

Impact of Organizational Change on Organizational Culture: Implications for Introducing Evidence-Based Practice

Michael J. Austin, PhD
Jennette Claassen, MSW

SUMMARY. Evidence-based practice (EBP) seeks to integrate the expertise of individual practitioners with the best available evidence within the context of the values and expectations of clients. Prior to implementing EBP, it is important to understand the significance that organizational change and organizational culture play. This article seeks to explore the literature associated with both organizational change and organizational culture. The analysis of organizational culture and change draw upon findings from both the private, for-profit sector, and the public, non-profit field. It is divided into four sections: organizational change and innovation, organizational culture, managing organizational culture and change, and finally, applying the findings to the implementation of EBP. While the audience for this analysis is managers in public and nonprofit human service organizations who are considering implementing EBP into their work environment, it is not intended to provide a "how to" guide, but rather a framework for critical thinking. doi:10.1300/J394v05n01_12 [Article copies available for a fee from The Haworth Document Delivery Service:

Michael J. Austin is Professor and Jennette Claassen is Research Assistant, School of Social Welfare University of California, Berkeley.

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INTRODUCTION

Evidence-based practice (EBP) seeks to integrate the expertise of individual practitioners with the best available evidence within the context of the values and expectations of clients (Sackett, Straus, Richardson, Rosenberg, & Haynes, 1997; Gambrill, 1999). While scholars have identified multiple requirements for research evidence to impact practice and policy related to the nature of evidence as well as its dissemination and utilization, this analysis focuses on the action steps needed at the organizational level to introduce a change that can impact the culture of the organization (Davies & Nutley, 2002; Kitson, Harvey, & McCormack, 1998).

Based on the U.K. experiences, EBP appears to be an innovation that requires several changes at the organizational level, including (a) ideological and cultural changes, (b) technical changes, such as changing the content or mode of service delivery in response to evidence about the effectiveness of interventions, and (c) changes in organization and management to support EBP (Hampshire Social Services, 1999; Hodson, 2003). To achieve these changes, a combination of approaches at the micro, macro, and organizational levels appears to be the most effective (Hodson, 2003). "Micro" approaches alter the attitudes, ways of working and behaviors of individual practitioners, while "macro" approaches redesign key systems, such as systems for the dissemination of evidence or systems for developing policy. "Organizational approaches" integrate micro and macro strategies while removing impediments to new ways of working through the redesign of routines and practices. Organizational approaches also supply the supportive structures that are necessary to sustain EBP processes at every level of the organization (Center for Evidence-based Social Services, 2004).

Evidence-based practice appears to operate best within an organizational context that supports practitioners at each stage of the EBP process. The process itself involves the following steps: (a) becoming motivated to apply evidence-based practice, (b) converting information needs into a well-formulated answerable question, (c) achieving maxi-

imum efficiency by tracking down the best evidence with which to answer the question (which may come from the clinical examination, the diagnostic laboratory, the published literature or other sources), (d) critically appraising the evidence for its validity and applicability to clinical practice, (e) applying the results of this evidence appraisal to policy/practice, (f), evaluating performance, and (g) teaching others to do the same (Sackett et al., 1997).

The modification of agency cultures may also be necessary to support and sustain evidence-based practice. The modification of an agency's culture needs to include strategies that address the reality that practitioners generally do not have time to consult the research literature to guide practice decision-making due to an overwhelming volume of information, lack knowledge about searching techniques, lack of time, and lack access to information and libraries. In essence, what does management need to do to build and sustain the supports for evidence-based practice? What do supervisors need to do to assist line staff in the process of adopting evidence-based practice? And what adjustments do line staff members need to make to incorporate evidence-based practice into their daily routines? (Johnson & Austin, forthcoming).

In order to understanding the significance that organizational change and organizational culture play in successfully implementing EBP, it is important to review the research associated with these two concepts. This analysis of organizational culture and organizational change draws upon findings from both the private, for-profit sector, and the public, non-profit field. It is divided into the following four sections: organizational change and innovation, organizational culture, managing organizational culture and change, and finally, applying the findings to the implementation of EBP. While the audience for this analysis are managers in public agencies who are considering implementing EBP into their work environment, it is not intended to provide a "how to" guide, but rather, a framework for critical thinking.

Consistent with the EBP principles of a systematic review, this structured review of the literature located references using pre-determined search terms, database searches, and inclusion and exclusion criteria noted in the Appendix. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were based on three broad areas: (1) organizational change processes that facilitate positive organizational change, (2) organizational culture and (3) the management of organizational culture and change within the human service field. Due to the limited amount of citations related to the human services, additional sources are included related to the public and pri-

vate sector, medicine and nursing, and public administration. Additional articles were included using a snowball method in which supplementary materials were identified from primary reference lists of other studies. A total of 107 articles were identified in the initial search. Sixty-one full articles were retrieved based on abstracts that seemed promising and a total of 43 were found to be relevant to the topic.

CHANGE AND INNOVATION

Human service agencies are becoming increasingly aware of the need to make changes in the way they are structured and managed. Human service agencies need to contend with declining funding, increased demand for more accountability, and an ever-shifting public agenda. Creative and flexible organizational cultures are needed to respond to these significant changes in public programs. Research findings from the literature on organizational change and organizational culture can be helpful in identifying concepts and findings to use in assessing the challenges faced by human service organizations. While much of the organizational change literature draws from the for-profit sector, Robertson and Seneviratne (1995) found that the strategies and processes transcend the organizational type and have similar implications for the non-profit and public sectors. The major components of the research literature on organizational change and innovation are summarized in Figure 1 related to definitions, types of change, degree of change, facilitators and inhibitors of change, staff receptivity, and staff readiness.

DEFINITION OF CHANGE AND INNOVATION

With the understanding that innovation involves a process of moving an organization from its current state to that of a new and different state, this analysis considers innovation and change to be interchangeable concepts and therefore the term "change" is used throughout. Change is defined as the adoption of an idea or behavior-whether a system, process, policy, program, or service-that is new to the adopting organization (Aiken & Hage, 1971; Daft, 1982, Damanpour & Evan, 1984). Damanpour (1988) defined organizational change as either responding to changes in its environment or as "a preemptive action" (p. 546). A change within an organization does not need to be an original or novel but simply a new idea within that particular working environment that may or may not prove to be successful (King, 1992).

FIGURE 1. Major Dimensions of Organizational Change

- I. **Definition:** a process by which an organization identifies, examines, and implements a new idea.
- II. **Types of change:** two main types of change are *administrative* (process) and *technical* (product), where administrative changes refer to the organizational structure and administrative processes (mainly occurring at the management level and less at the basic work activities of the organization) and technical changes are the changes in products, services, production, or process technology and affect the work activities of the organization.
- III. **Degree of change:** two major degrees, *fundamental* departure from existing practices (radical reorientation, non-routine, ultimate, core, transformative, and high risk) and *minor* adjustments to existing practices (routine, instrumental, peripheral, incremental, and low risk)—See Figure 2
- IV. **Facilitators and inhibitors of change:** since size alone may not inhibit or facilitate change, successful adoption of change in an organization includes the following characteristics: 1) simplicity of the change, 2) degree that it is similar to previous practices, 3) advantage of change is clearly articulated and understood (e.g., improved outcomes, increased financial gains), 4) rolled out in stages or small steps, and 5) readily observable to those being asked to implement the change.
- V. **Staff receptivity and resistance:** organizational change can be experienced by staff as: 1) personal loss and feelings of inadequacy, 2) lack of competence and self-confidence, and 3) frustration related to a lack of understanding and knowledge.
- VI. **Staff readiness:** The three factors related to staff readiness are: 1) what is important for change to occur?, 2) what is necessary but not always sufficient for change to occur?, and 3) what change is appropriate in the current situation?.

In developing a way to explain change, researchers have divided change into two distinct categories; namely, product and process (Poole, Ferguson, & Schwab, 2005; King, 1992). Product changes are the outputs and services that are distinctly different from the previous outputs. Process changes are changes in the technology, such as new tools or ways of working which increase the quality of a service or the working environment (Poole, Ferguson, & Schwab, 2005, p. 102). For the pur-

poses of this analysis, change is viewed as a process by which an organization identifies, examines, and potentially implements a new idea.

The process of change includes individual and organizational factors that affect the generation and adoption of a new idea in an organization. Organizational factors have received the most attention with respect to the structural facilitators and barriers that promote and sustain organizational change (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005; Frank, Zhao, & Borman, 2004; Arad, Hanson, & Schneider, 1997). Individual factors have received less attention, resulting in major gaps in our understanding of the human process involved in change (Diamond, 1995; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005).

The major organizational factors that influence change can be divided into three major categories: (1) types of change (2) degree of change and 3) structural facilitators of and barriers to change. The type and degree of organizational change are important to understand because they have differing rates of disruption and adoption in an organization (Damanpour, 1988; Frey, 1990; Pearlmutter, 1998). Damanpour (1988) notes that all types of change do not have identical attributes, their adoption is not the same, and they do not relate equally to the same predictor variables. As a result of these differences, it is necessary to differentiate between the various types of organizational change.

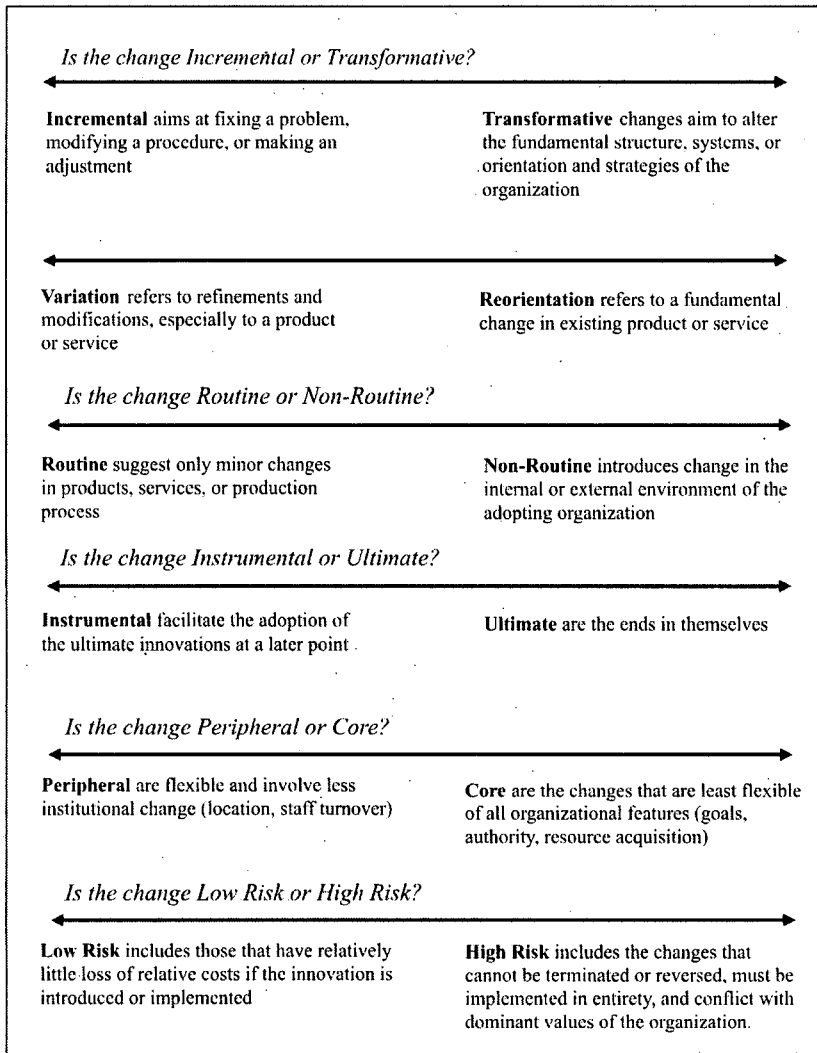
The two main types of change are administrative (process) and technical (product). They represent a general distinction between the social structures operating within an organization and the technology used by the organization (Damanpour, 1988). While the terms, administrative and technical, are more commonly used within the for-profit sector, the concepts are transferable to the nonprofit and public human service sector (Pearlmutter, 1998; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). Administrative changes refer to the organizational structure and administrative processes, mainly occurring at the management level and less at the basic work activities of the organization. Examples of administrative changes in human service organizations include the creation of a new employee/volunteer incentive/reward system, a new recruitment system, or a new performance evaluation system (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). Technical changes are the changes in products, services, production, or process technology and affect the work activities of the organization. Examples of technical change in human service organizations involve the introduction of new service programs or delivery systems (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005).

Degree of Change

In addition to the type of change, it is important to note the degree of change created within an organization. Researchers have described an array of organizational change from minor to radical. For example, Burke & Litwan (1992) used the terms "incremental" and "transformative" where incremental aims at fixing a problem, modifying a procedure, or making an adjustment while transformative changes aim to alter the fundamental structure, systems, or strategies of the organization. Normann (1971) used the terms "variation" and "reorientation"; the former describing refinements or modifications and the latter referring to fundamental changes in existing products or services. Knight (1967) and Nord and Tucker (1987) both used the terms "routine" and "non-routine" to describe the degree of change. Routine suggests only minor changes while non-routine are changes in the internal or external environment of the agency. Grossman (1970) distinguished between "instrumental" and "ultimate" change with instrumental involving those factors that facilitate change and ultimate referring to the change itself. Singh, House, and Tucker (1986) used "peripheral" and "core" to describe the different degrees. Peripheral changes in an organization are flexible and involve less institutional change. Core changes are those that change the least flexible aspects of an organization (i.e., goals, authority, and resources acquisition). Finally, Frey (1990) distinguished between "low risk" and "high risk" degrees of change. Low risk refers to those changes that have relatively little cost. High risk includes those changes that cannot easily be terminated or reversed, must be implemented in entirety, or conflict with the dominant values of the organization.

The varying degrees of change are described in Figure 2. Despite the differing terminology, these terms all resemble one another. Reorientation, non-routine, ultimate, core, transformative, and high risk are all considered radical innovations because they produce fundamental changes in the activities of the organization and represent a departure from existing practices. The concepts of variation, routine, services instrumental, peripheral, incremental, and low risk reflect minor degrees of change from the original state. For human service agencies, minor change involves the development of new changes to meet client needs, hiring staff to implement those changes, and the extension of hours of operation to provide the services (Pearlmutter, 1998). The minor changes seek to improve what is already in place and are viewed as less threatening to staff and easiest to manage (Proehl, 2001). Damanpour (1988) found that minor changes in organizations tend to be initiated by staff occupying the lower levels in the hierarchy of the organization. In

FIGURE 2. Degree of Change



essence, line workers tend to initiate small changes that enhance work activity but do not introduce large changes in organizational structure.

A change in mission, a new service delivery system, or provision of service to an unserved population would constitute radical change (Pearlmutter, 1998). Damanpour (1988) also stresses that workers higher in the organizational hierarchy initiate radical changes because radical change causes deeper changes in roles, status, and behavior of members of an organization. These substantial changes can create shifts in structure, roles, and power as well as produce feelings of anxiety and fear among lower level workers. Radical change is the most threatening, difficult to control, and introduces the most unknown outcomes (Proehl, 2001). As a result, the introduction of a radical change needs to anticipate and address the conflict in roles, power, and status that accompany the change process.

Radical and minor changes are not necessarily mutually exclusive because some changes fall in the middle of the continuum. Prior to the introduction of a change, a manager needs to assess the degree of change required by locating it on the continuum. This will shape the strategy for introducing and implementing the change. Drawing on the frameworks developed by Frey (1990) and King (1992), a manager can assess the location of a future change on the continuum from the perspective of risk and novelty. Risk is the relative costs that might be incurred if a proposed change fails to meet its objectives or the potential negative consequences of adopting the change. Risk can be assessed at all levels within the organization in order to determine its potential impact. The first aspect of risk is the amount of conflict the change may introduce within the organization. A change that conflicts with the dominant values of the organization or its members is considered a high-risk innovation. The more the change promotes the perceived values of the majority of the organization, the closer it resembles the minor change domain of the continuum. Secondly, changes need to be assessed in terms of their implementation requirements. Changes implemented in small stages or in one department may involve lower risk and, therefore, represent a minor change. However, comprehensive changes involving substantial shifts are considered high-risk. Thirdly, changes that cannot be terminated without incurring substantial costs are considered high-risk, radical changes.

Facilitators and Inhibitors

With the understanding of the types and degree of change, the next step is to determine the factors that facilitate or inhibit the adoption of a

change; namely factors associated with the change itself and factors associated with organizational characteristics (Arad, Hanson, and Schneider, 1997; Frambach & Schillewaert, 2002). While the organizational change literature identifies the important role that organizational factors have in facilitating or inhibiting the change process, there is considerable debate about the most influential factors. Arad, Hanson, and Schneider (1997) note only a subset of the relevant factors are found in most studies which makes it difficult to draw solid conclusions regarding which factors are more influential in the change process.

While the importance of organizational characteristics continues to be debated in the literature, the size of the organization is frequently cited as a positive factor associated with successful change (Kaluzny, Veney, & Gentry, 1974; Kimberly and Evanisko, 1981; Mohr, 1969). While some claim that larger organizations experience a greater need to change and have the resources to enter into different change processes, others perceive smaller organizations as more flexible and able to support new changes. These differing perceptions "may be largely attributable to the correlation of organization size with other variables, such as structure, strategy, and culture" (Frambach & Schillewaert, 2002, p. 165). Size alone may not inhibit or facilitate change and the negative relationship sometimes found between size and innovation might be explained by other organizational variables (Arad, Hanson, & Schneider, 1997).

In addition, leadership is identified as a characteristic that can inhibit or facilitate change depending on the qualities and attributes of each leader. Some have argued that leadership is the most important factor affecting change (King, 1992; Osborne, 1998; Shin & McClomb, 1998). Many of the qualities of leaders who encourage change are viewed as transformational where charisma is used to stimulate an environment of learning and risk as well as a supportive environment for staff. While leadership is continually cited as a major facilitator of change, Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) found that transformational leadership was not necessarily correlated with the organization's ability to implement change.

In addition to leadership, there are important characteristics associated with successful and sustainable change are also associated with the change itself. Roger's seminal work (1995) on diffusion of innovation is linked to the sustainability of change and Rogers (1995) identified the following five major characteristics in the context of sustaining and diffusing innovations:

Relative advantage. The perceived advantage that the change has over the current practice. Various stakeholders affected by the change may view the relative advantage of a particular change differently.

Compatibility. The similarity between the change and the previous practice. The more consistent the change is with prior work, the higher likelihood the change will be sustained.

Complexity. The simplicity of implementing the change determines its sustainability. Simple changes are more likely to be adopted than complex ones.

Trialability. The ability of the change to be implemented in stages rather than in its entirety.

Observability. Changes that are seen as having an immediate effect on workers will be implemented faster and potentially sustained longer. Based on these characteristics of change, the successful adoption of change in an organization would include the following characteristics: (1) simple, (2) similar to previous practices, (3) clearly articulated and understood advantage (e.g., improved outcomes, increased financial gains), (4) tried out in stages or small steps, and (5) readily observable to those being asked to implement the change.

Even with an understanding of the type and degree of change and the barriers as well as facilitators that promote change, there is little evidence of a clear, simple process. While minor changes tend to follow a linear and relatively simple process, radical changes tend to be multifaceted and move in non-linear patterns (Pelz, 1983, as cited in King, 1992).

Staff Receptivity and Resistance

Before addressing the emotional dynamics that accompany an organizational change process, it is important to identify some of the organizational factors associated with the resistance to change. While human nature may naturally push people towards resistance in order to maintain the status quo, workers tend to resist change when the change is seen as a threat to their professional practices, status, or identity (Lawler & Bilson, 2004). For example, if the change is perceived as a modification of practice, the previous form of practice may be perceived as of little value (Horwath & Morrison, 2000). If the change is presented as a *continuation of previous practice*, the resistance can be decreased. To reduce resistance, the change needs to retain some of the prior elements of the working environment in order to reassure workers that their previous work style was valid. As Pearlmutter (1998) notes, "For people to

be able to deal with enormous and complex change-seeming chaos—they need to have something to hold on to that is stable. Although paradoxical, it is this principle that reminds us that change and innovation are managed by individual people, whose life experiences have taught them that, in order to change, they must have some stability, some place of comfort that remains” (p. 28).

Despite the substantial amount of research on organizational change, much of it ignores the human side of change (Diamond, 1996; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). Staff within organizations can experience change in one or more of the following three ways: (1) personal loss and feelings of inadequacy (Diamond, 1996), (2) lack of competence and self-confidence (Pearlmutter, 1998; Kayser, Walker, & Demaio, 2000), and (3) frustration related to a lack of understanding and knowledge (Tozer & Ray, 1999; Zell, 2003). While people in organizations are able to change, adapt, learn, and unlearn as they find new ways to operate within their workspace, it is important to understand how staff experience change and the methods used for increasing staff acceptance and support of change.

The connection between the resistance to change and the psychological aspects of work environments, various responsibilities require cognitive shifts in the naming and framing of the emotions (related to competence and self-confidence) that can affect their self-esteem at work (Diamond, 1996). In their study of organizational change and self-confidence, Kayser, Walker, & Demaio (2000) found that self-confidence and self-competence are derived from years of practice experience, lack of distracting outside responsibilities, and age. Those practitioners with more years of practice and more experiences with organizational change felt less anxious and more positive about dealing with change. Learning new skills in addition to navigating organizational change may be more difficult for novice practitioners.

In addition to self-confidence and self-competence, workers can also exhibit high degrees of self-efficacy, “the belief in one’s capability to perform a specific task” (Gist, 1997, p. 472 as cited in Pearlmutter, 1998, p. 25). Self-efficacy, as defined by Bandura (1982) includes “judgments of how well one can execute the courses of action required to deal with prospective situations.” Bandura described experiences and motivation as the cognitive processes that create personal efficacy. In other words, if people believe they can succeed at a task, they will engage in the task with more confidence and assurance that they can complete the task. If, on the other hand, they take on the task with the belief that they cannot succeed, they will avoid or resist the activity.

All three factors (self-confidence, self-competence, and self-efficacy) play a key role in a worker's response and openness to change. The successful adoption of organizational change depends on an individual's openness to learning and change, which in turn, requires minimal defensiveness and adequate levels of self-esteem. The higher the levels of self-confidence, self-competence, and self-efficacy, the lower the levels of unconscious defensiveness (Diamond, 1996). It is the defensive and adaptive tendencies that sustain the status quo and usually block learning and change.

For staff, the psychological aspect of change can also involve emotional and cognitive loss similar to the experiences of death and dying (Zell, 2003; Diamond, 1996). Organizational change often brings with it strong feelings of shock, frustration, anger, and helplessness where staff can experience periods of denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and finally acceptance of a proposed change (Zell, 2003; Diamond, 1996). Kübler-Ross (1969) identified the following five stages associated with the dying process: (1) denial and isolation (e.g., feelings of shock, disbelief, and numbness), (2) anger (e.g., venting rage and resentment about the situation often at those close to the individuals), (3) bargaining (attempt to delay, postpone, or stop the process), (4) depression (managing feelings of reactive or anticipatory loss), and (5) acceptance (opportunity to approach the inevitable with dignity). These concepts can be applied to the process of organizational change. For example, the introduction of change can lead workers to re-examine where they are, where they have been, and where they are going, both personally and organizationally (Diamond, 1996). The initial introduction of change can bring about feelings of loss relate to familiar work methods and the comfort of routine (Diamond, 1996; Zell, 2003). As Diamond (1996) has noted, the introduction of new technology in a public service agency requires staff to proceed through a grieving process in order to accept an innovation or change; in essence, "workers attach themselves emotionally to the predictability of organizational structures and procedures, and that attachment is severed with the introduction of change" (p. 227).

In recognition of the loss that workers feel, organizations need to provide transitional space for workers to confront their fears and anxieties related to the organizational change. This space can be used to support workers through the acknowledgment of loss but also to guide them into recognition of the potentially positive outcomes associated with the change. Workers need "opportunities to express anger and frustration and also to envision the success of the change process" (Nicholls &

McDermott, 2002 p.140). With this understanding of workplace grief related to a change process, managers need to develop strategies to assist workers, individually and collectively, through such loss and grief in a timely manner.

Readiness for Change

While the introduction of a new idea or change into an organization has the potential to be embraced and implemented, it also has the potential to fade out or not take root (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005; Arad, Hanson, & Schneider, 1997; Frambach & Schillewaert, 2002). There is growing consensus that, "readiness is likely to be a major factor in determining whether an innovation will be effectively implemented and sustained" (Robbins, Collins, Liaupsin, Illback, & Call, 2003, p. 53).

With the ability to measure whether a change has the potential for implementation, organizations are better able to evaluate the readiness of their organizations and staff for the introduction of a change (Robbins et al., 2003). While there is readily available advice for managers regarding an organization's readiness to introduce change, very few models or tools exist that provide a systematic way to assess their organizations (Dixon, 2005; Hodges & Hernandez, 1999; Atherton, 2002; Robbins et al., 2003; Horwath & Morrison, 2000; Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002). Whether managers choose to use formal assessment tools or informal practices, "it is important that those managing change have a clear understanding of where their organization stands" (Dixon, 2005, p. 2) prior to the introduction of change.

In order to ensure the successful introduction and maintenance of change, it is important to examine the readiness for change within the organization from the individual as well as the organizational perspective (Frambach & Schillewaert, 2002). Several models for assessing organizational readiness were found in the literature (Davis & Salasin, 1975; Horwath & Morrison, 2000; Lehman, Greener, & Simpson, 2002). Each model views the introduction of change from the perspective of the actors involved and the various stages of the process. The Horwath and Morrison (2000) audit model, developed in the context of child welfare services, stresses the importance of discussions with staff, other agencies or departments, and all others directly or indirectly affected by the potential change. Horwath and Morrison (2000) note that, "direct consultation often refines the picture gained from paper-based analysis and provides essential insight not only to the degree of congruence between policy and practice, but also about underlying profes-

sional attitudes and responses to change. In addition, consultation engages staff at an early stage in the process. Skipping this element carries with it the danger that subsequent prescriptions about change may be based on a partial or inaccurate view of how the current state of practice might increase staff resistance to change" (p. 249). Horwath and Morrison developed a three-part framework that reflects the overall outcome to safeguard children and promote general welfare that includes: (1) practitioner needs, (2) agency capacity, and (3) collaborative arrangements.

In contrast to the more informal audit model, Lehman, Greener, and Simpson (2002) developed a comprehensive assessment of organizational readiness in the form of the Organizational Readiness for Change (ORC) instrument. Originally designed for use in drug abuse treatment organizations, it was redesigned in 2003 for social service agencies but its reliability and validity in these organizations have not yet been reported. The instrument focuses on motivation and personality attributes of program leaders and staff, institutional resources, staff attributes, and organizational climate. The three factors identified by the instrument are: (1) what is important for change to occur, (2) what is necessary but not always sufficient for change to occur, and (3) what change is appropriate in the current situation. The major elements of the assessment are highlighted in Figure 3.

In contrast to the first two models, Davis and Salasin (1975) developed a different conceptual model as a way to assess organization readiness for change in mental health settings. The AVICTORY model is an acronym for eight elements thought to be predictive of organizational readiness for implementing change: Ability, Values, Information, Circumstances, Timing, Obligation, Resistance, and Yield (Figure 4). The AVICTORY model assesses both the organizational readiness and the individual readiness to implement a particular change. The model was used by Robbins et al. (2003) to identify schools that were ready to introduce significant organizational change.

Comparing the models, several areas of overlap are highlighted in Figure 5. Using the elements from the Lehman, Greener, and Simpson's (2002) model, each model was analyzed and categorized according to their assessment elements. Several elements were seen in all three models (staffing and training needs related to the new innovation, adaptability and resistance of staff reflected in previous change processes, and current stress levels of staff). In comparing the AVICTORY and ORC models and their similarities, additional overlapping elements include the need for change, pressure for change, adequate office space, com-

FIGURE 3. Organizational Readiness for Change (Social Agency): Assessment Elements*

Elements of Organizational Readiness

I. Motivation

- Program needs (need guidance with mission, goals, staff roles, etc.)
- Training needs (need more training in various skill sets)
- Pressure for change (coming from clients, staff, funding sources, etc.)

II. Resources

- Offices (space, equipment, etc.)
- Staffing (qualifications, turnover, sufficient skills, etc.)
- Training (priorities, conference travel support, etc.)
- Computer access (equipment, data systems, etc.)
- E-Communications (internet access, utilization, policy limitations, etc.)

III. Staff Attributes

- Growth (professional development, literature for updating, etc.)
- Efficacy (effectiveness, confidence, competence, etc)
- Influence (knowledge sharing, advice seeking, etc.)
- Adaptability (ease of learning, experimental, etc.)
- Satisfaction (valuing work, feeling appreciated, etc.)

IV. Organizational Climate

- Mission (staff confusion, planning, link with job duties, etc.)
- Cohesion (teamwork, friction, etc.)
- Autonomy (rules and limitations, freedom to innovate, etc.)
- Communication (formal and informal, valuing of inquiry, etc.)
- Stress (job pressures, balance of workloads, etc.)
- Change (encouragement to experiment, ease of change, etc.)
- Leadership (effectiveness of top management and board, participation in organizational planning, recognition of staff concerns, etc.)

*TCU Survey of Organizational Functioning (2003), Institute of Behavioral Research
Fort Worth, TX

puter needs/access, consistency with mission, current communication levels, and a review of the reaction to previous change. Two key elements were addressed by both AVICTORY and the Audit but not by ORC; namely, adequate and accurate information about the change and the predicted response of the external environment. AVICTORY also addressed the area of adequate financial resources, which the other two

FIGURE 4. AVICTORY* Elements

Element	Description
Ability	Assess the organization's ability to commit resources, including human, informational, and financial, necessary for implementation of the innovation.
Values	Assess the congruence of the values of the organizational constituencies (e.g., school staff, families, students, and community agency staff) within the main ideas that underlie the innovation.
Information	Assess the quality and credibility of the innovation and the availability of information sufficient to support it.
Circumstances	Assess the environmental and organizational attributes that influence change (e.g., well-defined roles, satisfactory, interpersonal relationships)
Timing	Assess the dynamic environment and organizational factors which may influence implementation or use of the innovation
Obligation	Assess the degree to which key persons in the organization have a felt need or obligation to alter or enhance current practices.
Resistance	Assess the presence of various forms of resistance to the innovation
Yield	Assess the presence of incentives for engaging the new approach.

*Davis, H., & Salasin, S. (1975). The utilization of evaluation. In E. Streunig, & M. Guttentag (Eds.), *Handbook of evaluation research*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage

models did not address. All three models addressed many of the barriers and facilitators identified by organizational change researchers.

In reviewing the various models for assessing readiness for change, it is clear that assessments need to include both individual and organizational perspectives as well as external and internal stakeholders. Individual stakeholders include all levels of staff (i.e., management, middle-management, and line staff) whose perceptions of organizational readiness should include most, if not all, of the following topics:

- Motivation for change (staff, program, and pressures)
- Adequate resources (human, financial, training, equipment, skills)
- Staff attributes related to capacity, resistance, influence
- Organizational climate
- External and internal stakeholders' perceptions of changels involved
lements of both the individual an

For managers leading their organizations through a change process, the following aspects of organizational change need to be taken into account: (1) the type of change, (2) the degree of change, (3) the facilitators and inhibitors of change, (4) staff perceptions related to the emotional process associated with change (e.g., perceived understanding of the change, nature of potential resistance and the ease of adopting the change), and (5) organizational and individual readiness for change.

FIGURE 5. Comparison of Three Models Related to Readiness for Change

Domain	Organizational Readiness for Change ¹	AVICTORY ²	Audit of Readiness ³
<i>Motivation for change</i>			
Program need	*	*	
Immediate training needs	*		*
Pressures for change	*	*	
Incentives		*	
<i>Resources</i>			
Office space	*	*	
Staffing	*	*	*
Training	*	*	*
Computer access	*	*	
E-communication	*		
Financial		*	
Informational		*	*
<i>Staff attributes</i>			
Professional growth	*		
Efficacy	*		*
Influence	*		
Adaptability/Resistance	*	*	*
<i>Organizational Climate</i>			
Mission	*		
Cohesion	*	*	
Autonomy	*		
Communication	*	*	
Stress	*	*	*
Change	*	*	
<i>External</i>			
Constituencies		*	*

¹ Lehman, W. E. K., Greener, J. M., & Simpson, D. D. (2002)² Davis, H., & Salasin, S. (1975)³ Horwath, J., & Morrison, T. (2000)

Organizational change takes place within the context of an organization's culture. However, research on organizational cultures has received far less attention than organizational change in the research literature. Research on organizational culture is complex and requires lengthy timeframes for data collection and analysis. As a result, the lit-

erature for understanding the organizational culture of social service agencies is even more limited. The next section provides an overview of organizational culture and its implications for guiding organizational change.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Scholars and practitioners in the public and private sector have long recognized the role and importance of culture on organizational performance (Khademian, 2002). However, only in the past few decades has the organizational change literature begun to explore the relationship between organizational culture and organizational change. While the empirical research is limited, the research agenda includes organizational values, expectations and assumptions that exist within an organization (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005; Hodges & Hernandez, 1999). The older models of change and innovation, which focus heavily on structural and environmental explanations for innovation or change, provide an incomplete picture of the forces and energy driving the organization. Public programs are also beginning to recognize the importance of acknowledging and understanding culture as a key element in the effective management of change. Khademian (2002) reports that understanding organizational culture "is an essential ingredient for understanding why government programs perform the way they do" (p. 5). There is a growing need to focus on culture as an important ingredient in the management of change.

While progress has been made in defining organizational culture, managers need practical tools for understanding how to enhance or modify organizational cultures. For example, Smircich (1983) notes that organizational cultures can be viewed as a set of factors brought into an organization (by senior and middle management) or as factors that the organization produces in the form of an "adaptive or regulatory mechanism" that brings staff together into a social structure. In the case of an adaptive mechanism, organizational culture can be unconsciously generated, interactional, and implicit whereby the culture is a negotiated process rather than the result of authoritative dictates from above (Hodges, 1997). Whether organizational culture is viewed from the top or the bottom of the organization, changes in the organization can lead to a change in the organizational culture that can make it more or less supportive of organizational outcomes.

It is clear that understanding the culture of the organization is a key element in any organizational change process. Foster-Fishman (1995) noted that the complexity of culture and its interaction with change requires multiple perspectives that simultaneously considers the consistent, differentiated, fragmented, and ambiguous parts of culture. Martin (1992) described these perspectives in the following way: (1) the integrated perspective views cultures are consistent and monolithic, (2) the differentiated perspective occurs where aspects of culture are inconsistent and multiple subcultures are present, and (3) the fragmented perspective includes how the ambiguous aspects of culture and subcultures respond differently to change.

While public social service agencies reflect all three features of organizational culture, the fragmented perspective allows for a more in-depth look at the interaction between organizational change and organizational culture. For example, Foster-Fishman (1995) noted that it is important to examine the ambiguous meanings associated with change and how the current culture supports and maintains that ambiguity because accepting ambiguity as an essential feature of organizational cultures can facilitate our understanding of how culture interactions with organizational change. She applied this perspective to three dimensions of change: (1) the desirability of the proposed change, (2) the capacity of the organization to accomplish a change, and (3) and the perceptions of the members of the organization regarding both the desirability of change and the organization's capacity for managing change. Because members of an organization perceive their organizational lives through their own cognitive interpretive lens (Bartunek, 1984), their perceptions of organizational change are influenced by these lenses or frameworks.

Foster-Fishman (1995) identified three key factors that can impact the organizational culture; namely, (1) the views of staff that are either compatible or incompatible, (2) the different views of organizational life and the proposed change held by subgroups or sub-cultures within the organization, and (3) the existence of consistent and inconsistent organizational practices. In essence, managers need to understand the interaction between cognitions of staff related to their readiness for change, the different way that groups of staff may react, and the nature of current organizational practices, especially when introducing evidence-based practice and how this change contradicts or builds upon current practice.

DEFINING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

The organization culture literature includes extensive debates about “what culture is, how to identify it, how it influences organizational behavior, and how to examine culture in order to better understand it” (Khademian, 2002). The most common definition of organization culture is that it is a set of the beliefs, values, and meanings that are shared by members of an organization (Hodges & Hernandez, 1999; McLean, 2005; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). While this definition is simple, the concept of organizational culture is more complex.

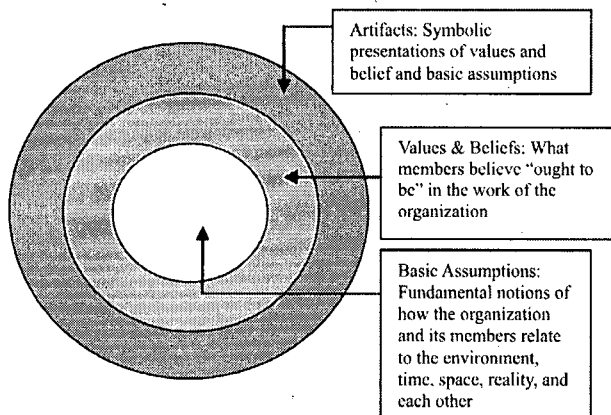
Schein's (1992) pioneering work on organizational culture has helped to identify the elements within an organization that create the organizational culture. He uses the iceberg metaphor to describe elements of culture; namely, those elements that appear under the waterline or those that remain invisible. Figure 6 outlines his framework for understanding organizational culture. The three levels of culture include: (1) *basic assumptions*, namely the fundamental dynamics of how the organization and its members relate to the environment, time, space, reality, and each other which often fall below the level of consciousness and tend to dictate and motivate the behavior, (2) *values and beliefs* which reflect what members believe “ought to be” the work of the organization in the form of easily articulated ideologies, attitudes, and philosophies, and (3) *cultural artifacts* are the most visible layer of culture within the organization and include the languages used, stories told, ceremonies performed, rewards given, symbols displayed, heroes remembered, and history recalled. As organizations attempt to change or modify their culture, it is important to understand and analyze the three layers (basic assumptions, values and beliefs, and cultural artifacts). Sustainable changes in organizational cultures involve understanding and changing the basic assumptions (deepest layer), then addressing the values and beliefs; and, finally, dealing with the third layer of cultural artifacts.

In the following section on analyzing organizational culture, several major domains are addressed; namely, facilitators and inhibitors of change, types of organizational cultures, and the management of organizational cultures.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE FACILITATORS AND INHIBITORS OF CHANGE

A comprehensive review of the literature on organizational culture and innovation by Jaskyte and Dressler's (2005) revealed that research-

FIGURE 6. Three Levels of Culture



ers have focused primarily on the positive attributes of organizational culture by identifying organizational values, norms, beliefs, and assumptions. Less attention had been given to the emerging debate about the role of organizational culture in facilitating or inhibiting change. While there is agreement that organizational culture has an impact, it is not clear what role it plays in facilitating change. On one side of the debate is the argument that strong, homogenous organizational cultures are essential for organizations to introduce, implement, and sustain changes because a strong culture can exert a greater degree of control over employee behaviors and beliefs, and therefore change within the organization is easier (Denison, 1990; Pervais, 1998; Peters & Waterman, 1982). On the other side of the debate is the conviction that strong cultures are problematic for the introduction and maintenance of change because a strong culture creates uniformity, loyalty, and commitment and potentially "cult-like" behaviors that can inhibit an organization's ability to respond to change (Nemeth, 1997). In a study of thirty-two nonprofit service agencies Jaskyte and Dressler's (2005) found that homogenous cultures might not be appropriate for fostering change. "The higher the cultural consensus on such values as stability, security, low level of conflict, predictability, rule orientation, team orientation, and working in collaboration with others, the less innovative the organization may be" (p. 35). The organizations with weaker cultural consensus placed higher value on willingness to experiment, pursuing opportuni-

ties, and taking risks. According to Martin (1992) the discrepancy in the two theories can be explained by the role that strong organizational cultures can play in alleviating anxiety, helping control the uncontrollable, bringing predictability, and clarifying ambiguity. These characteristics, at the same time, can control any kind of behavior that might disrupt organization harmony and predictability and thereby block the introduction and maintenance of change.

TYPE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURES

In assessing an organization's readiness for change, it is important to understand the types of organizational cultures that range from very informal to formal, rigid structures. Managers need to determine if the organization is open and capable of change, or if the culture needs modifications before implementing a change. While theorists have divided types of organizational culture differently, several similarities exist among the models. Both Handy (1993) and Cameron and Quinn (1999) identified the "clan" or "club" culture that places a high value on the *informal*, family-type atmosphere where relationship, cohesion, and teamwork are emphasized. Many of these organizational cultures were created by charismatic and visionary individuals who made quick decisions and changes based on minimal discussion or planning. Historically, community-based organizations tend to foster this type of organizational culture. The second type of organizational culture is the formal, role-oriented culture. Labeled "role culture" (Handy, 1993) or "hierarchy culture" (Cameron and Quinn, 1999), this type of organizational culture is very *formal* with a structured work environment that stresses stability, efficiency, and order. Organizational members are given clear procedures for completing their work and enjoy a sense of security and stability. The order and stability of this organizational culture prevent chaos or uncertainty from entering the work environment, thereby resisting the instability that change can create. Many public human service organizations cultivate this formal organizational culture. Additional organizational cultures include those that are results-oriented, driven, and strive to remain *competitive* within the market. This organizational culture type creates an intense working condition where the leaders are demanding and the pressure is extreme. Very few human service organizations reflect this type of organizational culture (Proehl, 2001). Public human service organizations lean towards the formal culture and employ staff members who are very comfortable with the secu-

rity that the organizational culture offers. However, the formal culture may not promote critical thinking and can be resistant to change. As organizations anticipate periods of change, it is important for managers to find ways to modify the organizational culture to one that promotes more comfort with the instability associated with the change process.

MANAGING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURES

Public human service organizations were built to reduce error, increase efficiency, and improve the reliability of services (Cahn, 2004). They were praised for being impervious to change, assuring that each member of the agency dispersed equal and accountable services to the public. By maintaining routines and reducing exposure to risk, public organizations were seen as implementing the will of the people and public employees were expected to competently carry out the wishes of the people as expressed by elected officials by limiting their own discretion (Cahn, 2004). This approach to organizational processes, while successful in many regards, has frequently created a culture that is either unwilling or unable to support the autonomy and risk-taking needed to create cultures that are accepting of change. By warding off any kind of potential chaos or uncertainty that is often associated with change, human service workers are rarely encouraged to challenge the status quo, exercise discretion, or to take risks. Organizational cultures with little room for dissent can inhibit the introduction or implementation of change and thereby generate considerable resistance.

Most of the literature on managing organization culture features the for-profit sector and very little of the literature features the nonprofit sector. Since managing an organization's culture is seen as crucial to the improvement of overall performance (Khademian, 2002), private sector managers have come to see the management of organizational culture as a top priority. Public sector managers, on the other hand, have been constrained in their efforts to manage the organization's culture. The constraints include rules for contracting, hiring and firing, budgeting, goal setting, and benchmarking for accountability. While several human service organizations have built upon their organizational culture to promote the use of effective management techniques, a debate has emerged around the capacity of managers to actually modify organizational cultures (Hodges & Hernandez, 2002; Lawler & Bilson, 2004; Khademian, 2002; Jasktye, 2005; Arad, Hanson, & Schneider). The debate revolves

around the feasibility of managing, shaping, or changing an organization's culture (Hodges & Hernandez, 1999; Khademian, 2002).

On one side of the debate are those who see the elements of organizational culture as a set of processes to be managed. "Managers, increasingly interested in the effective and efficient ways to manage their organizations, have begun referring to organizational culture as a management-directed phenomenon and a tool for organizational adaptation and change (Hodges & Hernandez, 1999, p. 185). They view organizational culture as a set of factors linked to organizational performance, and the process of creating of an organizational culture is seen as a top-down, management-directed function. Based on these views, supporters of the idea that organization culture can be managed take the following positions: 1) "a unifying culture can be used to weave together the work of an organization and enhance performance and, second, the top priority of a leader is to mold and maintain a unifying culture" (Khademian, 2002, p. 18) and 2) "the only thing of real importance that managers do is to create and manage culture" (Schein, 1985 as cited in Hodges & Hernandez, 2002, p. 185).

In contrast to the view that culture can be managed are those who see organizational culture as "implicit, interactional and unconsciously generated at all levels of an organization" (Smircich, 1983 as cited in Hodges & Hernandez, 2002, p. 185) with little possibility of being managed in the public sector (Khademian, 2002). While social scientists acknowledge the significant impact culture has on organizational change, they also agree that culture is highly resistant to change. For example, "Anthropological perspective on organizational culture, with its focus on interpretive processes, suggests that managers face difficulty in explicit attempts to change organizational culture because they cannot completely control the complex interactions that produce culture throughout an organization" (Hodges & Hernandez, 1999, p. 185). The complex interactions between the internal aspects of organizational life and the external environment of changing public policies are the largest influences on an organization's culture and this interaction cannot be easily managed (Khademian, 2002). In fact, these environment factors are often seen as creating the culture of the organization.

Strategies for managing organizational cultures: Even though there is little empirical evidence on either side of the debate, Khademian (2002) developed a way of addressing both sides of the issue with a framework for public sector managers that builds upon two basic premises: (1) culture evolves from the efforts to "conduct a public task with specific resources and skills in a complex environment" (p. 43) where

the three roots of organizational culture are tasks, resources, and environment, and (2) public managers influence and help shape culture by managing the process of integrating the three roots in order to create a "common understanding (or commitment) held by people working together in an organization or program" (p. 3). The work of the organization depends on a mix of tasks (services) and resources (financial and human) that exist in a complex and changing environment. Within the expectations, constraints, and legacies of a complex internal and external environment, Khademian (2002) identified six strategies for understanding and managing the culture of public organizations (see Figure 7).

Strategy 1 and 2 involves a manager stepping back from daily activities in order to "soak and poke" around the organization in order to identify the connections between existing commitments and the roots (tasks, resources, and environment). To guide the process of identifying program commitments (Khademian, 2002), several questions are posed for managers to ask themselves:

- What language is used to explain organizational improvements and failures?
- What stories are told and what kinds of examples given?
- How do people behave in an emergency or problem situation and who has authority or exercises influence in such circumstances?
- What language is used to describe the real power and responsibilities within the agency beyond the formal organizational authority and responsibility?

Strategy 3 encourages managers to be clear about their future directions and to use practice and experimentation to reach their goal. Managers seeking change begin by gaining an understanding of the connection between the commitments of the organization and its roots. Managers seeking to promote change need to understand the existing commitments and how those commitments need to change. Articulating the changes can help participants see the task and understand the direction. Strategy 4 focused on the internal process related to a mix of resources and tasks with the external dynamics whereby participants from outside the organization need to be included in the process. Strategy 5 focuses on the efforts of managers to coordinate the integration of tasks, resources, and the environment. Strategy 6 highlights the importance of recognizing change, even if incremental in nature, and finding ways to preserve the change and foster more of the same (e.g., sustainability).

FIGURE 7. Strategies for Understanding and Managing Culture

Strategy 1:	Identify the commitments that form the existing culture
Strategy 2	Identify the connections between the roots of culture and commitments
Strategy 3	Think about what needs to change and articulate the change.
Strategy 4	Understand the management of cultural roots as an inward, outward, and shared responsibility.
Strategy 5	Relentlessly practice and demonstrate the desired changes in culture
Strategy 6	Capitalize on incremental change and institutionalize it

Role of leaders in managing organizational cultures: The vast majority of organizational culture and change literature refer to the role of leaders in understanding and managing change, especially the role of transformative leadership (Pearlmutter, 1998; King, 1992; Osborne, 1998; Shin & McClomb, 1998). Leaders who display characteristics of individualized consideration, inspiration, oriented to the future, coalition building, risk-taking, and effective communications are better able to introduce and sustain change within their organizations (Pearlmutter, 1998; Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). According to Khademian (2002), leaders who are skeptical about the feasibility of managing organizational culture will be less successful in changing their cultures because they see environment as the overwhelming factor in trying to manage the culture of the organization. Those leaders who are less skeptical about the manageability of culture perceive the primary role of a leader as managing the culture by shaping the values and organizational philosophies, thereby helping the organization to define priorities, acceptable behavior, and valued outcomes.

In Khademian's (2002) review of programs that successfully managed organizational change, she noticed a consistent set of leadership characteristics that took into account the roots of the culture (tasks, environment, and resources) and managed their interrelationship with organizational commitments. The seven characteristics for facilitating change include:

- Listen and learn from the information gathered.
- Look for ways to broaden the base of participation.
- Identify and provide resources to enable all participants to excel.
- Practice continuous evaluation.
- Target authority structures within and without the program.
- Be relentless.

In addition to managerial leadership, there is considerable research on the role of opinion leaders. Rogers (1995) was the first to explore the role of individuals, termed opinion leaders, on the dissemination and diffusion of new concepts. He focused on the concept of adopting new ideas and the ways in which practitioners are influenced by the judgments of colleagues, and, therefore, more likely to accept the change. While several research studies suggest social pressure is effective in reducing resistance to change (Davis, Thomson, Oxman, & Yaynes, 1995), others are more cautious in supporting these conclusions. O'Brien et al., 1999 have noted that using local opinion leaders results in mixed effects on professional practice and suggested that further research on the process of identifying opinion leaders and under what conditions are they able to influence the practice of their peers. This call for research is complicated by the lack of a common, unified definition of opinion leaders (Locock, Dopson, Chambers, Gabby, 2001).

In an extensive literature review and research study exploring the role of opinion leaders within a health care setting, Locock et al. (2001) discovered several key findings related to opinion leaders. First, in most cases, the opinion leaders emerged throughout the process rather than being identified prior to the change efforts. Opinion leaders were described as those individuals who command respect, know what they are talking about, and/or understand the realities of practice (Locock et al., 2001). There are at least two types of opinion leaders; namely, *expert opinion* leaders who are a credible authority able to articulate the change in a confident, knowledgeable manner and the *peer opinion* leader who can relate to the everyday problems facing the practitioners and draw upon a high level of trust among them. Locock et al. (2001) also raised concerns about ambivalent or resistant opinion leaders. While opinion leaders are helpful in persuading colleagues to accept a change, they can also work against the change. Opinion leaders can also lack the enthusiasm for a change and, therefore, drain the enthusiasm from the entire staff.

It is clear that the debate about the manageability of organizational cultures will continue. However, it is widely agreed that culture in-

volves basic assumptions, values and belief, and the artifacts operating within the organization. Understanding the types of cultures that exist and the ways each culture promotes or resists change can help administrators to more effectively manage their organizations. Khademian presented a framework to assist managers by connecting the organizational commitments (culture) to the roots (environment, resources, tasks). Given this analysis of the research on organizational culture, the following questions can assist managers in applying the concepts of organizational culture to a human service organization:

- What type of culture exists within your agency?
- What are some examples of the key values and beliefs held by staff within the agency?
- What commitments does the agency maintain? How are these commitments reflected in the mission statement?
- In what ways does your agency's culture promote change? Hinder change?
- Who are the opinion leaders in your agency? In the past, how have them been used to facilitate change?

In addition to understanding the ways in which staff members and others may think about change within the culture of the organization, managers also need to assess their own schemata. If they see themselves as fostering an "innovation-supportive organizational environment" (Chandler, G, Keller, C. & Lyon, D. 2000), then they need to consider the following values identified by Subramiam and Ashkanasy (2001): (1) being innovative and willing to experiment with new ideas, (2) being opportunistic and not constrained by many rules, and (3) willing to take risks.

CONCLUSION

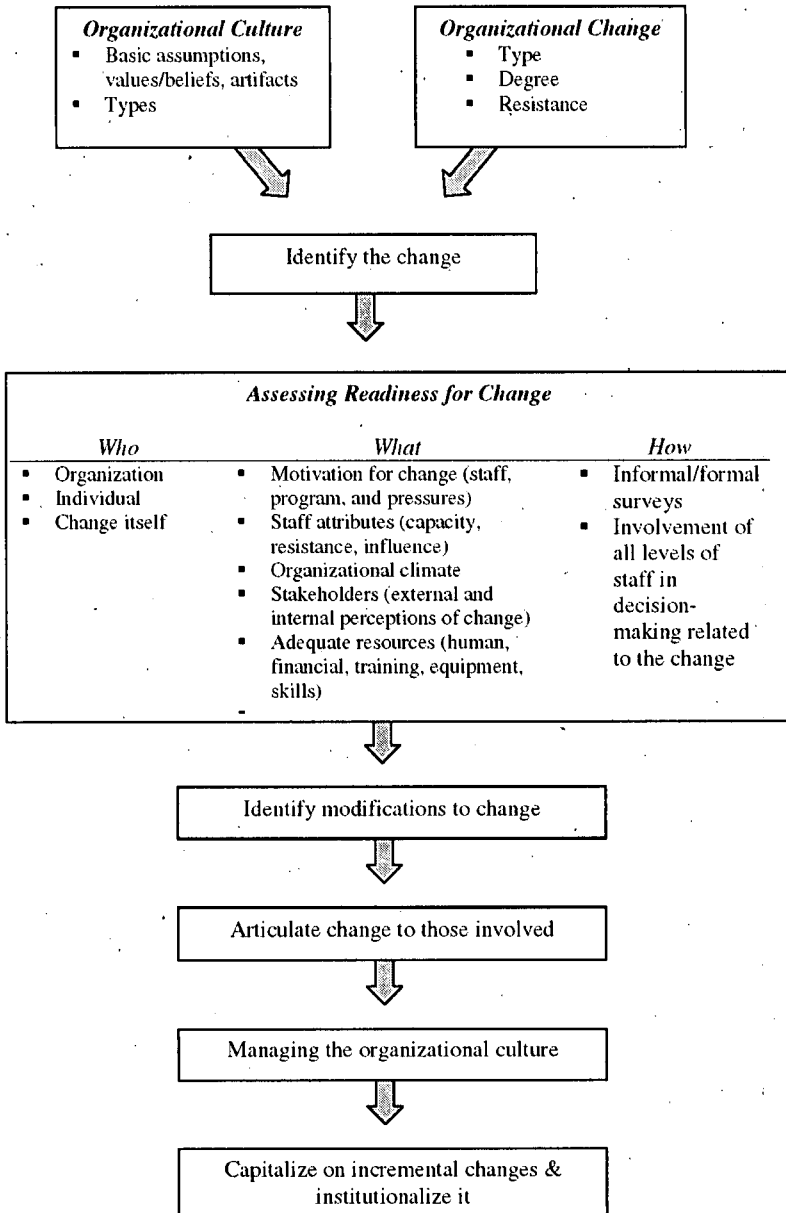
It is important for managers of human service organizations to understand the significance of both organizational culture and organizational change for the process of implementing evidence-based practice. This analysis and synthesis of the research on organizational change and culture is summarized in Figure 8.

The top tier of the flow chart identifies the importance of understanding the basic aspects of organizational culture and organizational change. Organizational change is divided into two large types: adminis-

trative and technical. Administrative refers to the organizational structure and administrative process (e.g., the creation of a new employee reward system or new performance evaluation system). Technical changes are those changes in services or process technology that affect the daily work activities (e.g., a new service delivery system or new intervention). In addition to the type of change, the degree of change is critical and can range from minor change (e.g., improve what is already in place) to radical change (e.g., changes to the core of the agency related to mission, allocation of resources, or shifts in authority). Radical change can be the most difficult for staff to handle and may create feelings of anxiety and fear. Changes in organizations often fail to take root due to resistance from staff that can be attributed to such factors as: (1) levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy levels, (2) experiences of loss, and (3) threats to professional capacity. Staff members with low levels of self-efficacy and self-esteem do not handle change well. Asking people to change their duties, work environments, and responsibilities can be challenging for those with little confidence in themselves and their ability to adapt to the changes. Another significant aspect of resistance is the staff's sense of loss that accompanies significant levels of change. Staff members need time to grieve the loss of the old idea and welcome the new idea. Change that is unfamiliar to staff can create a sense of fear and a threat to their professional practices, status, and identity. Change that builds upon previous work can reassure staff that they are capable of completing the tasks and can provide less resistance.

The organizational culture is best described using the following three levels of culture Schein's (1992): (1) *basic assumptions* about how the organization and its members relate to the environment, time, space, reality, and each other, (2) *values and beliefs* which reflect what members believe "ought to be" the work of the organization and are captured in easily articulated ideologies, attitudes, and philosophies, and (3) *cultural artifacts* include the languages used, stories told, ceremonies performed, rewards given, symbols displayed, heroes remembered, and history recalled. In addition to understanding the elements of culture, it is important to analyze the type of culture operating within the agency; namely, informal family-type structures where relationships are highly valued, formal structures that stress stability and predictability, and entrepreneurial structures that are less frequently found in the human services. Identifying the type of organizational culture can assist managers in developing strategies for implementing change.

FIGURE 8. Organizational Change and Culture



Once there is a baseline understanding of organizational culture and organizational change, managers need to understand the ramifications of the proposed change (e.g., evidence-based practice) in order to begin an organizational assessment and involvement strategy.

Assessment is an important phase of change and one that is often skipped or only partially implemented. Assessment includes an evaluation of the readiness for organizational change, the individuals (staff), and the change itself. All three levels are crucial to gather a complete picture of the readiness to implement change, especially the sources of organizational support and resistance. Without assessing the readiness for organizational change (e.g., motivation for change, adequate resources, staff attributes, organizational climate, and stakeholders), it is difficult to distinguish how the type and degree of change will affect the organization.

The motivation relates to staff perceptions of a need to change. Unless the financial, human, equipment and training needs are adequately addressed before embarking on a change, resistance will increase. Important staff attributes include the staff's capacity to implement the change, different areas of staff resistance, and the views of opinion leaders. Lastly, an assessment of the internal and external stakeholders includes external partners who may be affected by the change and internal departments working within the same organization. More effective change implementation strategies can emerge by including all voices in the assessment of organizational readiness for change.

Once the assessment is completed and appropriate modifications are made to the change process, managers can begin to clearly articulate the change to those involved so that participants can see the task ahead and understand the direction. As the implementation of change begins, Khademian (2001) reminds managers of the importance of understanding the process in the context of the organization's culture, the external environment, and all the individuals involved in the change. Even small changes need to be recognized, celebrated, preserved and fostered throughout the organization.

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APPENDIX. BASSC Search Protocol

Structured review on best practices for instituting a model of evidence-based practice into agency environments: three broad areas: 1) organizational change, change processes that facilitate positive organizational change, 2) organizational culture and 3) the management of organizational culture and change.

Search Terms

organizational change OR organizational culture OR organizational behavior OR organizational development OR organizational climate AND evidence base OR evidence-base

organizational change OR organizational culture OR organizational behavior OR organizational development OR organizational climate AND child welfare

organizational change OR organizational culture OR organizational behavior OR organizational development OR organizational climate AND social service

organizational change OR organizational culture OR organizational behavior OR organizational development OR organizational climate AND human service

organizational change OR organizational culture OR organizational behavior OR organizational development OR organizational climate AND innovation

organizational innovation

innovation process

organizational creativity

dissemination OR diffusion AND evidence based

organizational change process

APPENDIX (continued)

Databases

Academic databases for books and articles
Pathfinder or Melvyl
ArticleFirst
Current Contents Database
ERIC
Expanded Academic ASAP
Family and Society Studies Worldwide
PAIS International
PsychInfo
Social Science Citation Index
Social Services Abstracts
Social Work Abstracts
Sociological Abstracts

Systematic Reviews

Cochrane Collaboration
Campbell Collaboration

Reference lists from primary & review articles

Research Institutes
Mathematica
Urban Institute
RAND
GAO
National Academy of Sciences
Chapin Hall
CASRC (San Diego)
Brookings Institute
Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation
Annie E. Casey Foundation

Conference proceedings

PapersFirst (UCB Database)
Proceedings (UCB Database)

Dissertation Abstracts

DigitalDissertations (UCB database)

Professional Evaluation Listserves

EVALTALK

GOVTEVAL

ChildMaltreatmentListserve

Internet

Google

Dogpile

Experts / personal contacts

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