

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Organizations no doubt operate in environment fraught with dynamism and complexities. It is these characteristics of the environment that has increasingly engendered phenomenal strategic actions targeted at ensuring organizational survival and competitive ability. Recent technological breakthroughs have changed work processes from the hitherto traditional processes which in-turn requires new work skills by the employees at work in order to undertake assigned tasks. Characteristically, changing technologies have thrown up amongst firms the debate on competitiveness as firms strive towards having a share of their market through provision of quality products or rendering value-added services.

Associated with technological changes at work is the restructuring of work, which has equally affected design of job tasks. In other words, the increased or reduced span of work has resulted to structural changes, perhaps as a way of ensuring proper assignment of tasks and in some instances, downsizing to ensure optimal efficiency and profitability which are central objectives of organizations (Jaja,2003; Tamunomiehi, 2007; Gogo and Ibimina, 2009). The implications according to Lens and Ezra (2009) is that communication lapses, poor work skills and management inability to recognize and reward key participants which are problems identified by the authors in the investigated firms. Changing the scenario requires the need for

continuous learning programs and effective communication system. This will convey messages about the change effort across the organizations, as management implementation of reward strategy among staff will enhance organizational competitiveness.

Change management targeted at competitiveness requires that organizations learn to create an environment that facilitates acquisition of new knowledge area that are capable of helping to improve operational process while at the same time renewing strategic attempt that will ensure employee commitment to intended goals of change (Peters and Miles, 2001; Anaele, 2005; Ekuntosi, 2009). This of course demands that managers may often time proactively initiate renewal programs that represent change as a means of staying competitive.

Customers increasing demand for value added service in addition to changing socio-economic circumstance of the environment have sufficiently spurred several operational changes that may lead to structural, cultural and technological changes. Importantly, change initiatives are required in this circumstance to strategically achieve marked out goals. These change programs though desired have often times suffered lack of acceptance either due to practical expression of inertia or improper implementation approaches and have resulted to the awful resistance that most times accompany change (Walsh, 2003; Paul and Shabbyi, 2007). This suggests

that, for change to meet its objective, strategic and planned approach to managing change is imperative.

The transformational effort of government in terms of repositioning the tourism sector for economic growth had no doubt changed the operational space of the hospitality sector. Ogunlewa (2007) observed that there are new policy initiatives that are targeted at attracting tourists, therefore the need to improve on quality of services rendered by the hospitality sector which is key in the realization of this goal. Secondly, personnel and operational capacity must be enhanced to meet the fast changing customer taste. All these simply means operational changes are required to meet the imposing challenge of competitiveness thereof. Pascale (2010) has also argued that the hospitality sector is an image building sector as it caters for people from all different parts of the globe therefore, should function with a global focus and best practices.

Ensuring the competitiveness of the sector with a view to gaining strategic advantage has attracted a volume of scholarly efforts. Much of the attention in relation to ensuring competitiveness is operational, administrative and functional changes. It entails adapting new technologies that facilitates work process aimed at quality service delivery. In addition, structural mechanism that creates flexible relational climate for effective and efficient service delivery are also important especially when considered in the light of globalization. All of these impose the need for change that comes with its primary motive of ensuring attainment of goals. The capacity to manage change to

achieve desired objective is key while initiating change whether it is discontinuous or incremental. Therefore, this study examines the empirical relationship between change management and organizational competitiveness.

The hospitality sector development by the colonialist is traced to the development of the abundant government “Catering Rest Houses” established mostly between 1920s and 1930s in virtually all provinces across the country. These gradually transited into operational hotels owned by the Federal and State Governments. Good examples are Metropolitan Hotel, Port Harcourt; Central Hotel Kano, Ikoyi Hotel Lagos and Hill Station Hotel Jos. These hotels came under the management of Nigeria Hotels Limited and some were sold to private individuals under the privatization scheme as it were. However, the public corporations and organized private sector later participated in the ownership of hotels to include Transcorp Hotel which was managed under contract management of Hilton Group, Sheraton, Federal Palace and few others.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The increased level of competitiveness amongst firms owed to increased environmental factors has attracted attention from both scholars and practitioners alike. Particularly, Port Harcourt has witnessed over the years a tremendous inflow of people as it plays host to several oil firms that operates in the oil and gas sector of the economy. The implication of this influx of people is the increased pressure on

accommodation within the city metropolis which has attendantly created investment platform for the hospitality sector (Ezeji, 2009).

Child and Casser (2002) had referred to the collapsed operational barriers resulting from globalization which has made it difficult for managers to appropriately forecast within local frontiers, what constitute threats to their business survival. Contemporary technological breakthroughs in advanced work setting has heightened the competitiveness in terms of quality product and service delivery thereby leaving the burden of having little or no share of the market to the less technologically advanced developing countries (Krejna and Paratomilla, 2006). The hospitality sector is a major beneficiary of these technological breakthroughs therefore had consistently changed the way services are rendered. Most of their services are fast been conducted electronically thereby shifting away from the manual practices which were hitherto the case.

In order to remain functional in an increasingly competitive environment, strategic organizational actions are embarked upon deliberately both in administration and process activities of the organization. This infers change programs targeted at repositioning the organization for competitiveness. Ibanga (2005) however noted that change as it were, can channel efforts towards reaching goals but this can only be achieved with marching strategies that promotes overall commitment of all work members. Lucy and Fubara (2009) espoused that communicational lapses, poor work

skills and management inability to recognize and reward key participants in change programs have in most cases acted against the essence of change.

These elements noted by Lucy and Fubara as likely impedance to effective change implementation are rooted across sectors. In the hospitality sector which this study is conducted, low level operational competencies and capabilities exist due to inability of firms in the sector to create continuous learning approaches that are likely to ensure acquisition of the new knowledge areas that comes with change programs. This is also a resultant effect of management inability to effectively communicate change objectives. Notably, employees resist change effort of organizations when they are not made to understand the associated benefits and the overall goal intended. In most cases, employees believe that they are unable to earn accruable rewards from change commensurately because they were not effectively communicated on the primary objectives of the change program alongside benefits. Change initiatives have hitherto not attained targeted objectives where recourse was not made to the management styles that are likely to attract all stakeholders commitment. Indeed, if the position of Ottah (2008) on positive link between change management and performance of firms in the banking sector is anything to go by, there is also the imposing need to explore the nature of empirical link between change management and competitiveness in the hospitality sector which currently has had high rate of proliferation of hotels therefore this study is set out to examine the relationship.

Essentially, the inability of management in the hospitality sector to underscore the dynamics of change has also come with its associated cost of poor quality service delivery, low level operational capacity and low responsive rate (agility). For instance, employees who do not have the requisite competencies due to poor continuous learning for acquiring new competencies will not be favourable to rendering quality services.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The general objective of this study is to ascertain if change management is a tool for enhancing organizational competitiveness. The specific objectives are:

1. To find if there is a significant relationship between continuous learning approach to managing change and operational capability in order to effectively manage change in the hospitality sector.
2. To determine if there is a significant relationship between effective communication as a change management effort and improved service quality so that change can be properly managed..
3. To determine if there is a significant relationship between reward package as change management approach and agility in an organizational change management effort.
4. To ascertain if management style as a change management tool significantly influences innovativeness in order to effectively manage change in the hospitality sector.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research study is guided by the following research questions:

1. To what extent does continuous learning as a change management effort on operational capability?
2. To what extent does effective communication as a change management approach on improved service quality?
3. To what extent does reward package as a change management approach influence a firm's agility?
4. To what extent does management style as a change management tool influence innovativeness?

1.5 HYPOTHESES

From the purpose of the study, a focus is established on the issues to be examined in the study and thereafter, the research questions that guide the investigation. Based on this, the study has also hypothesized as follows:

- H_A1: Continuous learning as a dimension of change management significantly relates with operational capability.
- H_A2: There is a significant relationship between effective communication as a change management dimension and improved service quality.
- H_A3: Reward package as a change management effort significantly relates with an organization's agility.

H_A4: There is a significant relationship between management style as a change management approach and innovativeness.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study will be significant in the following ways:

- It will provide managers of work organizations the requisite knowledge that is needed to initiate and oversee change programs with a view to enlisting support of all stakeholders against inertia that accompanies change program.
- It will ensure that organizational operators and employees alike are exposed to understanding the dynamics of the environment that prompts change with a reflection of the context in which change is carried out.
- The study outcome will enable top management to have an appreciation of the dichotomous characteristic of change and formulate policies that will leverage outcomes and perhaps acceptability.
- The study will provide breakthrough for further research effort in the area for other researchers while at same time enriching knowledge scope in the area of managing change in work organizations.
- The study outcome will empirically establish the nature of the relationship between organizational efforts at managing change as a strategic action aimed at repositioning the firm within its environment.

The research will be a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of PhD in Business Administration to the researcher in the Department of Business Administration, NnamdiAzikiwe University Awka, Anambra State.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study on change management is no doubt an expansive world of study. Therefore, the scope of this research is drawn in terms of content, geography and level of analysis.

The content scope is essentially management of change and competitiveness of firms. The geographical scope is the hospitality sector of the economy as operated in Port Harcourt, Rivers State of Nigeria. The level of analysis is the organization, using the individual employees (management and workers) as the unit of analysis.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study had some limitations. First, the defined characteristics of number of employees, classification (4 and 5 stars), computerized check-in and check-out front desk, swimming pool, functional laundry made it impossible for all hotels being included. In addition, budgetary constraints were also experienced since the researcher needs to consciously visit target hotel and ensure high level of commitment by participants. Again, time was another constraint for the study since it was conducted

within academic time period alongside other academic activities which made it difficult for long-term observation of the behavioural perspectives of change.

There was also concern for the possibility of common methods/same source bias since change management and competitiveness were measured in same questionnaire by same respondents. The challenge of sampling error had though existed in relation to the huge nature of the population of operators in the hospitality sector of Port Harcourt metropolis. This was however put in perspective while selecting the sample by stating categorically the classification of hotels that make up our sample size categorization. This helped to minimize the bias that would have been associated with sampling. For non-sampling error, it was mitigated by ensuring the knowledge level of respondents so as not to respond to the survey question items with bias.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter will examine the literature on the subject studied and establish a theoretical framework for the study. It is important that in a study of this nature, a clear understanding of the theoretical underpinnings will help to establish a point of departure and at same time establish the dimensions that critically describe the various constructs investigated.

In this review, we will proceed as follows:

- * Conceptual Review
- * Theoretical Framework
- * Change Management Models and Theories
- * Change Management Dimensions and Competitiveness
- * Competitiveness

2.1 CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Change management provides a platform for organizations to become competitive, allowing such organizations to quickly and effectively implement change to meet market needs. Sonja (2004) defined change management as the application of a structured process and set of tools for leading the people side of change to achieve a desired outcome. Change management emphasizes the people side of change and targets leadership within all levels of an organization. This includes executives, senior leaders, middle managers and line managers. When change management is

effectively applied, people feel engaged in the change process and work collectively towards a common objective, realizing benefits and delivering results.

Lucy and Snenda (2009) posits that change management means defining and adopting corporate strategies, structures, procedures and technologies to deal with changes in external conditions and the business environment. This flows with the view of Narekhe and Muzo (2008) that change management is the process, tools and techniques to manage the people side of business change to achieve the required business outcomes, and to realize that business change effectively within the social infrastructure of the workplace. Demison and Emilda (2007) stated that change management is a systematic approach to dealing with change, both from the perspective of an organization and on the individual level. They affirmed that change management has three different aspects, including adapting to change, controlling change and affecting change. Therefore, organizations must define and implement procedures and/or technologies to deal with changes in the business environment and to profit from changing opportunities. The more effectively an organization deals with change, the more likely it will thrive as the fierce competition in today's market is led by advances in industrial technology, increased globalization and tremendous improvement in information availability (Bovett and Sheffi, 1998). Competitive priorities have forced organizations to change dramatically due to rising customer expectation, continually increasing competition on a world-wide scale, time and quality based competition and mass customization. Networks, strategic alliances, human capital development and

knowledge management are the works that are dispatching most adequately the changing forms of industrial activities (Lambert, 2000).

In this era, organizations are forced to reform their operations and improve work skills and competences, improve on employee reward practices, relational approaches in order to cope with the ensuing competitiveness. Change management has evolved strongly as a means to survive the imposing challenge of competitiveness. Through change management, attention will be drawn to operational processes, customers will be serviced with quality focus and there will also be an internalized marketing approach that will be value-added for employees. Change management as it were, includes all such radical organizational actions that are strategically designed to accomplish targets.

Demison and Emilda (2007) have sounded, having mulled the entire change management phenomenon, that most of the literature concentrates on 'best practices' for successful implementation of change and thus provide models, frameworks and tools for managing changing effectively. This does not mean that the models for managing change have not been grounded in academic theory or research. Change management according to Albert and Jill (2005) is a multidisciplinary approach and the models often incorporate findings from many fields including organizational behaviour, business process reengineering, total quality management, project management and many others. Albert and Jill further categorized the change

management models into four broad categories which includes, (i) the models which provide prescriptive steps of what to do and what not to do (Kanter et al 1992; Carr et al, 1996; Clinton, 1997; Canterucci, 1998; Ready, 2004) which have been developed from authors experiences with organizations; (ii) the second group are models which overview the entire change process using more of a problem solving and traditional project management methodology (Bemmis and Mische, 1995; Clarke and Garside, 1997, Connor & Lake, 2002); (iii) the third group are models developed from the change literature specifically to consider complex enabled change (Benjamin and Levison, 1993; Kleim, 1996); (iv) the fourth group provide specific diagnostic tools and approaches to support key change management issues such as resistance to change (Jellison 1993; Kotter and Marshall, 1996; Schesinger, 2001), rates of adoption of change for individuals (Jick, 1993), communication (Barrett and Luedecke, 1996), stakeholder analysis (Grundy, 1997), organizational culture (Schneider, 1998) and organizational justice (Beugie, 1998).

There is a reasonable consensus in literature regarding the critical ingredients needed for successful change management program. From the foregoing, what is largely conceptualized and require operationalization is its empirical link with competitiveness. In the light of this, we have summarized the thought conceptually in Figure 1 below.

CHANGING ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

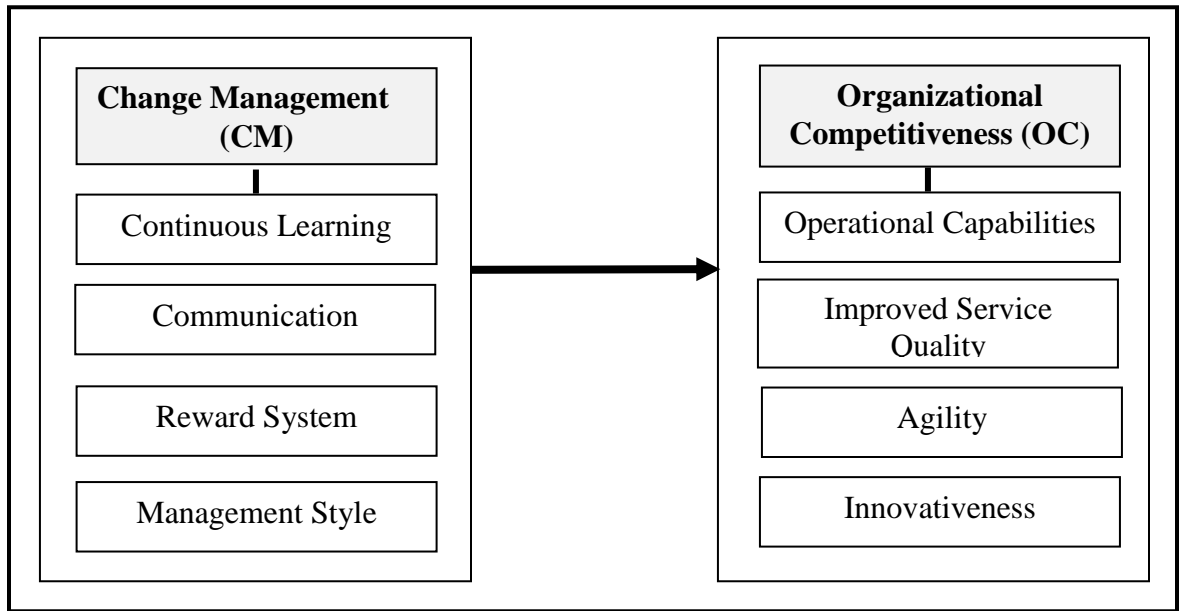


Fig 1: Conceptual Model on Change Management and Organizational Competitiveness

2.1.1 Origin Of The Hospitality Sector In Nigeria

The development of the hospitality sector by the colonialist is apparent with the development of the ubiquitous government “Catering Rest Houses” established mostly between 1920s and 1930s in virtually all provinces across the country. Other guest houses, inns, lodges and hotels sprang up overtime and were run by corporate organizations. From what was then catering rest houses, they developed into full fledged hotels owned by the Federal and State Governments. Instances are given of the Metropolitan Hotel, Port Harcourt; Central Hotel, Kano; Ikoyi Hotel, Lagos; Hill Station Hotel, Jos; among others. These hotels came under the management of Nigeria Hotels Limited and some were sold to private individuals under the privatization scheme as it were. Some states also inherited the rest houses to transform them into

State Hotels like those found in the Northern part of the country in 1930s. The public corporations and organized private sector were also encouraged to participate in the hotels found across cities to include Transcorp Hotel which was managed under contract management of Hilton Group, Sheraton, Federal Palace and few others.

Importantly, Cournoyer et al (1999) noted that, it is recognized that hotels, restaurant, airlines, entertainment and the tourism sector worldwide are operating in a rapidly changing environment. By the early 1990s, travelers have started booking hotel rooms and airline seats sitting right in their homes, without having to visit the hotels and as the years run by, payments are made through online courtesy of internet facilities.

Michael (2002) observed that at the beginning of the twentieth century, innkeepers around the world were offering beds to wayfarers in single location small inn and by the middle of the century, it became common place for hotels to have many branches in different location, and offering bigger facilities, heralding the era of mega international hotel chain companies. What this portends for the sector is a rapid change in operational and administrative firms which is also compelled by the increased proliferation of hotels in the wake of private sector participation. The management of these changing operational circumstances requires deliberate strategic actions as a basis for stemming the associated competitiveness.

2.1.2 Hotel History of Change

For this study particularly, research focus is majorly on some five star hotels like Le Meridien, Novotel Accor, Golden Tulip and Juanita. Others are Presidential Hotel, Aldgate Congress, Landmark and The Elkan Terrace. These hotels have a long history of change programs that bothers on strategic effort to having their own share of the competitive market. For instance, Le Meridien a five star hotel with global image in the past recent years changed the check-in from manual to digital which is essentially electronic (E-checkin). This enables guests to undertake bookings through the internet and perhaps can be checked into the hotel without conventional front-desk procedures. The interface of the e-checkin in terms of security checks are also electronically undertaken using screening machines. A point of note here is that all these tends to alter the status-quo operational modes which are manually carried out with quality outcomes that depletes their market share. In addition, the Le Meridien meal request is yet another change program that is targeted at timely delivery of meals on request giving advance details of ready meals to guests who might be willing to get to the restaurant for their meals. This reduces the challenge of long wait by guests and restaurant service personnel which ordinarily is a cost on operation.

Similarly, the Hotel Presidential, another five star hotel located within the city centre in Port Harcourt is undergoing restructuring and strategic operational reforms (change) to reposition itself within the sector. The hotel which has operated for many decades has a long history of serving VIP clientele across all sectors of the economy. They have also enjoyed patronage from diplomatic communities who considered it a very

secured and comfortable home-away-from-home. To maintain its status and strengthen her position in the hospitality sector, the hotel operates an e-security system that is contemporary and capable of overwhelming modern urban security threats. For conventional hotel operations which include accommodation, laundry, restaurants, bar, gymnasium, function halls and others, the hotel has continuously evolved means of quality operations for quality service delivery. Their check-in, food and drink require accounting system, inventory practices have been automated allowing for real time service delivery, reduced operational cost amongst others. Again, these change efforts targeted at strengthening the position of the hotel in the sector had undoubtedly come along with their associated challenges which have also attracted concrete strategies aimed at managing the change programs and achieving the desired goals of operational efficiency, agility and improved service quality.

2.2 CHANGE MANAGEMENT MODELS AND THEORIES

Change management, which falls within the broader theoretical framework of social change, has been a perennially popular topic in the organizational effectiveness and management literature. Identifying the need for organization-wide change and leading the organization through that change, is widely recognized as one of the most critical and challenging responsibilities of organizational leadership. This underscores the prevalent scholarly attempt at theory building in the area. In this vein, we attempt to explore most of the leading theories and models of change management. Change management models and theories discussed in this study are outlined below:

- * The Action Research Model/Theory (Collier, 1945; Lewin, 1946; French, 1969; Schein, 1980);
- * Lewin's Three-Step Model (Lewin, 1945; Lewin, 1951);
- * Schein's Extension of Lewin's Change Model (Schein, 1980);
- * The Lippit, Watson and Westley model of planned change which expanded Lewin's Three-Step Model to a Five-Phase Model (Lippit, Watson, and Westley, 1958);
- * Kotter's Strategic Eight-Step Model (Kotter, 1996);
- * Mento, Jones and Dirmdofer's Twelve-Step Model (Mento, Jones and Dirmdofer's 2002);
- * Jick's Ten-Step Model (Jick, 2003; Jick, 2001); and
- * Shield's five-step model (Schield, 1999).

Action Research Model

Action research is a combination of changing not only attitudes and behavior, but also testing the change method being utilized (McShane and Von Glinow, 2005; Collier, 1945; Lewin, 1945, 1951; French, 1969; Schein, 1980; Argyris, 1970, 1968). The first part of the change process must be action-oriented because the ultimate goal is to make change happen. The second part revolves around trying different frameworks in a real situation to verify whether or not the theories really work or applying the various theories in various situations that require change. The process of action research is first to diagnose a need for change (unfreezing), then to introduce an intervention (moving)

and finally to evaluate and stabilize change (refreezing). Each of these steps in the process is consistent with the three stages in Lewin's Model. In relating this to the speed at which some changes must occur, this approach may be useful if it is done through the process of drills or exercises. For instance, in most organizations, employees are regularly subjected to fire safety drills so that in the event that a real fire were to occur, the employee and managers alike have learned behaviors on exiting the building quickly to reduce the potential dangers to human life.

Lewin's Model

In Lewin's Model, there is a stipulation for three distinct steps in change management if it is to be effective. Those are unfreezing the present, moving from the present and freezing. If this model is not followed, then changes will be short-lived. In other words, you can cause needed change to occur.

However, in order for change to be permanent, you must dismantle the present (and the capability to move back to the present), move from the present to the future and put in place the people and processes to ensure permanency (Lewin, 1951). This model is still relevant in terms of what to do. However, the speed at which it must be done has increased dramatically. Lewin's Model is one for planned change, not responses to unplanned change. Yet it is applicable when unplanned change occurs, particularly if we know in advance that there is some probability that the change will occur. Examples are operations related changes and government policy due to legislative act

agencies in charge of responses to the changes may have experienced various structural and reporting changes.

However, months after these changes occurred, affected constituents/employees may show complacency or unwillingness. Perhaps the right organizational leaders, processes and structure are not in place. Perhaps we did not completely dismantle the present and move from it to the needed change, or we did not freeze the changes (make them permanent).

Schein's (1980) Extension of Lewin's Change Model

Schein (1980) discusses the three steps of Lewin's Change Model as three stages of change and describes ways to unfreeze an organization, move it from the status quo to a future state and freeze the changes. He indicates that for unfreezing to work and for people in the organization to embrace change, they must experience a need for change, i.e., dissatisfaction with the status quo. Then, once the need for change and the desired change are introduced, people will see the gap between what exists and what will exist. Because of guilt and/or anxiety, people will be motivated to reduce the gap and achieve the desired change. In order to be productive, and to efficiently and effectively accomplish the required change, people must feel psychologically safe. They must be assured that moving/changing will not cause them humiliation, punishment, or loss of self esteem (Schein, 1980). The terminology for stage two moving or changing, involves what Schein (1980) calls *cognitive restructuring*. The purpose of Stage Two

is to help people see and respond to things differently in the future. In order for Stage Two to be effective, people must identify with new role models for the cognitive restructuring. Also, they must acquire new, relevant information that can help them move forward with needed changes (Schein, 1980).

Schein (1992) has segmented Stage Three (Refreezing) into two parts; self and relations with others. In order to make changes permanent, people must personally make the changed way of doing things a comfortable part of their respective self-concepts. They also must ensure that their respective attitudes and behavior are aligned with the system and relationships with others, both of which must become frozen, in other words, permanently changed (Schein, 1980).

Lippitt, Watson and Westley's Expansion of Lewin's Change Model

The terminology and number of steps of Lewin's Model are expanded and changed by Lippitt, Watson and Westley (1958). Their Change Model includes five phases instead of three steps since steps imply discrete actions. They insert steps as follows: after Unfreezing, Phase Two is Establish a Change Relationship and after Refreezing, Phase Five is Achieve a Terminal Relationship (Lippitt, Watson and Westley, 1958).

Kotter's Model

Kotter (1998) developed a model which should be used at the strategic level of an organization to change its vision and subsequently transform the organization. Studies using this model have shown that the change process goes through a set of phases. Each phase lasts a certain amount of time and mistakes at any phase can impact the success of the change. Kotter's eight step approach to change management is as follows: (1) People typically prefer the status-quo. Change means uncertainty about what the future looks like. Uncertainty makes people uncomfortable. Furthermore, people tend to mistrust things about which they are uncertain. That is why people avoid change. To encourage people to assist with the change, you must create a sense of urgency (Kotter, 1998). (2) This step is similar to interventions in drug treatment. You can try and battle the resistance to change that people have by yourself, or you can make your life much easier by enlisting the help of others. To counteract resistance, one option is to form a powerful coalition of managers to work with the most resistant people (Kotter, 1998). (3) While it is not impossible to get things done without a definite plan of action, it is much simpler (and you get more cooperation) if there is a clear plan in place. Since the status quo is more comfortable for most people, they are likely to revert to business as usual and not flow with changes without a plan in place. Creating a vision and the strategies for achieving the vision will help expedite the change (Kotter, 1996, 1998). (4) If people do not know that change is coming or has occurred, they are more likely to resist the change. Assume that a co-worker makes the following statement: What's wrong with you? That's not the way we're doing that anymore! Such a comment makes it clear that some big news about changes in the

workplace has somehow escaped you. If that is the case, it is probably because management failed to communicate the vision throughout the organization change (Kotter, 1996, 1998). (5) Remembering once again that people tend to prefer the status quo and are apprehensive about new experiences, they must be encouraged or inspired to change. Also, if you want them to do something new, you will probably get more cooperation from them if you teach them how first and then give them the new tools necessary to do things the new way. This step empowers others to act on the vision by removing barriers to change and encouraging risk taking and creative problem solving change (Kotter, 1996, 1998). (6) This step seems to be an extension of Step 5. People need to be rewarded when they break away from old behaviors and do something that is new and desirable. Basically it is positive reinforcement. This is the step where you plan for, create and reward short-term wins that move the organization toward the new vision (Kotter, 1996, 1998). (7) By this step, resistance should be diminishing, but you still need to observe actions. It is that same status quo thing. So, you nurture the change and make adjustments as necessary (Kotter, 1996, 1998). (8) When it comes to work, you can never tell someone enough about all the good reasons why the things they do make them and the company a success. Otherwise, some people will tend to behave as if they have no reason to do anything differently than they did before. So, to make the changes more permanent, you should reinforce them by demonstrating the relationship between new behaviors and organizational success (Kotter, 1996, 1998).

Jick's Model

Jick's model (2003) is geared more towards a tactical level of change. Therefore, it can be used like a recipe to guide and initiate change or to evaluate change that is already occurring in an organization. This model can be used to show that change is an ongoing process and that questions asked at each step should be ongoing and often overlap (Jick, 2003).

Mento, Jones and Dimdorfer's Model

Mento, Jones and Dimdorfer's model recommends twelve steps to lead the transformational change. This model is based on research of other change models but has been updated based on experiences from the late 1990s (Mento, Jones and Dimdorfer, 2002).

Shield's Model

Shield's (1999) model builds on the idea that when change fails, it is because of insufficient attention to the human and cultural aspects of business. Shields suggest that there are critical components that are necessary for leaders to change an organization. If a change occurs in one component and one does not align the other components, this will lead to inefficient work processes. This system integrates human resources management with business process innovations. Organizational leaders who are considering change should clearly understand which strategies they want to change and define critical success factors so that they will know the extent to which the desired change is possible. Some of the change models do not address this phase of

change. Organizations must communicate the strategic objectives to the work force. If this is not done, the transformation effort will be reduced to a series of unrelated change initiatives. Finally, organizational leaders must review each of the work elements to identify their degree of alignment in support of the business strategy (Shields, 1999).

Shields (1999) suggests five steps to accomplish change: (1) define the desired business results and change plans; (2) create capability as well as capability to change; (3) design innovative solutions; (4) develop and deploy solutions; and (5) reinforce and sustain business benefits.

Comparison and Critical Analysis of Change Theories and Models

The change models and theories presented in this review share similar characteristics which are noted in various steps of the models. All of the models identified a process where the organization has to establish a reason and need for change. This step has to start with the leaders of the organization. A company's challenge is to select the right organizational leaders who can create an atmosphere where people are inspired to go beyond the minimum expectations. People do not want to change unless there is a reason to change.

According to Wischnevsky (2004), organizational leaders are more likely to act if they perceive a gap between the actual level of performance compared to an internal or

external benchmark or if there are changes that require their action. Research has shown that certain circumstances tend to increase the likelihood that leaders will engage in major organizational change initiatives (Lokand Walsh, 2000; Walsh, 2000; Wang and Grawford, 2005). These circumstances include top management changes, environmental shifts and a decline in performance. All of the models incorporate the development of a vision or desired business result and movement from the status quo to a future state. Visioning is one of the most important steps of a change process. A good vision helps people in the organization know where they are going. Many organizations have written visions that are published, distributed to employees and hung prominently on the walls. Having a published vision is not enough to direct people to a future state or assist them in getting there. The leaders have to communicate the vision to the people within the organization and they have to lead by example to make the vision real. When there is a difference in what managers say and what they do, this leads to a loss of trust and faith among the managers and their people. If the vision of a company is to have the best workforce in the industry and the leaders disregard employee opinions, hire inappropriate candidates and spend little in the way of employee training and education, it sends a message that the vision is not really worth the paper on which it is written (Simonson, 2005).

Some of the models address the concept of changing processes to empower people in the organization to change. This step includes evaluating the current systems, processes and capabilities to facilitate change. Organizational learning and the ability

of a company to create and exploit knowledge and information leads to successful organizational performance (Farrell, Flood, Curtain, Hannigan, Dawson and West 2005). According to Herrick (2005), leaders should be involved in stewardship. This involves the transformational process of involving others in solutions and actions. Leaders need to create a healthy work environment to provide the framework for a positive and professional practice environment.

High profile organizations are known for their workplaces which are customer-focused and which empower people to change. All of the models incorporate the idea of reinforcing and creating small improvements to encourage additional change. Most organizations have a model for improvement. Employees need to understand that every process can be improved and when leadership focuses on continuous improvement and reinforces the small successes, it encourages people to seek more opportunities for improvement (White and Toombs, 2000). People respond differently to change. Some people find it exciting and enjoy change, while others vehemently resist it. Resistance is a normal reaction to change and should be expected. This is especially true during the development stages of groups undergoing change and working on improvement projects. Leaders need to understand this reaction and support the teams as they go through these phases of change. Transformational organizations recognize normal resistance and plan strategies to enable people to work through their resistance (Kohles and Baker, 2005).

There are some significant differences in the models as well. All change models, except Shields (1999), identified a step where the support for the change is completed as well as developing the team which will make the changes. The change plan should not be created in some high level office and then forced upon the staff who will implement the changes. Instead, the planning should involve a vertical and horizontal microcosm of an organization. When a plan is viewed as everyone's plan, it can be embraced by everyone. It is empowering when people are involved in the planning and change management process (Collins, 2001). Each model except Shields (1999) addresses the importance of communication in order to gain support for the change and to encourage buy in. Although she does not discuss communication in the steps of her change model, Shields does discuss them in the cultural model or levers which lead up to change. Successful organizations have to acquire, integrate and use new knowledge to be successful. They have to be able to combine and exchange information in order to enhance their processes to guard against failure. Understanding where an organization is and where they should be is part of this process. This has to be discussed, explored and communicated (Farrell and Flood, 2003; McCurtain and Hannigan, 2003; Dawson and West, 2005).

Mento's model (2002) is the only one which includes a step for monitoring and measuring change as it is implemented. Successful implementation of change involves discipline. Collins (2001) in his book, *Good to Great*, indicates that the most successful organizations should have disciplined people, disciplined thought and

disciplined actions. People should be held accountable for their actions and this can not occur unless measurements are in place. Newcomb (2005) suggests that leaders have to be accountable to the organization for the results of their plans and the outcomes of the organization. Accountability requires a master plan which can be segmented into smaller projects, assigned to teams and monitored by team leaders. This plan can be tracked with target dates for completion and evaluation (Newcomb, 2005).

Jick's (2003) and Mento's (2002) models include a step that addresses leadership behavior and supporting strong leadership characteristics. Kotter (1996) and Shields (1999) focus more on the cultivation of the team members implementing the change. Transformational leadership has four dimensions: (1) charisma, (2) inspiration to gain support for their vision, (3) individual consideration and (4) intellectual stimulation. Although there has been research focusing on transformational change, there have been few studies that focus on the Chief Executive impact on the effective functioning of the top management team (Farrell, Flood, Curtain, et al. 2005).

Newcomb (2005) reports that transformational leaders challenge the status quo and drive change in an organization. He indicates that there are specific requirements for successful leaders: (1) Leaders must have the ability to assess the environment on a continuous basis; (2) Leaders must know what their visions are and be able to gain support for them; and (3) Leaders must have the ability to execute the plan in order to achieve the vision that they have established.

According to Carless (1998), there are common themes seen in transformational leaders. These leaders can clearly articulate a vision, use nontraditional thinking, encourage individual feedback, promote a trusting environment and promote cooperation among the team.

Although contemporary management practice remains deeply rooted in the mechanistic, equilibrium approach and an autocratic model of management, it is increasingly influenced by an organic construct of the organization. This emphasizes organization-external environment interactions, teamwork and participation, work motivation, and the dynamic aspects of change, adaptation, and learning (Morgan, 1981; Wheatly, 1992). The work of Mayo (1933), Likert (1961), McGregor (1960) and Trist (1981), along with many others, laid the foundation for this growing emphasis on balancing technical aspects of organizational design with consideration of the needs and interest of the workers and the constraints and opportunities presented by the external environment. Indeed, a substantial focus in the change management literature is helping organizations, and top management, change their management model and their managers' behaviour.

Lewin's (1951, 1958) three-phase model of change – unfreeze, move or change, and refreeze – provides the framework for much of the literature that deals with intentional change in organizations (Goodstein and Burke 1995; Sapienza 1995; Kotter 1998;

Goss et al. 1998). An important aspect of this framework is the centrality of changing the individuals who comprise the organization and the explicit recognition that change will be resisted, and that overcoming this resistance requires leadership (and hence the involvement of top management) and creates costs, which in the case of individuals include substantial emotional work. Conflict theory, action research, and discrepancy theory are employed to articulate and address the individual and interpersonal aspects of change (Dannemiller and Jacobs, 1992).

2.3 COMPETITIVENESS

The dwindling economic figures around the globe are quite indicative of turbulence, challenges and perhaps opportunities ahead for organizations. The increasing rate of business failures which the balance sheet graphically presents has shaken the confidence for investment decisions (Baney, 2001, Manaya, 2004). Survival and success in such environment, increasingly depends on competitiveness – the ability to compete. Competitiveness has been described by many researchers as a multidimensional and relative concept. It refers to the characteristics that permit a firm to compete efficiently with the keens and urge to do so. Competitiveness indicates the capabilities of a firm or a sector to compete successfully (Djankoo and Hoekuan, 2005). It is sustained through constant improvement and upgrading allowing the maintenance and improvement of the business competitive position in the market place that enables the business to survive against its competition over a long period of time.

In the 21st century, firms have to compete in a complex and challenging context that is being transformed by many factors, globalization, technological breakthrough, emerging market explorations, economic changes and others. This new landscape requires firms to do things differently in order to remain in business. Mahmood and Harrison (2001) emphasize that competitiveness depends on the capacity of domestic industries to innovate and upgrade. Porter (1990) view that competitiveness depends on strong domestic rivals, aggressive home-based suppliers and demanding home markets. It calls for domestic firms to adopt highly efficient and productive methodologies such as faster innovations, effective marketing strategies and most appropriate labour-capital – resource combination in production activities. Gandotra (2010) noted that a firm is said to have a competitive advantage when it implements a value creating strategy not simultaneously being implemented by any current potential competitor. The author had also initiated the thinking that sustainable competitive advantage results from strategic assets and this agrees with Berkly (2001) who posits that competitiveness is a combination of assets that are inherent and created as well as the processes that transfer assets into economic results.

Bottet and Ghoshal, (1999); Doz and Prahalad (2000); Barney (2001); Peterat (2003) view competitiveness with competency approach. They emphasize the role of factors internal to the firm such as strategy, structure, competencies, capabilities to innovate and other tangible and intangible resources for their competitive success. This view is particularly among resource-based approach towards competitiveness which insist on

development and deployment of capabilities and talents far more effectively than competitors. In order to provide customers with greater values and satisfaction than competitors, firms must be operationally efficient, cost effective and quality focused. Competitiveness at the organizational level is reflected in either lower cost or differentiated products that command premium prices.

In today's turbulent business environment, dynamic capabilities, flexibility, agility, speed and adaptability are becoming more important sources of competitiveness (Barney, 2001; Sushil, 2003). Importantly, the conduct and operationalization of the many actions that characterize competitiveness involves continuous change initiatives. McGaham (2000) had argued strongly that change is the fulcrum that carries competitiveness among firms. This simply suggests that the effectiveness of firms' competitive choice results from the meaningful and strategic change initiatives that are commonly implemented at the organizational level. If the position of the literature on competitiveness so far is anything to go by, the competencies, capabilities, processes, structure and strategies are consistently renewed with a view to coping with environmental demands and this often require an alteration of the status-quo which primarily attract change in organizations.

2.4 CHANGE MANAGEMENT DIMENSIONS AND COMPETITIVENESS

2.4.1 Empirical Evidence

Heilgen, (2002) has argued extensively that implicit and intricate expressions of organization represented as culture has been the bane of strategy failures. Simply put, culture is a prominent and pervasive organizational practice that influences several organizational activities. To encourage competitiveness, new habits, roles, rules, values, beliefs and orientations are required which in essence requires cultural shift. Cultural change essentially requires management considering its centrality and Jaja (2006) has emphasized that managers of organization require cultural focus as an incentive for effective strategy implementation and also attracting employee commitment to programs.

Jemmer, (2006) had in his work believed that political turbulence especially among developing economies of Africa has resulted to policy inconsistency and poor legal frameworks that make it difficult for managers to plan and perhaps make long-term decisions that permit attainment of goals. Sonja (2004), Massouri (2007), Lucy and Snenda (2009) have in their works shown empirical relationship between change management and employee commitment. Philenun (2009) has also established a relationship between change management and employee citizenship behaviour in manufacturing firms. Similarly, Narekhe and Muzo (2008) had explored the subject of technological change and the functionality of hotels in South Africa. The results of the study were however in two fields. While there was a positive outcome in relation to macro parameters, it was not the same with the micro measures of the studied hotels.

This variance suggest further quest not only in terms of what other change associated variable may influence micro measures but the context of the study.

These study outcomes, though have expanded the empirical and theoretical space in organizational development discourse, they are essentially undertaken using micro analytical level which do not fit into macro level outcomes like competitiveness among organizations. These studies are equally western based which might not serve the purpose of developing nations with characteristics variance.

2.4.2 Communication and Organizational Competitiveness

Undoubtedly, communication proves to be one of the most significant tools in social life and business management. It also plays a pivotal role in collaborating all human activities that link people together and create relationships (Duncan and Moriarty, 1998). Moreover, in the organizational level, Barker and Camarata (1998) assert that communication is embedded in every aspect of becoming an effective organization and of continuing to be a learning organization. As such, organizational communication is essentially viewed as the collective interactive process of generating and interpreting messages between people within the organization through either directional (one-way) or bidirectional (two-way) manner of communication (Stohl, 1995). For instance, the nature of hierarchical relationships with communication patterns is examined in the research of Stohl (1995). It is found that a high bureaucratic organization tends to shape its communication practices in a vertical formal way, such as a top-down chain

of command through written forms of communication, while personal interactions may not be well exposed.

Originally, Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), define communication as “the exchange of information between a sender and a receiver, and the inference (perception) of meaning between the individuals involved” so as to reach a common understanding (George and Jones, 1998). Recently, a description of communication theories has expanded to cover more of psychological and cognitive aspects. In the literature of Weiss (2001) and Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), a perceptual model of communication is basically elaborated from a traditional communication process model (Schermerhorn, 1998; Baguley, 1994). In the perceptual model, the cognitive interpretation of messages is focused by which the miscommunication becomes better understood. According to the work of Kreitner and Kinicki (1995), a perceptual model of communication begins when a sender cognitively encodes an idea or thought by using verbal and non-verbal cues, including attitudes. The output of encoding is a message transmitted on medium selected by the sender. Then the receiver cognitively decodes that idea or thought based on his/her understanding and perception toward the message. A message for feedback is created and transmitted on medium of the new sender (receiver)’s choice. The process of communication tends to be completed after the original sender interprets the message received and acts upon. Barriers of communication, such as loud noise, poor handwriting, and inaccurate statistics in a memo, can distort the quality of the perceptual communication process at any stages.

Effective communication is important for both managerial and organizational success (Dawson, 1996; Kreitner and Kinicki, 1995). It can be witnessed from the viewpoint where employees collaborate, interact, and engage with others in ways which help them understand the importance and meaning of the engagement and achieve certain goals (Barker and Camarata, 1998; Pace and Faules, 1989). According to the literature, the notion of effectiveness in communication is not merely confined with an interactive collaboration between employees, but it also has an impact on organizational issues. For instance, Clampitt and Downs (1993) demonstrate a close link between effective communication and productivity. Whereas Pettit et al. (1997) examine how effective organizational communication relates to job performance and job satisfaction. It shows that employees' commitment to the organization correlates positively with organizational clarity and is maintained even when changes are occurring in the organization (Guzley, 1992). As such, the communication strategy can be perceived as a mechanism to clarify the facts to various stakeholders of what is going to change, why, and what benefits they can expect to derive from the change.

Partially drawn from the marketing communication literature, the underlying philosophy of effective communication strategy is held true and proves to be literally practical to other contexts. With this regard, Mohr and Nevin (1990) define a communication strategy as the use of a combination of communication facets, which include frequency and formality of communication (Maltz and Kohli, 1996; Mohr and

Nevin, 1990), and content of communication (Mohr and Nevin, 1990; Jablin et al., 1987), and channel of communication (Carlson and Davis, 1998). For example, one communication strategy might be frequent communication through informal modes, with indirect content.

Furthermore, the complexity of the language appeared in the message can determine the success or failure of the communication effort. As such, simple words and clear structures of the context can essentially overcome the complex issues. In relation to that, Mohr and Nevin (1990) and Frazier and Summers (1984) attempt to distinguish between direct and indirect influence strategies embedded in the exchanged information. Direct communication strategies are designed to change behaviors of the target by implying or requesting the specific action that the source wants the target to take. For instance, recommendations, requests and appeals to legal obligations fall into this type of influence strategy. Whereas indirect communication strategies are designed to change the target's beliefs and attitudes about the desirability of the intended behavior; no specific action is requested directly. An example of indirect communication content is information exchange, whereby the source uses discussions on general business issues and operates procedures to alter the target's attitude about desirable behaviors.

Sengupta et al (2000) address that the communication quality, which refers to the content of the communication received and understood by the other party in the

relationship, marks a desirable outcome of communication. It also associates with the context of developing and maintaining personal relationships. However, Shelby (1998) comments that “appropriate choices of channel communication” are those most likely to result in communication effectiveness and efficiency – for both message senders and receivers; they are those that provide perceived quality to communication processes.

Organizational scholars have long acknowledged the importance of communication processes in explanations of organizational change processes (Lewis and Seibold, 1996; Rogers, 1995; Fairhurst and Wendt, 1993). Nonetheless, Lewis (2000a) argues that the systematic research about the effectiveness of communication strategies about change is scant. Carmichael (1996) supports Lewis’s argument by depicting that academics and practitioners have tried to search for a complete, well-grounded definition of communication for change, but their efforts primarily have focused on the invention, design, adoption, and responses to planned organizational change, as well as outcomes of change efforts. In addition, central communication processes involved in the implementation of planned changes within organizations have received far less attention by communication scholars (Lewis, 2000).

Communication problems are commonplace when changes are not clearly identified (Lewis, 2000b). Not only do they cause a drain on profitability, but also the effectiveness of management declines (Gilsdorf, 1998). In the work of Dawson (1996), many underlying reasons reflect why communication often falls short of the ideals, which are “accuracy, reliability, validity, adequacy, and effectiveness,” are addressed with some general issues within the relationship between information and

communication in organizations. According to Lewis (2000b) research findings, the most frequently noted categories of problem encountered by the company in transition are “communicating vision” and “negative attitudes.” If an organization’s management does not consider which communication behaviors it wishes to foster for its success, the signals it sends to employees may be inconsistent or counterproductive. Thus, managers should consider conveying clear communication-behavior expectations as a fundamental element of strategy. In doing so, firms might pursue communication audits which involve ethnographic analysis, including observation and interviewing, to learn exactly what organizational policies are operating (Gilsdorf, 1998). Moreover, Gilsdorf moves on to argue that analysis of organizational culture should be conducted in order to help determine the communication strategy used to solve the problem.

At the outset of the business competition for the 21st century, there is a trend of increasingly rapid change in organizations. Viable communication counts for an increase in not only individual receptiveness but also organizational change preparedness (Sinetar, 1988). It is axiomatic that good communication has become an essential component in successful change (McGill, 1996). Because any change schemes require ample communication to reduce confusion and to realign structural patterns to support the new direction (Bolman and Deal, 1999), both formulation and implementation plans of communication in change plays a crucial role in helping navigate change to the planned direction (Axley, 2000). The formulation of communication change plans seems to be relatively scarce in academic research

journals. Since there is no clear distinction between the formulation and implementation planning in principle, the formulation part is included into the notion of the implementation plan of communication change. Tornatzky and Johnson (1982), quoted by Lewis (2000), define implementation as “the translation of any tool or technique, process, or method of doing, from knowledge to practice. It encompasses that range of activities which take place between “adoption” of a tool or technique (defined as a decision to use the technology) and its stable incorporation into on-going organizational practice”.

The importance of communication for change is not only informing, motivating and coordinating but also managing employee expectations (Heracleous and Langham, 1996). Covin and Kilmann (1990) suggest that it is critical to communicating information (e.g., mission statements and goal achievement status) during change. They find that “failure to share information or to inform people adequately of what changes are necessary and why they are necessary viewed as having a highly negative impact.” Feedback gathering from employees, which is pertinent to implementation issues, serves a significant evaluative function for organizational leaders. Additionally, it may be radical for managers to provide channels and opportunities for employees to gather feedback about their own participation in change programs (Lewis, 2000). In relation to that, face-to-face communication in seeking employees’ views and concerns is highly recommended (Heracleous and Langham, 1996).

In same vein, Sinetar (1988) suggests the informal communication program, which refers to a mechanism to help various corporate stakeholders become comfortable with change and with the organization's long-term goals, to be extensively conducted so as to create mutual understandings among change agents and employees. Much of the literature on communication and its attendant implication on organizational positive outcomes are interestingly illuminating and assertive (Sengupta et al, 2000; Lewis, 2003; Kanter et al, 2006; Lox et al, 2008; Jeremi, 2010). In same vein, the change literature has an accommodating conceptual latitude that have reiterated the plausible and functional role of qualitative communicational practice as key to attracting commitment to change in work organizations (Adam, 2004; Lopsey and Jane, 2007; Merry, 2007; Lindsay and Becky, 2009; Paulson et al, 2011). What has been so far emphasized in the studies is the practical capacity to use effective communication to secure the behavioral composition amongst employees to cooperate with management in achieving change objective. An intriguing concern here is that much of the studies have examined communication as a change management strategy as a unidimensional result oriented strategy. In other words, communication is viewed as influencing all performance parameters. Though it is empirically ascertained that a positive relationship exist between communication as a change management strategy and employee performance and commitment to change (Williams, 2009). It does not leave it with omnipresence characteristic in all work output related issues. In this instance, the study focus bears on operational capability, quality service delivery, prompt responses (agility) to customers' areas of needs and innovativeness.

Lansen and Dossier (2005) in their study has established theoretically, the robust relationship between organizational communication and operational capability. However, as noted elsewhere, communication as viewed here does not reflect the strategic applicability in terms of change management which will perhaps require some strategic mechanism and a representative climate. Change no doubt, comes with its own attendant climate that may create contextual variance therefore, defining communication with a broad band conceptualization may not necessarily convey its ability to influence other outcomes. Conventionally, Banigo (2010) examined what work dynamics are likely to influence organizational responsive capacity to environmental competitiveness. He had considered prompt innovative ability, prompt customer service delivery and prompt citizenship behavior as all agile actions that typifies readings to gain strategic advantage in competitiveness. The study on the side of the predictor variable operationalized fifteen dimensions on the former and communication was seen as having the least empirical relationship with the agility measures outlined. While this is the case, it showed a strong relationship on its influence on quality service delivery. This empirical position notwithstanding, the primary essence of the change initiative is also believed to be a major driver that shapen what communicational mode that best serve the parameters measured.

In conclusion, there is no magic formula for successful change (Wilbur, 1999). The consistent development of the change process schemes has reflected the degree to

which the dynamism of forces for change becomes provisional to organizational success. The literature review on change management theories and communication strategy theories aims to provide a fundamental ground essential to understand their evolution of change. Nonetheless, oftentimes employees view any change as a wheel of adverse revolution, not a progressive evolution (McCune, 1999). Thus, a series of comprehensive communication plans for change serves as one of the most important tools enabling adaptiveness in people and organizations (Axley, 2000). An ultimate goal of communication in change is to convey meaningful change messages in a strategic manner across the organization to achieve employees' corporate acculturation and employees' commitment (Unzicker et al., 2000). In principle, various steps of change management pursuit are literally agreed upon to shaping a general approach of the change process. First, an analytical diagnosis of internal and external organizational forces attempts to examine the need for change. Such a diagnosis can be triggered and/or carried out by top managers or middle-level managers. Also, readiness for change and potential resistance to change is to be closely investigated in both individual and organizational levels to estimate the possibility of change success. Next, as for change formulation and implementation, a team of change agents with credibility and intellectual ability will be identified. Those change agents are responsible for coordinating with top managers to gain strategic supports and to help lay out the formulation and implementation plans of change, including communication issues. Both plans are correlated in terms of principal concepts and factors to be considered. In practice, it is difficult to demarcate between the two. However,

communications serve as vehicles to convey messages about the change effort across the organization (Wilbur, 1999). The informal communication forum proves to be an effective channel to deliver change messages to employees successfully (Sinetar, 1988). Lastly, the evaluative feedback that marks on a change progress needs to be constantly publicized so as to create a positive image about changes and, simultaneously, to obtain their consistent support for future change schemes.

2.4.3 Continuous Learning and Organizational Competitiveness

As Minniti and Bygrave (2001) stated, “entrepreneurship is a process of learning, and a theory of entrepreneurship requires a theory of learning.” Organizational learning is considered necessary for continued innovation and sustained entrepreneurial success (Hitt et al., 2002; Nonaka& Takeuchi, 1995). Although a complex phenomenon, organizational learning is vital for entrepreneurial ventures (Lumpkin & Lichtenstein, 2005). Organizations that are not able to embrace shared learning disappear (Sandelands, 1999). During the past few decades there has been an increasing interest in the process of learning within the organizational context, encouraged by the belief that learning and innovation are essential to survive in competitive and dynamic environments (Lipshitz, Popper, and Oz, 1996).

The construct of a learning orientation has three dimensions, including commitment to learning; shared vision; and open-mindedness (Baker and Sinkula, 1999). The open-mindedness construct is described in the literature as closely linked to the concept of

unlearning (Sinkula, Baker, and Noordewier, 1997), which is the ability of the organization to dispose of obsolete knowledge, thus opening space for new learning (Huber, 1991; Baker and Sinkula, 1999). To succeed, attention must be given to individual, team, and organizational learning (Lawrie, 1990). Organizational learning occurs through stages of information acquisition, information dissemination, shared interpretation, focused experimentation, diffusion of experience, and knowledge restructuring (Sinkula, 1994; Slater and Narver, 1995). Knowledge, derived from learning, is potentially the most productive resource of an organization (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1996).

The importance of individual and organizational learning has been emphasized by numerous scholars (Adler & Cole, 1993; Stata, 1989; Ulrich, et al., 1993). Various definitions have emphasized the importance of acquiring, improving, transferring, and facilitating individual and collective learning. This is followed by integrating and modifying behaviors and practices so that the enhanced learning yields performance gains (Applebaum and Reichart, 1998; Baker Sinkula, 1999; Ellinger, Ellinger, Baiyin, and Howton, 2002; Marsick and Watkins, 1999; Pettigrew and Whipp, 1999). Theories of continuous learning, learning organizations, and organizational learning provide insight into enhancing continuous learning that supports the change process.

Continuous learning has focused on the individual adult learner who can benefit from a cumulative learning based on the ongoing process of experience, reflection, learning,

and action (Kolb, 1984; Mezirow, 1991). Learning tasks during the entrepreneurial process involve learning about oneself, the organization, the environment, business management, and relationships with key stakeholders (Cope, 2005). Adult learning can be formal or informal, intended or incidental, and is an individual's personal discovery of meaning (Combs andSnygg, 1989). Although there is no common definition of learning style (Claxton & Murrell, 1987), Ulrich and Cole (1987) emphasized the importance of learning style preference in enhancing entrepreneurial propensity. Learning styles encompass cognitive (Gagne, 1997), affective (Combs, 1989; Gagne, 1997), behavioral (Gagne, 1997), and physiological traits that served as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Because many individuals have limited change education and experience, organizations must provide opportunities for personnel to continually learn as new competencies are needed to exploit opportunities.

Continuous learning also occurs at the team and organizational levels. A learning organization is "one that learns continuously and transforms itself" (Watkins and Marscik, 2004). The concept of the learning organization has been linked to market orientation, entrepreneurial culture, flexible organic structures, and facilitative leadership (Lundberg, 1995; Luthans, Rubach and Marsnik, 1995; Slater and Narver, 1995). Leaders of an organization that strives to be a learning organization should be able to create an environment in which questioning current truths and assumptions is the norm and challenging the status quo is expected (Senge, 1990; Slater and Narver,

2000). Organizational learning, a term sometimes used interchangeably with the term learning organization, is a complex concept that describes the activities of the organization that change behavior (Levitt & March, 1988). Initial contributors to the concept of organizational learning included Argyris and Schon (1978) who introduced double-loop learning; Senge (1990), who authored *The Fifth Discipline* and Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell (1991) who advocated the notion of the learning company. The literature has addressed various areas of focus such as organizational learning as a process or system (Schon, 1971); collectivity of individual learning (Argyris and Schon, 1996); knowledge management (Fiol, 1994); learning for continuous improvement (Pedler et al., 1991); and deuteron-learning which is concerned with learning how to learn (Bateson, 1972).

The many strategic actions taken to represent change in organizations often come with some dosage of strategic effort to ensure compliance and commitment to the overall objectives of change program. Indeed, the heightened competitiveness that characterized the environment of firms is the primary reason for change. Getting the workforce to be committed to change according to Forster (2007) entails learning all that the change is about and sustain such knowledge for continued success. Value added and goal targeted behavior from all stakeholders involved in change can be attracted through deliberate and critical actions that are capable of erasing the inertia attitude that is often associated with change and get all to be acquainted with the know-how to undertake change. Acquiring the know-how for effective

operationalization of change program involves continuous learning practices. This involved the day-to-day planned interaction amongst operational members with a view to sharing the knowledge, competencies and skills that are required to be involved.

Continuous learning according to Muhammed (2011) is imperative for building the self-efficacy that channels commitment behavior and dispel the psychological fears that comes with change. It can be easily deduced that continuous learning as it implies, is imbued with the tendency to aid the acquisition of competencies that guarantee operational capability, improved service quality, the needed agility and innovativeness for sustainable performance. A firm's competitive advantage as ruled by Patton (2001) stems from its capacity to convert knowledge from tacit to explicit among work members through continuous learning practices. Through this, knowledge inherent at all levels of the organization is shared and transferred. While this is the case when there is initiated effort aimed at managing knowledge as organizational asset for competitiveness, it often spur change as it comes with new and novel means both for operations and administrative actions at work.

Reidner (2008) agreed that continuous learning involves deploying within the organization effective means of publication through member interaction practices. It ensures building capital through internal arrangement that sustain productivity. It suggests that in an environment of sustained learning, there exist functional outcomes that galvanize attempts at competitiveness. Reidner (2008) has correlated continuous

learning with productivity in the manufacturing sector in Pakistan. Though not a measure of competitiveness, what is shown here is its theoretical potency in ensuring positive work place outcome. Bentis and Serinko (2010) investigated the effect of continuous learning under change circumstance on service quality among IT firms. The results strongly indicated a strong association between learning capabilities and quality service delivery. Garry (2010) study on continuous learning and agility among small computer software manufacturing firms in Turkey showed a negative relationship. Though continuous learning in his study was a moderating factor while intellectual capital was used as the explanation factor. This so far, likely explains the negative outcome in the relationship as shown in that study. The contextual implication of the study outcome is also not ignored in the results considering the organizational climate in relation to innovative practices which was yet another moderating variable. The potency of continuous learning as a change management strategy aimed at skills and competencies enrichment has empirical assertions in literature (Rimman, 2004; Narekhe, 2007). What has been reiterated in the studies is that continuous learning is strategically inclined to assisting firms involved in change program in achieving desired outcomes.

Marsick and Watkins, (2004) proposed actions that include creating continuous leaning opportunities; promoting inquiry and dialogue; encouraging collaboration and team learning; establishing systems to capture and share learning; empowering people toward a collective vision; connecting the organization to its environment; highlighting

leaders who model and support learning at the individual, team, and organizational levels. Organizational learning has also been described as a process by which the organizational knowledge base is developed (Shrivastava, 1983). Knowledge-based capabilities of the organization include employee knowledge and skills; technical information systems; information management systems; and information norms and values (Leonard-Barton, 1992). Because organizational learning has the capability of allowing organizations to create knowledge as a source of improved performance (Hitt and Ireland, 2000), it is important to understand how organizations use learning in ways that transform the individual, teams, partnerships, and organizations (Franz, 2003).

Through this understanding, change initiated at whatever level of the organization is stemmed to achieve goals. Importantly, change whether radically undertaken or incremental, requires special competencies to see it through and this is acquired through continuous employee learning. Baker and Sinkula (1999) had argued strongly that continuous learning benefits the individual worker and the organization immeasurably. Employees with requisite skills gained from learning are psychologically empowered to function at optimal level. Avolio and Bass (2000) in their work established a link between the psychologically empowered workforce and task commitment. Change is notably resisted by employees who are psychologically displaced when they reflect on their place in the change scheme in terms of skills.

Therefore, any organizational effort strategically aimed at skills improvement and knowledge acquisition may allay such fears and attract commitment.

2.4.4 Reward and Organizational Competitiveness

The concept of reward dominates behavioural management and social psychology literature in relation to employee and organizational relationship (Albert and Jill, 2005). Of course it is common knowledge when viewed against the backdrop of man's philosophical and psychological learning to reward as that which prompts and direct behavior. Rewards simply put, are positive expectation that an employee has as a result of his input or contributions towards the overall goals of the organizations. Donaldson (2006) observed that attracting greater level commitment is a psycho-socio phenomenon that is triggered and sustained by defined expectation as rewards. Werhane and Cording (2002) drew attention to reward types. They argued that most of the work on rewards has treated it as a mono item construct which will ordinarily imply that employees expectation on reward could take any form while achieving same degree of goals and under same context. Valentine and Burnette (2003) viewed reward outcomes based on context and form and have argued when reward meets employees desires, they in turn show commitment. In this review, we do not intend to be long drawn into the debate of form rather we are generically inclined to reward as a means of attracting commitment. Bella and Newton (2007) espoused that rewards in whatever forms they take, financial or non-financial, have the potency to shapen behavior which in some instances may be favourable or not to the goals of the rewarder. This also

means that for a reward to be meaningful to the rewarder, his expectations must have been rightly met.

Indeed, much of the literature in behavioural psychology has linked reward with job satisfaction (Albert and Jill, 2005). For instance, Johnne (1996) work on reward and productivity among civil servants showed a significant relationship between the variables. The study outcome showed strongly that the behavior of compliance to duty was linked with reward expectation which in this case were mostly financial rewards. What is highlighted in this discourse is that reward as it is, has links with employee behavioural disposition to work place responsibilities and activities. Lekima and Lekima (2009) observed that rewards are action oriented therefore instigates functional commitment when goals are clearly defined for employees and rewards expectation. If this position is to be aligned with, change in work organization is an action oriented organizational effort which can be accepted and implemented if rewards are related to it.

Gabriella and Jones (2010) have argued that organizational rewards are goal directed. For instance, when management of organization strategically reinforces employee commitment through meaningful incentive programs, it is expected that employees will return recognition with result yielding behavior. This attraction propels operational functionality that guarantee goals attainment (Landre, 2003; Missan and Jabbez, 2005; Pattison, 2005). Change programs as initiated by organizational

operators are primarily strategic actions taken to reengineer work processes that in turn provides for strategic advantage and position. In other words, commitment to change is frontal to their realization of intended goal which can be attracted through the rewards that comes with showing commitment. Benala, (2009) established an empirical link between change management strategies that have inherent capacity to give rewards and achieve goals of change program, though not specific in the perspectives to which it triggers commitment, it is common knowledge that change in the novel manner will instigate high rate of operational effort that is required in a competitive environment. The idea behind his conceptualization is rationalized by theory of expectancy (Vroom, 1980; Emago, 2000; Billy and Edford, 2005). They have argued that employee reward focus drives his consent to work responsibilities assigned by managers and reduces the initial tendency to be unwilling. Changes that come with resistance behavior can be effectively management where reward expectations are classified for the employees.

Tomlinson (2002) contended that highly competitive sectors are likely to gain competitive and strategic advantage through their ability to initiate work processes that enhance their servicequality. This thinking though plausible, Kochaki (2004) argues that the author's theoretical script that attempts linking service quality with renewed work processes might not be empirically tenable considering the fact that a collection of organizational characteristics and climate are prevalent to influence such relationship. All the same, Gomez and Jalan (2005) had studied the effect of work process re-engineering which is change-related to improved service quality in the

hi-tech industry. Increased salary package was used as a moderating variable and the outcome showed empirical relationship between the success of the re-engineering initiative and improved customer services both in terms of improved product features and distributional capacity. What has been obviously shown in their work is the leading role of reward in sharpening the overall outcome of the study. Walker (2001) also linked compensation and appreciation of performed work to employee job satisfaction and service delivery. Together, these suggest that reward in which ever form is earned by employees has the capacity to provoke employee ingenuity towards rendering services qualitatively.

Essentially, this comes with the ability to be aptly responsive to customer services. In other words, it stems agile practices that serve the whole process of change. Change as it where is goal targeted and literature has avalanche of position that relates change with competitiveness (Birth et al, 2004; Arnold, 2005; Hennen, 2005; Kalpusad, 2006; Gunz, 2007). The implication of their position result is that competitiveness within a sector whether sublime or hype, must be attended with matching strategic actions to gain strategic advantages. Gunz (2007) argued that the ability of change to instigate prompt and agile work action is what makes it achieve desired ends. It must also be noted that improperly managed change is not likely to achieve goal of agility which conceptually represents prompt response to customer demand. Managing change with reward therefore is likely to instigate prompt outcomes. There is however a dearth of theoretical link between reward/incentives and the agility component since much of

the existing studies had treated it as a unidimensional construct. Reward as a strategy for enhancing commitment to change will no doubt form the authors view point, promote the means to goals.

Firms in competitive environment are expected to evolve strategies that promote their organizational relevance and meeting customers' targets. This is the ground for change which also requires effective management to reach desired goals. As noted earlier, reward as a change management strategy has been linked to micro level organizational outcomes in relation to employee behavior. Therefore, the dare need for a macro level viewpoint is the point of departure in this study.

2.4.5 Management Style and Organizational Competitiveness

Although literatures on management style as a means of compelling compliance appear antiquated when put side by side with contemporary proposals of employee engagement at work, the change management literature views it strongly as a means of attracting commitment to organizational change programs. This thinking notwithstanding, Aguwa (2007) points that in the wake of increased labour turnover resulting from globalized networks, managers are required to be critical of compelling options that may not only detract employee morale, but will also diminish intra member relationships that have long-term effect on innovative practices. This suggest that change effort even when aimed at reengineering work process and administrative practices towards goals, management should consider some all-inclusive strategic

approaches that are vastly rewarding to organization and employees. Importantly, there is empirical links between change management and organizational success as reported in Sheila and Roland (2001). This findings though significant, does not show what dimensions of change management that are applicable in order to successfully carry out change in the organization. There are in literature, several dimensions and models of the construct therefore, conceptual carefulness is required not to ascribe the potency of it to effect organizational outcome generally. Management style as it were according to Mensah (2008) is often compelling against employee desire to have understanding of what objectives are targeted. The author argued that when a manager undertakes a comprehensive approach towards initiating change where all that is involved are comprehensively made available to employee, compliance will not be necessarily compelled. Mensah believed that compelling has the tendency of drifting work members away from objectives because this in most cases will attract additional cost for organizations.

Raslos (2011) had through his empirical work shown that management style strategy for change implementation though influence organizational outcomes, should be contextualized both in terms of expectation and sector. In his study on mine workers and change programs targeted at productivity improvement, there was a positive correlation which resulted from improved reward moderation which simply means that the willingness of the organizational owners to make employees have a reward due to

their work input was a succor for work members irrespective of the fact that cooperativeness and commitment was compelling due to their work nature.

The findings here simply indicate that management style as a means of ensuring change towards realization of organizational goals can produce functional outcomes in the light of where applicable. It also implies managers are also expected to consider the prevailing work nature and organizational milieu that encourage citizenship behavior and not necessarily a compelling approach. Peter and Sally (2008) argued that results from change effort that is operationalized through compelling means are short-lived. This is because employees are likely to naturally revert to status-quo where there are commensurate organizational structure and strategies to sustain such measure. Organizational managers are left with additional work roles and burden to strictly supervise and sustain work effort. Much of the literature in behavioural psychology at work had emphasized the need for empowerment and a work climate that is characteristically confidence inducing (Bandura, 1988). The management style adopted will condition the much needed confidence and ultimately affect goals. From the review, we set the pace for an in-depth effort at establishing the nature of association between management style as a change management strategy and organizational competitiveness.

Miller (2000) operationalized the concept of competitiveness amongst firms in some industries by developing a scale and researching practices in different organizations.

Building on the work of Miller (2000), Slevin and Covin (2002) stressed that organizations in highly competitive environment are inclined to change practices that stem competitiveness and the major action that practicalizes the ability to remain competitive is described in Khandwalla (2004) as innovativeness orientation.

According to Miles and Arnold (2007) innovativeness is a vital component of competitiveness as it reflects organization tendency to engage and support new ideas through experimentation and creative process that contribute to the development of new products, services and work processes. Zahra (2009) argued that innovativeness set the ground for new services, new markets or new supply sources. Innovativeness as a process provokes ideas that are value added and provides the mindset that drives the organization activities (Hitt and Ireland, 2000; Zammuto and O'Connor, 2005). Through such a mindset, the organization fundamentally conceptualizes its direction to desired goal in a bid to sustain itself in the sector. Markides (2007) argued that innovation whether discontinuous or dynamic continuous offers dramatic improvements that enable the organization position itself. Goes and Park (2008) observed that innovativeness is critical to success of organization therefore, organization that strives for competitive capability use it as a strategic option for value creation in all areas of operation.

Allen (2000) is of the view that innovative activities for competitiveness results from deliberate organizational culture of change. It simply means that change programs

create the tendency to be innovative either at a macro or micro levels of organization. This view earned support in the works of Angle and Poole (2000) as they noted that sufficient management of change program is philosophically and conceptually aimed at new approaches for driving organization desire to succeed in her environment. The change focus has a link with the conceptual focus of innovation actions of firms that are creativity oriented. Kucmarski (2009) believed that innovation will emerge as a core component of the organization strategy which entails the essence and capability to compete in the industry. If this thinking is anything to go by, change initiative of organization that are aimed at competitive positioning either for operational or administrative purpose are expected to also come with the capacity to encourage innovativeness amongst operators of change as a synchrony for successful operationalization of the change program. Damanpour (2009) recognized innovativeness as an entrepreneurial function that comes with willingness to enhance organizational fortunes. This is realizable when commensurate efforts are made to diagnose when an institution factors its practice as a competitive strategy. Structural changes are necessary according to the authors to surmount behavioral roadblocks that impinge flexibility and fast actions that are needed. This suggests that change if not consciously driven with the intention to create flexibilities is likely to hinder innovativeness amongst work members thereby making competitiveness an unattainable goal. Pellman (2003) espoused that change for desired goals should be crafted to characteristically promote the goal of innovativeness. In fact he argued that a siamese relationship underlies change and innovativeness because it takes an

innovative mindset to initiate change actions that potentially stirs the organization to desired goals. In Morris and Kuratkos (2002) thinking, change initiated at macro level of work are expectedly managed to ensure the attainment of motives. Managers' in this circumstance are expected to deplore managerial behavior incentives that are capable of inducing positive behavior (innovativeness inclusive) among work members. Competitiveness requires the capacity and potentials to remain relevant in your market. Essentially, it requires creating added-value for products and services, and adding new ones to enrich your service portfolio.

Achieving all of these according to Peters and Waterman (2010) require innovativeness therefore, change action that do not encourage innovativeness should be discouraged. Though all of these contributions are seemingly conceptually robust with a view to linking change action and innovativeness. In Miller (2000), this is described as a component of competitiveness, there is yet a concrete empirical link to describe the extent of its ability to channel innovative practices. In this study an attempt is made to empirically illuminate the conceptualizations on the constructs as examined.

2.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study explores the relationship between change management practices and competitiveness. Theories about organizational change implicitly or explicitly include assumption about what an organization is and its relationship to its environment.

Dooley (1997), Hage (1999) and Hareman (2000) articulate this relationship for some of the organizational theories influential in the organizational change literature. Though there exist a robust portfolio of theories related to change as noted, the study is selectively attached to the theory of organizational entrepreneurship. This will help to explain the theoretical underlying factors that reinforce change attempts of organization as being strategic for achieving desired organizational goals.

2.5.1 Organizational Entrepreneurial Theory

According to Stephenson and Javillo (2005), organizational entrepreneurship involves a culture which includes all personnel as self-perceived entrepreneur, integrates screening mechanism to foster innovation and nurtures frequent communication among people with dissimilar views and behaviour. This according to the authors will encourage creativity, collaboration and commitment to organizational goals. It helps to formulate strategies in order to take advantage of identified opportunities while at same time communicating the vision to all concerned. It assists in identifying areas that require capacity building in terms of capabilities such as knowledge skills and know-how for effective and efficient participation at all levels of work.

Entrepreneurial management theory emphasizes entrepreneurial characteristics like employee training, continuous learning, pro-activity and promotes values that ensures cross-interactive interface that eliminates sub-optimization. Therefore, the theory provides the ingredients required for managing change which are reflected in literature.

The choice of the theory of entrepreneurship as the theoretical underlay for this study is quite directional. Entrepreneurship as it were, evolves new approaches that are critical and strategic to achieving the goal of the firm and having competitive advantage. Change is undoubtedly, an organization action taken to alter existing work processes to achieve high level performance. Therefore, it is associated with innovativeness, mobilizing resources and communicating such novel ideas to all organizational stakeholders with a view to attracting wholesome commitment on the part of all organizational members.

2.6 SUMMARY OF REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter has extremely reviewed literature on change management and organizational competitiveness constructs. The literatures on the constructs have been examined across the defined dimensions which include continuous learning, communication, reward and management style. Though competitiveness in this context has been examined as a mono construct, it has also expressed its scholarly measures in terms of operational capabilities, improved quality service, agility and innovativeness.

The literatures on change so far have thrown up the conceptual uniformity on change and its link with strategic organizational outcomes especially as it relates with overall performance. It has shown the constructs implicit functional capabilities to transform both administrative and operational roles to meeting desired goals. Another crucial issue brought to the fore is its accompanied behaviouralreshapening which is the marked essence of resistance which literature has extensively reported.

While this has remained the core with the change management thesis, it also found that most of the empirical linkages established tend to be more focused on finding the nature of association between the construct and individual employee levels. This has remained contentious especially in the light of Prahalad (2000) view that change is an organization action and goal directed initiative. The organization has an expectation whenever strategic change programs are initiated therefore its analytical premise should be macro. It simply means that understanding of change management relationship with organizational level involvement and outcomes are necessarily explored which is the basis for our study.

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

This chapter of the study presents the methodology used in carrying out the study. It is systematically and objectively conducted using the methods outlined below.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Blanche and Durheim (1999), a researcher chooses a design that best guide the research in a scientific manner to achieve its objective. Therefore, in this

study, a descriptive survey research design is adopted. The choice of the design allows the use of survey instruments in the form of questionnaire to obtain the data needed for analysis (Cresswell, 2000). Importantly, this primarily adoption of the descriptive survey research design has served the purpose of the study.

3.2 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The organizational workforce which includes top management, managers, supervisors and on-the-shop floor employees, constitute the population. Considering the large nature of the population with different categories in terms of size and services rendered, there is the need for a concise definition of the hotels that make up the study population. The hotels that make up the population are four and five star types with at least 40 executive rooms; in-house money safe; digital check-in device; laundry; ATM; entertainment/cultural hall; swimming pool; first aid unit and close circuit television. From the stated parameters, there are eight hotels within the metropolis that meets the parameters. To obtain the actual population of employees/workforce which is made of the top management, managers and others, we had through the personnel management offices obtained the population to be 453 of the different categories earlier mentioned. We also note that hotels used for the study are all in Port Harcourt and require that their participation should be treated with confidentiality. They shall for the purpose of the study be alphabetically described A-H.

Table 1: Table Showing Number of Personnel in the Studied Hotels as Obtained from their Nominal Rolls.

Names of Hotels	Top Managers		Managers		Supervisors		On-the-shop Employees	
	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
A)Le Meridien	6	4	7	3	13	8	40	14
B)Novotel Accor	4	3	8	4	11	7	37	15
C)Golden Tulip	3	3	5	2	8	5	28	11
D)Juanita	7	4	6	3	13	6	33	12
E)Presidential	4	3	11	5	11	6	15	7
F)Aldgate Congress	8	5	7	4	11	7	53	21
G)Landmark	4	3	5	2	14	8	34	13
H)Elkan Terrace	6	4	7	3	12	7	22	10
Total	42	29	56	26	93	54	262	103

3.3 SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The sample size for the study was obtained using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size table since the population was finite. The population being 453 from the hotels, the sample size from the table was 212. In order to obtain the sample subjects for each hotel, the proportionate sampling was done and this was to ensure that each of the hotels has equal representations in the sample. Having done this, the sample subject for each stratum were obtained through a stratified random sampling exercise that considered the different levels/departments was carried out to obtain all those who were involved in the study.

In order to buttress the method used in obtaining the sample size as earlier stated, we have also used the Taro Yamane techniques which is mathematically stated thus:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where: n = Sample size sought
 e = Level of significance
 N = Population size

Hence the sample size for the study

$$n = \frac{453}{1 + 453(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{453}{1 + 453(0.0025)}$$

$$n = \frac{453}{1 + 1.1325} \rightarrow \frac{453}{2.1325}$$

$$n = 212$$

3.4 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The study primarily relied on the questionnaire as the instrument for generating data for the study. The questionnaire which was tagged Change Management and Organizational Competitiveness Questionnaire (CMOCOQ) was in two sections. The section A had questions on respondent demographic details while Section B did contain question on the variables examined in the study using the close ended type of questions. The respondents were requested to respond objectively to the questions with

their degree of disposition to the responses put in Likerts scale type ranging from Strongly Agree = 5 to Strongly Disagree =1. The questionnaire was personally served on the subjects by the researcher. This was done with a view to enhancing the level of participation of sampled subjects and also makes clarification where necessary.

3.5 VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

Baridam (2008) describes validity as the degree to which an instrument measures what it is designed to measure. Also Anyanwu(2009) assert that a research tool may be said to be valid when it enables the researcher to obtain the right responses from the samples subjects. Otherwise, it is a faulty instrument and may lead to inaccurate findings. The instrument was subjected to content and construct validity. Content validity describes the degree to which the measurement procedure represents the ideals embodied in the measure concept. It reflects the extent to which researchers include items that cover the variables that are being studied. Construct validity describes the degree to which an instrument adequately measures the actual meaning of a construct (Anyanwu, 2009). In order to ascertain the validity of the instrument, it was served on professionals and experts in the area of change management. The opinion of measurement and organizational experts in organizational performance assessment were also sought to show validity. Their positive opinion validated the instrument as having question items that represent the phenomenon investigated in the study.

3.6 RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENT

To ensure reliability, the instrument was piloted within a carefully selected sample in some hotels that are not part of the target population of the study but have similar characteristics having embarked on some change program.

From the data, the calculated split-half coefficient using the SPSS had an alpha value of 0.89. Considering the applicable Nunnally (1978) alpha threshold of 0.7, the instrument was shown to be reliable. Essentially, the reliability estimate used were considered based on the established Nunnally (1978) threshold of a Cronbachalpha of 0.7.

Reliability Test Result

In the study, the survey instrument adapted was confirmed for consistency. The reliability test on the instrument was done with the SPSS and showed very reliable values on the individual dimension of the predictor variable and the measures based on the Cronbach alpha are shown below.

Table 2: Reliability Test Table

S/No	Dimension/Measures	No of Items	No of Cases	Cronbach alpha (α)
1.	Continuous learning	4	174	0.77
2.	Communication	4	174	0.84
3.	Reward	4	174	0.74
4.	Management style	3	174	0.78

5.	Competitiveness	15	174	0.88
----	-----------------	----	-----	------

Source: Survey Data, 2015.

The alpha coefficients have expressed reliability of the instrument in line with Nunnally (1978) threshold of 0.7. This shows a high degree of reliability. From the above, we can say that the internal consistency reliability of the measures used in the study were good.

3.7 OPERATIONALIZATION OF VARIABLES

The major constructs examined in this study are change management and organizational competitiveness. For change management with the dimension of continuous learning, the study relied on Yamarino (2005) 5 item scale. The scale was validated in the work of Millaye (2008) with a reliability alpha of 0.82. In the case of effective communication, the study adapted the 4 item scale of Ugorji and Silas (2004)

and this was also the case for reward dimension. The reward scale of Erakovitz and Wilson having 8 items scale with focus on both financial and non-financial rewards was relied upon.

For management style, Mensah (2008) 7 itemscale was relied upon having dropped four of the question items that were not relevant to the study. Organizational competitiveness was measured using the comprehensively adapted scale of Peteraf (2003) that considered operational capability, service delivery and agility components of competitiveness. The 26 item scale was validated in the works of Harrison et al (2006) with a reliability alpha of 0.79. All these scales applicable were on 5 points Likert scale which ranges between Strongly Agree = 5 and Strongly Disagree = 1.

3.8 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

The data generated from the administered questionnaire were analyzed for all purpose and understanding. This was done through descriptive and inferential analysis. The descriptive analysis was done using simple percentages, means and standard deviations. The inferential analysis which helped to show the nature of the relationship (positive or negative) that exists between the examined variables was done using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMC) statistical technique. These computations were done using the SPSS package (Version 15).

Decision Rule

- ❖ The stated hypothesis will be accepted where the calculated probability value is higher than the table value.
- ❖ The stated hypothesis will be rejected where the calculated probability value is less than the table value.
- ❖ The r value will show the degrees of relationship as being weak, strong and very strong (Creswell, 2000).
 - = 0.1 - 0.49 weak
 - = 0.5 - 0.70 strong
 - = 0.71 - 1 very strong

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the raw data obtained from the field exercise. The data obtained from the use of the survey instrument were analyzed descriptively using simple percentages, means, charts and standard deviations. Inferentially, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) Coefficient was applicable. This formed the basis for

inference and reported findings in this study. We commenced with table on administration and retrieval of the survey instrument.

ANALYSIS ON CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMPETITIVENESS IN THE HOSPITALITY SECTOR.

4.1 RESPONSE RATE

Table 3: Data Cleaning

S/N	Respondent Levels	Questionnaires Administered	Retrieved	% Retrieved	Missing Unusable	Usable Copies	% Usable
01	Top Management	29	25	86	1	24	82
02	Manager	26	22	84	2	20	76
03	Supervisors	54	43	79	2	42	77
04	On-the-floor	103	91	88	3	88	85
	Total	212	181	85	7	174	82

Source: Survey Data, 2015.

Table 4: Summary of Details of Distribution and Retrieval of Questionnaire

Questionnaires	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Administered	212	100
Retrieved	181	85
Missing + Unusable	7	3
Usable Copies	174	82

As indicated in the table 4 above, 212 copies of the questionnaire were administered, out of which 174 copies were retrieved which represents 85% of the served survey instrument. From the data cleaning, we had 7 of the questionnaire not useable therefore we discarded them and we were left with 174 useable instrument that were eventually used for the study and this represents 82% of the served survey instrument.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

Table 5: Frequencies on Age of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Below 35 Years	29	17	17	17
	35 – 45 Years	84	48	48	65
	above 46 Years	61	35	35	
	Total	174	100	100	100

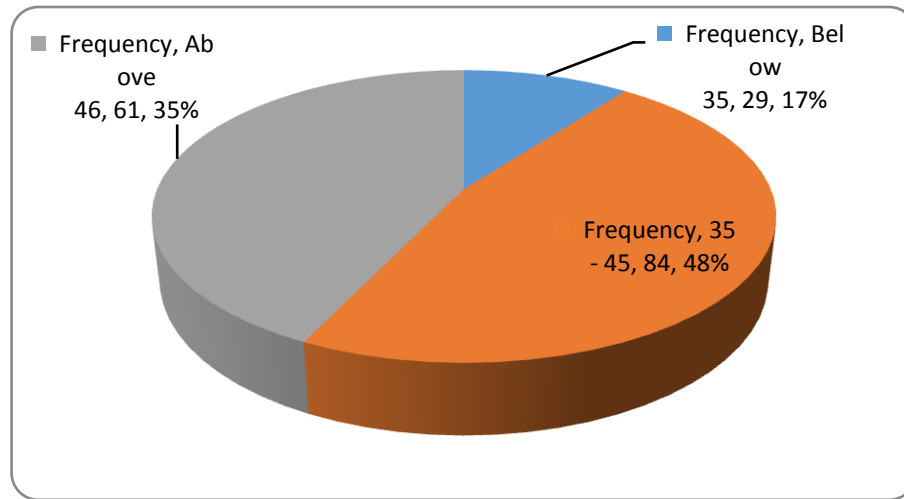


Fig. 2: Pie Chart on Age of the Respondents

The distribution of the ages of the respondents shows that 29 (17%) of the respondents are below 35 years of age while respondents within the age limit of 35-45 years are 84 (48%) and those above 46 years of age are 61 (35%). This shows a high percentage of employees that are attracted and employed by the hospitality sector. This also proves that a large percentage of the employees are knowledgeable about the operations of the sector and capable of appreciating the change programs of the sector both in technology and administrative practices.

Table 6: Frequencies on Sex of the Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Male	104	60	60	60
	Female	70	40	40	100
	Total	174	100.0	100	

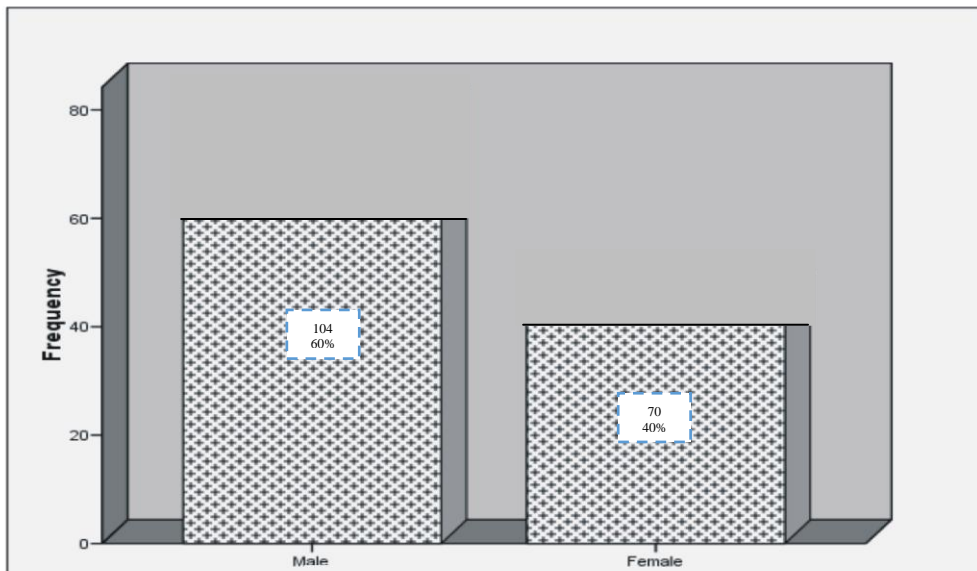


Fig. 3: Bar Chart on Age of the Respondents

Among the respondent considered for this study, 40% are females while 60% are males with the frequency of 70 and 104 respectively. The high percentage value for males may suggest the high level of involvement in the hospitality sector where it is highly mechanized and demanding.

Table 7: Frequencies on Respondents' Level of Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Secondary Education	34	20	20	20
	University Graduate	80	46	46	66
	Diploma	60	34	34	
	Total	174	100	100	100

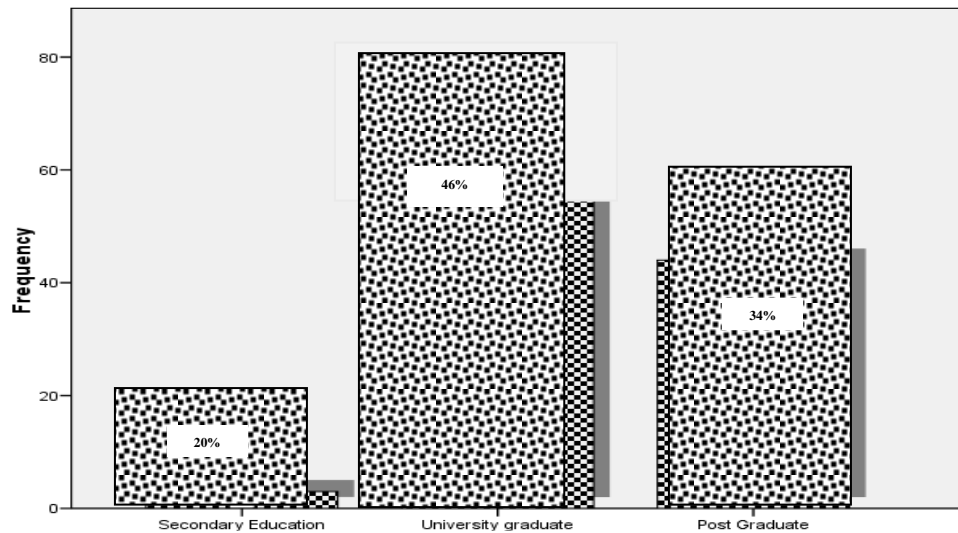


Figure 4: Bar Chart on Respondents' Level of Education

Table 7 and Fig 4 shows details on the educational level of the respondent sample for the study from the data, 34 (20%) are school certificate (secondary) holders, while 60 (34%) of them have various levels of diploma. The third category of respondents which are graduates are 80 which represents of 46%. The educational level distribution here clearly shows that the respondent samples are substantially knowledgeable to understand the issues raised in the study.

4.3 PRESENTATION OF SECTION B OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Continuous Learning

Table 8: Shows Four items in the Survey Instrument on Continuous Learning

S/N	Continuous Learning (CL)	SA (5)	A (4)	MA (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	\bar{X}	SD
1	I am committed to the new ways of work because my work skills are updated to cope.	28 14.29	37 21.43	60 39.68	20 7.94	29 16.67	3.09	.931
2	I am committed to the new ways of works because we commonly share ideas over assigned responsibilities.	50 31.75	37 21.43	31 16.67	38 23.81	18 6.35	3.50	.711
3	There are different training programs in place to help orient us on the necessary competencies.	31 24.60	51 32.54	52 19.05	30 15.87	10 7.94	3.50	1.038
4	Our culture of learning always is the reason why we are committed to the change effort.	30 23.81	48 31.75	39 23.02	33 18.25	24 3.17	3.60	.686

Table 8 is the frequency distribution table showing responses to the four items in the instrument relating to continuous learning. The result descriptively shows that in change management in the hospitality sector, there is room for continuous learning. The first question item with a mean score of 3.09 implies that respondents are committed to change because they are guaranteed improvement on work skills through up-date programs. For the second question item, having a mean score of 3.50 which falls on the agree range in the scale, it shows that employees commonly share ideas on assigned responsibilities and this gets them committed to change initiatives. Further, for the third question item, it has a higher mean score of 3.50 which also means they agree to the fact that training programs are put in place to give orientation on the requisite skills and competencies to cope with initiated change aimed at enhancing competitiveness. In the case of the fourth question item, with a mean score of 3.60 it

implies that the culture of enabling learning consistently is the reason for showing commitment to change in the hospitality sector. The response distribution here is quite assertive of the influence of continuous learning as a change management strategy for managing change in the sector and has encouraged commitment to change.

Effective Communication

Table 9: Shows Statistics on the four items in the Instrument for Effective Communication

S/N	Effective Communication (EC)	SA (5)	A (4)	MA (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	\bar{X}	SD
1	The change program is properly communicated to me that is why I am committed.	36 20.63	48 30/16	31 16.67	22 9.52	37 23.02	3.20	.423
2	The benefits of the change effort are properly communicated to me and that is why I am committed.	53 34.13	40 23.81	35 19.84	28 14.29	18 7.94	3.40	.521
3	Plans are clearly communicated to us whenever there is the need to change course of action.	42 25.40	40 23.81	39 32.54	30 15.87	23 2.38	3.50	.538
4	I am committed to the change program of the company because every effort is appraised and the outcome is made known to me.	26 12.70	47 23.02	38 30.16	30 15.87	33 18.25	3.03	.644

Table 9 above shows the extent to which effective communication is a change management strategy. The descriptive results have stressed reliance on communication for change management, the first question item on proper communication of change has a high mean score of 3.20 which implies that employees largely agree that every change program is properly communicated and employees have clear understanding of what it entails thereby attracting commitment. The second question item clearly

emphasized that the benefit accruable from change are properly communicated to employees so they know what they are likely to benefit from showing support. This is shown with a high mean score of 3.40. For the third question item, it also has a high mean score of 3.50 and this implies that whenever there is change of plan, it is properly communicated. The fourth question item with a mean score of 3.03 shows that employees input in the entire change program is properly appraised and feedback given.

Reward System

Table 10: Show Statistics on four items in the Survey Instrument on Reward System

S/N	Reward System (RS)	SA (5)	A (A)	MA (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	\bar{X}	SD
1	Our change program has succeeded because we are rewarded for all our inputs.	21 8.73	30 15.87	58 39.68	35 19.84	30 15.87	2.81	.528
2	I am committed to the change effort because the monetary rewards are properly spelt out.	28 14.29	32 17.46	51 34.13	40 23.81	23 10.32	3.00	.617
3	There are many incentives in relation to the change program therefore we are committed.	48 31.75	22 9.52	40 23.81	33 18.25	31 16.67	3.20	.542
4	Whenever there is a new way of work, I don't like it because it is not associated with extra benefit for my input.	36 12.70	44 26.98	37 23.02	27 13.49	30 23.81	3.00	.639

Table 10 show descriptive results on reward system approach to managing change in the hospitality sector. The shown high mean scores for the question items points to the

extent the operators rely on reward as a means of ensuring employee commitment to change targeted at staying competitive in the sector. The first question item with a mean score of 2.81 is indicative of the respondents feeling about being rewarded for their input. The second and third question items have mean scores of 3.00 and 3.20 respectively which also implies that monetary reward are properly spelt out. This is in addition to other incentive packages perhaps for showing commitment to the change effort of the organization. In the case of the fourth question item, the respondents believed that the new way of work has not robbed them of their benefits therefore will be willing to show commitment to change. This is shown by the mean score of 3.00 which falls within the disagree range of the measurement scale.

Management Style

Table 11: Shows Statistics on three items in the Survey Instrument for the Management Style Dimension of Change Management

S/N	Management Style (MS)	SA (5)	A (4)	MA (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	\bar{X}	SD
1	I am part of the change program because my company made it flexible for me to change.	58 39.68	22 9.52	49 30.95	25 11.90	20 7.94	3.62	.682
2	I am involved in the change effort because management does not compel it	75 53.17	33 18.25	20 7.94	21 8.73	25 11.90	3.95	.447
3	I am only committed to the change task because we all participated in how it was initiated.	52 42.86	43 26.19	34 11.11	23 10.32	22 9.52	3.71	.524

Table 11 shows details of the extent to which management style constitute a change management approach in the hospitality sector. The descriptive results on the three

question items are indicative of the degree that commitment to change can be attracted through flexible approach in the hospitality sector. The first question item had a low mean score of 3.62 which implies the respondents disagree that their involvement is not through compelling means to under tasks. There is a mild acceptance to involvement because of fear of loss of job as it is the case with the second question item with a mean score of 3.95. For the third question item, the mean score of 3.71 implies that they also mildly agree that their commitment to change is owed to the fact that they might move away from their current work unit. The response distribution here shows that choice of management style has not been much applied as a change management approach in the hospitality sector.

Competitiveness

Table 12: Shows Statistics on the Fifteen Items in the Instrument on Competitiveness

S/N	Competitiveness	SA (5)	A (4)	MA (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	\bar{X}	SD
1	Our personnel are trained to undertake new ways of work and it is the reason for effective handling of responsibilities.	50 33.33	37 21.43	33 18.25	30 15.87	24 11.11	3.56	.946
2	Effective communication of change program to all employees in the hotel is the reason for quality service delivery by the work force.	47 38.89	44 19.05	26 12.70	27 13.49	30 15.87	3.44	.928
3	Our reward package has ensured that the hotel workforce undertake responsibilities with commitment when there is change in operations.	44 44.44	40 15.87	43 18.25	30 15.87	17 5.56	3.82	.964
4	We are capable of delivering at all levels of services because our hotel is flexible in managing new operations strategy.	37 30.95	43 34.13	38 14.29	28 14.29	28 6.35	3.71	.953
5	Our hotel service quality is	32	51	30	21	40		

	considered very important therefore we can always introduce new ways of maintaining it.	17.46	34.13	15.87	8.73	23.81	3.18	.886
6	Our change communication approach to the workforce is the reason for sustained service quality.	50	34	43	27	20		
		41.27	11.11	26.19	13.49	7.94	3.66	.948
7	We ensure reward to improve service quality whenever there is change in the way we work.	45	43	38	26	22		
		29.37	26.19	22.22	12.70	9.52	3.50	.938
8	Our employees are trained constantly to ensure improved service quality whenever we undertake change programs.	46	38	34	24	32		
		30.16	22.22	19.05	11.11	17.46	3.48	.930
9	We promptly attend to customers' needs because our change effort is well managed.	48	34	31	30	31		
		31.75	19.05	16.67	15.87	16.67	3.34	.892
10	We innovate promptly because our workforce is properly communicated with our change initiatives.	46	42	27	33	26		
		30.16	25.40	13.49	18.25	12.70	3.47	.827
11	We are very responsive to customers complaints because our workforce is trained in coping with change in operations.	41	45	32	35	21		
		26.19	27.78	17.46	19.84	8.73	3.44	.818
12	There is always a good means of venturing at new service opportunities for customers	61	33	22	29	29		
		50.00	18.25	9.52	15.08	7.14	3.92	.986
13	We have always acted ahead of what customers may likely need and provide for it.	47	38	35	26	28		
		38.89	22.22	19.84	12.70	6.35	3.70	.950
14	We renew our service approaches to make them unique to our hotel and not easily initiated by others.	50	36	33	34	21		
		33.33	20.63	18.25	19.05	8.73	3.54	.941
15	There is a strong commitment to ensure the success of our style of services because of management support.	37	44	36	24	33		
		30.95	34.92	12.70	11.11	10.32	3.76	.957

Table 12 shows descriptive results on the extent to which change management dimensions used in this study have influenced competitiveness in terms of operational

capabilities, quality service delivery, agility and innovativeness. From the results it can be easily inferred that change management strategies applied in the hospitality sector have influenced competitiveness. The first question item has a mean score of 3.56 which implies that the employees training approaches have enhanced quality service delivery since they are equipped with the skills to undertake tasks effectively. The second and third question items with mean scores of 3.44 and 3.82 respectively implies that respondents agree strongly that communicating every new way of doing things and the possibility of reward is the reason for effective service delivery. In this way, employees know what is expected of them always. Again there is a mild acknowledgement of compelling them to undertake tasks as aiding competitive ability. The fourth question item for competitiveness has a high mean score of 3.71. This implies that the hotels are agile to competitiveness because every employee is aware of the reward implications that are accruable from commitment. In the case of then fifth and sixth question items, they have mean scores of 3.18 and 3.66 respectively. The respondents here agree that their competitive ability is due to the consideration given to service quality practices that enhances improved service delivery. The organizational approach to change is also the reason for sustained service quality. They commonly share ideas on ways of getting things done. Again this enhances operational renewal efforts that ultimately add up to quality service delivery and sustained operational capabilities.

The other question items on competitiveness have their degree of relationship and impact on the competitive ability of the organization. However, on the innovation

measure of competitiveness, respondents revealed that the uniqueness of services as renewed regularly and not initiated by others is a helpful factor. This is evident from the mean score on question number fourteen (14). They also strongly agreed that management support and a strong commitment to ensure the success of innovations keeps them competitive as seen in item number fifteen (15).

4.4 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

Correlational outcome on the relationship between Change Management dimensions (continuous learning; communication, reward system and management style) and Organizational Competitiveness measures (operational capability, improved service quality, agility and innovation) are hereby shown. The hypotheses as stated are as follows;

- H_A1: Continuous learning as a dimension of change management significantly relates with operational capability.
- H_A2: There is significant relationship between effective communication as a change management dimension and improved service quality.
- H_A3: Reward package as a change management effort significantly relates with an organization's agility ability.
- H_A4: Management style as a change management approach significantly relates with a firm's innovativeness.

Table 13: Showing Inferential Results on the stated Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4

	H₀₁	H₀₂	H₀₃	H₀₄
	CL (COMP)	COM (COMP)	RS (COMP)	MS (COMP)
N	174	174	174	174
Sig (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.043
Pearson	.438**	.682**	.336**	.422**

***Correlation is significant @ 0.01 (2 tailed)*

The results of our inferential analysis on the stated four primary hypotheses are shown in Table 13 above. For the first hypothesis, continuous learning has a positive and significant relationship with organizational competitiveness in terms of operational capability of the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt. The $r = 0.438$ @ $P = 0.000 < 0.01$, shows this relationship. In the case of effective communication strong, positive and significant relationships exist between communication and organizational competitiveness in terms of improved service quality in the Port Harcourt hospitality sector as shown in its r value = 0.682 and significant at $P = 0.000 < 0.01$. Similarly, the results on reward system dimension of change management and competitiveness as it relates to an organizational agility in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt have $r = 0.336$ @ $P = 0.000 < 0.01$. This simply means that a positive and significant relationship exist between reward system and organizational competitiveness in the city of Port Harcourt hospitality sector. Also, the dimension of management style on organizational competitiveness showed a significant relationship as seen in its r value r

= 0.422@ $P = 0.000 < 0.01$. From these, the stated hypotheses H_01 , H_02 and H_03 are accepted and thus:

H_01 : There is a positive and significant relationship between continuous learning and operational capability.

H_02 : There is a significant relationship between effective communication as a change management dimension and improved service quality.

H_03 : Reward package as a change management effort has a significantly relationship with a firm's agility ability.

H_04 : Management style as a change management approach significantly relates with a firm's innovativeness.

Having examined the primary hypotheses, the organizational competitiveness measures as represented in the conceptual framework are also examined to show the nature of the relationship between the dimension of change management that are examined in the study.

The r values as represented shows the coefficient of the relationship between the examined variable while the R^2 is the coefficient of determination that explains how much of the dependent variable behavior is influenced by the behavior of the independent variable.

4.5 TESTING FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF THE COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION

Table 14: Bivariate Analysis of the Relationship between Continuous Learning (X) and Operational Capabilities (Y) in the Hospitality Sector.

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_s = 0$: There is no significant correlation between continuous learning and operational capabilities in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

$H_A: \rho_s \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between continuous learning and operational capabilities in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt.

Correlations		Continuous Learning	Operational Capabilities
Continuous Learning	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.841**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.000
	N	174	174
Operational Capabilities	Correlation Coefficient	.841**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	-
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS Ver.15 Output window

From the inferential results on the relationship between continuous learning dimension of change management and organizational competitiveness measured by operational capabilities as shown in table 14. It shows that a positive and significant relationship exist between the variables. The $r = 0.841$ shows a strong relationship and $P = 0.000 < 0.01$ shows the significance of the relationship. This simply infers that continuous learning as a component of the change management process ensures that appropriate operational capabilities are enhanced to leverage competition in the sector.

Table 15: Bivariate Analysis of the Relationship between Effective Communication (X) and Improved Service Quality (Y) in the Hospitality Sector.

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_s = 0$: There is no significant correlation between effective communication and improved service quality in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

$H_A: \rho_s \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between effective communication and improved service quality in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt.

Correlations			
		Effective Communication	Improved Service Quality
Effective Communication	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.531**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.000
	N	174	174
Improved Service Quality	Correlation Coefficient	.531**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	-
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS Ver.15 Output window

Table 15 shows the inferential statistical outcome on the nature of relationship between effective communication as a component of change management and improved quality service delivery as a measure of competitiveness. From the results $r = 0.531$ it shows a strong positive relationship and further with $P = 0.000 < 0.01$ it also shows a significant one. This implies that in change management ensuring competitiveness in the hospitality sector, effective communication is an important component. This encourages employee commitment to change initiatives of the hospitality sector of the economy.

Table 16: Bivariate Analysis of the Relationship between Reward (X) and Agility (Y) in the Hospitality Sector.

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_s = 0$: There is no significant correlation between reward and agility in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

$H_A: \rho_s \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between reward and agility in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

Correlations			
		Reward	Agility
Reward System	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.581**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.070
	N	174	174
Agility	Correlation Coefficient	.581**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.070	-
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS Ver.15 Output window

The inferential result shows the nature of relationship between rewards accruable from commitment to change program and agility in the hospitality sector. Table 16 shows the result, $\rho = 0.581$ and $P = 0.060 > 0.01$ which infers that a positive and significant relationship exists between the variables examined in the hospitality sector. The results point to the fact that though agility as a measure of competitiveness, can be stimulated using reward as a means of managing change and its applicability on agility is a significant one. This is perhaps due to the fact that reward might necessarily be a means of capturing and sustaining change program within the sector.

Table 17: Bivariate Analysis of the Relationship between Management Style (X) and Innovativeness (Y) in the Hospitality Sector.

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

H_O: $\rho_s = 0$: There is no significant correlation between management style and innovativeness in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

H_A: $\rho_s \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between management style and innovativeness in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

Correlations		Management Style	Innovativeness
Management Style	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.551**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.000
	N	174	174
Innovativeness	Correlation Coefficient	.551**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	-
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS Ver.15 Output window

The relationship between management style as a change management dimension and innovativeness as a means of organizational competitiveness in the hospitality sector is revealed in the inferential results as shown in Table 17 above. The statistical outcome of $r = 0.551$ and $P = 0.000 < 0.01$ shows that a strong positive and significant relationship exist between the examined variables. Empirically, this affirms the fact that management style as a tool for managing change in the hospitality sector is required to ensure that the organization remains innovative by way of new and creative productive tendencies. This invariably would strengthen the organization and equip it with strength in the face of competitors in the hospitality sector.

CHAPTER FIVE DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 DISCUSSION OF HYPOTHESES TEST RESULTS

This study which has been systematically carried out has its methodological and theoretical input to knowledge building. The findings of the study suggest the critical role of strategic change efforts of organizations and expected outcomes. Again, change though has been emphasized when viewed against the backdrop of the improving need to grow the tourism and hospitality sub sector of the economy, it must be managed and its potency to facilitate goals can be better realized. Primarily, the study has shown with empiricism the relationship that exists between change management and organizational competitiveness. This is consistent with literature on change and growth of firms (Mento et al, 2002; Barnett, 2001; Anderson, 2009).

H₀1: Continuous learning as a dimension of change management significantly relates with a firm's operational capability.

In line with the findings of Yamarrino (2005), continuous learning practice is emphasized as core to change management in work organizations. The findings of the study here reiterate the need for organizational action toward training and retraining of personnel to acquire and sustain the skills and competencies that will be value added towards goals. Continuous learning approach to ensuring employee commitment to change program is also strongly noted in the work of Berkowitz (2009) which was conducted within a hi-tech manufacturing context. The contextual peculiarities

notwithstanding, the study outcome has reemphasized previous results therefore stressed the need for a work climate that encourages learning alongside change. The association between continuous learning and operational capability as a measure of organizational competitiveness is emphatic and strengthen extant literatures position that expresses a positive and significant relationship between change management and performance. Importantly, this study has specifically examined the competitiveness variable in relation to industry practice and outcome. In doing this, continuous learning as a dimension of change management showed positive and significant relationship with operational capabilities, improved service quality and agility.

Competitiveness according to Paul and Shabby (2007) is an aggregated set of actions to position the firm within its operational environment with a view to acquiring and expanding on desired market share. The ability to undertake this in their thinking requires volume of organizational knowledge asset which results from continuous learning that enable acquisition and improvement of work skills.

H₀2: There is a significant relationship between effective communication as a change management dimension and improved service quality.

Mildred et al (2008) drew attention to organizational leadership ability to convey, through effective communicational medium the organizational vision. Since change is transformation oriented, it should be communicated clearly to attract cooperation and the awareness of the end points. In this study, effective communication from the

results correlates with improved service quality in terms of change management. There exist studies that have essentially linked communication to performance in work organizations (Jaja, 2000; Ugorji and Silas, 2004; Maddison, 2007). Our study outcome is not far from this. Although communication in terms of managing has been described by Wale and March (2002) as an onerous responsibility that should be consistent all through the change program. It is a must task that ensures every stage is appreciated by all those that are required to effectively undertake change. Enlisting the support of all the employees from the study results requires communicating properly to unfreeze them and cognitively reorganize them (Schein 1992). This lowers the rate of inertia that often greets change in work organizations.

According to Hinings and Greenwood (2009), organizations go through various internal change processes throughout their normal life cycle where organizational leaders may create change driving forces within the organization. One of the primary driving forces according to the authors is communicational practice that provides the need for change and reemphasizes the focus of the organization towards improved service quality and thus competitive capabilities. The expected structural and operational reforms are communicated with a view to ensuring behavioural reform that sign post affective commitment to change initiatives. What is substantially brought to the fore here from the findings supports Arnetz (2005) view that change only when effectively communicated to all concerned within the organization, that its expected pay-offs are realized. Arnetz noted further that regardless of the forces causing

organization to see the need for change, organizational leaders continually communicate to maintain or improve the organization's competitive advantage through quality service provision.

H₀₃: Reward package as a change management effort significantly relates with an organization's agility ability.

Erakovitz and Wilson, (2005) espoused that employee commitment to change initiatives and implementation in organizations is better achieved if they are guaranteed their expectations as they go along with management. The structural reconfiguration that commonly goes with change should be associated with a reward culture to attract a sustained positive behaviour. Denisi (1999) described it as a change compliant behaviour and this result from incentives which may be short or long term. The findings of the study regarding reward system as a change management strategy are descriptively assertive. The organizational operators from the findings have affected employees toward commitment through some rewards. Schein (1992) was of the view that where people have expectation from change in terms of psychological safety and other reward, managerial assurance is required to attract their handling of tasks to successfully implement change and assurance that change will not cause humiliation, punishment or loss of self esteem.

Importantly, the inferential result has shown a link between reward and a means of managing change and a firm's competitiveness. This is strongly shown in terms of

operational capabilities of employees. The relationship is also significant in the case of reward, improved service quality and agility. However, a non-significant relationship exists between reward and innovativeness. The reason for the non-significance with innovativeness can be seen to be resulting from the nature of rewards applicable. Extant literature on rewards and employees has a perspective that stressed on nature of rewards as the premise for stimulating a positively desired behaviour that ensures the attainment of goals (Flood and Curtain, 2000; Wischnevsky, 2001; Herrick, 2005). The reinforcement theories of motivation have employee expectation in return for their input as a rationale for a repeat of behaviour. The increasing role of reward as incentive for reinforcing commitment to change in the organization was reported in Herrick (2005). They have shown empirical evidence linking reward to affective commitment to work goals. Going by the findings of this study credence is given to extant literature on reward and work goals which in this circumstance is competitiveness among firms in the hospitality sector. From the descriptive results, it was well expressed that, to encourage employee support for the new technological processes aimed at quality service delivery, rewards are combined with training needs to attract their commitment to the change program which would have ordinarily been conducted with lack-luster approach.

H₀4: Management style as a change management approach significantly relates with a firm's innovativeness.

While coordinated actions are subtly taken by managers to achieve the objective of change, Millwright (2006) noted that because employees are apprehensive of change outcomes, they tend to resist even where they are guaranteed renewal of skills through training or rewards for commitment. Gararoo (2008) argued that when organizational change tempo is resisted, the formality of workplace culture is restored and this involves strategically adopted managerial approaches as a means of attracting support. The authors worry here is that unwillingness to support will impinge on strategic attempt at the goals which in this instance is innovativeness. Although Ubong et al (2005) have argued that though management styles come as a strategic option to attract employee commitment to organizational change program, it is necessary when viewed against the backdrop of the environmental characteristics of the industry where a firm operates. Lasbry (2003) believed that the style of management can be used to manage change towards desired goals as they could introduce flexibility or rigidity. The findings of this study also give support and empirical credence to their thought. It has shown a link between management style as a component of change management and organizational innovativeness.

In an industry as volatile as the hospitality sector with complexity as environmental characteristic, change requires that it is a 'must do'. Therefore, it will require strategic option that makes it act fast within the market place and render quality services that

will attract continuous customer patronage. Importantly, the link between management style as a change management component though has shown a significant relationship. The reason might not be far from Simonson (2005) position where he noted that managers ability to create a mix of approaches that augment one another may serve as a veritable means for effective management of change and the realization of intended objectives. Managers in this sector expectedly have considered a mix of all the management strategies to ensure employees are carried along. Thus giving desired support to the operational, administrative and technological change programs that are targeted at innovativeness and continuous process improvement. Lox et al (2008) equally believed that change management is principally on people and how they both individually and collectively as a team, transit from the current state to a new state that is value enhancing. What Lox's position simply suggests is that, if change is people oriented, managers should sufficiently consider strategies that will attract support from them and not necessarily a management approach that will create a non-people oriented climate of work.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This study which examined change management and its influence on organizational competitiveness in the hospitality sector made findings in relation with the dimensions and measures of the constructs. In order to conduct the study, the independent variable – change management was operationalized using its dimensions like continuous learning, effective communication, reward and management styles. Similarly, the measures of competitiveness which is the dependent variable were operational capability, improved service delivery, agility and innovativeness.

From the analyzed data, the study showed that continuous learning as a dimension of change management associates with operational capability which is a measure of organizational competitiveness in the hospitality sector. Continuous learning in this instance provides a platform for acquisition of skills and knowledge that is needed for effective participation of all work members and successful change implementation. This is in addition to strengthening operational capabilities that helps in improving quality service delivery to customers.

Importantly, the study from its result also showed that effective communication as a change management dimension relates significantly with improved service quality which was also used as a measure of competitiveness. Clear communication of

organizational change objectives and goal is an important component of change management that is geared towards attracting commitment from all stakeholders. This would facilitate clear understanding of all that is involved for quality service delivery.

Further, the study findings also revealed the empirical link between rewards and agility in the change management and competitiveness relationship. It is a positive and significant relationship that simply means that rewards are imperatives for the needed agile responses. Competitiveness typifies organizational capacity to remain viable within its environment and gain strategic advantage. Rewards are necessary from the findings to get employees to be affectively committed to change programs. This accounts for the prompt responsive approach to tasks.

The management style deployed for effective change implementation is also seen to be strategic to competitiveness. The results also indicated a positive and significant relationship between management style as a dimension of change management and innovativeness. Management style here represents the overall approaches that the management of the organization deploys in terms of leadership style to attract followership of all work members towards intended change goals.

6.2 CONCLUSION

It is common knowledge that the operational environment of business organization is characteristically competitive. Therefore their survival is dependent on some strategic actions that are deliberately taken and are value added. Of course this entails change which is considered imperative and such actions aimed at positioning. Based on this thinking, this study examined the influence of change management on organizational competitiveness in the hospitality sector.

In order to conduct this investigation, pertinent research questions were raised in relation to operationalized dimensions and measures of change management and competitiveness respectively. From the data generated and analyzed, there were clear-cut empirical outcomes which are;

- i) Continuous learning relates significantly with organizational competitiveness
- ii) Effective Communication relates positively and significantly with organizational competitiveness
- iii) Reward system relates positively with organizational competitiveness and
- iv) Management style relates positively and significantly with organizational competitiveness. From the foregoing, it was concluded that management of change program is as strategic as initiating change. The study outcomes are indicative of the importance of some organizational driven actions that

giving reinforcement and commitment to change goals thereby ensuring competitiveness.

Based on the listed empirical findings, it is concluded that organizational change management has positive implications on organizational competitiveness in terms of operational capabilities, improved service delivery, agility and innovativeness.

6.3 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The study no doubt has illuminated the discourse on the influence of change management on the entire organizational development and transformation scope. The outcomes of the study are revealing on the nature of the relationship between change management and other strategic actions that lead to goals as shown in the Table 18 below.

Table 18: Study Outcomes and Nature of Relationships.

Dimension	Measure	Outcome	Significance
Continuous Learning	Operational Capability	Strong Positive Relationship	Significant @ 0.01
Effective Communication	Improves Service Quality	Strong Positive Relationship	Significant @ 0.01
Reward	Agility	Strong Positive Relationship	Significant @ 0.01
Management Style	Innovativeness	Strong Positive Relationship	Significant @ 0.01

Importantly, the study through operational dimensions of change management and the measures of competitiveness has opened up fresh theoretical frontiers on the constructs. The implication is that a deeper insight toward the understanding of the constructs and concept is established. Unlike other studies that had always viewed change management and competitiveness as mono constructs. Their multi components are quite validated from this study. It has also helped in emphasizing some work place actions that constitutes a strategic drive towards the attainment of the long term goals of the organization.

The study has also highlighted the agility concept noted in the strategic management literature as a component of competitiveness while some scholars have noted in their argument that agility is an initiated organizational action aimed at competitiveness. The outcome of this study has strengthened the work of Mento et al (2002) on managing change through proper communication of the vision to all stakeholders. Inability of management to give details on the program is likely to be the reason for lack of commitment. In his 12 point taxonomical model on change management, continuous learning as a way of enhancing skills was also reinforced.

Cardill (2008) has correlated change management and employee commitment and these have also been given empirical credence largely. Though there is clear-cut theoretical variance in terms of the association examined in this study, there is a strong assertion that is empirical in relation to change management and expected

organizational outcomes. What is emphasized here is that if change is properly managed in work organization, it serves as a strategic means of achieving goals at work.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the relationship between change management and organizational competitiveness in the hospitality sector. The level of competition in the sector according to Olaniyi (2009) has been heightened due to increased concern for the tourism and hospitality sector as a source of growing the economy. These have necessitated change both in technology-in-use, operation and administrative processes which requires to be managed. Based on the findings of the study we recommend as follows:

1. Change as it were, emphasizes new approaches towards achieving goals. In order to attract support of all concerned who might not be willing to be involved because of lack of requisite skills, training culture is strongly emphasized. In other words, the organization should ensure that employees in the sector are made to acquire skills and competences through continuous learning programs that are tailored towards intended change. This will go a long way to solve the problem of inertia that is often associated with change.
2. In order to ensure all stakeholder involvement and commitment to the goals of change, effective communication is considered imperative. The entire program should be properly communicated to all work members. In some instances,

special signs and markings be put in conspicuous positions that consistently remind them of the on-going change program. Through this, commitment is secured for operational capability and agility.

3. For effective management of change that culminates to competitive advantage, special incentive and reward packages should be put in place. This is reasoning to the employee who is already aware of associated benefits for showing commitment to organizational change programs. These rewards might not necessarily be in monetary form, rather special award programs for commitment would attract employee all time support. The ultimate goal from their support is, improved quality delivery and an agile organization that spontaneously meet customer needs.

6.5 SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

This study though has shown reinforcement in the area of change management and organizational competitiveness which illuminates the organizational development discourse; it may not have covered the entire theoretical scope of the investigated constructs. This requires that other theoretical components of change management like coercion, inclusive change and structural adaptabilities need to be explored with a view to validating their content and association with competitiveness. Further, it is also important to investigate the role of some chosen moderating factors within the context of organizations on the influence of change management and expected organizational outcomes.

The study also can be replicated in other sub-sectors of the economy that are fast undergoing change so as to appreciate the influence of its management on performance.

REFERENCES

- Albert, J.M. and Jill, C.R. (2005). *Understanding and Managing Organizational Behavior*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ametz, B.B. (2005). "Subjective Indicators as a Gauge for Improving Organizational Well-Being, An Attempt to Apply the Cognitive Activation Theory to Organizations". *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 30, 1022 – 1026.
- Anderson, D. N. (2009). *Entrepreneurship Leadership and Motivation*. Erlbaum, Marwah, NJ.
- Anyanwu, V. A. (2009). *Research Methodology: Theory and Practice*. Owerri: African-Fep Pub.
- Armenakis, A. A. and Bedeian, A.G. (2000). Organizational Change: A Review of Theory and Research in the 1990s. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 25(3) Pp. 293-315.
- Baastlett, C.A., and Goshal, S. (1999). Building the Entrepreneurial Corporation: New Organizational Processes, New Managerial Tasks. *The European Management Journal*, 13(2) Pp. 139-155.
- Baridam, D. (2008) *Research Methods in Administrative Science*. Port Harcourt: Brooks Associates.
- Barnett, E. (2001). Narratives of Learning, Development and Innovation: Evidence from a Manufacturing SME. *Enterprise and Innovation Management Studies* 2 (2), 83-101.
- Barney, J. (2001). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1) Pp 99-120.
- Beckhard, R. and Harris, R.T. (1987). *Organization Transitions: Managing Complex Change*, Reading, Mass: Addison – Wesley.
- Berkowitz, M. M. (2009). *Labour Markets in a Changing Environment*. Working Paper, Stockholm School of Economics.
- Beer, M. (1980). *Organizational Change and Development: A Systems view*, Santa Monica, CA: Goodyear Publishing Co.

- Beer, M., Eisenstat, R.A., and Spector, B. (1990). "Why Change Programs Don't Produce Change" *Harvard Business Review*, (Nov.–Dec.), 158-166.
- Benala, A. A. (2006). Accelerating Cultural Change Processes. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, Vol. 16(7) Pp. 67-83.
- Blanche, J. T. and Durheim, S. B. (1999). *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Science*. Claremont SA.:Juta and Company Ltd.
- Block, P. (2000). *Flawless Consulting*, New York: Jossey Bass.
- Boeker, W. (1989). "Strategic Change: The Effects of Founding and History" *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 32. 489-515.
- Bowett, R., and Sheffi, B. (1998). *Dynamics of Planned Change*, New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Burke, J.A., Polimeni, R.S., and Slavin, N.S. (2007). Academic Dishonesty: A Crisis On Campus – Forging Ethical Professionals Begins in the Classroom, *The CPA Journal*, (May), 58-65.
- Burke, W. and Litwin, (1992). "A Causal Model of Organizational Performance and Change," *Journal of Management*, 18, 523-545.
- Burke, W.W. (1976). "Organization Development in Transition" *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 12, 22-43.
- Burke, W.W. (1993). "The Changing World of Organization Change." *Consulting Psychology Journal*, (1) 19 – 17.
- Burke, W.W. and Trahaunt, A. (2000). *Organizational Development: Principles and Practice*, Boston: Little Brown.
- Caidwell, S.D., Herold, D.M., and Fedor, D.B. (2004). "Toward an Understanding of The Relationships among Organizational Change, Individual Differences, and Changes in Person-Environment Fit: A Cross-Level Study," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, (5), 868-882.
- Canterucci, R. (1998). *Organization Development: Strategies and Models*, Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley.
- Cateora, R. and Graham, L. (2002). *International Marketing*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Chandler, A. (1962), *Strategy and Structure*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger.
- Chang, J.S. and Sonja P. (2004).Resistance to Change.*Monash Business Review*, Vol. 1 (1) Pp. 40-43.
- Child, J. (1972). "Organization Structure, Environment and Performance: The Role of Strategic Choice" *Sociology* 6, 1-22.
- Child, J. and Keiser, J. (2002).Development of Organization Overtime In PO.*Handbook of Organizational Design*, Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Clarke, J. and Garside, J. (1997). "Development of Organizations Over Time," In P. Nystrom and W. Starbuck, (Eds)., *Handbook of Organizational Design* 28-64. Oxford, England: University Press.
- Collier, J. (1995). "United States Indian Administration as a Laboratory Of Ethnic Relations," *Social Research*, 12, 275-85.
- Collins, S. (2001). *Good to Great*, New York: Harper Collins Publishers.
- Covin, J. G., and D. F. Kuratko. 2010. The Concept of Corporate Entrepreneurship. In *Encyclopaedia of Technology and Innovation Management*,ed. V. K. Narayanan and G. C. O'Connor 207–14. Oxford: BlackwellPublishers.
- Creswell, J. W. (2000). Determining Validity in Quantitative Enquiry. *Theory In Practice*, Vol. 39, Number 3. College of Education, The Ohio University.
- Damanpour, F. (2009).Characteristics of Innovation and Innovation Adoption in Public Organizations: Assessing the Role of Managers. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, Vol. 19, Issue 3, pp. 495-522, 2009
- Denisi, S. A. (1999), "Gender Differences in Transformational Leadership: An Examination of Superior, Leader, and Subordinate Perspectives," *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, .39, (11), 887-902.
- Doz, Y.L. and Prahalad, C.K. (2000).*The Multinational Mission*, New York: The Free Press.
- Erakovic, L. and Wilson, M. (2005), "Conditions of Radical Transformation in State-Owned Enterprises," *British Journal of Management*, 16, 293-313.

- Farrell, J.B., Flood, P.C., MacCurtain, S.M., Hannigan, A., Dawson, J., and West, M. (2005). "CEO Leadership, Top Team, Trust and the Combination and Exchange of Information," *The Irish Journal of Management*, 26, 22-40.
- Grandoton, C. (2010). *Understanding the Competitive Process*, Minnesota: Ladger Press.
- Greiner, L. (2001). Evolution and Revolution as organization Grow. *Harvard Business Review*, 50(4) Pp. 37-46.
- Hage, J.T. (1999). Organizational Innovation and Organizational Change. *Annual Review of Sociology*, (25) Pp. 597-622.
- Harrison, I. B., Kelemo, J., Egben, P. C. and Matthews, L. (2006) Regionalized Entrepreneurship in a Competitive Environment. *Organizational Monographs*. 67; 91-121.
- Hengen, E.C. (2002). People Skills Change Management Tools – Lewins Change Model. *Interfaces*, 31(4) 71-77.
- Hermann, N. (2000). *The Whole Brain Business Book*, New York: McGraw Hill Book Co.
- Herrick K.S. (2005), "The Opportunities of Stewardship," Nurse
- Hinings, C.R. & Greenwood, R. (2009). *The Dynamics of Strategic Change*, Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.
- Jaja. S.A. (2006). Work Characteristics and Employee Well Being Within a Context of Strategic Downsizing. *Journal of Administrative Science*, Vol. 7(3) Pp. 151-177.
- Jemmer, K. (2006). Change Management: An Inside Job. *Journal f Economics*, 17(4) Pp. 517-533.
- Jemmer T. (2006). Feeling Bad: Antecedents and Consequences of Negative Emotions in Ongoing Change, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 875-897.
- Jick, T.D. (2001). Vision Is 10%. "Implementation the Rest' Business Strategy Review, 12, 36-38.
- Jick, T.D. (2003), *Managing Change: Cases and Concepts: Second Edition*. New York: Irwin Publishing.

- Kanter, R.M. (1989). *When Giants Learn to Dance: Mastering the Challenges of Strategy, Management, and Careers in the 1990's*, New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Kanter, R.M., Copello, A.G., Templeton, L., and Velleman, R. (2006). "Family Interventions for Drug and Alcohol Misuse: Is There Best Practice?" *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*, 19, (3), 271 – 276.
- Kotter, J.P. (1996). *Leading Change*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Krejcie, R. V. and Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining Sample Size for Research Activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.
- Landy, F.J. and Conte, J.M (2004). *Work in the 21st Century: An Introduction to Industrial and organizational Psychology*, New York: McGraw Hill Book Co.
- Leonard, H.S. (2000). Merely a Pimple on the Elephant: On becoming players in the World of Organizational Consulting. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 54(1) Pp. 3-12.
- Lok, P., Hung, R.Y., Walsh, P., Wang, P., and Crawford, J. (2008). "An Integrative Framework for Measuring the Extent to which Organizational Variables Influence the Success of Process Improvement Programmes", *Journal of Management Studies*, 42, 135-138.
- Lox, B.L.T., Nystrom, P.C., and Startbuck, W.H. (2008). "Camping on Seesaws: Prescriptions for a Self-Designing Organization," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21, 41- 65.
- Lumpkin, G. T. and Linchtenstein, B. B. (2005). The Role of Organizational Learning in the Opportunity – Recognition Process. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(4) Pp. 451-472.
- Lundberg, C. C. (1995). Learning in and by Organizations: Three Conceptual Issues. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 3(1) Pp. 10-23.
- Mahmood, N. D. and Harrison, B. (2001). Evaluating Competitiveness at the Industry Level. *Journal of Administrative Science*, 6(4) 53-71.
- Markides, C. (2007). *Strategic Innovation at the Base of the Economic Pyramid*. London Business School Regents Park NW1 4SA United Kingdom

- Marsick, V. J. (1999). *Facilitating Learning Organization: Making Learning Count*, England: Gower Press.
- McGraw, A. M. (2000). Competitive, Strategy and Business Performance. *California Management Review*, 41(3) Pp. 74-101.
- Mensah, S. D. (2008). Segmentations and Impacts on Organizational Performance. AltraMia Press, Littlefield Publishers Inc.
- Mento, A.J., Jones, R.M., and Dirnddorfer, W. (2002). "A Change Management Process: Grounded in Both Theory and Practice," *Journal of Change Management*, 3, pp. 45-59.
- Mildred, G., Sonia, T., John, H., Donna, A., Singleton, L. (2008). Change Management. *Delhi Business Review*, 9(1) 235-262.
- Millaye, M. J. (2008). Group Processes, Productivity and Performance. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Momaya, K. (2004). *International Competitiveness*, New Delhi: Hinduston Pub. Co.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric Theory (2nd Edition). New York: NY. McGraw Hill.
- Paul, A. & Shabbyi, D. (2007). "Corruption," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 51, 31-35.
- Peteraf, M. A. (2003). The Cornerstone of Competitive Advantage: A resource-Based View. *Strategic Management Journal*, 12 (14) Pp. 179-191.
- Porter, M. (1990). *The Competitive Advantage of Nations*, New York: Free Press.
- Richard, P. (2002). "Why Organizations Change", In A. M. Mohrman et al. (Eds.), *Large-Scale Organizational Change*, 48-61, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Richard, P. C. (2002). *The Congruence of People and Organization*, West-Port, CT: Quorum Books.
- Romanelli, E. (2003). Organizational Transformation as Punctuated Equilibrium: An Empirical Test. *The Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37, No.5 Pp. 1141-1166.

- Scheider, J. (1998). "Transforming Organizations, Methods for Accelerating Culture Change Processes," *Information Knowledge System Management* 1, (2) 105-115.
- Schein, E.H. (1980). *Organizational Psychology*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice – Hill.
- Schein, E.H. (1985). *Culture and Leadership*, San Francisco: Jossey – Bass.
- Schein, E.H. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Senge, P. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*, New York; Doubleday.
- Simonson, M. (2005). "Distance Education: Eight Steps for Transforming an Organization," *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, 6, 7-8.
- Slater, S. F. and Narver, J. C. (2000). The Positive Effect of a Market Orientation on Business Profitability: A Balanced Replication. *Journal of Business Research*, 48(2) Pp. 69-73.
- Spencer, J. and Casey, N. (2007). "Toy Recall Shows Challenge China Poses to Partners," *The Wall Street Journal Online*, Mar. 8, 2007, Retrieved Sept. 11, 2007 from <http://online.wsj.com/public/article>.
- Stevenson, H. A. and Jarillo, J. C. (2005). A Paradigm of Entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurial Management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 11(2) Pp 17-27.
- Stephenson, J. and Javilon, C. (2005). "Measuring the Effects of the September 11 Attack on New York City". *Economic Policy Review – Federal Reserve Bank of New York*, 8, 5-20.
- Sushit, P. (2003). *Flexibility in Management*, New Delhi: Vikas Pub House.
- Ugorji, T. and Silas, E. (2004). *Enhancing Communication Process for Organizational Survival*. Lagos NG: White Stripe Press.
- Walsh, I.W. (2000). *Organization Development: Principles and Practices*, Boston: Little, Brown.

- Wang, R. and Crawford, W. (2005). *Changing The Essence: The Art of Creating and Leading Fundamental Change in Organization*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Williams, M. P. (2003). Knowledge Management: An Evolving Professional Discipline. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 8(2) 19-36.
- Wishnevsky, J., (2001). *Preparing for Organizational Change*. The Organization of The Future, San Francisco: Jossey Bass Publishers.
- Yamarino, F. J. (2005). Transformational Leadership Theory: Using Level of Analysis to Determine Boundary Conditions. *Personal Psychology* 47.787-811.
- Zahra, S. A. (2009). Maximizing the Impact of Organization Science: Theory-Building at the Intersection of Disciplines and/or Fields. *Journal of Management Studies*. Volume 46, Issue 6, pages 1059–1075, September 2009

APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Business Administration,
Faculty of Management Sciences,
NnamdiAzikiwe University,
Awka, Anambra State.

Dear Respondent,

The researcher is a PhD candidate of the Business Administration Department of the NnamdiAzikiwe University, Awka, and is conducting a study on “Change Management and Organizational Competitiveness: A Survey of the Hospitality Sector in Port Harcourt, Rivers State”.

All questions asked are strictly for research purposes only and any information given will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please kindly fill the attached questionnaire as objectively and honestly as possible.

It is hoped that with your wealth of experience, based on the information you will provide, you will assist us greatly in achieving our research objectives.

Your cooperation is therefore highly solicited.

Yours faithfully,

Cornell Chikere
Researcher

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

1. Name of organization:.....
2. Position in Company:.....
3. Academic Qualification:.....
4. No of years in service:.....
5. Sex:.....

SECTION B

Please respond as candidly as possible to the following statements by circling a number between 1 and 5 on the scale that best represents your organization. The figures represent the following: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 2. Disagree; 3. Moderately Agree; 4. Agree and 5. Strongly Agree. In order to get a complete assessment of change, this study explores both organizational change and competitiveness.

S/No	Continuous Learning	SA (5)	A (4)	MA (3)	MD (2)	SD (1)
1.	I am committed to the new ways of work because my work skills are updated to cope.					
2.	I am committed to the new ways of works because we commonly share ideas over assigned responsibilities.					
3.	There are different training programs in place to help orient us on the necessary competencies.					
4.	Our culture of learning always is the reason why we are committed to the change effort.					
	Effective Communication					
5.	The change program is properly communicated to me that is why I am committed.					
6.	The benefits of the change effort are properly communicated to me and that is why I am committed.					
7.	Plans are clearly communicated to us whenever there is the need to change course of action.					
8.	I am committed to the change program of the company because every effort is appraised and the outcome is made known to me.					

	Reward Package					
9.	Our change program has succeeded because we are rewarded for all our inputs.					
10.	I am committed to the change effort because the monetary rewards are properly spelt out.					
11.	There are many incentives in relation to the change program therefore we are committed.					
12.	Whenever there is a new way of work, I don't like it because it is not associated with extra benefit for my input.					
	Management Style					
13.	I am part of the change program because my company made it flexible for me to change.					
14.	I am involved in the change effort because management does not compel it					
15.	I am only committed to the change task because we all participated in how it was initiated.					
	Operational Capability					
16.	Our personnel are trained to undertake new ways of work and it is the reason for effective handling of responsibilities.					
17.	Effective communication of change program to all employees in the hotel is the reason for quality service delivery by the work force.					
18	Our reward package has ensured that the hotel workforce undertake responsibilities with commitment when there is change in operations.					
19	We are capable of delivering at all levels of services because our hotel is flexible in managing new operations strategy.					

	Improved Service Quality					
20	Our hotel service quality is considered very important therefore we can always introduce new ways of maintaining it.					
21	Our change communication approach to the workforce is the reason for sustained service quality.					
22	We ensure reward to improve service quality whenever there is change in the way we work.					
23	Our employees are trained constantly to ensure improved service quality whenever we undertake change programs.					
	Agility					
24	We promptly attend to customers' needs because our change effort is well managed.					
25	We innovate promptly because our workforce is properly communicated with our change initiatives.					
26	We are very responsive to customers complaints because our workforce is trained in coping with change in operations.					
	Innovation					
27	There is always a good means of venturing at new service opportunities for customers					
28	We have always acted ahead of what customers may likely need and provide for it.					
29	We renew our service approaches to make them unique to our hotel and not easily initiated by others.					
30	There is a strong commitment to ensure the success of our style of services because of management support.					

APPENDIX B

RELIABILITY COMPUTATION OF THE INSTRUMENTS

The reliability statistics, items statistics and the scale statistics were tested and computed using the software: Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15 for Windows. All the items (instruments) in the questionnaire coded in Section B representing constructs for continuous learning, communication, management style, rewards and organizational competitiveness, were subjected to the internal reliability test. The Cronbach (Alpha) model was employed to test the reliability of the instruments used in this survey. Cronbach (Alpha) is a model of internal consistency, based on the average inter-item correlation; (Cronbach, L.J. 1951).

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change Management

SCALE: CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMPETITIVENESS

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	126	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	126	100.0

- a. Likewise deletion based on all variables
variables in the procedure

Reliable Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
0.782	21

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change

SCALE: CONTINUOUS LEARNING**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	126	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	126	100.0

- a. Listwise deletion based on all variables
variables in the procedure

Reliable Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
0.783	4

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change Management=03May13A.sav

SCALE: COMMUNICATION**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	126	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	126	100.0

- a. Listwise deletion based on all variables
variables in the procedure

Reliable Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
0.881	4

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change Management=03May13A.sav

SCALE: REWARD**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	126	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	126	100.0

- b. Listwise deletion based on all variables
variables in the procedure

Reliable Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
0.712	4

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change Management=03May13A.sav

SCALE: MANAGEMENT STYLE**Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	126	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	126	100.0

- b. Listwise deletion based on all variables
variables in the procedure

Reliable Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
0.761	4

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change Management=03May13A.sav

SCALE: COMPETITIVENESS

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	126	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	126	100.0

- a. Listwise deletion based on all variables
variables in the procedure

Reliable Statistics

Cronbach's alpha	No of items
0.924	15

Reliability

[DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere- Change Management=03May13A.sav

APPENDIX C

COMPUTATION OF PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

DataSet1] F:\Data Files\Cornell\Chikere-Change
Management=06June17A.sav

COMPUTING PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN CONTINUOUS LEARNING (X) AND OPERATIONAL CAPABILITIES IN THE HOSPITALITY SECTOR

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_S = 0$: There is no significant correlation between continuous learning and operational capabilities in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

$H_A: \rho_S \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between continuous learning and operational capabilities in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt.

Correlations

		Continuous Learning	Operational Capabilities
Continuous Learning	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.841**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	174	174
Operational Capabilities	Correlation Coefficient	.841**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS ver. 15 Output window

COMPUTING PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION (X) AND IMPROVED SERVICE QUALITY IN THE HOSPITALITY

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_S = 0$: There is no significant correlation between effective communication and improved service quality in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

$H_A: \rho_S \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between effective communication and improved service quality in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt.

Non parametric Correlations

(DataSet1) F:/Data Files/Cornell/Chikere-ChangeManagement=03May13A.sav

Correlations

		Communication	Improved Service Quality
Communication	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.531**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	174	174
Improved Service Quality	Correlation Coefficient	.531**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS ver. 15 Output window

COMPUTING PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN REWARD (X) AND AGILITY (Y) IN THE HOSPITALITY SECTOR

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_s = 0$: There is no significant correlation between reward and agility in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

$H_A: \rho_s \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between reward and agility in the hospitality sector in Port Harcourt;

Non parametric Correlations

(Dataset1) F:/DataFiles/Cornell/Chikere-ChangeManagement=03May13A.sav

Correlations			
		Reward	Agility
Reward System	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.581**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.060
	N	174	174
Agility	Correlation Coefficient	.581**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.060	.
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS ver. 15 Output window

COMPUTING PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN MANAGEMENT STYLE (X) AND INNOVATIVENESS (Y) IN THE HOSPITALITY SECTOR

The stated hypotheses are as followed:

$H_0: \rho_s = 0$: There is no significant correlation between management style and innovativeness in the hospitality sector;

$H_A: \rho_s \neq 0$: There is a significant correlation between management style and innovativeness in the hospitality sector;

Non parametric Correlations

(Dataset1) F:/DataFiles/Cornell/Chikere-ChangeManagement=03May13A.sav

Correlation			
		Management Style	Innovativeness
Management Style	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.551**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	174	174
Agility	Correlation Coefficient	.551**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	174	174

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: SPSS ver. 15 Output window

General Rule for Interpretation of Correlation results:

1. Correlation coefficient = 0 is interpreted as no relationship between two variables;
2. Correlation coefficient = 1 is interpreted as perfect (strong) positive linear relationship between two variables; that is as one increases, the other increases also;
3. Correlation coefficient = -1 is interpreted as perfect (strong) negative linear relationship between two variables; that is as one increases, the other decreases;
4. Correlation coefficient = 0.5 to <1.0 is interpreted as strong positive linear relationship between two variables; that is as one increases, the other increases;
5. Correlation coefficient >0.0 to <0.5 is interpreted as weak positive linear relationship between two variables; that is as one increases, the other increases, but at a lower rate;
6. Correlation coefficient = -0.5 to < -1.0 is interpreted as strong negative linear relationship between two variables; that is as one increases, the other decreases;
7. Correlation coefficient > -0.0 to < -0.5 is interpreted as weak negative linear relationship between two variables; that is as one increases, the other decreases, but at a lower rate;
8. Relationship is significant when the p-value is less than the level of significance, α , 0.01 or 0.05

APPENDIXD
KREJCIE AND MORGAN SAMPLE SIZE TABLE

Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note.—*N* is population size.
S is sample size.