areas of responsibility, there were items which caused difficulty if they were not within their control; they were to do with superior-subordinate power relationships, directives from the upper echelons and not being in control of or having sufficient influence over resources in the change.

On the other hand, the two main differences in managers' responses about power have cultural underpinnings. The first related to their attitudes toward authority or formal power which affected their responses about power; the SMMs respect age and hierarchical position (Limingan, 1986; Lockett, 1988) compared with the BMMs' tendency toward being people who are inner-directed and having loose ties between individuals (Kedia and Bhagat, 1988). Additionally, the

Confucian distaste for 'loss of face' mentioned in Section 3.1.2 of this chapter, has its pressures for avoiding public clash and discordance. The tendency towards harmony among Singaporeans because of this and the different scenario for the British in the same earlier section of this chapter have their effects on attitudes towards 'power' and 'authority'. The second difference has to do with the 'hesitancy to contradict those in authority' (Limlingen, 1986) among the SMs and the tendency for 'self-possession' (Wiener, 1981), and the demand for equality and democracy among the British. The cultural attitudes toward authority shown in the first difference also affects the second difference. The sections to follow will discuss these similarities and differences, and provide evidence for them.

7.1 Control or Authority in Relation to Experience: Similarities

The BMs and SMs who were interviewed found the question on 'what control or authority should senior management release to managers like yourself before, during and after stages of the change?', difficult to answer; for example a BOEP/S manager said: "It's a difficult question..." and a EDUC/B manager said: "It's probably a complicated answer..." What is evident from the qualitative data is that the responses given were dependent upon the experiences of the manager. The more experience the manager had, the greater the autonomy the manager expected at the various stages of change; or the more experience, the more comfortable the manager felt with more control or flexibility and authority. The typical response from British and Singapore managers may be summarised by a quote from a EDUC/S manager: "From my experience, it is a good thing for managers to be directed into what they need to do but they should be left on their own initiative to get from A to B without looking over their shoulder, otherwise it indicates that you don't trust the person. Fear of things

going wrong, doesn't help you build up your confidence. I think authority has to go along with accountability. Our authority is operational, maybe advisory. We don't have the authority to give directive."

BMs and SMs with the most experience and long service have clearly said that they preferred to be left to implement the change without interference from the top; for example a BOSP/S manager said: "The directors and above, they are the ones making the policies, they are the ones making the changes. Thereafter, it should be up to us. The nitty gritty should be decided by us. But with the main policy, it is up to them." A EDUC/B manager said: "My view on management is that you should delegate responsibility as low down as is reasonable. My approach is to push down - if you give them responsibilities and the support, encouragement and resources and they go away and do it, most people will respond well to that....For them to produce the goods, you've got to give them all those things. Same for before, during and after the change. The directors' responsibility is to make sure the organization is going in the right direction, ... If he gets involved in the nitty gritty operations stuff, those who should be doing the job won't be doing it.. and more importantly, ...lose bearings of the direction of where the ship is going..." A FAST/S manager said: "I would like to be left alone simply given the order or task to perform. I like to do it myself, work on deadlines ... submit on the deadline.. I will ask if need be.. but I do not want to be checked on..."

The BMs and SMs with lesser experience expected more recourse with their superiors than the experienced; they would have liked there to be consultation and some input which prepared them 'before' the change was launched; 'during' the change, they appreciated more control with support or reassurance from their superiors; at the 'after' stage of

the change, they preferred more autonomy with feedback and reassessment on the change. Examples from both countries are as follows. A EDBC/S manager said: "Before the change...give us the opportunity to discuss the change on a consultative, feedback basis. During... we should be given authority to implement things not just to take their view or decision. Sometimes we are not given the opportunity to make decisions during implementation and for everything, we have to consult them... We should be given more authority. After... the difficulties and problems we face, we should be left to solve our own problems." A HOSP/B manager said: "(Before) ...You don't expect them to release a lot of control at the beginning - You have an awful lot to learn and you have certain training processes etc... (During)... Halfway through that, being given an understanding of the things you are going to be responsible for. A set programme of handover of certain issues to you depending on the size of the areas. At this stage of handover, what you manage should be negotiated... (After)... At the end, you review it.

Those in the study with the minimal of experience expected to be instructed on what to do at the 'before' stage of the change; 'during' the change, they expected there to be the authority to accompany what they were to do with the appropriate support and reassurance; at the 'after' stage of the change, they expected full autonomy. A HOSP/B manager said: "Before... I think it should be made very clear what the role is going to be for yourself in the change - both in terms of what is expected of you in the day-to-day work and what is expected of you in implementing change. During... While it is actually happening, they do need to give you authority to manage the things they are making you accountable for. Like I say, there are still many instances where I'm in theory accountable for a service but have no control over it. Management is all about accountability and they really need to back

that up. I appreciate more support, moral and otherwise to make sure I was pointed in the right direction. After... They should let go of the reins and let you do what you want to do and the power to do it." A FAST/S manager said: "Before... give us a memo to tell us what the change is about and what it is going to do and how we can help, what we can do. During... assistance for the change. After... we don't want them looking over our shoulder and telling us off... try and encourage us and give us confidence."

7.2 Limits to Authority: Similarities

What emerged from the analysis of the data is that the BMMs and SMMs in the study expressed formal limits to the authority that they carry. In the general, these British and Singapore managers in the study have said that their authority is limited to the area of their responsibility. However, particular organizations have expressed difficulties with powerful personalities who limit their authority. The paragraphs to follow will discuss these difficulties with quotes from each country to illustrate. A BOEP/B manager said: "If you are given responsibilities, you are given the authority to go with it." All FAST/S and FAST/B managers have also said that their authority was limited to the store or restaurant. For example, a FAST/B manager said: "Yes, authority in the store" and a FAST/S manager said: "... except at the restaurant level... We don't even have a say in the operations like delivery, incentive, ..." These fast food managers in both countries are aware of their limitations in authority and that instructions to change from headquarters are mandatory; for example, a FAST/B manager said: "They tell me to do this and I have to do it. I have no authority to say, 'I don't like the change'... I feel powerless really!" A EDWC/S manager said: "It depends. For 'this', I have full authority... For 'that', we are not in an influential position... The

decision is made by the committee and we have more say in how the things are run."

What is significant was that the majority of the BMMs and SMMs found that even within the areas they are responsible for, there were things they had found difficult not to be in control of or have more influence on in the change. These have been to do with decision-making about the direction or implementation and lack of control over resources. A quote from each country to illustrate are as follows. A EDBC/S manager said: "When it comes to implementation, we have more experience and we know that certain things cannot be done one way or another because of some constraints... there are cases where the implementation is not our choice... They impose... We feel it is not suitable..." A HOSP/B manager said: "I think the problem is that other people hold power in the process that you have to go through to actually achieve your ends. So you don't control all the resources that you require to push through to your own end. Perhaps you would like a different outcome but that was not granted because of the process of decision-making higher up."

Problems with 'difficult, powerful personalities' in the change who veto or override the moves of the BMMs in the study have been the case for all HOSP/B managers who were interviewed; these were the consultants in their management team. This paragraph highlights the difficulties experienced in the significant change because of difficult, powerful personalities who limit the power and authority of these BMMs. For example, a HOSP/B manager said: "I feel I have the responsibility to achieve the objectives we have set without necessarily having the power to move things in the direction I feel best." Another HOSP/B manager said: "Yes. The change happens and you are responsible for an area of clinical activity. I found it very

difficult to influence what a consultant doctor does. That is a very difficult thing to try and control. You can plan operating theatre sessions till you are blue in the face but if the guy wants to stick in an extra case at the end of the list and run over time... It's still the case that I don't make the management decisions. It's a clash of professional views, opinions, decisions. Who is he to go up to a colleague to tell him how to run his show, that's always been the system! There was a case where one of the doctors had an extremely long waiting list and the other doctors' were under control - so I made a decision to write back to the doctors about it and asked if they can think about passing them on to someone else. And 'all hell broke loose' about me being so presumptuous as to tell a doctor who they should refer their patients to so its a very difficult.. very frustrating situation. The consultants completely dissociate themselves from what constrains them - finance, budgets ... even which patients should be sent for. We know the number of beds... yet there are doctors who are disinterested in efficient management."

7.3 Differences in BMMs and SMMs' Responses about Power

The two main differences in managers' responses about power with cultural underpinnings will be discussed together in this section. As mentioned earlier, the first relates to differences in BMMs and SMMs' attitudes toward authority or formal power (Limlingan, 1986; Lockett, 1988) and the second, relates to the 'hesitancy to contradict those in authority' (Limlingan, 1986). The difference in the BMMs and SMMs' responses about power and authority in the study was that the SMMs accepted their position in the organization and often made references during the interviews to their 'position' as inferior to another. This had to do with their respect for hierarchical position (Lockett, 1988), the strict observance of social conduct among the Chinese

(Limlingan, 1986), being 'self-effacing' (Khin, 1988), the 'face' concept (Redding and Ng, 1983) and the tendency towards harmony than individualism (Limlingan, 1986). These have been discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

The SMs who were interviewed have a respect for hierarchical position and a strict observance of social conduct; for example, a HOSP/S manager said: "No, I don't think I should have a say or influence. I think one must recognise one's position... It is a bit too much..." On the other hand, all SMs who were interviewed have not made reference about their 'position' in the organization, they tended to highlight their struggles with getting past senior managers about 'more efficient' ways or 'more objective' moves. For example, a HOSP/B manager said: "... the problem is that other people hold power in the process that you have to go through to actually achieve your ends. So you don't control all the resources that you require to push through to your end. Perhaps you would have liked a different outcome but that was not granted because of the process of decision-making higher up."

From the data, what emerged was a reverence for authority and seniority among these Singapore managers and a repression which caused the SMs to refrain from asserting their views on decisions; the respect for hierarchical position among the SMs runs deep and causes a hesitancy to contradict their superiors. For example, a HOSP/S manager said: "There have been some policies made which we don't agree with. But we never really question them or say 'No, we are not going to do it...' It is not in our culture to oppose so violently! If my director comes to me and say, 'CEO says we should do it this way'. Of course, I would tell the director why I don't think it should be done that way, but if even then the director said, 'CEO had said so - so okay, we'll do it' We don't object so violently. Sometimes we feel

it's not right but think the CEO probably has reason for it." On the other hand, the British managers who were interviewed have their frustrations in seeing the outcome they desire; they sought to dominate or work round the power positions to achieve outcomes as close to what they desire as possible. For example, a quote from a HOSP/B manager which is shared by her peers is: "I think we don't have as much power at this level as the administrator... In fact, we don't have as much formal power... It's a cultural change that we need to come to terms with within ourselves because that's the way the doctors work and we are in a doctor's world in some way. It works on favour basis. ...What is helpful is to have more power and ... to have absolute backup when you've got a crucial problem from the centre. ... There is a sense that they'll (Unit General Manager and his deputy) sort out the problem if we can't which is wrong. They've got to devolve the power for us to do it!"

At the root of the divergence in how 'power' is perceived by the BMs and SMs is the difference in how 'self' is perceived by those two groups of managers. Khin (p.216, 1988) suggested that

"The very basis of how we view ourselves perhaps makes this difference between the West and the East more pronounced. In Western culture, the individual is extolled. In the East, individualism or 'self' is to be effaced".

'Self-effacement' present in countries like Singapore encourages the tendency to play down one's power (Khin, 1988) and merge with the group. This view is further supported by Maruyama (1984) who suggested that the way we see things is the essence of the differences between human relations in various cultures.

The difference in perception of 'self' gives their particular orientation. For example, there is the view that the Western concept of man-nature relationship is one of control but Easterners consider

man-nature relationship to be harmonious (Adler and Jalinas, 1986; Wimalasiri, 1988). In the Western concept,

"Man has both desire and ability to control the natural conditions for the betterment of mankind. Nature should not be allowed to take its control" (p.190, Wimalasiri, 1988).

The Eastern concept, on the other hand, believes in maintaining a balance between the elements. Wimalasiri (1988) suggested that these orientations have their implications for management; for example, harmony-oriented people view the organisation as an integrated system of relationships, encouraging a balance of functions, whereas those with a strong orientation towards control or dominance are more likely to emphasize unilateral authority over organizational function.

The cultural conditioning of the SMEs to respect hierarchical position, to observe strict social conduct and pursue harmony among different members of society is consistent with the perception of 'self' being effaced; this has its influence on power relationships within the organization. The avoidance of 'loss of face' and drive for 'harmony' among Asians probably means that there is a tendency among SMEs to be 'self-effacing', to 'give face' (show esteem and respect) to others, to be hesitant in contradicting superiors, avoiding conflicts and playing down their power. According to Wimalasiri (p.190, 1988),

"They (Singaporeans) seem to have the capacity to accommodate differences (of organizational members) and coexist with minimal conflict".

On the other hand, concepts like 'individuality' and 'distinctiveness' said to be characteristic of Westerners (Ehin, 1988) may mean that harmony is sacrificed for the sake of 'individuality' and 'distinctiveness' among the SMEs. As indicated in the preceding paragraph, the Western cultural orientation includes "the ability to change", "dominance over both the man made and the natural

environment", "individualism" and time orientation towards the present; the Easterners' orientation tends to be toward the reverse of this (p.77-79, Adler and Jelinek, 1986). The characteristics of dominance and individualism probably encourage the tendency to wield more power and control in Westerners. The finding is that the SMMs are more constrained in their influence and power than the BMMs because of culture conditioning; this is consistent with the findings in Chapter 6 that the BMMs perceive themselves to wield more power than the SMMs in the study. That there is also support from other studies (Hofstede, 1984a; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988) of the power distance being larger among Easterners as opposed to Westerners further emphasizes its significance.

The foregoing discussion suggested that the particular culture conditioning and perception of 'self' gave these two groups of managers, their particular orientation. The tendency among Easterners is toward repression and respect for authority while this is not the case for Westerners. The divergent orientations have been expressed in the foregoing paragraphs. That the difference in the BMMs and SMMs' perception of their power is consistent with the findings in the quantitative data on 'Power and Influence' in Chapter 6 and what other studies have said about power in Eastern and Western managers (Hofstede, 1984a; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988; Khin, 1988) further emphasizes its significance.

7.4 Managers' Expectations about Power in the Change

What emerged from the comparison of the BMMs and SMMs' expectations about power and influence in the change was that almost all these managers expected a say or influence in the change, especially if the change affected them and their area of responsibility. Managers also

had clear expectations about their influence, not extending beyond their area of responsibility or accountability. The paragraphs to follow will provide evidence on these.

For example, a FAST/S manager said: "Yes (to having a say) because it affects me..." and a EDUC/S manager said: "It would have been nice if we had been told that there's going to be a selling mission - what do you think etc..." Almost all the British managers who were interviewed said, "Yes, of course" or "Yes, definitely" to having a say or influence in the change with the exception of two EDUC/B managers from the academic departments. A FAST/B manager said: "Yes, they (senior management) would have saved themselves a lot of time and hassle if they had asked their management team before they did it. A lot of managers are leaving because of the bonus scheme. I think if headquarters found out how many demotivated managers there are, they'll be concerned" and a HOSP/B manager said: "Yes, very much. If you want it to succeed - yes, you've got to bring people with you. If you impose change, you won't get commitment."

Managers from both countries who were interviewed had clear expectations about the boundary of their influence, especially if it affected them or their area of responsibility. The section on "Limits to authority", "Attitudes toward authority" and the need for consultation in this chapter have also illustrated this. A quote from a EDUC/B manager which summarizes the difference in decision-making for different levels is as follows: "I think you have to have a realistic appraisal of what your part is in the institution. I don't have a hand in deciding whether we buy a blue broom or red...if the director looks to me for the important details, we'd go nowhere... Those who are in a position to manage at the level they are at, have to manage. You can't ask or consult everybody, you'll go nowhere."

The last thing we need is a long response time. We need fast response time. It would worry me if I am consulted on too many issues."

8. SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS ABOUT COMMUNICATION, COMMITMENT AND POWER
FOR THE BMMs AND SMMs IN THE STUDY

The literature on 'change' (Johns, 1973; Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Plant, 1987; Grainer and Schein, 1988; Kanter, 1988) has identified 'communication', 'commitment' and 'power' as important areas for attention when considering the management of change. The significant findings which emerged from the analysis in this chapter, are the similarities and differences in the responses of the BMMs and SMMs around those three areas. Interestingly, the similarities are mostly to do with non-cultural aspects and what most writers on 'change' have said are important when making or managing change. Another significant finding is that the BMMs and SMMs have both responded in the same way about what helps, what hinders and what expectations they have in the face of change.

The differences which arose tended to have cultural underpinnings. Although the concerns and issues on the three areas have centred around different aspects, the cultural orientations affecting 'communication', 'commitment' and 'power' have been the same. What is an important finding is that the same cultural underpinning affects the BMMs and SMMs in 'communication' and 'power' relationships in the significant change. As explained above, the particular cultural differences have been in attitudes about authority, perception of 'self' (Khin, 1988), the observance of social conduct among different members of society, the 'harmony' concept (Limlingan, 1986) and the 'face' concept (Redding and Ng, 1983). The tendencies toward groupism in the SMMs, consistent with the 'harmony' concept, as opposed to

'individualism' in the BMEs also have their effect. Another significant finding was that the BMEs and SMEs' commitment to change was negatively affected if non-work time especially time for the family was encroached. Although both BMEs and SMEs had the same view on this, the cultural underpinning was slightly different. Commitment to the family (Limlingan, 1986; Khin, 1988; Yah, 1988) and the generalist orientation of life (Tu, 1984) endorsed by Confucianist values was the influence for the SMEs; 'self-possession' (Weiner, 1981) and 'private life' (Bartolome and Evans, 1979) including family and leisure, was what affected the BMEs.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

These words are written in the political and economic reality of Britain and Singapore in the late 1980s/early 1990s. The chapter will begin by pointing out the major issues of global and academic importance. The discussion will move from the serial view to key themes and minor themes that emerged from this study. The final section of this chapter explains the significance of the thesis in the wider debates and its implications for Britain and Singapore.

1. CONTEXT

What has emerged from the thesis is a concentration on global issues such as the management of change and international competitiveness. The theoretical issues focussed on are that the thesis is an exploratory study on managing change across cultures and that in addition to the growing body of knowledge on this topic, there being very few such comparisons involving an eastern and non-eastern country. The importance of the management of change as a key area in the business field and the responsiveness of human resources toward change will also be discussed in the paragraphs to follow.

1.1 Major Global Issues

The major global issues that arise have to do with, first, the management of change and the interdependency of nations in the world, and their existence and operation in a common context, not in isolation or independently of other nations. The first two chapters explained both this and the need for countries to be aware of their

global and regional environment so that they can make appropriate responses to survive and compete for world business (Garratt and Stopford, 1980; Cladd, 1989). What has become apparent through the chapters is the importance of managing change and the centrality of this in business (Kedia and Bhaget, 1988; Strabel, 1989; Sorge, 1991) without which economic growth is impeded. This central theme is further emphasized when countries who are trade-dependent and without natural resources perform better economically than those with resources; the management of change is therefore one of the critical elements in economic growth (Koontz and Wehrich, 1988). Older nations with values which are grounded in deep sentiments are often said to be resistant to change (Olsen, 1982; Ho, 1989) and the need is for an alertness and agility of responses to change if the country is to succeed economically (Toffler, 1971).

The second global issue comes with the shift in global economic activity and growth from the mature industrialized countries in the Atlantic region to those in the Asia-Pacific region (Clegg, Higgins and Spiby, 1988). The wave of interest in 'culture' and 'management' started in the early 1980s because this economic shift had spurred the concern for better economic performance and encouraged learning from successful cultures. The focus was first on Japan as an economic power and the transfer of their ideas into businesses (Vogel, 1979; Lee, 14 July 1988; Pascale and Athos, 1988); this was followed by a focus on the competitiveness and economic performance of the Asian dragons (Grimeade, 1989; Lee, 7 July 1988; Lockwood, 1991). The suggestions are that the culture and general way of life of Japan have played a major role in Japan's growth (Morgan, 1986) and that the Confucianist values (Clegg, Higgins and Spiby, 1988) and economic culture of those with hardly any natural resources have nurtured a particular openness

and responsiveness (Chong, 1984; Clegg, Higgins and Spybey, 1988; Cladd, 1989) toward change among the Asian dragons.

Even the latest year-end report by the United Nations on the Asia-Pacific region (p.17, Poole, 21 December 1991) has pointed out that the growth of the NICs and some of the Association of South-east Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries is the strongest and still showing the most dynamic growth. The economies of the "Asian 'tigers'": South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore, have been described to be 'resilient' despite the collapse in world trade volumes and the bleak global outlook. It was also decided at the world trade talks that countries like Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore be considered industrialized and that they would no longer benefit from preferential treatment in some areas. The foregoing describes an important global shift; the economies in the Asia-Pacific region are strengthening and outpacing those in the Atlantic rim.

The third issue has to do with the quality of human resources in the management of change. Chapter 1 of this thesis argued that a country's ability to compete on an international basis without natural resources and regardless of its starting point emphasized the importance of the knowledge-based society, and therefore the centrality of the quality of human resources in a country. To reiterate the words of Strabel (p. 43, 1989),

"The key is the quality of the human resources, their ability to learn and change. What matters is not so much a country's starting point, but its ability to continually improve. This is important especially for those players, management and employees, who are competing in the international arena; the steeper their learning curve, the more likely they are to outpace the international competition".

The World Competitiveness Report 1989 has also indicated that Singapore, an ex-colony, is clearly ahead of Britain, an ex-colonizer, in its economic performance, ranking first in six of the ten factors, second on three factors and tenth on the natural endowments factor; Britain ranked fifth and below for all ten factors. The table below shows their rank profiles.

	<u>United Kingdom</u>	<u>Singapore</u>
Dynamism of the Economy	11	1
Industrial Efficiency	10	1
Dynamics of the Market	12	2
Financial Dynamism	8	1
Human Resources	15	1
State Interference	8	2
Natural Endowments	5	10
Outward Orientation	6	1
Innovative Forward Orientation	12	2
Socio-Political Stability	15	1

Source: The World Competitiveness Report 1989 prepared by IMEDE and the World Economic Forum, ranked 32 countries for factors that business leaders perceived as important for competitiveness.

The same Report by IMEDE (p.56) also highlighted that Singapore scored head to head with Japan on many criteria of the Report and even leads Japan in some competitive areas like financial deregulation, intellectual property protection, R & D management and industrial relations.

1.2 Major Academic Issues

The major academic issues discussed in this section are of two levels: first order issues and second order issues. The first order issues are from a macro-perspective and the second order, a micro-perspective.

1.2.1 First order issue

An important major academic issue of macro-perspective is that the findings of this study are based on what I have termed a dialectical approach. The approach consistently accepts the divergent perspectives of opposing theories and attempts to build on their strengths. The methodology also adopts a 'mixed' methods approach using quantitative and qualitative methods to harness data collected from divergent cultures for an enriched perspective on the management of change; this has been based on the principle of the polyocular vision which uses different points of view to source enriching information. The dialectical theme in the thesis is of major importance and it is influenced by the new 'cultural' school of thought.

The new cultural school of thought (Camara, 1975; Maruyama, 1984) prefers the heterogenistic approach and rejects the 'either/or' approach to universalism and particularism, synthesizing the linear thinking and Aristotelean logic in western concepts with the non-linear thinking and non-Aristotelean logic represented in, for example, the Japanese and the Mandinka concepts. The approach is built on divergent concepts, such as the Asian and African concepts, which include

"the logic of mutual benefit among heterogeneous elements, polyocular vision, self-heterogenization, ability to think in one another's mind, situational adaptability and overlapping responsibility' and 'EMA concepts of unity by homogeneity, individual identity, boundary, specialization, separation, opposition, hierarchy, tension

and extension" (p.100, Maruyama, 1984).

The approach in this study is of the new cultural school of thought which despite some problems in conceptualization, asserts a new type of efficiency that maximizes or combines diversity in a mutually beneficial way.

1.2.2 Second order issues

The first of the second order academic issues is the gap in knowledge across a much wider cultural span; as mentioned earlier, there are very few such comparisons between a Southeast Asian country and a Western country. The literature surveys and reviews have confirmed this lack of research across cultures (Adler, 1983; Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1983). Although recent cross-cultural studies have focussed on the impacts of culture on the behaviour of people within work systems (Laurent, 1979; Hofstede, 1980; Child, 1981), the majority of the cross-cultural articles were single culture studies and less than 1 percent investigated interactions between employees of different cultures (Adler, 1983). American corporate activity has been said to internationalize faster than the publishing of articles in their management journals; the concern is that the "ostrich in the sand" syndrome does not occur because growing internationalism demands the diversity of a global perspective (Adler, 1983). Therefore, the significance of this study might be its contribution to narrow the gap in knowledge so that 'theory' catches up with 'practice'.

The second academic issue has to do with the lack of literature on 'the management of change' from a cross-national perspective. This has been reflected through the computer literature searches of a western database and an eastern database; manual searches of major English and American journals in the recent decade have also found no articles on

'the management of change' across cultures. The available literature on managing change has largely been limited to the boundaries of a single nation and the recent reviews (Adler, 1983; Roberts and Boyacigiller, 1983) on current trends and interest have also reported that no work has been done on the subject of 'the management of change' across cultures. The lack of cross-national studies on 'the management of change' may be to do with difficulties of a conceptual, design and practical nature. What is apparent from the background chapters is that this thesis follows a dialectical approach as an attempt to investigate universalism and particularism on the subject of managing change in two divergent national cultures. The heterogenetic approach provides a new type of efficiency which maximizes or combines diversity in a mutually beneficial way, and the findings of this study have proven that there are universalities and particularities in the responses of BMMs and SMMs despite their divergent cultures.

The third academic issue is the increasing recognition in the more recent literature (Flynn, 1985; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988; Handry and Pettigrew, 1990; Sorge, 1991) that national culture affects receptiveness and adaptability, and that this is important for international competitiveness. Writers like Flynn (1985), Kedia and Bhagat (1988) and Sorge (1991) have noted that the wider societal culture and societal arrangements have an important impact on organizations and their competitive advantage; a mis-match in responses from the organizations would affect their ability to survive and compete. The quote (Strabel, 1989) in an earlier paragraph has explained that the key to international competitiveness is in people and their ability to adapt, learn and change.

2. KEY THEMES

The findings from the comparison of the BMMs and SMMs' responses have been based on a strong and sound database with high return rates from the two countries. What is also significant is that the mixed methods used have produced findings from the quantitative study which are consistent with those from the qualitative study for the same or related areas; these have been highlighted in the appropriate sections of the earlier chapters. There is a need to emphasize the importance of these findings because the similarities found are across divergent cultures and economic sectors, and the differences found have cultural underpinnings. This section will report on the more prominent findings of the study instead of the detailed findings already pointed out in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8. The paragraphs to follow will concentrate on universalities, particularities, the researcher's comments on the findings and future work.

2.1 Universalism

What has been interesting is that the middle managers of two divergent cultures view change as a positive event despite their reactions and responses to it. Chapter 6 has described the similarity in the responses of the BMMs and SMMs about difficulties with items like 'additional workload', 'work relationships', 'feelings of personal failure', 'time for the family' and time-related stress demands. What has been particularly outstanding through the analysis of the data is the very close similarity in the perceptions of 'time' and the prioritization of 'types of time' these BMMs and SMMs have, including strong support from other studies along the same line (Holmes and Mauda, 1973; Bartolome and Evans, 1979; Aryee and Wyatt, 1989). The helpful items expressed included 'being consulted', work

relationships, communication and various motivators. These difficult/demanding items as well as helpful items are consistent with the qualitative data and the expectations of these managers.

My reflections on the foregoing are as follows: 'man is a creature of habit' and 'change upsets the status quo'. While formal education and experience may train them to 'see change as essential', change nonetheless challenges the status quo and these managers need to settle into a new equilibrium of work to a greater or lesser degree. The universality in adjusting to change probably has to do with what the literature says about change demanding learning (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987; Kanter, 1988; Marquand, 1989). The expressions of difficulties and demands reflect the discomforts of adjusting to a significant change and the expressions of helpful elements confirm the need for help to facilitate adjustment to change and preparation for change. The similarity of responses in Chapters 6 and 7 illustrates the universalities. The details of the need to be prepared for change and to adjust to change are in Chapter 7. Middle managers have been more the executors of change and they have concurred that top/senior managers are those at the 'driving seat of change'. This hierarchical position does add to the strain of adjusting to change (Reed, 1989).

Another important finding is that these managers from divergent cultures have responded in the same way about what helps, what hinders and what expectations they have in the face of a significant change. Chapter 8 has also highlighted that the similarities are mostly to do with non-cultural aspects and what most writers on 'change' (Johns, 1973; Beckhard and Harris, 1987; Plant, 1987; Greiner and Schein, 1988; Kanter, 1988) have said are important to give attention to when making or managing change.

2.1.1 Specific universal theme

The theme has to do with competition from non-work commitments. Although managers from divergent cultures resist the encroachment on non-work time for slightly different cultural reasons, the universality is that there is resistance in the same direction. This finding is strengthened by same or similar findings from other studies (Bartolome and Evans, 1984; Limlingan, 1986; Khin, 1988; Yeh, 1988). The cultural reasons will be pointed out in the section to follow.

2.2 Particularism

The significant findings from this study are that the inter-management differences in the area of 'communication', 'commitment' and 'power' have consistent cultural themes. What is interesting is that the same cultural underpinning affects the BMNs and SMNs in 'communication' and 'power' relationships in significant change. The suggestion is first that "the very basis of how we view ourselves perhaps makes this difference between the West and the East more pronounced" (p.216, Khin, 1988); in other words, how 'self' is perceived affects these 'communication' and 'power' relationships. In the East, 'self' or individualism is effaced and in the West, 'self' or the individual is extolled. Whether 'self' is bound by strict codes or not, affects these 'communication' and 'power' relationships as discussed in Chapter 8. The particular cultural differences have been in attitudes about authority (Lockett, 1988), perception of 'self' (Khin, 1988), the observance of social conduct among different members of society, the 'harmony' concept (Limlingan, 1986) and the 'face' concept (Redding and Ng, 1983). The tendency towards groupism in the SMNs is consistent with the 'harmony' concept; this differs from the tendency towards individualism among the BMNs.

In the area of 'commitment', the competing social unit for organizational commitment and commitment to change is non-work commitments despite variations in the underlying cultural reasons; other studies by easterners (Low, 1984; Khin, 1988) and westerners (Bartolome and Evans, 1979) have also confirmed the demands on managers' non-work life. Non-work commitments for the easterners are to do with the family (Limlingen, 1986; Khin, 1988; Yeh, 1988) and a generalist orientation of life (Tu, 1984), but non-work commitments for the westerners are probably to do with 'private life' (Bartolome and Evans, 1979) and 'self-possession' (Wiener, 1981) which include family and leisure.

2.2.1 Particular areas of differences

One important finding, related to 'the management of change', is that the SMEs in the comparison have reflected, on the whole, a greater degree of openness to learn and adapt to change. This finds support in other studies (Chong, 1984; Kadia and Bhagat, 1988; Clad, 1989) about Singapore's adaptability and openness to change and probably contributes to the superior economic performance of Singapore compared with Britain. The broad comparison of the SMEs and SMEs in Chapter 6 has concluded that the SMEs perceive themselves to be more flexible, better at coping with change and while they preferred to be convinced of the benefits of the change, in relative terms, this was less important to them when compared with the SMEs. There has also been support from other studies about the SMEs' relative unresponsiveness and resistant attitude towards change (PHELPS-BROWN, 1986; Crafts, 1988; Marquand, 1989).

Other findings of interest are that the SMEs perceive themselves to have more influence and power, to be better at managing work

relationships and communication than the SMOs; this is consistent with the findings about 'power' and 'communication' in the qualitative data in Chapter 8.

3. COMMENTS ON OTHER THEMES

This section discusses the anticipated features as well as the 'surprises' in the findings of this study despite what the literature predicts. One of the particular areas of difference has to do with how 'formal qualification' is perceived in the two cultures. The literature (Rieger, 1989) has said that the culture in Singapore is geared to compete for knowledge from an early age with the emphasis on formal education as essential for career advancement and symbolic value. This emphasis is in line with the move towards economic competition based on knowledge (Toffler, 1971) rather than, for example, natural resources. On the other hand, it has been said of the British that they have a strong anti-business culture and that this was present for example, in the 'culture' of public schools (Hannah, 1989). What surprised me about the finding is that the BMOs were, in fact, not less qualified than the SMOs; this was particularly the case for BMOs from the quasi-public sector compared with SMOs from the private sector in the study. It would seem from the study that the BMOs are improving on their level of formal qualifications and conversely, the SMOs are still catching up and following their expansion on higher educational opportunities. Perhaps the female-dominated SMOs with their strong familial orientations have been constrained in their pursuit of higher formal education (Scase and Coffee, 1989) and this is reflected in their relatively lower formal qualifications.

The literature has said that there is a strong Confucianist influence in the Singapore culture which gives Singaporeans a strong familial orientation and pressures from the family as well as from the Government to marry and have children (Lee, 1987). What is a surprise is the strong female-dominance among the SMMs especially in the quasi-public sector. This may be a reflection of graduate working women being encouraged to continue working via Government inducements and pressures (Pang et. al, 1989). Dramatic shortfalls in births and marriages in particular years according to the Chinese Lunar calendar (Lee, 1987) may also have its impact on labour shortages which increases the pressure for women to go back to work. The common male-dominance for the BMMs and SMMs in the catering industry has been anticipated in view of the unsociable hours and shift work involved.

The emphasis on family is particularly important to easterners and one would have expected in the comparison that non-work commitment is probably more important to the SMMs than the BMMs; but the surprise in Chapter 6 has been that the non-work demands are equally important to these managers from divergent cultures. There are eastern (Aryee and Wyatt, 1989) and western (Bartolome and Evans, 1979) studies which have said the same. Perhaps the study by Holmes and Mesuda (1973) on how stressful life events are perceived in the same way by dissimilar cultures has some relevance here.

The responses of managers to the miscellaneous items in Chapter 6 have also been interesting. It was anticipated that the BMMs and SMMs agree that formal education and relevant experience help them cope better with change; but what surprised me was that both groups of managers agreed that gender, age and past experiences of change are of no consequence in their responses to significant change. The view that there is no difference in whether significant change is directed by

men or women does seem to contradict the cultural emphasis on males taking precedence over females in Confucianist societies (Lee, 1989). But this shift may be because of the change in demography and the need to encourage labour participation from women and older workers (Lee, 1987; Ong, 1988; Lee, 1989). Traditional 'management of change' literature has always said that 'age' hinders change; the older, the more resistant to change (Johns, 1973; Plant, 1987). That this view is not held by the BMMs and SMMs is significant, but this may be because of the change in trend and demography as mentioned above. The same literature on change has also said that past experiences of change affect future changes; but the surprise has been that this is not the case for these managers.

4. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE THESIS

The significance of this thesis partly rests on its implications for the economic performance of a nation, in particular, the influence of national culture on the management of change and the importance of the role of middle managers and their ability to respond to significant change. The different economic performance of nations is affected by national culture differences which have their affect on the management of change, shaped by middle management whose role is important in improved economic performance.

As explained in Chapter 1, and diagrammatically expressed on page 2 of that chapter, the economic growth of nations like Singapore in the Asia-Pacific region has outpaced the mature, industrialized nations like Britain and America (Harris, 1991; Poole, 1991; Tasker, 1991). This has emphasized the importance of economic competition based on the quality of human resources (Strebel, 1989). In particular, the study of 'middle managers', who are often executors of change, shows

their responses to be important. The emphasis is therefore on economic competition based on knowledge rather than industrialization via natural resources. That middle managers are executors of significant change decisions in organizations highlights the importance of their role in shaping the management of change in their organization. The economic growth of a nation is affected by the appropriate responses of organizations to the regional or global environment (Gerratt and Stopford, 1980) as well as their particular national culture influences and expressions in terms of policies, strategies and incentives for enhancing their growth.

A better understanding of middle managers' responses to significant change from both nations is important for knowing what helps and what hinders significant change. The understanding of what helps to facilitate change, is an important contribution to improved economic performance.

4.1 Implications for Britain and Singapore

The findings of this study has implications for decision-making, communication, commitment, personnel policies, incentive schemes and leadership styles for organizations in Britain and Singapore. If management practices are inconsistent with the environment, the organization will be less effective. The importance of this study lies therefore in the opportunity it provides of learning from different cultures or differing points of view, for a more complete understanding about the management of change. The differing points of view provides the opportunity of combining diverse perspectives in a mutually beneficial way.

The demand to be prepared for significant changes which includes consultation, being convinced of the need for change and having adequate support as indicated in Chapters 6 and 7, have their effects on decision-making, communication and commitment in these countries. There is a need for the planning of change also to consider the nexus position of middle managers in organizations and the pressures that are upon them; preparation and planning needs to allow for that.

The similarity in the perceptions of 'time', 'types of time' and 'time-related' stress demands by the BMMs and SMMs, including the general importance of non-work time to both groups of managers have their implications for personnel policies and motivation/incentive schemes. The cultural sensitivities in these countries need to be understood because they may affect motivation and long-term commitment to the organization. That these managers from dissimilar cultures respond in the same way about 'Feelings of personal failure' carries the implication that motivation by personal, individual success, recognition and 'self-actualization' are particularly important. Another point is that the SMMs are found to be less skilled in people management and there is a need for more training to be given in interpersonal skills.

Leadership and subordinateship are two sides of the same coin; the expectations of these BMMs and SMMs are a guide to appropriate leadership for them. The cross-national comparison has indicated larger power distance in Singapore managers than the British managers; while different personalities may have its effect, culture still influences what leadership style is appropriate. It has been said that Singaporeans may prefer a benevolent autocrat style and the British, a democratic and participative style. What is interesting is that

despite the differing power distances, the demand is for a more sympathetic involvement of senior management from both countries.

The decision-making process in these countries is also affected by culture. The tendency towards groupism in eastern societies like Singapore may imply that the decisions need the commitment of many; the approach then is more towards consensus decision-making. On the other hand, in Britain, the tendency is more for consultation and participation in decision-making. According to Barry (1986), there is a changing trend in management style more towards consultation and participation with an increasing concern in seeking employees' commitment to organizational goals and facilitating their adjustment to change. In general, the authoritarian and disciplined approach is losing popularity.

Power distances in Britain and Singapore also have their consequences for the way company policies will work. For example, grievance channels in the larger power distance environment like Singapore may be difficult to establish because there will be more unrealistic and exaggerated grievances and the channels may be used for personal revenge against a superior who is otherwise not accessible (Kofstede, 1984a). In general, the foregoing has its implications for multi-nationals operating in those countries and the minority groups from those countries.

4.1.1 Strategic questions for Britain and Singapore

The findings of this study and others are that national-societal culture affects adaptability, receptiveness and responsiveness to change, technology, business strategy, the environment and international competitiveness (Flynn, 1985; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988;

Strebel, 1989; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990; Sorge, 1991). The implication of this on the management of change for Britain and Singapore is that a country's quality of human resources and their relative ability to respond and compete is an important key to international competitiveness (Feldman, 1986; Kedia and Bhagat, 1988; Strebel, 1989; Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990).

Although the influence of culture is on entrepreneurial skills (Clegg, et. al, 1986) and human resource responses, the growth and success of the NICs have also been because of their physical characteristics, location and history. A more important point to be made here is the NICs' particular outward-oriented strategy which involves a range of effects such as better utilization of resources, lower unemployment, higher growth of real wages, income increments at lower investment cost, higher domestic savings, the attraction of more foreign capital and high GNP (Clegg, et. al, 1986).

As explained in Section 4 of this chapter, the economic performance of a nation is affected by national culture differences which have their effect on the management of change, shaped by middle management whose role is important in improved economic performance. The outward-oriented strategy of a nation with a strong commitment from the government to an export-oriented growth strategy, accompanied by a holistic implementation of policies, conducive and attractive to foreign investment, is probably an expression of responses from a particular type of national culture. The development and continual development of human resources in Britain and Singapore is important for economic competition based on knowledge. Although it is recognized that there may be a need for attention in other areas, for example, infrastructure in Singapore (p.17, Poole, 1991), and industrial efficiency in Britain (Phelps-Brown, 1986; Marquand, 1989), this

thesis suggests that business strategies for Britain and Singapore almost certainly need to address areas like 'the management of change' and the quality of their human resources for developing and maintaining their international competitive edge.

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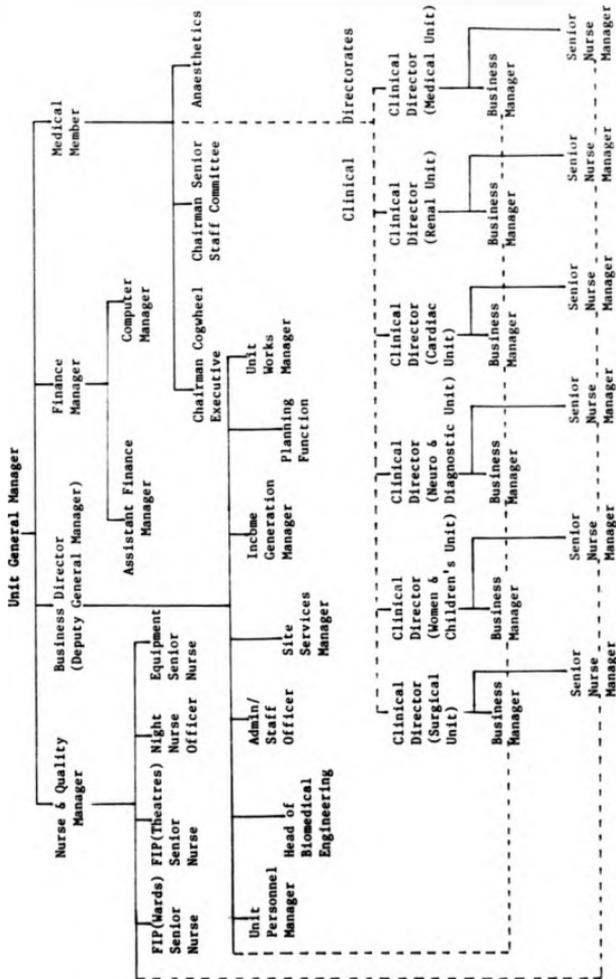
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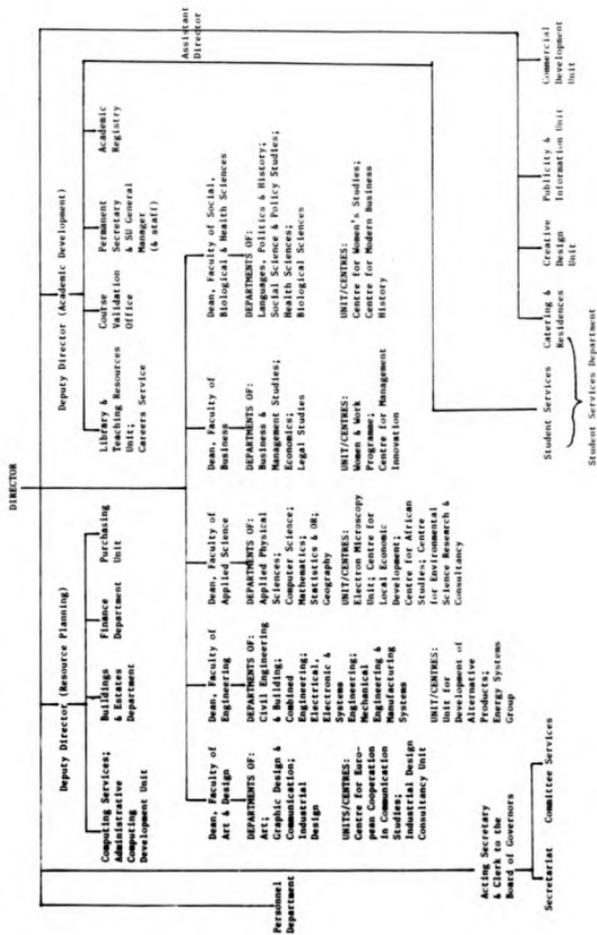
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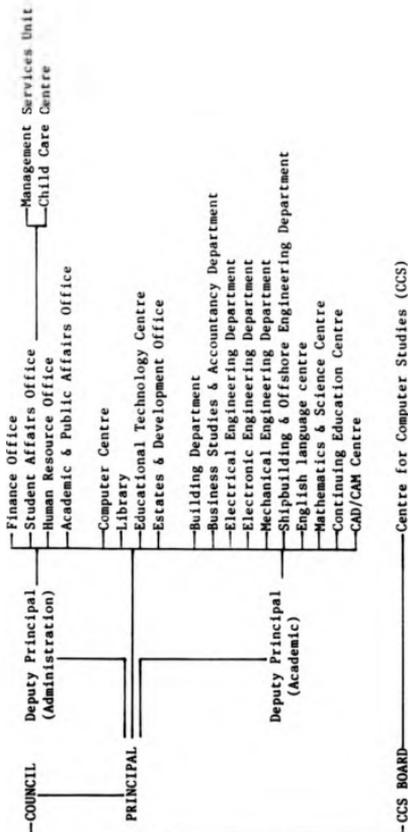
HOSP/B'S ORGANISATION CHART



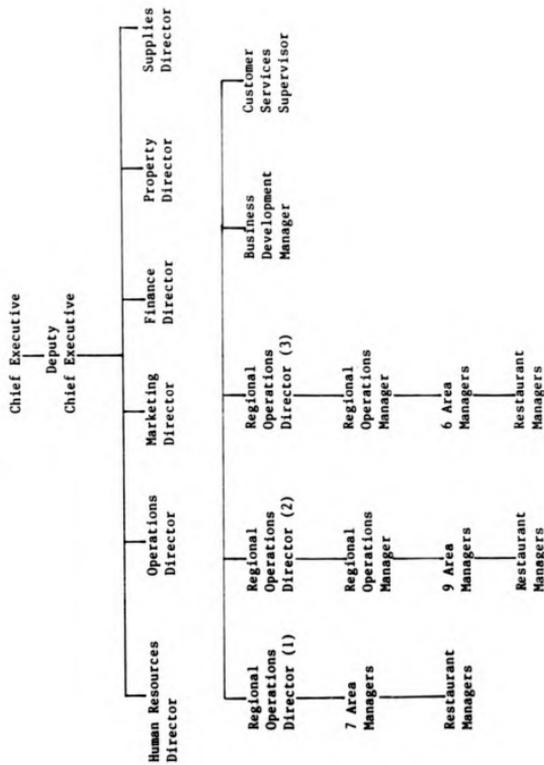
IBUC/US'S ORGANISATION CHART



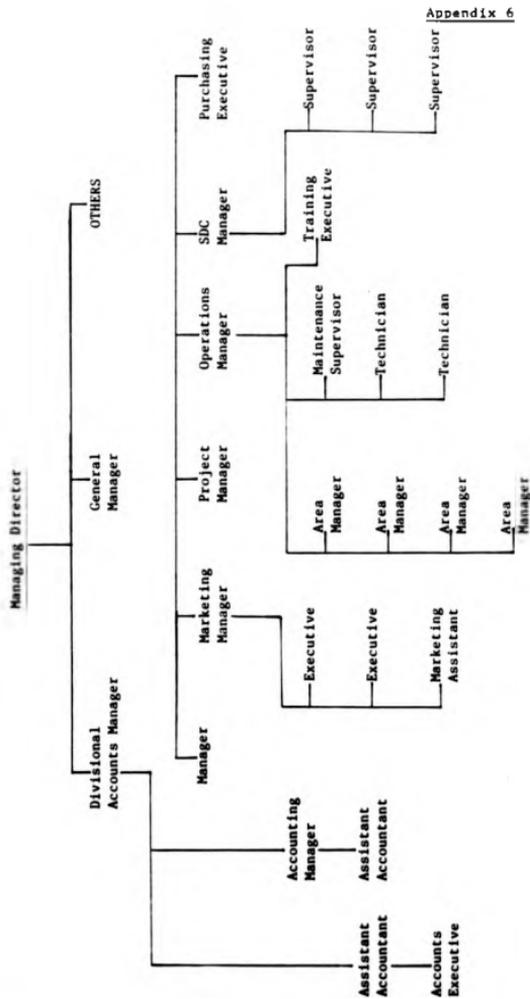
EDUC/S/S. ORGANISATION CHART



FAST/B'S ORGANISATION CHART



FAST/S'S ORGANISATION CHART



UNIVERSITY OF WARWICK
WARWICK BUSINESS SCHOOL

A CROSS-NATIONAL COMPARISON
OF
BRITISH & SINGAPORE MIDDLE MANAGEMENT
RESPONSES TOWARDS SIGNIFICANT CHANGES AT WORK

To the respondent

The purpose of this study is to understand the impact of national culture on middle management responses towards significant changes at work. This study focuses on the key issues in the management of change in leading organizations such as yours, with the objective of contributing towards the better management of change in Singapore and Britain.

Completing the questionnaire

The questions cover a wide range of subjects and instructions are given at the beginning of each section. The questions will draw on your experiences and responses to significant changes at work. An explanation of the range of significant changes will be given on the next page. This questionnaire should only take 15 to 20 minutes of your time to complete.

Your participation will be treated as CONFIDENTIAL AND ANONYMOUS and the completed questionnaire will only be seen by myself. The final results will be made available to all participants, if required.

Returning the questionnaire

Please send the completed questionnaire using the prepaid envelope provided, to:

IR0B Unit (Research Project)
c/o Professor Gibson Burrell
University of Warwick
S. I. B. S.
Gibbet Hill Road,
COVENTRY, CV4 7BR

I look forward to receiving your contribution to this research.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

SECTION 1: WHAT ARE YOUR RESPONSES TO CHANGE?

Appendix 7.3

1. Please indicate by ticking, to what extent you personally have found these items demanding when involved in any significant change.

	very demanding	fairly demanding	not demanding	not at all	not * applicable
Working under a new boss					
Dealing with a diversity of things quickly					
Having to work late each night for 3 weeks					
Relocating your office					
Mental preoccupation with work					
Being given short notice of change					
Innovation by others					
Changing your present responsibilities					
Managing work relationships at all levels					
Transfer of authority & responsibility from your unit/department					
Communicating with others in a change					
Working to a tight schedule of change					
Others (specify):					

2. Similarly, please indicate by ticking, to what extent you personally have found these items helpful when involved in any significant change.

	most helpful	helpful	fairly helpful	not helpful	not helpful at all	not * applicable
Being consulted before a change						
Being well informed						
Having more status						
Financial incentives						
Perceived benefits of the change						
Peer & staff cooperation						
Having full discretion						
Changing your present staff						
Having more authority						
Being able to go home on time						
Others (specify):						

NB: * not applicable refers to having no experience of the item

**SECTION 2. HOW TRUE ARE THESE STATEMENTS FOR YOUR SITUATION PLEASE
TICK YOUR ANSWER.**

	definitely true	fairly true	true to some extent	not very true	definitely false
1. In your organization, you have often exercised your discretion in significant changes.					
2. You have been able to reverse a decision or seek a compromise in a change that had an immediate impact on you or your staff.					
3. You have found that normally staff are expected to accept orders without question.					
4. You have found that senior management consults your views on change in your section or department.					
5. The pace of change at work is increasing.					
6. The pace of change creates constant work pressure for you.					
7. Change often upsets routines and brings inconveniences for you.					
8. Continuing change is increasingly difficult to accommodate.					
9. You can often count on the help of others in your organization during a significant change.					
10. Others in your organization find you cooperative in any significant change.					
11. Whenever there is a significant change, you have found quite a lot of friction and not much cooperation between departments.					
12. You have found your boss(es) not very approachable in a significant change.					
13. You have found that you know of changes within a short period (eg. 2-3 weeks) before they happen.					
14. Management is approachable and good at listening to explanations when there are problems in a change situation.					
15. You get conflicting orders and instructions in a change.					
16. You have withheld information from management during a change.					
17. You see future prospects with this organization.					
18. You would go to any length to support the changes your organization tries to make.					
19. ...in fact, you are often willing to volunteer help in new or unusual necessary innovations.					
20. In a change, you tend to be more concerned about the interests of your section or department rather than the wider organization objectives.					
21. In recent years, you have found the significant changes in this organization, purposeful.					
22. Although you disagreed with the purpose of some changes, you were always willing to cooperate.					
23. You accept change if you perceive benefits from it.					
24. You would participate to a minimal extent in a change if you did not perceive benefits from it.					

SECTION 3: WHAT IS YOUR EXPERIENCE OF CHANGE LIKE? PLEASE TICK YOUR ANSWER.

	definitely true	fairly true	true to some extent	not very true	definitely false
1. You have found that formal education enables you to cope better with change.					
2. You have found that managerial and supervisory experience enables you to cope better with change.					
3. You have found that your religion helps you to cope with change.					
4. You have found that age affects your ability to cope with change: the older, the more resistant to change.					
5. In your opinion, you have found that change is better received if it is directed by men than women.					
6. You have found no difference in whether change is directed by men or women.					
7. You have found that your past experience of change in your organization has given you a negative outlook on future change.					
8. On the whole, you have found it difficult to feel free to speak your views to your boss about changes that you disagree with.					

SECTION 4: HOW IMPORTANT ARE THE CHECKLIST OF ITEMS TO YOU?

Please rank the checklist of items in each question using the following scale: 1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least.

1a. Which have you found demanding when there is a significant change? Please rank.

- Additional work load
- Work relationships
- New boss
- New physical environment
- Overtime and little or no breaks

1b. Are there other features you would like to add?

.....

2a. Which have you found difficult to face when you have been candid about your ability to cope with change? Please rank in order of difficulty.

- Relationship tensions
- Jeopardizing one's career prospects
- Bosses' disapproval
- Loss of financial reward
- Feelings of personal failure

2b. Are there other features you would like to add?

.....

3a. During a process of significant change, many people find they need more time to learn, understand and adjust to change. In order of preference which would you find you are prepared to sacrifice to accommodate the change process?

- Leisure time
 In-between breaks
 Lunch time
 Time for your family
 Weekends

3b. Are there other features you would like to add?

.....

SECTION 5: WHAT ARE YOUR PREFERENCES TOWARDS WORK?

To what extent are these 5 statements true of you? Please tick your response.

	definitely true	fairly true	true to some extent	not very true	definitely false
1. I prefer a job which is always changing.					
2. I enjoy finding myself in new and unusual circumstances.					
3. I like to have a regular pattern in my working day.					
4. I would generally prefer to do something I am used to rather than something that is different.					
5. I get a lot of pleasure from taking on new problems.					

SECTION 6: CHOOSE A RECENT SIGNIFICANT CHANGE IN YOUR ORGANIZATION AND WRITE YOUR RESPONSES TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

1. What was the change?

2. Why do you think the change was needed?

.....

3. Did the change achieve its original purpose? (Yes/No)

If no, what do you think went wrong?

.....

4. What did you find helpful about the change from your point of view?

.....

.....

5. What did you find difficult about the change?

.....

.....

6. What do you think senior managers should be aware of when implementing a significant change?

.....

Appendix 7.7

.....
.....
.....
7. What do you think would help middle managers in accepting change and implementing change in their organization?

.....
.....
.....
Please use the space below for anything you would like to say about your responses towards change.

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO FILL IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. I WOULD BE GRATEFUL FOR THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION TO HELP ME ANALYSE MY RESULTS.

1. What is the highest educational qualification you have obtained?
-
2. How long have you worked as a manager or supervisor?
3. How long have you worked for your present organization?
4. What is your nationality?
5. What is your place/country of origin?
6. In which country have you lived for most of your life?
7. Are you male or female?
8. How old are you?
9. Do you have any dependents living with you?
10. What is your religion?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP

INTERVIEW SCHEDULEINTRODUCTION

My name is SOK TAY and I am a PhD student from Warwick University. I would like to ask managers some questions about how they are affected by significant changes in their organization.

I am interested in the process of managing change, in particular how people are actually affected by change, they have responded to it. This includes the positive and the negative aspects.

This should take about an hour of your time and anything you say will be treated in CONFIDENCE. If you have no objections, I would like to use a tape recorder so that I can have a more accurate record of this interview. (It will help me make up for anything I may have missed out in my note taking.)

INSTRUCTIONS

This interview focuses on this particular SIGNIFICANT CHANGE which I have been told, has taken place in your organisation:

- HOSP/B : Reorganisation following the White Paper "Working for Patients"
- EDUC/B : Reorganisation to become corporate status
- FAST/B : Incentive scheme
- HOSP/S : Reorganisation, the change in Chief Executive Officer and the change in governance
- EDUC/S : Reorganisation, selling mission and the change in Chief Executive Officer
- FAST/S : Incentive scheme

I would like you to think of your responses to the questions in the light of the change mentioned.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (PART 1)

1. Can you tell me which incidents have been most critical as the result of the change mentioned? By critical, I mean what has had the most significant impact on you and your work.
2. Tell me, what effect has it had on you and your work?
3. Tell me, what pleased you about the change and why?
4. Tell me, what displeased you about the change and why?
5. ANYTHING else that had a significant impact on you and your work?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (PART 2)

(HELPFUL AND DIFFICULT ITEMS IN FACING SIGNIFICANT CHANGE)

1. Expectations: Was it an expected change?

2. Expectations: Did you feel the change was appropriate?

3. Expectations: Have you any suggestions about what would be a better change or solution in place of this change?

4. Critical Incident: Was there anything you found difficult and unhelpful about the change?

5. Prompt: So you are saying that these were the problems. What do you think would have improved the change from your point of view?

6. Prompt: Are there things you can think of which tends to provoke negative reactions towards a change like this in managers like yourself?

7. Prompt: So what should senior management bear in mind when implementing change?

8. Prompt: Are there any other things which you think would help managers like yourself in a significant change?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (PART 3)

(HELPFUL AND DIFFICULT ITEMS IN COMMUNICATION IN A SIGNIFICANT CHANGE)

1. Opening question: Can you tell me how you were informed about the change?

2. Expectations: Do you think sufficient notice was given to you about it?

3. Prompt: How could the communication have been improved? (from your point of view)?

4. Critical Incident: I would like you to think about the channels of communications on this change, the information you were given, the manner or tone of delivery, the timing, that sort of thing. Was there anything you have found lacking or unhelpful in the communication on the change?

5. Prompt: Did you find any aspect of the communication useful or helpful?
6. Prompt: Are there things you can think of which would avoid negative reactions to communication on change in managers like yourself?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (PART 4)

(HELPFUL AND DIFFICULT ITEMS IN COMMITMENT TO A SIGNIFICANT CHANGE)

1. Opening question: I would like you to think about your work and non-work life for eg. your job, your involvement in the organisation, your family, any pursuits outside of work that you may have and your lifestyle. Could you tell me how the change affected your work and non-work life?
2. Expectations: Did you expect the change to affect your work and non-work life?
3. Critical Incident: Was there anything you found difficult that put you off giving your time and energy to the change?
4. Prompt: Focussing on the demands of change on a manager's work and non-work time and energy, what do you think is important for senior management to bear in mind, to avoid negative reactions towards change?
5. Prompt: Have you any other suggestions about how change could be implemented with minimal disruptive effect on a manager's work and non-work life?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (PART 5)

(HELPFUL AND DIFFICULT ITEMS SURROUNDING POWER IN A SIGNIFICANT CHANGE)

1. Opening question: As far as you know, how was the decision to change made?
2. Expectations: Did you expect to be consulted before the change took place?
3. Expectations: Do you think managers like yourself should have had some say or influence in the change?

Appendix 8.4

4. Prompt: If the answer is "no", what about having a say in how things should affect your unit or section or department?

5. Prompt: Were you delegated or responsible for specific activities or tasks associated with the change?

6. Expectations: Were you given sufficient authority in the change?

7. Critical

Incident: Were there things you found difficult not to be in control of or, not having more influence on in the change?

8. Prompt: From your experience, what control or authority should senior management release to managers like yourself at the BEFORE, DURING and AFTER stages of the change?

Let's start with the BEFORE stage:

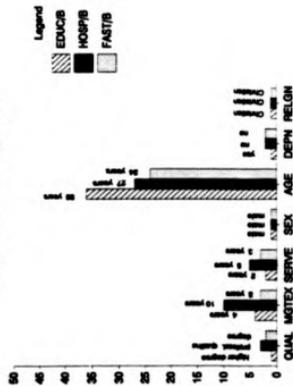
DURING:

AFTER:

Appendix 9

British and Singaporean managers' profiles

British managers

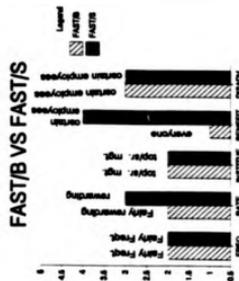
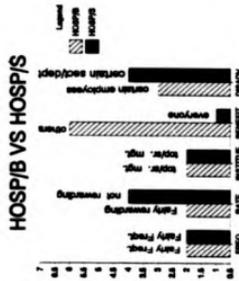
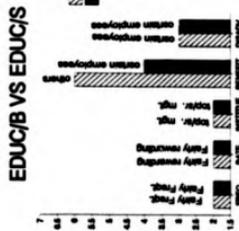


Singaporean Managers



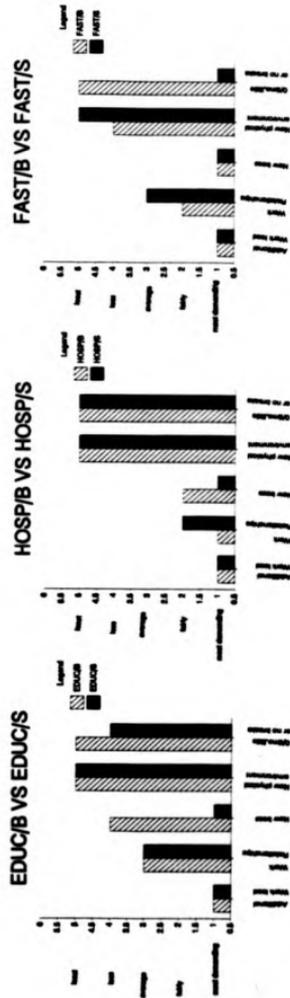
Appendix 10

Profile analyses of managers' background experience of significant changes



Appendix 12

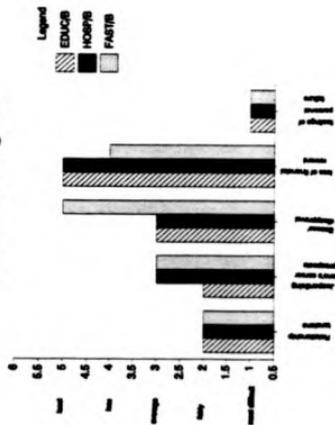
Profile analyses ranking additional workload, work relationships, new boss, new physical environment and overtime, little or no breaks



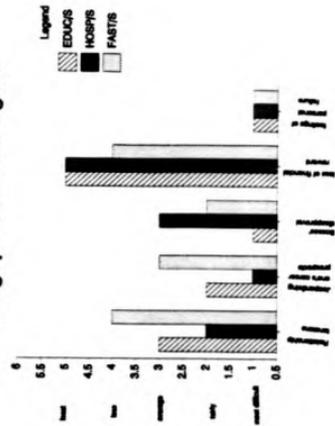
Appendix 13

Profile analyses ranking relationship tensions, jeopardising one's career prospects, bosses' disapproval, loss of financial reward and feelings of personal failure

British managers

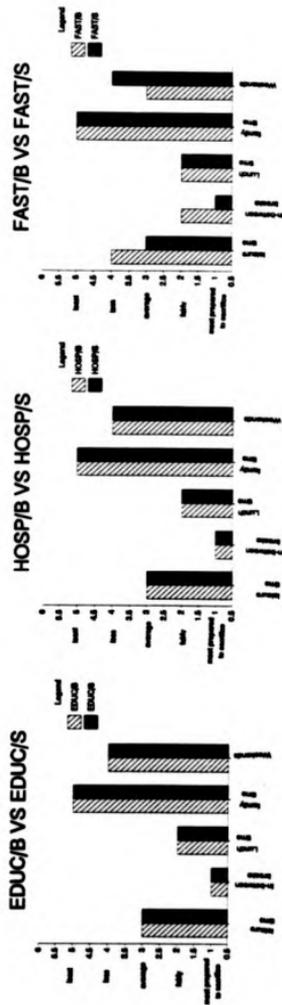


Singaporean Managers



Profile analyses ranking types of time:

Inter-company comparison

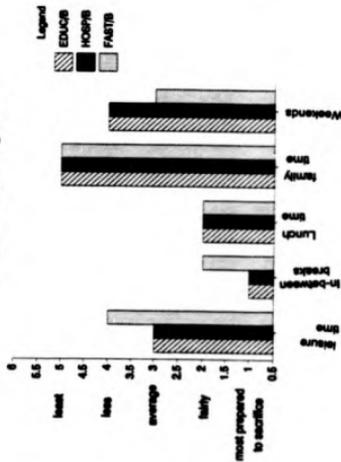


Appendix 15

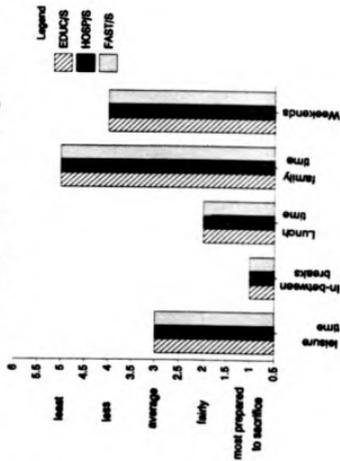
Profile analyses ranking types of time:

Inter-country comparison

British managers

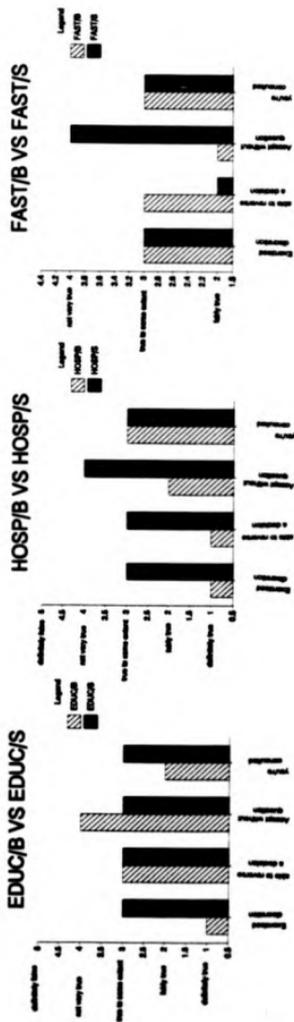


Singaporean Managers

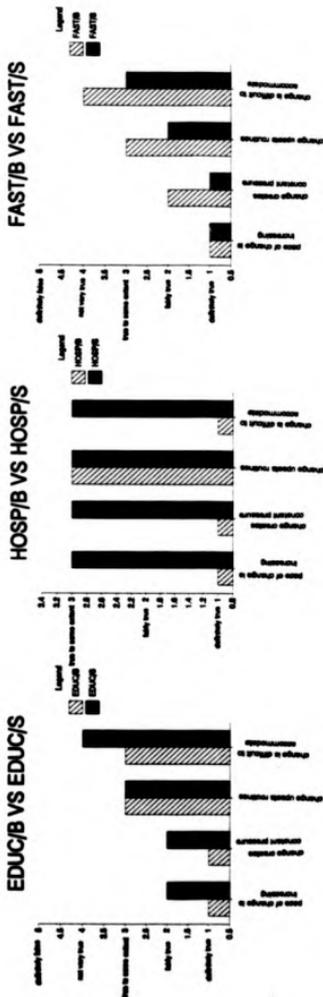


Appendix 17

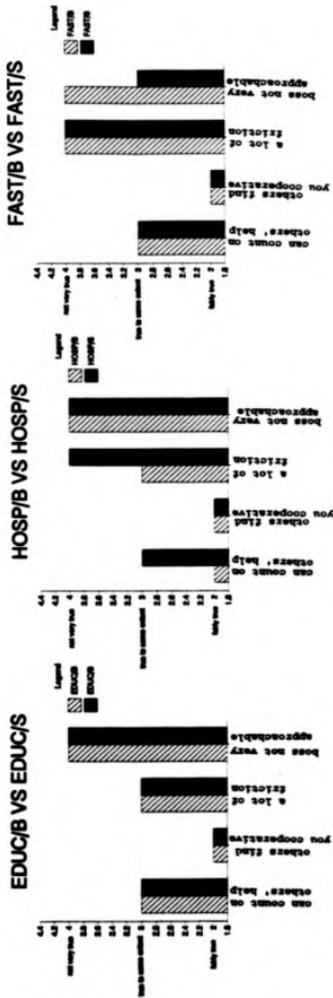
Profile analyses of manager's power and influence in a significant change



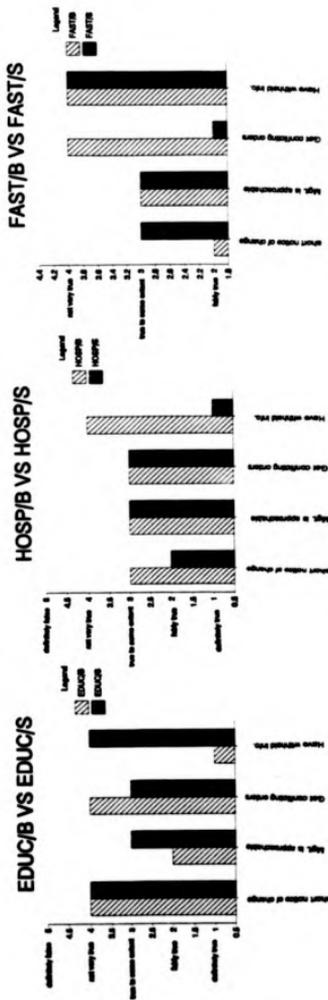
Profile analyses of manager's ability to cope with change



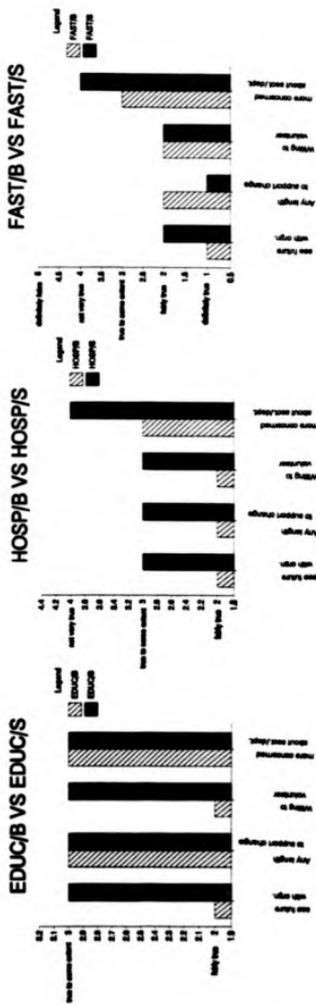
Profile analyses of manager's work relationships in a significant change



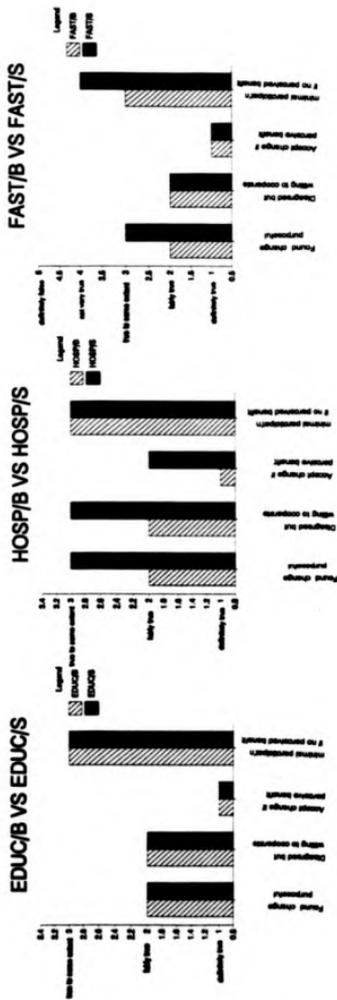
Profile analyses of manager's communication in a significant change



Profile analyses of manager's commitment
in a significant change



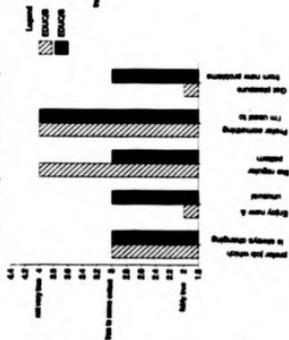
Profile analyses of the effect of perceived benefits on responses to change



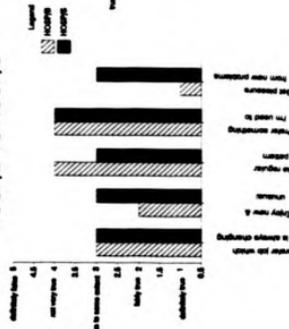
Appendix 23

Profile analyses of what manager's preferences are at work

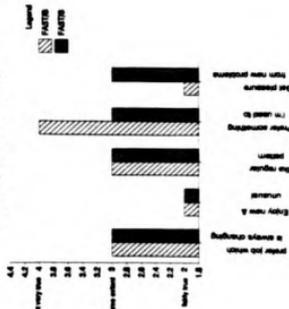
EDUC/B VS EDUC/S



HOSP/B VS HOSP/S

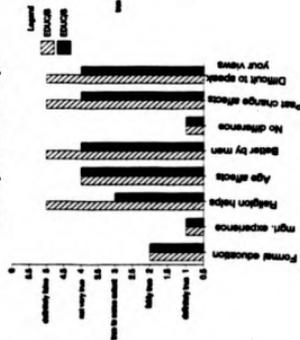


FAST/B VS FAST/S

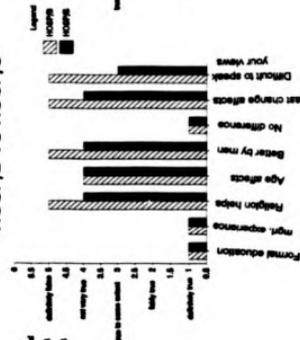


Profile analyses of the effect of miscellaneous factors in a change

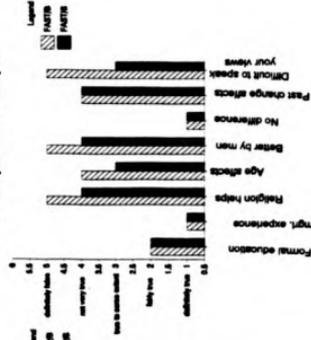
EDUC/B VS EDUC/S



HOSP/B VS HOSP/S



FAST/B VS FAST/S



APPENDIX 25: MANAGERS' PROFILE

		BRITAIN			SINGAPORE	
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S	
<u>Economic sector</u>						
quasi-public	quasi-public	private	quasi-public	quasi-public	private	
<u>Type of service</u>						
education	hospital	fastfood	education	hospital	fastfood	
<u>Type of staff</u>						
admin(2)	admin(1)	rest.mgrs	admin	admin(3)	rest.mgrs	
<u>Nationality</u>						
British	British	British	S'porean	S'porean	S'porean	
<u>Country of Origin</u>						
UK	UK	UK	S'pore	S'pore	S'pore	
<u>Country of birth</u>						
UK	UK	UK	S'pore	S'pore	S'pore	
<u>Qualifications</u>						
higher(1) degree	professionl qualifns	degree(1)	degree	degree(1)	0 levels	
<u>Years of Management Experience</u>						
4 yrs	10 yrs	3 yrs	5 yrs(4)	2 yrs(1)	1 yr	
<u>Years of Service</u>						
2 yrs	5 yrs	3 yrs	7 yrs(1)	5 yrs	1 yr	
<u>Sex</u>						
Male	Male	Male	Female	Female	Male	
<u>Age</u>						
36 yrs	27 yrs	24 yrs(1)	26 yrs(1)	30yrs	23 yrs	
<u>Have dependents?</u>						
Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes (1)	No (1)	
<u>Religion</u>						
Chris'n(9)	Chris'n(4)	Chris'n(9)	Chris'n(1)	Chris'n(6)	Chris'n(5)	

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values and the table is based on modes.

APPENDIX 26: MANAGERS' BACKGROUND EXPERIENCE OF SIGNIFICANT CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S

Frequency of change

(Scale: 1=very frequent, 2=fairly frequent, 3=occasionally, 4=rarely, 5=not at all)

fairly frequent(1)	fairly frequent(1)	fairly frequent(1)	fairly frequent	fairly frequent	fairly frequent
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Describe your experience of change

(Scale: 1=very rewarding, 2=fairly rewarding, 3=rewarding, 4=not rewarding, 5=not at all)

fairly rawdg(1)	fairly rawdg	fairly rawdg(2)	fairly rawdg(3)	not rawdg(2)	rawdg(1)
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Who institutes significant changes?

top/sr mgt(1)	top/sr mgt	top/sr mgt(2)	top/sr mgt(1)	top/sr mgt	top/sr mgt
---------------	------------	---------------	---------------	------------	------------

Who has benefited from significant changes?

others(4)	others(2)	every(1) -one	certain(3) employees	every(3) -one	certain employees
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Who is at a disadvantage through the significant change?

certain(3) employee	certain employee	certain(1) employee	certain(3) employee	certain(3) sect/dept	certain employee
------------------------	------------------	------------------------	------------------------	-------------------------	------------------

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.

APPENDIX 27: WHAT MANAGERS FIND DEMANDING IN A CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
(Scale: 1=very demanding, 2=demanding, 3=fairly demanding, 4=not demanding, 5=not at all)					
<u>Working under a new boss</u>					
fairly demandg	fairly demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly demandg	fairly demandg	demandg(2)
<u>Dealing with a diversity of things quickly</u>					
fairly demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly(2) demandg	demandg	fairly demandg	fairly demandg
<u>Having to work late each night for 3 weeks</u>					
fairly demandg	not demandg	not(2) demandg	fairly demandg	fairly demandg	demandg
<u>Relocating your office</u>					
not demandg	not demandg	fairly(4) demandg	fairly demandg	not demandg	fairly demandg
<u>Mental preoccupation with work</u>					
demandg	fairly demandg	demandg(1)	fairly(2) demandg	fairly(1) demandg	demandg
<u>Being given short notice of change</u>					
demandg	very demandg	demandg(1)	demandg	fairly demandg	demandg
<u>Innovation by others</u>					
fairly(1) demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly(3) demandg	not(2) demandg	fairly demandg	fairly(3) demandg
<u>Changing your present responsibilities</u>					
demandg(1)	fairly demandg	demandg(1)	fairly demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly demandg
<u>Managing work relationships at all levels</u>					
fairly demandg	fairly demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly(1) demandg	demandg	fairly demandg

.....
 Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.
- Table 3 continued overleaf.

APPENDIX 27 (continued): WHAT MANAGERS FIND DEMANDING IN A CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S

(Scale: 1=very demanding, 2=demanding, 3=fairly demanding, 4=not demanding, 5=not at all)

Transfer of authority and responsibility from your unit/dept

not(1) demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly(3) demandg	fairly demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly(1) demandg
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Communicating with others in a change

fairly(1) demandg	fairly demandg	fairly(1) demandg	fairly demandg	fairly demandg	fairly demandg
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Working to a tight schedule of change

demandg	demandg	demandg(1)	demandg	demandg	demandg
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Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.

APPENDIX 28: RELATIVITY OF DEMAND OR DIFFICULTY FOR MANAGERS

	BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S	
1. Which have you found demanding when there is a significant change? Please rank. (1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least)						
<u>Additional workload</u>						
most(1)	most(2)	most(12)	most(1)	most(1)	most(4)	
<u>Work relationships</u>						
average(4)	most(2)	fairly(18)	average(1)	fairly(2)	average(9)	
<u>New boss</u>						
less(5)	fairly(4)	most(17)	most(1)	most(3)	most(17)	
<u>New physical environment</u>						
least(4)	least(5)	less(19)	least(1)	least(1)	least(10)	
<u>Overtime little or no breaks</u>						
least(3)	least(3)	least(17)	less(1)	least(2)	most(11)	
2. Which have you found difficult to face when you have been candid about your ability to cope with change? Please rank in order of difficulty. (1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least)						
<u>Relationship tensions</u>						
fairly(5)	fairly(2)	fairly(17)	average(1)	fairly(3)	less(15)	
<u>Jeopardizing one's career prospects</u>						
fairly(9)	average	average(19)	fairly(2)	most(4)	average(20)	
<u>Bosses' disapproval</u>						
average(8)	average	least(18)	most(2)	average(3)	fairly(14)	
<u>Loss of financial reward</u>						
least(7)	least(1)	less(18)	least(2)	least(3)	less(18)	
<u>Feelings of personal failure</u>						
most(7)	most(2)	most(14)	most(1)	most(4)	most(15)	

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.
- Table 4 continued overleaf.

APPENDIX 28 (continued): RELATIVITY OF DEMAND OR DIFFICULTY
FOR MANAGERS

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
3. During a process of significant change, many people find they need more time to learn, understand and adjust to change. In order of preference which would you find you are prepared to sacrifice to accommodate the change process? Please rank. (1=most, 2=fairly, 3=average, 4=less, 5=least)					
<u>Leisure time</u>					
average(6)	average(2)	less(18)	average(2)	average(2)	average(13)
<u>In-between breaks</u>					
most(5)	most	fairly(18)	most(2)	most(2)	most(16)
<u>Lunch time</u>					
fairly(5)	fairly(1)	fairly(19)	fairly(2)	fairly(3)	fairly(17)
<u>Time for your family</u>					
least(4)	least(3)	least(19)	least(2)	least(3)	least(14)
<u>Weekends</u>					
less(6)	less(2)	average(22)	less(2)	less(3)	less(14)

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.

APPENDIX 29: WHAT MANAGERS FIND HELPFUL IN A CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
<u>Being consulted before a change</u>					
most h.	most h.	most h. (1)	most h.	most h.	most h.
<u>Being well informed</u>					
most h.	most h.	most h. (1)	most h.	most h.	most h.
<u>Having more status</u>					
helpf	fairly h.	helpf(2)	helpf(2)	helpf(1)	helpf(1)
<u>Financial incentives</u>					
helpf	helpf	most h. (1)	helpf(1)	helpf(1)	most h.
<u>Perceived benefits of the change</u>					
helpf	most h.	helpf(1)	helpf	helpf	helpf(2)
<u>Peer and staff cooperation</u>					
most h.	most h.	most h. (1)	most h.	most h.	most h.
<u>Having full discretion</u>					
helpf	helpf	helpf(1)	helpf	helpf	helpf(1)
<u>Changing your present staff</u>					
helpf	fairly h.	not h. (2)	fairly h.	not h.	not h.
<u>Having more authority</u>					
helpf	helpf	helpf(2)	helpf	fairly h.	helpf
<u>Being able to go home on time</u>					
fairly h.	fairly h.	most h. (2)	helpf	helpf(1)	fairly h.

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.

APPENDICES 30 to 31: WHAT MANAGERS FIND DEMANDING IN A CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S

APPENDIX 30: Individual power and influence

1. In your organisation, you have often exercised your discretion in significant changes.

definitely true	definitely true	some(1) extent	some(1) extent	some extent	some extent
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2. You have been able to reverse a decision or seek a compromise in a change that had immediate impact on you or your staff.

some extent	definitely true	some(1) extent	some(1) extent	some(1) extent	fairly true
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3. You have found that normally staff are expected to accept orders without question.

notvery(2) true	fairly true	fairly true	some(1) extent	notvery true	notvery true
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4. You have found that senior management consults your views on change in your section or department.

fairly true	some extent	some(2) extent	some(1) extent	some extent	some(1) extent
-------------	-------------	----------------	----------------	-------------	----------------

APPENDIX 31: Ability to cope with change

5. The pace of change at work is increasing.

definitely true	definitely true	definitely true	fairly(2) true	some extent	definitely true
-----------------	-----------------	-----------------	----------------	-------------	-----------------

6. The pace of change creates constant work pressure for you.

definitely true	definitely true	fairly true	fairly(1) true	some extent	definitely true
-----------------	-----------------	-------------	----------------	-------------	-----------------

7. Change often upsets routines and bring inconveniences for you.

some extent	some extent	some extent	some(1) extent	some extent	fairly true
-------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	-------------	-------------

8. Continuing change is increasingly difficult to accommodate.

some extent	definitely(1) true	notvery(1) true	notvery(1) true	some extent	some extent
-------------	--------------------	-----------------	-----------------	-------------	-------------

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- Both tables are based on modes.

- Table 6.3 to 6.6 continued on the next 2 pages.

APPENDICES 32 to 33: WHAT MANAGERS FIND DEMANDING IN A CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S

APPENDIX 32: Work relationships

9. You can often count on the help of others in your organisation during a significant change.

some extent	fairly true	some extent	some(2) extent	some extent	some extent
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10. Others in your organisation find you cooperative in any significant change.

fairly(1) true	fairly true	fairly true	fairly(2) true	fairly true	fairly true
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11. Whenever there is a significant change, you have found quite a lot of friction and not such cooperation between departments.

some extent	some(1) extent	notvery true	some(1) extent	notvery(1) true	notvery true
----------------	-------------------	-----------------	-------------------	--------------------	-----------------

12. You have found your boss(es) not very approachable in a significant change.

notvery true	notvery true	notvery true	notvery(1) true	notvery(1) true	some extent
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APPENDIX 33: Communications

13. You have found that you know of changes within a short period (eg. 2-3 weeks) before they happen.

notvery true	some extent	fairly true	notvery(1) true	fairly true	some extent
-----------------	----------------	----------------	--------------------	----------------	----------------

14. Management is approachable and good at listening to explanations when there are problems in a change situation.

fairly(1) true	some extent	some(1) extent	some(1) extent	some(1) extent	some extent
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15. You get conflicting orders and instructions in a change.

notvery true	some extent	notvery true	some(1) extent	some(1) extent	fairly true
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16. You have withheld information from management during a change.

definitely true	notvery true	notvery true	notvery(1) true	definitely(1) true	notvery true
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Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- Both tables are based on modes.
- Tables 8.5 to 6.6 continued overleaf.

APPENDICES 34 TO 35: WHAT MANAGERS FIND DEMANDING IN A CHANGE

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S

APPENDIX 34: Commitment

17. You see future prospects with this organisation.

fairly true	fairly true	definitely true	some(2) extent	some extent	fairly true
-------------	-------------	-----------------	----------------	-------------	-------------

18. You would go to any length to support the changes your organisation tries to make.

some extent	fairly true	fairly true	some(3) extent	some extent	definitely true
-------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	-------------	-----------------

19. ... In fact, you are often willing to volunteer help to see a change successfully implemented.

fairly true	fairly true	fairly true	some(3) extent	some(1) extent	fairly true
-------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	----------------	-------------

20. In a change, you tend to be more concerned about the interests of your section or department rather than the wider organisation objectives.

some extent	some extent	some extent	some(1) extent	notvery true	notvery true
-------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	--------------	--------------

APPENDIX 35: Perceived benefits

21. In recent years, you have found the significant changes in this organisation, purposeful.

fairly(1) true	fairly true	fairly true	fairly(1) true	some(1) extent	some(2) extent
----------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	----------------	----------------

22. Although you disagreed with the purpose of some changes, you were always willing to cooperate.

fairly(1) true	fairly true	fairly true	fairly(1) true	some extent	fairly(1) true
----------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	-------------	----------------

23. You accept change if you perceive benefit from it.

definitely true	definitely true	definitely true	definitely(1) true	fairly true	definitely true
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24. You would participate to a minimal extent in a change if you did not perceive benefit from it.

some extent	some extent	some extent	some(1) extent	some extent	notvery true
-------------	-------------	-------------	----------------	-------------	--------------

Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- Both tables are based on modes.

APPENDIX 36: WHAT ARE MANAGERS' PREFERENCES AT WORK

BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S

(Scale of preference: 1=definitely true, 2=fairly true, 3=true to some extent, 4=not very true, 5=definitely false)

I prefer a job which is always changing.

"true to some extent" for all 6 organisations

I enjoy finding myself in new and unusual circumstances

fairly true	fairly true	fairly true	some extent	some extent	fairly true
-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

I like to have a regular pattern in my working day

notvery(1) true	notvery true	some extent	some extent	some extent	some extent
-----------------	--------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------

I would generally prefer to do something I am used to rather than something that is different.

notvery(1) true	notvery true	notvery true	notvery true	notvery true	some extent
-----------------	--------------	--------------	--------------	--------------	-------------

I get a lot of pleasure from taking on new problems.

fairly true	definitely true	fairly true	some extent	some extent	some extent
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Did the change achieve its original purpose?

Yes(1)	Yes	Yes(10)	Yes(8)	Yes(5)	Yes(12)
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Note: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.

APPENDIX 37: THE EFFECT OF 'MISCELLANEOUS' FACTORS IN A CHANGE

	BRITAIN			SINGAPORE		
	EDUC/B	HOSP/B	FAST/B	EDUC/S	HOSP/S	FAST/S
1. You have found that formal education enables you to cope better with change.	fairly(4) true	d.true	fairly true	fairly(1) true	d.true	fairly true
2. You have found that managerial and supervisory experience enables you to cope better with change.	d.true(1)	d.true	d.true	d.true(1)	d.true	d.true
3. You have found that your religion helps you to cope with change.	d.false(5)	d.false	d.false(5)	some(2) extant	notvery(2) true	notvery(1) true
4. You have found that age affects your ability to cope with change: the older, the more resistant to change.	notvery true	notvery true	notvery(1) true	notvery(1) true	notvery true	some extant
5. In your opinion, you have found that change is better received if it is directed by men than women.	d.false(2)	d.false	d.false(2)	notvery(1) true	notvery true	notvery true
6. You have found no difference in whether change is directed by men or women.	d.true(2)	d.true	d.true	d.true(2)	d.true	d.true(2)
7. You have found that your past experience of change in your organisation has given you a negative outlook on future change.	d.false	d.false	notvery true	notvery(1) true	notvery true	notvery(1) true
8. On the whole, you have found it difficult to feel free to speak your views to your boss about changes that you disagree with.	d.false	d.false	d.false	notvery(1) true	some(1) extant	some extant

Notes: () - the numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of missing values

- The table is based on modes.

Abbreviations: - d.true=definitely true,
fairly true,
some extant=true to some extent,
notvery true=not very true,
d.false=definitely false