

OFFICER ATTITUDES TOWARD ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE
IN THE TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE

Huseyin Durmaz, B.A., M.S.

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APPROVED:

Brian O'Connor, Major Professor
D.Kall Loper, Committee Member
Jiangping Chen, Committee Member
Herman L. Totten, Dean of School of Library
and Information Sciences
Sandra L. Terrell, Dean of the Robert B.
Toulouse School of Graduate Studies

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This dissertation emphasizes the importance of the human factor in the organizational change process. Change – the only constant – is inevitable for organizations and no change program can be achieved without the support and acceptance of organization members.

In this context, this study identifies officer attitudes toward organizational change in the Turkish National Police (TNP) and the factors affecting those attitudes. The Officer Attitude Model created by the researcher includes six main factors (receptivity to change, readiness for change, trust in management, commitment to organization, communication of change, and training for change) and five background factors (gender, age, rank, level of education, and work experience) to explain officer attitudes toward change. In order to test this model, an officer attitude survey was administered in Turkey among TNP members and the results of the gathered data validated this model.

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ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|------|---|
| MODE | <i>M</i> otivation and <i>O</i> pportunity act as <i>DE</i> terminants of spontaneous versus deliberative attitude-to-behavior processes |
| OAM | Officer Attitude Model |
| TNP | Turkish National Police |
| TPB | Theory of Planned Behavior |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“If you want truly to understand something, try to change it.”

Kurt Lewin¹

Change is accepted as the only constant and the obvious omnipresent, happening everywhere and all the time (French & Bell, 1995). Nothing is strong enough to resist change and remain the same in the era of change. Humans, communities, cultures, the globe, in short, everything is subject to change. Change is inevitable for organizations as well. Whatsoever the reasons are, organizations need to change in order to survive and to be effective.

As Lewin¹ implies, change warrants extensive study and understanding of the thing subject to change. Organizational change literature, which is abundant, usually focuses on explaining change processes. Issues helping managers or change agents in the change process and organizations' abilities to change are thoroughly explored and explained (Halliday, Powell & Granfors, 1993; Huber, Sutcliffe, Miller & Glick, 1993); factors impeding change programs and ways to eliminate such factors are discussed (Kelly & Amburgey, 1991).

Organizational change literature further studies the human factor in the change process. In the research done in the last decade or so, the importance of the employee has been understood and employee attitudes and behaviors towards organizational

¹ As quoted in Kelly, B. (2003, pg. 39)

change have been studied in depth. It is now commonly agreed that negative employee attitudes and resistance to change are the strongest elements that may cause the eventual failure of an organizational change program (Coetsee, 1999). Acknowledging the importance of the human factor in organizational change, this study focuses on officer attitudes toward change phenomenon in the Turkish National Police (TNP).

Change in Police Organizations

Change is likely to be more complicated and daunting in some organizations, such as police departments, because of the bureaucratic structure, the nature of police work (Carter, 1995), and the task environment (Zhao, 1996). The bureaucratic structure preferred commonly in police departments is deemed necessary to enforce the laws effectively and to control the staff (Bailey, 1995). According to Bailey (1995), bureaucracy stands on four legs; hierarchy, division of labor, accountability, and regulatory systems.

In hierarchies, centralization is widespread and only top management is authorized to make decisions that affect the whole organization. Each officer and supervisor is held accountable to their superiors for their tasks and duties. Even though hierarchical structure may have some questionable advantages, such as reducing internal dissonance and ensuring continuity and uniformity of police services through the extensive rules and regulations (Rabin, 2001), overall it is criticized for impeding organizational change and for having a negative impact on innovation adoption (Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981).

There is also a clear division of labor (functional differentiation) in police departments. For example, according to Bailey (1995), police in the US perform five functions: patrol, traffic, jail staffing, investigative, and administrative services. Although this functional distinction may vary in different countries, it is a fact that every police organization worldwide performs a wide variety of services to fulfill the needs of their communities.

Moreover, members of police organizations usually exclude themselves from the community and create their own culture and values (Allen, 1997). Being a policeman is both an honorable and risky profession; it requires good skills to overcome the myriad situations on the streets. Police perform several varied tasks while preventing crimes by demonstrating force or reacting to crimes (Bailey, 1994). This demanding and perilous nature of police work brings forth close bonds among officers and forms a police culture. This police culture tends to protect status quo and resist change before it is certain that change will work out (Ortiz & Peterson, 1994; Rabin, 2001; Scheingold, 1991).

In his study on adoption of community policing, Greene (1998) discusses police organizations' ability for minimizing and defeating reform movements. Referring to the studies that identify the structure and culture of police organizations as the biggest barriers for the implementation of community policing, Greene (1998) says that:

There are many reasons for the seeming stability in the formal and social organization of policing. In large measure, the failure of many reforms to 'change' policing may be most attributable to the insularity of police organizations and their concomitant ability to change 'changes' as they are being introduced into police agencies. For many years and in many places, changes sought of the police have had to adapt to the police organization and subculture, rather than the organization and subculture adapting to the change (pg. 145-146).

Organizational change is problematic in police organizations also due to its task environment. Task environment is defined as the targets for organizational operations (Zhao, 1996), and uncertainties and constraints originating from task environment constitute barriers for change attempts. Within the sphere of their responsibilities, police organizations target citizens in need of help or service, criminals, suspects, victims, in short, all the community for their operations. Explaining that police organizations experience more uncertainties and constrains, Zhao (1996) describe police organizations as captive organizations by their nature. Even though private organizations have opportunity to change their target environment or organizational mission to cope with the uncertainties, police organizations have no alternative but to provide effective service to their target environment under unpredictable circumstances.

In short, bureaucracy, hierarchical structure, centralization, variety of services, exhausting rules and regulations, the nature of police work, police culture, and uncertainties and constraints arising from task environment make organizational change efforts within police departments more difficult than other organizations (Damanpour, 1991; French & Bell, 1995; Zhao, 1996). Furthermore, the size of the organization is argued to be very important in the change process (Hannan & Freeman, 1984) as some empirical research proved that less change occurs among larger organizations (Delacroix & Swaminathan, 1991; Halliday et al., 1993).

Statement of the Problem

The researcher selected TNP for this study because it is a modern police organization with more than 180,000 members (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a) where there have been several organizational changes in the last decade and where such changes seem to continue increasingly.

First of all, fundamental developments took place in Turkey concerning European Union (EU) membership in recent years. Nation's and politicians' preferences about the future of Turkey have been requiring essential changes for its system and organizations. Turkey became an EU candidate state and the accession negotiations were started on October 03, 2005. Each candidate country is supposed to revise their management, administrative and judicial systems and make necessary institutional changes in order to bring their systems and institutions up to EU standards. TNP is one of those institutions which have to make significant changes in its structure, mandate, and roles.

Besides the studies for harmonizing the policing practices and rules with EU standards, there are more factors driving TNP to change, such as sharp increases in some crime types (i.e. illegal immigration and purse-snatching), international agreements, a desire to better combat terrorism, and environmental pressures. For instance, even though police usually seem to be socially isolated, they are an integral part of daily life in Turkey. Because they are under constant public and media scrutiny, demands for more effective and equitable policing increase day by day. The problems of police and their interventions in some events are discussed in the media at length as

a social agenda. The high visibility of police and exposure to criticism occasionally generates environmental pressures that necessitate organizational changes.

In contrast to these motivating and guiding factors, there exist other issues making change difficult in TNP. Specific features of police organizations, such as hierarchical structure, police culture, and the dangerous nature of police work, make organizational change quite complex. Internal conflicts and pressures to maintain the status quo within the police organization, numerous and complicated laws and procedures with which the police have to work, a more violent and intolerant society, and dramatic increases in some crime rates may all serve as impediments to change programs.

While there is a high need for change on one side of the coin, there are potential threats to successful change on the other side. When both sides of the coin are considered, the importance of officers in the change process becomes more apparent. If organizational change is inevitable for TNP today and to ensure that TNP can move in a positive direction, the officer attitudes toward organizational change need to be thoroughly understood and potential impediments to change identified. It is just like reversing Lewin's saying; if you want truly to change something, you must try to understand it. Since there is no research conducted for TNP to understand its officers' attitudes toward organizational change so far, this study will explore the officer attitudes toward organizational change and the factors influencing employee attitudes. Moreover, an Officer Attitude Model (OAM) will be developed and tested to explain officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this survey study is to understand officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP and to identify the significant factors affecting those officer attitudes. A model, Officer Attitude Model, will be constructed and tested to see how well the factors used in the model explain officer attitudes. The following independent variables and definitions will be used:

- Receptivity to change: The willingness of an officer to receive new change ideas in the organization and his/her beliefs in the effectiveness of change programs (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996).
- Readiness for change: A collection of thoughts and intentions towards a change effort (Bernerth, 2004). These thoughts and intentions include an individual's perceptions of the need for change in the organization, the appropriateness of the changes for the organization's objectives, and the perception of management and principal support (manager and peer support) (Holt, 2002).
- Commitment to organization: The psychological attachment of officers to their agencies (Becker et al., 1996)
- Trust in management: The willingness of an officer to be vulnerable to the actions of competent authorities (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995).
- Communication of organizational change: The extent to which an officer receives necessary information about organizational changes in the agency.
- Training for organizational change: The extent to which an officer feels he/she receives necessary training about organizational changes.

- Socio-demographic characteristics: Gender, age, rank, level of education, and work experiences.

The dependent variable Attitudes toward Organizational Change is defined as the beliefs and feelings of an officer about organizational change and his/her likelihood to take action based on these beliefs and feelings (Alreck & Settle, 2004).

An officer attitude survey will be administered among TNP members in Turkey. The police officers and first and mid-level police managers, a total of 177,713 members of TNP, which compose 98.25% of the Turkish police force (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a), will be the population of this study. Personnel in ranks higher than superintendent will be excluded. The survey will be delivered to ranking officers through the Internet. A paper version of the same survey will be distributed in seven Provincial Security Departments in order to reach police officers as well as the ranking officers who do not have Internet access. Among these seven cities, four of them –Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, and Adana– are selected because they are among the most crowded cities in Turkey, where almost 30% of all TNP staff are deployed. The other cities, Samsun, Kahramanmaras, and Van, are selected to include one city from the different regions of Turkey.

It is expected that understanding what factors are significant predictors of negative or positive officer attitudes will help management and change agents in TNP eliminate potential resistance to organizational change and will provide useful information to police practitioners in the process of innovation and change. On the other hand, by no means will this study attempt to address how and why organizations change and will not examine the officer attitudes and behaviors toward a *particular*

change program. Additionally, bearing in mind that this study will be the first one on this matter in TNP, it may raise many more questions than it is designed to answer.

Significance of the Study

First, this study will be the first one in TNP about the officer attitudes toward organizational change. An Officer Attitude Model will be created and tested, some significant factors shaping officer attitudes will be identified, and those variables will be conceptualized for measurement purpose. This study, therefore, is expected to be a significant tool for police managers who are planning new organizational changes and for researchers who want to study similar topics in TNP in the future.

Secondly, what increases the importance of this study is its timing. If the same study had been made ten years ago, it would still have been a significant study. However, organizational change is at utmost pace in TNP in recent years mostly because of EU membership preparations. This fact makes this study more significant, valuable, and necessary.

Third, while the results may not be generalizable outside TNP, they may shed some light on change in organizations with strong hierarchical structure.

In addition, emphasizing the importance of the human factor in organizational change process and identifying factors that affect officer attitudes, this study attempts to expand the current literature. The organizational change literature is extremely broad; there are several researches, books, and articles on each topic, such as readiness to change, communication, cynicism, organizational citizenship, and

resistance, that are directly related to organizational change. Such an abundance of literature makes understanding of the whole organizational change phenomenon hard for readers; it may be difficult to gather many pieces in order to see whole picture. Even though this study does not claim to comprise all factors affecting officer attitudes toward change, the Officer Attitude Model derived from organizational change literature is believed to help readers easily capture the whole picture of organizational change from an officer's perspective. Those factors, such as officer satisfaction and work stress, are not included here purposefully to make this study manageable.

In order to properly realize the significance of this study and why it is timely, it is important to understand the organization in which change occurs. In the following section, some basic information about TNP will be provided.

Turkish National Police (TNP)

Brief History of TNP

The history of the Turkish Police is usually studied in four time periods: ancient Turks (...-1299), the Ottoman Empire (1299-1918), the Independence War (1918-1923), and the Republic of Turkey (1923-Present) (Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006). During the Ottoman Empire period, public order and security was maintained by different organizations that mostly originated from the army. Yeniceri infantry (Janissaries-new soldier) was the strongest organization responsible for security. Besides this organization, some other groups, such as kollukcular (patrolmen), yasakcilar (prohibitors), bekciler (night-watchmen, sentries) were also in charge of preserving the

public order, particularly in small towns and country areas (Sever, 2005). Sultan Mahmud the 2nd abolished Yeniceri infantry in 1826 due to widespread corruption and established a new army named Asakir-i Mansure-i Muhammediye (Triumphant Soldiers of Muhammad) to perform routine police duties (Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006; Sever, 2005).

On April 10, 1845, for the first time in Turkish history, a new organization was founded under the name of Police and a police law, describing the duties of this organization, was introduced (Sahin, 2004). This date is being celebrated as the foundation day of today's Turkish National Police. In parallel to these developments, a new ministry called Zaptiye Nezareti (Ministry of Security and Order) was established within the following months to clarify the law enforcement jurisdictions (Oztuna, 1983). The appointment of the first civilian as the minister of Zaptiye Nezareti in 1879 helped the police organization separate from the military structure (Sahin, 2004). In September 10, 1909, Zaptiye Nezareti was annulled and the Directorate General of Security –the headquarters responsible for internal security– was created in Istanbul under the authority of the Minister of Interior (Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006).

Following WWI, foreign rival armed forces occupied Turkey and the independence war began in 1918. During the war days, most policemen enlisted in the army, while the rest maintained the police services. Since Istanbul and thereby police headquarters was under the control of invasion forces, another Turkish National Police was established in Ankara on June 24, 1920 by the newly formed government (Sahin, 2004). Mustafa Kemal Ataturk (1881-1938) founded the modern Turkish Republic on October 29, 1923; Ankara was selected as the new capital city and police headquarters remained in Ankara (Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006).

Since the mid-1920s, TNP has evolved into a strong and modern police organization. In parallel to the increase in general population, the size of TNP has enlarged. While the number of personnel was 37,541 in December 1973 (Sahin, 2004), today the number is 180,884 (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a).

Organizational Structure

In Turkey, the Ministry of Internal Affairs is the body responsible for policing, and it carries out policing functions through the General Directorate of Security (Turkish National Police–TNP), the Gendarmerie, and Coast Guards. TNP is a national and an armed civil force, which has jurisdiction over eighty percent of the population in Turkey. It performs duties in cities, towns, townships, greater rural communities, border gates, highways, and airports (Yayla, 2006). The gendarmerie, on the other hand, provides security outside the municipal boundaries of cities and provincial towns and recruits through the military conscription system (Metz, 1996).

The Turkish National Police is composed of a central and a provincial organization. The central organization, General Directorate of Security, serves as the headquarters for all the organization. The headquarters basically consists of one Director General, five deputy director generals, 27 departments, 4 directorates, 2 boards and the Police Academy (Appendix 1-Organizational Chart of Turkish National Police). The Director of Inspection Board, Chief Law Advisor, Head of Police Academy, Head of Intelligence Department and Head of Special Operations Department are directly accountable to the Director General (Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006). The remaining 25 departments and 4 directorates are accountable to one of the deputy director generals.

The provincial organization consists of 81 Provincial Security Departments, 751 Security Directorates of Towns affiliated to provinces, 22 Border Gates Security Directorates, 18 Free-Zone Police Stations, and 834 Police Stations throughout Turkey (Turkish National Police–TNP, 2007a; Organization for Security and Co-Operation in Europe–OSCE, 2007). Since civil administrators –governors and district governors– are responsible for the security and well-being of provinces and towns, the chief of the Provincial department is accountable to the governor of the province as well as to the General Directorate of Security in Ankara and is under the authority of the public prosecutor regarding criminal cases. (Cevik, 1999; Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006) The security departments in the provinces have a structure similar to that in the headquarters, and each department that exists in the headquarters is also represented in the provinces (Ekici & Pekgozlu, 2006).

Functions

There are three distinguished categories of police functions: administrative, judicial, and political. The administrative police prevent crime, maintain social order, and take serious precautions against any criminal activity in society. For example, enforcement of laws and regulations, prevention of smuggling, suppressing public disorder, fingerprinting, controlling traffic, locating missing persons, and keeping track of foreigners residing in Turkey are all among administrative police tasks (Metz, 1996). The judicial police work with the courts and perform its investigations according to criminal procedure law. These personnel assist the prosecutor in investigating crimes, carry out arrest warrants, and find evidentiary documents and materials for District

Attorneys (Sever, 2005). In terms of political tasks, the police are responsible for the protection of the integrity of the state and the preservation of constitutional order.

Staff Data

The personnel of the General Directorate of Security is composed of police officers, police chiefs (in different ranks), and civil servants (Appendix 2–Ranks, Titles, and Tasks in TNP). Table 1 provides numbers in each rank.

Table 1

Personnel Information (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a)

| Management Levels | Ranks | Total |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------|
| Command level personnel | Chief Superintendent–Beyond Class | 1 |
| | Chief Superintendent–First Class | 842 |
| | Chief Superintendent–Second Class | 591 |
| Middle level management | Chief Superintendent–Third Class | 850 |
| | Chief Superintendent–Fourth Class | 888 |
| | Superintendent | 2484 |
| First level management | Captain | 3295 |
| | Lieutenant | 2698 |
| | Sergeant | 2153 |
| Line level personnel | Police Officer–Constable | 167083 |
| G r a n d T o t a l | | 180884 |

Education and Training

Police in Turkey receive pre-professional training from the Police Academy and receive in-service training from the Department of Education. Through its institutes,

faculties, and schools, the Police Academy offers five different training programs (Turkish Police Academy, 2007):

- Undergraduate Education: Police Professional High Schools provide this education, and the period of this education is 2 years. There are 25 police professional high schools nationwide and their graduates are immediately assigned to an ordinary police officer post anywhere in Turkey (Caglar, 2004).
- Bachelor's Degree Education: This is a four-year university level education offered by the Security Sciences Institute which is located in Ankara. Police college graduates (high school level) compose roughly %75 of student capacity at this level and the rest originate from other high schools. Graduates are appointed to the sergeant post, which is the first police chief rank (Caglar, 2004).
- Postgraduate Training: The Security Sciences Institute provides four semesters long training, and graduates obtain a Master's degree.
- Training at State Higher Educational Institutions: A limited number of bachelor degree students are registered to the other universities in Ankara in order to meet the needs of TNP. These students are also obliged to take professional policing courses provided by the Security Sciences Institute.
- Management Training: The Security Sciences Institute offers two management trainings. The first one, advanced level management training, is given to Third Class Chief Superintendents, while the other one, mid-level management training, is provided for Chief Inspectors.

In-service trainings are organized by the Department of Education and each department may offer such trainings according to the organizational needs.

Furthermore, there are other educational institutions that give expert in-service training, such as the Turkish International Academy Against Drugs and Organized Crime² (TADOC) and the Crime Investigation and Research Education Centre (SASEM) (Turkish National Police, 2007b).

Organizational Characteristics

TNP is a tall, hierarchical bureaucracy. Its structure is tall because there are many go-between ranks linking the top and the bottom. Also chain of command, which is a principle in tall organizations, is extremely important in TNP (Caglar, 2004). It is territorially centralized and hierarchical as power resides in the hands of top level management (Mastrofski, 1998). According to Bennis (1966), the characteristics of bureaucracy are as follows: division of labor; hierarchically organized and well-defined chain of command; system of explicitly prescribed rights and duties of personnel; written documentation of work situations; impersonality for interpersonal relations; and promotion and selection by competence.

These characteristics of bureaucracy indicate that TNP is a bureaucracy. In TNP, control and authority relationships are structured in a vertical hierarchy; hierarchy of authority mainly determines communication channels and communication is primarily vertical. Rules, procedures, and discipline are strictly enforced. Personnel matters and operational policies are governed by myriad rules (Mastrofski, 1998) and tasks are rigidly defined. Formality is important, so most things are written down for documentation. Organization members are interchangeable; there is constant staff rotation, but the jobs stay the same. Loyalty to the organization and obedience to the

² More information about TADOC can be reached at <http://www.tadoc.gov.tr/>

work related orders, which does not constitute crime, are mandatory; creativity and change are not usually encouraged.

Organizational Change in TNP

Widespread organizational change takes place in TNP. Organizational structure, mandates, job descriptions, and policies change in accordance with various reasons; however, there is little knowledge of these changes. For example, Yayla (2006) explains that the sharp increase in terror attacks in Turkey directed TNP to a series of organizational changes and to the adoption of a number of immediate measures and policy changes in the late 1980's.

In terms of terror-related changes, first of all, some structural changes took place; the Intelligence Department and the Anti-Terrorism Department were created in TNP Headquarters in 1983 and 1986 respectively, as well as their satellites in cities. This change resulted in the creation of viable communication and information networks through which the information is shared among different city divisions swiftly. By organizing police efforts in various places, newly formed central departments provided more successful operations and precautions. To technically support this formation, one of the largest police computer and information systems networks in the world, POL-NET, was created (Yayla, 2006).

The second set of changes was aimed at the personnel system and education. As a long-term precaution, the number of police colleges (high school level) was increased from one to five in 1985. The education system in police schools was

changed and enriched, and the duration of the police schools was first increased to nine months, then to one year, and then to a two year associate degree after 2000. In order for police officers to obtain their undergraduate degree, a contract with Eskisehir Anatolia University was concluded, and more than 60,000 officers have attended these distance education programs. Members of TNP were supported to pursue Master's and Ph.D. degrees in different universities to increase their level of knowledge and expertise; as a result, many TNP members attended graduate programs in management, law, forensic science, and sociology. Moreover, more than 200 officers were sent abroad to receive graduate education between 1999 and 2006 (Yayla, 2006).

Besides these changes to suppress terrorism threat, the Special Operations Division was created in 1983, which became a separate department in 1993. Furthermore, the number of Criminal Police Laboratories was increased to ten (Yayla, 2006).

It is not only the rise in crime rates that led TNP to change. For instance, in Turkey, the police are responsible for maintaining the safe flow of traffic and preventing traffic accidents on city and intercity roads. The increase in the number of deaths and casualties in traffic accidents and its direct effect on the social life and economy forced TNP to restructure its relevant departments. As a result, the Department of Traffic Planning and Logistics, the Department of Traffic Practice and Inspection, the Department of Traffic Training and Research, and the Directorate of Traffic Research were established in 1996 (Turkish National Police, 2007c).

Likewise, Turkey's membership journey to the EU led the legislative power to renew crucial acts, such as Turkish Criminal Law and the Criminal Procedure Act, and

to abolish some significant bodies such as State Security Courts (Safak, 2007). These legislative reforms not only deeply affected the Turkish Criminal Justice System but also limited critical police powers. Custody periods shortened and a number of powers, such as search, fingerprint taking, and DNA test, have been restricted and now require court permission (Sevinc, 2006). Consequently, changes in laws resulted in changes in the police codes and regulations.

More importantly, membership in the EU has become a national target for Turkey. It is believed that universal standards will eventually be brought into all areas of daily life as a result of this reform movement. On every occasion, the politicians and high level bureaucrats declared that Turkey is fully resolved to adopt and implement the EU acquis. By the decision of Turkish Council of Ministers numbered 2003/5930, 'National Programme towards alignment with the EU Acquis³' was approved and published in Official Gazette on July 24, 2003 (Secretary General for EU Affairs, 2007). National Programme contained studies which were anticipated to be completed in short and middle time periods. Secretary General for EU Affairs, which was established under the Prime Minister's Office in 2000, was given the task of the coordination of the studies mentioned in National Programme.

National Programme explains all political and economic criteria that need to be met according to a certain timetable, and assigns tasks to every public institution to harmonize their organization and regulations with EU standards. Institutions are expected to submit necessary law amendment offers to the legislative power for the alignment with the EU acquis.

³ National Programme can be reached at <http://www.abgs.gov.tr/indexen.html>

Under the title of 'Justice and Home Affairs' there are several issues, such as illegal immigration, organized crime, drug trafficking, international police cooperation, communication systems, visa policy, border management, refugees, and personal data protection, which are directly related to TNP (Secretary General for EU Affairs, 2007). Harmonization and application of several conventions, EU Council joint action plans, and Schengen acquis is on no account an easy task, and it inevitably warrants organizational changes in TNP. A number of twinning projects have already been developed by some TNP units on drug surveillance, border management, immigration, organized crime, questioning techniques, crime scene analysis, and money laundering in order to achieve the adoption of EU legislation on these policing matters. The adoption process clearly necessitates several organizational changes in TNP such as establishing new institutions and centers, purchasing equipment and devices, and recruitment and training of personnel.

Bureaucratic organizations, such as TNP, are believed to be rigid and inhospitable to responding to changing needs and times (Rabin, 2001). Even though this assumption suggests that organizational change in TNP would be difficult to achieve or painfully slow, the history of TNP, which is replete with examples of successful organizational change, prevents people from reaching a conclusion on whether and to what extent the discussed characteristics of TNP constitute barriers for organizational change.

Depending on the type of the organizational change –structural or individual level– and how it is initiated –environmental and internal pressures, governmental decisions– TNP's capability for achieving organizational changes may vary. For

example, the success of some projects, such as POL-NET (Police Computer and Information Systems Network) and MOBESE⁴ (Mobile Electronic System Integration), may indicate that most of the TNP members are open and easily welcome at least some types of organizational change initiatives, particularly technological ones (Yayla, 2006).

Research Questions and Hypothesis

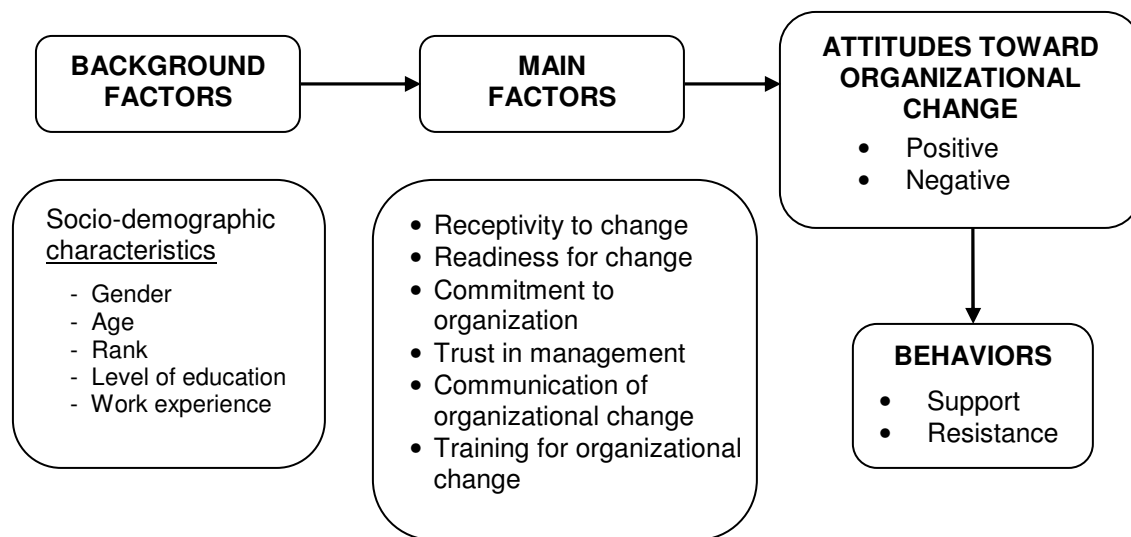
Organizational change literature explains the importance of personnel for the success of change programs (Abraham, 2000; Amburgey, Dawn & Barnett, 1993; Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Galpin, 1996). In addition to some other factors, such as careful planning and reallocation of resources, personnel cooperation and involvement in the change process is vital and required (Cochran, Bromley & Swando, 2002). This study, therefore, focuses on attitudes of TNP members toward organizational change as well as the factors affecting these attitudes. The following research questions will be responded to:

1. What are the attitudes held by Turkish National Police members toward organizational change?
2. How well does the following Officer Attitude Model (Figure 1) explain officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP?
 - a. Which of the following predictor variables (gender, age, rank, education, work experience, receptivity to change, readiness to change, commitment to organization, trust in management, communication of organizational change, and training) are most influential in predicting the officer attitudes?

⁴ More information about MOBESE can be reached at <http://mobese.iem.gov.tr/>

- b. Is there any change in the power of the OAM in predicting the officer attitudes when the background factors are excluded as contributors?
- c. Are there any relationships between the background factors and six main factors?

Figure 1. Officer Attitude Model.



Based on the given second research question, the following hypotheses will be tested in this study:

- Hypothesis 1: More educated and ranking officers have more positive attitudes toward organizational change.
- Hypothesis 2: Senior and more experienced officers have more negative attitudes toward organizational change.
- Hypothesis 3: The background factors in OAM will not contribute to the OAM subsequently in predicting officer attitudes.

- Hypothesis 4: Officers more receptive and ready for change have more positive attitudes toward organizational change.
- Hypothesis 5: Officers less committed to their organization have more negative attitudes toward organizational change.
- Hypothesis 6: Officers who trust in management have more positive attitudes toward organizational change.
- Hypothesis 7: Officers who are dissatisfied with the communication level of organizational change have negative attitudes toward organizational change.
- Hypothesis 8: Officers who believe that they received adequate in-service training hold more positive attitudes toward organizational change.

CHAPTER 2

ATTITUDES TOWARD ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE AND THE FACTORS AFFECTING THE ATTITUDES

Introduction

The first section of the literature review includes a general overview of organizational change and some typologies of change programs. As officer attitudes and the factors influencing those attitudes are the main subjects of this study, the second section of this chapter is devoted to the theoretical perspective about the attitudes and attitude-behavior relationship. Revealing the strong relationship between attitudes and behaviors is believed to explain why measuring officer attitudes toward organizational change is significant for TNP. Moreover, the theories provided are greatly helpful to structure the Officer Attitude Model which will be tested in this study.

The third and fourth sections focus on studies and research in order to identify and conceptualize independent and dependent variables to be used in measuring officer attitudes. The scholarly literature that relates the variables as well as the results of the most relevant studies are presented. In the fifth section, the Internet survey and response rates in this response mode are explained. To sum up this chapter, the Officer Attitude Model will be given in the last section.

Organizational Change

Organizational change has been categorized in different ways in the literature; behavioral, attitudinal, and cultural (Golembiewski, Billingsley & Yeager, 1976); minor, major, and transformative (Buckley & Perkins, 1984); or individual and structural level (Swanson, Territo & Taylor, 2001). It is seen that the important determinant in all these categories is the extent of the organizational change program.

For instance, according to Golembiewski et al. (1976), when it is intended to increase productivity in the short-term, a change program focuses on behavioral change just to achieve desired productivity levels by changing employee behaviors. When the change program is planned to be long-term, difference needs to be achieved in employee awareness and understanding of the situation. Such attitudinal change produces behavior changes at the individual level and moves the majority in the desired direction; it results in overall organizational change. Cultural change is implemented to transform the organization to a great extent and employees are expected to think and behave in new ways for organization (Golembiewski et al., 1976).

The importance of the human factor in change programs has been well acknowledged (Eby, Adams, Russell & Gaby, 2000) because, in essence, organization change is altering individuals' attitudes and behaviors in accordance with the change objectives. In terms of understanding how employees will act in the future, it is believed that past behaviors are quite good predictors of future behaviors (Swanson et al., 2001). A whiny employee can be expected to continue complaining or to resist future change programs. Although habits and past behaviors are important in understanding human

behavior, it is not to say that individuals will not change their attitudes and behaviors at all. In the 1940s, Kurt Lewin, who is considered to be the father of social psychology (Coghlan & Brannick, 2003), explained three phases where changes in human behaviors occur: unfreezing an old pattern of relationships; the changing to a new pattern through a change program, and the refreezing of a new pattern of relationships.

Lewin's 3-Step Model for a Successful Change

In the days of meat shortages during the Second World War, the US government was trying to solve this matter by changing people's meat-eating habits. To understand human behavior, Lewin focused on the question "Why do people eat what they eat?" The social norms at that time implied that only poor people who cannot afford good meat would use organ meat. Through educational programs designed to teach housewives how to use organ meats, such as liver and kidneys, Lewin attempted to change eating habits (Lewin, 1943). As a result of his experiments, Lewin (1947, 1948, 1951) conceptualized his 3-step Model of Change –unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. He asserted that change happens when those forces restraining change are reduced rather than when those forces driving change are increased. According to Coghlan and McAuliffe (2003), his findings from these studies formed the basic philosophical tenets of organizational development. In addition to the change program itself and implementation strategies, helping employees see the need for change and take ownership of change is a very important factor to create the motivation to change.

Lewin (1947) believed that "A successful change includes three aspects: unfreezing the present level, moving to the new level, and freezing group life on the new level" (pg. 35).

(1) *Unfreezing*: Feeling a discomfort with the old behavior and a need for change is the key incentive in this step. For Lewin (1947), human behavior is stabilized as a result of a quasi-stationary equilibrium which is supported by the driving and restraining forces. This equilibrium is important as –in order for change to occur– it has to be altered and destabilized under complex psychological conditions. That is, strengthening driving forces only to achieve change is not a good idea as this approach creates an instant counterforce to maintain the equilibrium. In other words, assuming that driving forces already exist in the system, only clearing the restraining forces from the system would be enough to move equilibrium. A force to break the habit, to unfreeze the custom, would be sufficient to overcome the inner resistance to change. The environmental context supporting employee’s current behaviors might be rearranged to make that employee ready to change and willing to take the first step.

(2) *Moving*: Unfreezing basically motivates people to change and creates the atmosphere required for a change; however, it may not control the direction of change in behaviors and attitudes. When sufficient dissatisfaction with the current conditions exists, it is time to identify what needs to be changed and then implement the changes to move to a new standard of behaviors. This is where the actual change occurs.

(3) *Refreezing*: In this final phase, the new place of stability –the quasi-stationary equilibrium– is established again. The new behavior becomes habitual. It is expected that the new processes are accepted and what has been learned in the previous steps will now actually be practiced on the job.

Lewin’s studies on planned change are widely respected, and according to Burnes (2004), “Few social scientists can have received the level of praise that has

been heaped upon Kurt Lewin” (pg. 311). Kotter (1990) developed a model Change Phases Model to prevent making mistakes during organizational change.

- Establish a sense of urgency,
- Create a coalition,
- Develop a clear vision,
- Share the vision,
- Empower people to clear obstacles,
- Secure short-term wins,
- Consolidate and keep moving,
- Anchor the change.

In addition to such studies explaining the change steps or how to change human behaviors successfully, many studies in physiological literature explain the relationship between attitudes and human behaviors as well as the factors behind those attitudes.

Theoretical Perspective on Attitude-Behavior Relationship

Early Attitude–Behavior Research

It is a difficult task to explain human behavior and its determinants in all its complexity. Since the early 20th century, several studies were conducted to measure attitudes in order to explain behaviors (Thurstone, 1928). Most researches accepted that attitudes were the keys to understanding human behavior and changes in attitudes would influence behavior (Thomas & Znaniecki, 1918; Watson, 1925). In his study, Katz (1960) explains the concept of attitude:

Attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Opinion is the verbal expression of an attitude, but attitudes can also be expressed in nonverbal behavior. Attitudes include both the affective, or feeling core of liking or disliking, and the cognitive, or belief, elements which describe the object of the attitude, its characteristics, and its relations to other objects. All attitudes thus include beliefs, but not all beliefs are attitudes (pg. 168).

The assumption that attitudes are very strong predictors of future behavior was empirically supported by many studies (Stagner, 1942; Thurstone & Chave, 1929). For example, Thurstone and Chave (1929) found that divinity students were holding more favorable attitudes toward the church than other college students. Likewise, in his study, Stagner (1942) proved that military training groups, veterans, and conservative political groups had more positive attitudes toward war than labor groups and professional men. However, at the end of the 1960s, Wicker (1969) reviewed relevant studies about the attitude-behavior relationship and challenged the granted assumption. Emphasizing the inconsistency he found, he concluded that there is no or only a little relationship between the attitudes and behaviors.

Wicker's study called great attention to the field. While some scientists refuted Wicker's study on methodological grounds, some started seeking answers to why people who hold the same attitude can behave in different ways and others focused on when attitudes predict behavior rather than whether attitudes predict behavior (Fazio & Olson, 2003). Such concerns have been addressed from a variety of angles including characteristics of the individual, the situation, and the attitude itself.

Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) provided an explanation for the inconsistency between attitude-behavior relations by separating attitudes into two groups: attitudes

toward performing specific behaviors and general attitudes. The first type, “attitude toward a behavior” (pg. 174), is about performing specific behaviors with respect to an object or target. For instance, in the example of attitudes toward visiting Canakkale Martyrs Memorial, the behavior is specifically clarified and attitude in this example is not for visiting any memorial or museum but especially the Martyrs Memorial in Canakkale. Obviously, such attitudes are quite useful in predicting specific behaviors.

General attitudes, on the other hand, are held toward physical objects, racial, ethnic, or other groups, institutions, policies, events, or other general targets. For instance, attitudes toward gays, parliament, or crime prevention policies are general in nature. Human behaviors may be strongly affected by general attitudes depending on the three moderating factors: the person, the situation, and the characteristics of the attitude (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

In terms of the *individual difference*, some people change their intentions more readily than others (Ajzen, 1985). Some factors such as a self-monitoring tendency and self-consciousness play an important role in shaping human behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). A person high in self-monitoring is expected to be sensitive to social and interpersonal relationships and, therefore, perform more appropriate behaviors according to the situation rather than his attitude (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985). On the contrary, if a person does not need others’ help to reach decisions, such inner motivation will produce a strong attitude to behavior relationship.

As to *situational factors*, time pressure is believed to have a strong impact on human behaviors (Jamieson & Zanna, 1989; Kruglanski & Freund, 1983). It is expected

that behaviors are mostly guided by general attitudes when people are under time pressure (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

Regarding the *characteristics of the attitude*, how such an attitude is formed affects the behaviors. For instance, when attitudes are based on a direct experience rather than second-hand information, they become more predictive of subsequent behavior (Fazio & Zanna, 1981). An inconsistency would occur in attitude-behavior relationships when general attitudes are used for predicting specific behavior and actions. Even though general attitudes are not good predictors of single behaviors, they correlate strongly with aggregated behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

In the last two decades or so, many researchers have been using Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior and Fazio's MODE model as the backbone for trying to understand the attitude-to-behavior relationships.

Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

A great deal of contemporary research concerning the influence of attitudes on behavior is focused on beliefs, attitudes, and intentions. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) of Icek Ajzen (1988, 1991) helps to explain how deliberative human behavior is formed and the importance of attitudes as determinants of behavior. This theory has evolved over time; indeed, Ajzen developed the Theory of Reasoned Action of Ajzen and Fishbein (1975, 1980) by adding the perceived behavioral control factor in the model (Figure 2).

TPB basically assumes that intention is the immediate antecedent of actual behavior and this intention is formed by attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. Attitude toward the behavior is defined as "the degree

to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question”; subjective norm is “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior”; and perceived behavioral control is “the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior” (Ajzen, 1991, pg. 188). These three determinants of intention are results of behavioral, normative, and control beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

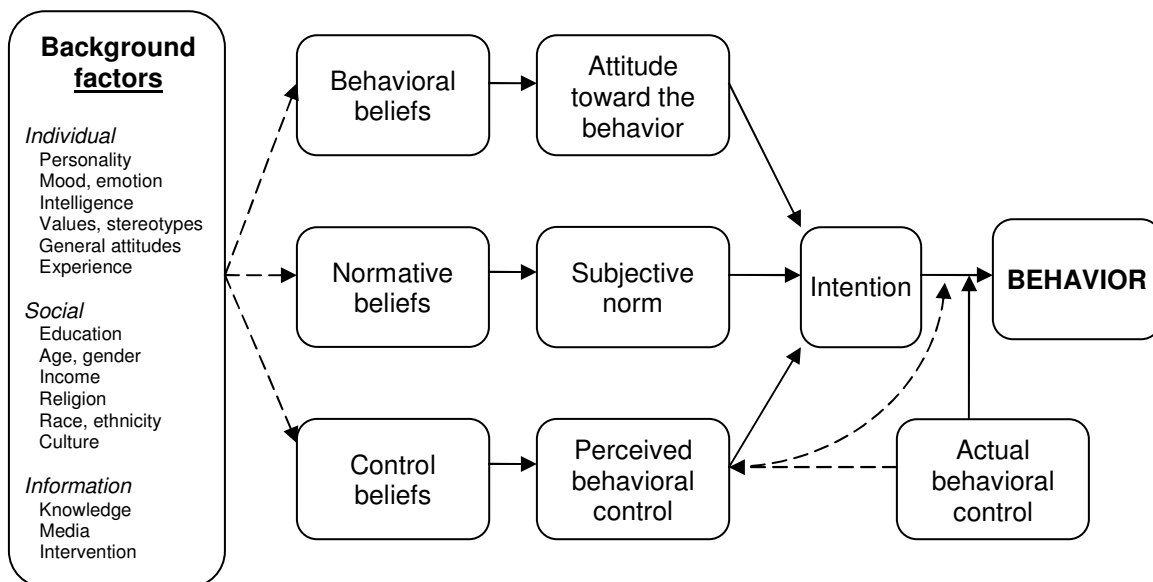
(1) *Behavioral beliefs*: Beliefs about the possible consequences of the behavior are called behavioral beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975, 1980). Behavioral beliefs contain outcome expectancies and cost-benefit evaluations, and, as a result, generate a positive or negative attitude toward the behavior. For instance, when perceived disadvantages of performing the behavior are greater than its perceived advantages, a negative attitude is likely to be formed.

(2) *Normative beliefs*: Other people’s expectations influence these beliefs. They form as a result of perceived social pressure or norms. People place a great deal of importance on whether their behaviors will be approved by their friends, family members, or coworkers. Such thoughts create social pressure or subjective norm which encourages or prevents the individual from performing the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975, 1980).

(3) *Control beliefs*: Some factors may facilitate or hamper performance of the behavior, and beliefs concerning the presence or absence of such factors are called control beliefs. For example, one particular job may require high persuasion skills. If a person thinks that his skills are properly fit to that job he will likely believe that he has the capacity to carry out the necessary behaviors. This person is expected to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy or perceived behavioral control (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

In order to explain why people have different beliefs about the same target and how beliefs may be influenced, Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) use several background factors, such as age, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, education, nationality, religious affiliation, personality, group membership, past experiences, exposure to information, and social support. However, these background factors are believed to affect human behaviors indirectly through their influence on beliefs and then on attitudes, subjective norms, or perceptions of control. Moreover, acknowledging that there is no necessary connection between background factors and beliefs, Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) state that whether a certain belief is shaped by a particular background factor warrants an empirical study.

Figure 2. Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).



In terms of beliefs, Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) explain that “These beliefs need not be veridical; they may be inaccurate, biased, or even irrational. However, once a set

of beliefs is formed, it provides the cognitive foundation from which attitudes, perceived social norms, and perceptions of control –and ultimately intentions– are assumed to follow in a reasonable and consistent fashion” (pg.193-194). Once attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perception of behavioral control are created, altogether they shape behavioral intention. TPB postulates that if the level of the attitude and subjective norm is strongly positive and the perceived control is great, then the person’s intention to perform the behavior under consideration should be stronger.

Addressing the issue of which determinant has greater influence on intention, Ajzen (1991) explains that the significance of these determinants in the formation of intention differs across behaviors and situations. While in some cases attitudes may have the sole impact on intentions, in others all three factors may make independent contributions.

Moreover, determinants are subject to change. Thurstone (1928) indicates that when an individual’s attitude toward an issue is measured, it does not mean at all that this measurement will be enduring or stable. When new events occur or new information is received, the beliefs and consequently the attitudes and behaviors may change (Katz, 1960; Ajzen, 1985). Since intervening events may produce changes in intentions and behaviors, organizational change agents can influence and change employee beliefs and attitudes through communication, training, and diffusion of successful change news. Ajzen (1991) emphasizes this matter by saying “Intention, perception of behavioral control, attitude toward the behavior, and subjective norm each reveals a different aspect of the behavior, and each can serve as a point of attack in attempts to change it” (pg. 206).

According to Ajzen and Fishbein (2005), TPB and its antecedent Theory of Reasoned Action have been strongly supported by the empirical research conducted over the past 35 years. On the other hand, some academics criticize Ajzen's theory, asserting that it only handles behavior as intentional, thoughtful, and based on the output of deliberate consideration of expected values of the behavior (Fazio & Olson, 2003).

Fazio's MODE Model

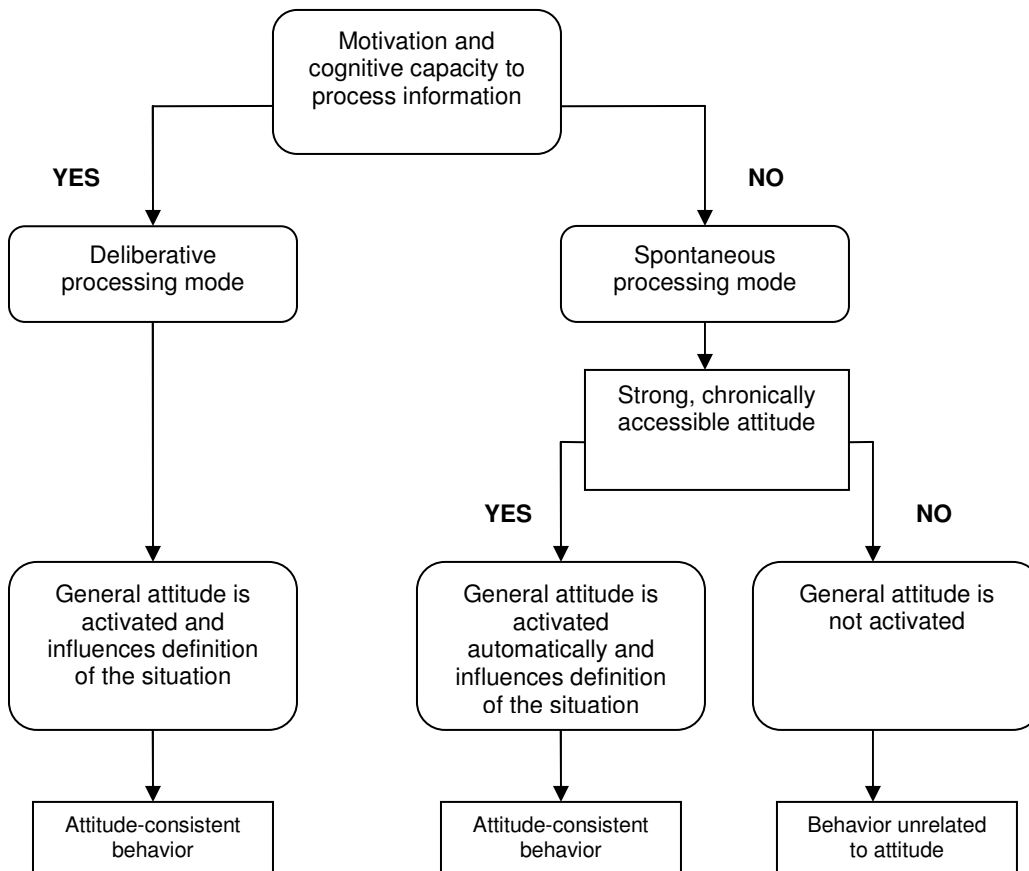
Fazio developed MODE model which is the acronym of "*Motivation and Opportunity act as DEterminants of spontaneous versus deliberative attitude-to-behavior processes*" (Fazio, 1995, p. 257). According to the MODE model (Figure 3), through a spontaneous process, accessible attitudes can affect behavior even without the involvement of thoughts and intentions. Two distinct attitude-behavior processing modes have been advanced: deliberative (data-driven) and spontaneous (theory-driven). In the former process, behavior is decided through the purposeful process of attending to, analyzing, and interpreting related information, whereas, in the latter process, the decision is made in a spontaneous manner and is based on the attitude that is automatically activated from the memory. Fazio and Olson (2003) explain whether and when one of these processes is likely to happen.

Two variables, motivation and opportunity, are keys to determining whether a spontaneous or a deliberative attitude-behavior process may happen. Theory assumes that where both exist adequately in the process, it is the deliberative process which forms the behavior. If both are absent, behaviors will be affected by the spontaneous process (Fazio & Olson, 2003). According to the theory of reasoned action, deliberate

process involves extensive cognitive work; for that reason, the behavior should have important consequences (Fazio & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2005). For instance, if the person considers the cost of his behavior to be high, he will spend more time to reason his behavior; on the other hand, in the absence of risks, he will decide spontaneously from his interpretation of the event. Thus, the MODE model maintains that the process depicted by the theory of reasoned action is more likely to occur in situations where the person has an opportunity to evaluate his/her actions carefully.

According to the MODE model, such automatic or spontaneous activation is reserved for strong attitudes. Specifically, attitude is defined as a learned association in memory between an object and a positive or negative evaluation of that object, and attitude strength is equivalent to the strength of this association (Fazio, 1990). Thus, automatic attitude activation occurs when a strong link has been established in memory between the attitude object and a positive or negative evaluation. The stronger the attitude, the more likely it is that it will be automatically activated and, hence, be chronically accessible from memory (Fazio, Sanbonmatsu, Powell & Kardes, 1986). Fazio (1990) further explains that the strong attitudes are more likely to resist change than weak attitudes when exposed to new information. These strong attitudes remain the same over time and are resistant to attack.

Figure 3. Fazio's MODE model (1990).



The theories both arrive at the same conclusion that attitude is the main predictor of behavior. The TPB indicates that people are rationally thinking about all their actions and the possible outcome, and attitudes are important determinants of behavioral intentions. The MODE model, on the other hand, focuses on when a strong attitude predicts behavior. According to MODE model, if the situation and events do not turn on the attitude or if the person does not have any attitude or strong attitude on a topic, then behavior will be unrelated to attitude.

The discussed theories explain the importance of attitudes, attitude-behavior relationship and how beliefs are influential over the attitudes. The following section focuses on research to identify the factors affecting officer attitudes toward organizational change.

Human Factor in Organizational Change

Even though most of the threats and problems encountered in the organizational change process have been studied extensively for the sake of successful organizational change, many researchers believe that the most important actors of this process, the employees, have been ignored (Aktouf, 1992; Linstone & Mitroff, 1994). Employee attitudes are essential for organizational change to an extent that negative employee attitudes –i.e. skepticism and cynicism– and resistance can easily nullify the change efforts (Eby et al., 2000)

Attitudes toward an organizational change may vary among employees to a great degree because such attitudes are the products of a complex interaction of emotions and cognitive processes. While some employees perceive organizational change as a means of rejuvenation, evolution, improvement, and growth, others may perceive it as instability, disorder, unpredictability, and risk (Cochran et al., 2002); as a result, organizational change programs may create undesired responses such as stress, cynicism, reduced organizational commitment, denial, and resistance (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Even at times when the employees are aware of a need for change, they may still resist change. That is because employees may believe that they will lose

something valuable as a result of change. For example, a change effort may produce resistance when this change threatens an employee's self-interest (Clarke, Ellett, Bateman & Rugutt, 1996). Moreover, a climate of constant change may also cause problems for many employees in the work environment (McHugh, 1997).

Jaffe, Scott, and Tobe (1994) developed a model explaining how employees behave as change unfolds.

- *Denial*: Employees do not accept that a change is necessary. They do not believe in the change idea and its successful implementation.
- *Resistance*: Employees withhold participation, attempt to delay implementation or persuade decision makers that the change plan is inappropriate.
- *Exploration*: Employees experiment with their effectiveness with new behaviors in accomplishing desired results.
- *Commitment*: Employees embrace a proposed change.

According to Jaffe et al. (1994), when the employees are not prepared appropriately for the change, the management is likely to experience denial and resistance. How the employees form their attitudes and respond to the organizational change idea, whether with fear, anxiety and demoralization, or with excitement and confidence, depends on various factors. Many studies have been conducted to determine what factors are facilitators or impediments to organizational change and what is relevant to positive or negative employee attitudes toward change programs.

In one of these studies, Cochran et al. (2002) identified the following as external and internal threats to the success of an organizational change: financial difficulties, a newly designated official, a lack of leadership commitment, a lack of employee and/or

client support, a conflict in organizational culture, employee resistance, or a negative attitude toward change. In another study, Covin and Kilmann (1990) found that management support and commitment, readiness for change, encouraging employee participation, good communication, and acknowledgement of a strong need for change were all perceived by the respondents as positive issues supporting changes. On the other hand, a lack of management support, forced change programs by top managers, unrealistic expectations, lack of employee participation, poor communication, and vague program purpose were believed to have negative impacts on change programs.

Substantially, organizational change literature includes the followings as factors affecting the change process and attitudes to change: employees' socio-demographic characteristics (Adams, Rohe & Arcury, 2002; Lewis, Rosenberg & Sigler, 1999; Novak, Alarid & Lucas, 2003), receptivity to change (Cochran et al., 2002), readiness to change (Beer & Walton, 1987; Bernerth, 2004), commitment to organization (Becker et al., 1996; Iverson, 1996), trust in management (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Mayer et al. 1995), communication of change (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Stanley, Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2005), training (Allen, 2002; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005), past changes and failures (Amburgey et al., 1993), cynicism (Abraham, 2000; Reichers, Wanous & Austin, 1997; Wanous, Reichers & Austin, 2000).

Receptivity to Organizational Change

Employees neither have the same level of receptivity to new ideas and change nor show willingness to consistently embrace new methods. Receptivity provides a distinctive tool for the analysis of organizational change, and, therefore, understanding

employees' receptivity to change allows the change process to be managed accordingly (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

Cochran and his colleagues (2002) studied receptivity to organization change. They conducted a survey at Hillsborough County Sheriff's Office in Florida, where an agency-wide change was made to implement community policing. They focused on the effects of the socio-demographic characteristics, work orientations, and perceptions of agency readiness on staff's receptivity to community policing. They created three models about officer receptivity to organizational change. Their first model, a life experiences/life chances model, deals with the influence of employee attributes on their level of openness toward organizational change. Employee attributes are socio-demographic characteristics (race, gender, and education) and work experience characteristics (service years). They assumed that receptivity to change will be positively related to deputies' level of educational experience and rank, while, in contrast, receptivity will be negatively related to their experience and age. As a result, they hypothesized that "female, minority, college-educated, and less experienced officers are more open to the kinds of organizational change required for a shift to community policing" (pg. 511).

The second model, an officer/organizational subculture model, focuses on the influence of work orientations (crime-control work orientations, service work orientations, traditionalism, and officer cynicism) on their receptivity to planned organizational change. They hypothesize that "those officers who most adhere to elements of the subculture of policing (i.e. high scores on measures of cynicism,

traditionalism, and a strong crime control orientation) are least receptive of organizational change” (pg. 511).

According to the organizational/structural model, officer receptivity to change is a function of their perceptions of the degree to which their organization is well prepared for such a change. Cochran and his colleagues (2002) used Openness to Organizational Change as a dependent variable. Using a Likert scale, they asked the Sheriff's deputies to scale the following statements from strongly agree to strongly disagree:

- Most changes at work are problematic and ineffective
- I often suggest new approaches for doing my job
- Most changes make my work more efficient (i.e. saves time, effort, money)
- Most changes make my work more effective (more arrests, faster response times, crime reduction)

In terms of independent variables, Cochran and his colleagues used socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences (i.e. gender, age, marital status, race/ethnicity, level of educational attainment, rank, work experience), work orientations (crime control, service, traditionalism, and cynicism), and perceptions of agency readiness for community-oriented policing.

Cochran et al. (2002) found that all of the work orientation and perceptions of agency readiness scales were significantly associated with receptivity to change. Those deputies with strong service work orientation are found to be more open to organizational changes. On the other hand, deputies with high scores on the traditionalism and cynicism scales are reluctant to support organizational change. Also,

those officers who consider that their unit has adequately readied itself and its staff for the change process toward community policing are more open to change. However, it is seen that the socio-demographic or work experience variables were not significantly related to deputies' receptivity to change; thus, their life experiences/life chances model was invalidated by these null findings.

Readiness for Organizational Change

According to Armenakis, Harris, and Mossholder (1993), readiness for change is “reflected in the organizational members’ beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organizations’ capacity to successfully make those changes” (pg. 681). In Lewin’s 3-step model, the first ‘unfreezing’ step is where an individual feels a discomfort with the old behavior and identifies a need for change. This is the readiness stage for change.

To increase cooperative effort and efficiency in an organization, changes are to be perceived by the employees as necessary and reasonable (Knickerbocker & McGregor, 1941). Readiness is most often considered in conjunction with methods for reducing resistance. Coch and French (1948) recommended managers stress the need for changes and thus create readiness during meetings with employees in order to overcome resistance to change. Turner (1982), likewise, emphasized that “... for implementation [of a change] to be truly effective, readiness and commitment to change must be developed” (pg. 125).

Holt (2002) reviewed the literature and conducted a content analysis of the collected data in order to identify readiness for change themes. He identified the following five themes:

- Principal support: It refers to “the extent to which organizational members feel that formal and informal leaders support the change” (pg.103). “The literature indicated that readiness for change was influenced by co-workers as well as organization’s leaders” (pg. 106)
- Discrepancy: It refers to “the extent to which organizational members feel that the change is needed” (pg. 106).
- Personal valence: It refers to “the extent to which organizational members feel that there are intrinsic and extrinsic benefits for the individual if the change is implemented” (pg. 106).
- Efficacy: It refers to “the extent to which organizational members feel that the organization is capable of implementing the change successfully” (pg. 109).
- Appropriateness: It refers to “the extent to which organizational members feel that the organization will reap benefits if the change is implemented” (pg. 112).

Holt (2002) hypothesized that individuals with higher levels of readiness would be more committed to the change and would demonstrate less resistance and more supportive behaviors. At the end of his study, he found that readiness for change was the best predictor of commitment to change, support, and resistance.

Commitment to Organization

According to Porter, Steers, and Mowday (1974) organizational commitment is “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (pg. 604). This concept has been defined in the literature more or less in the same way; loyalty to the employing organization, identifying with the organization as

well as its values, and having a desire to be involved in the organization (Cook & Wall, 1980; Lambert, Barton & Hogan, 1999).

For the success of organizational change, commitment is believed to be one of the most significant determinants (Iverson, 1996). Lau and Woodman (1995) indicate that an employee's commitment to an organization affects how he evaluates a change. Referring to organizational commitment as a set of attitudes toward an employing organization, they indicate that a committed employee accepts the organization's values, desires to remain in the organization, and welcomes change efforts when they are perceived as beneficial. In short, the more employees have sympathy for their organizations, the greater their willingness to accept organizational change (Codery, Sevastos, Mueller & Parker, 1993; Guest, 1987).

Usually commitment to an organization is studied to explain employee turnover, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and performance (Reichers, 1985). Some researchers used commitment to organization as a variable to evaluate the influence of organizational change on employees (Becker, 1992; Becker et al., 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Becker et al. (1996) used three different types of commitment;

- *Compliance commitment*: The willingness to conform to the organization's rules and policies.
- *Identification commitment*: The attachment in order to be a part of an organization and its members.
- *Internalization commitment*: The acceptance of values intrinsic to a change.

According to Becker et al. (1996), these commitments affect employees' psychological attachments toward an organization and thereby the levels of negative attitudes –stress and cynicism– as well as workplace withdrawal intentions.

Likewise, in a study conducted by Vakola and Nikolaou (2005), organizational commitment, the amount of previous change, and one's motivation to keep on trying were used as factors related to cynicism about organizational change. The findings of this study showed that cynicism about organizational change was notably associated with decreased organizational commitment and that the employees with high cynicism scores are much more likely to be low in organizational commitment. Thus, Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) confirmed a relationship between commitment to organization and attitudes (cynicism) to change.

In their article, Reger, Mullane, Gustafson, and DeMarie (1994) make six suggestions to managers for successful implementation of change. Their first is to perform an organizational identity check through surveys prior to starting any major change in order to assess staff's understanding and commitment to organization's core beliefs.

Trust in Management

Trust has been defined in different ways and there is neither an agreement on universal conceptualization nor any method for measurement of trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). Mayer and Davis (1999) defined trust as a "willingness to engage in risk-taking with a focal party" (pg. 124), while Rousseau et al. (1998) explained trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on the positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another"

(pg. 395). In their review of definitions, Mayer et al. (1995) identified a common element to most conceptualizations, which is a “willingness to assume risk” (pg. 724). According to them, those employees who trust in management are making themselves vulnerable for the potential risks that may occur as a result of the decisions and actions of the management.

The literature proposes a strong relation between trust in management and employee attitudes toward change. Albrecht (2002) defines trust in senior management as “the willingness of employees to act on the word, actions or decisions of senior management under conditions of uncertainty or risk” (pg. 323). Martin (1998) indicates that employees who trust their management are more expected to react positively to changes in organizational direction. Likewise, arguing that trust in management leads to acceptance of organizational change, Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1999) found that high trust creates extensive acceptance levels for complex organizational change. Similarly, management credibility, which is based on past honest relations, also increases positive employee responses to change (Kramer, 1996).

In terms of a relationship between trust in management and attitudes to change, Kanter and Mirvis (1989) explained that when employees do not trust the motives of senior management, they behave cynically. Trust may decrease the level of uncertainty and eliminate speculations and fears in the work environment. All of these studies identify trust as a core factor in the process when employees evaluate features of organizational change.

Albrecht (2002) developed a model to identify antecedents of negative employee attitudes toward change. He used perceptions of integrity, competence, and trust in

management as antecedents of cynicism. Through an employee opinion survey, Albrecht collected a total of 750 responses from two public sector organizations. The study results showed that trust in senior management affects employee attitudes (cynicism) toward change. When the employees consider management to be credible and trustworthy, they hold more positive attitudes toward change initiatives. He further asserted that in the existence of trust in management, change programs can more effectively be implemented in the public sector and, as a result, management under such conditions does not need to spend much time for the change efforts and for dealing with resistance.

In another study, Weber, P.S. and Weber, J.E. (2001) explored how planned organizational change affects both employee attitudes and perceptions. First of all, they measured employee trust in management, perceptions of supervisory support for improvement, and perceptions of organizational readiness for change before the organizational change program. Then they examined the same six months after the initiation of the change effort. They basically hypothesized that all those measured variables will co-vary. Moreover, assuming that when employees are trained and experience the changes, their perceptions about organizational readiness for change will improve, they also hypothesized that trust in management, perceptions of supervisory support for improvement, and perceptions of organizational readiness for change will increase from time 1 to time 2.

As dependent variables they utilized Trust in Management, Perceptions of Supervisory Support for Improvement, and Perceptions of Organizational Readiness for Change. Feedback, autonomy, employee participation, and goal clarity were used as

independent variables. They selected a fire department that was a traditional and hierarchical organization for this study. The first set of data was collected before the change program. Six months later, after some management training activities and implementation of quality management practices, they collected the second set of data.

Weber and Weber (2001) found that trust in management, perceptions of supervisory support for improvement, and perceptions of organizational readiness for change co-vary. Their findings partially supported the other hypothesis that dependent variables would increase from time 1 to time 2. They concluded that the more familiar employees become with the change, the more they support management and the change program.

Communication of Organizational Change

Communication is the key factor in the successful implementation of any change initiative (Connor, 1992; Hultman, 1998). According to Hall (1996), communication means the exchange of information and the transmission of meaning, and it occurs in three directions: upward, downward, and horizontal. It is very important to provide good communication about organizational change, as lack of communication or poor communication can result in an unclear purpose of the change program (Covin & Kilmann, 1990). Clear understanding through open and honest communication is needed in order for the change to be made.

It is commonly believed that negative employee attitudes –cynicism and skepticism– are negatively correlated with employee perceptions of the adequacy of communication about the change. According to Kotter and Schlesinger (1979), misunderstanding as a result of communication problems or inadequate information is

one important factor causing resistance to change. They indicate that when levels of information sharing and communication are increased with personnel, cooperation increases and negative employee attitudes as well as resistance to change decrease.

In their study, Stanley et al. (2005) used communication to measure cynicism and skepticism. They asked three questions, such as “Management has clearly explained its reason for implementing this change,” to measure how management successfully communicated the reason for the change. Failure in communicating the reasons for change to employees may result in serious risks for the success of change attempts. Stanley et al. (2005) indicated that in that case, management should seek other strategies such as identifying and using trusted employees within the organization to communicate and convince other employees of the sincerity of management’s motives for organizational change. They consistently stress that distrust in change motives as a result of poor communication is the unique source of resistance.

Armenakis and Harris (2002) identified three stages of change process – readiness, adoption, and institutionalization– and emphasize that communication of a change message coordinates these stages. They asserted that communication creates readiness and the motivation to adopt and institutionalize the change when five features of the message given in Table 2 are addressed:

Table 2

The Five Message Components to Help Create Readiness to Change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002)

| Message | Definition | Question It Looks to Answer |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Discrepancy | A gap between the current state and an ideal state | Why change? |
| Self-efficacy | Confidence in individual and group's ability to make the change succeed | Can we do this? Will this work? |
| Appropriateness | The correct reaction to fix the gap identified by discrepancy | Why this change? |
| Principal support | Key organizational leaders support this particular change | Is management walking the talk? Do organizational leaders believe in this change? |
| Personal valence | Clarifies the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of the change | What's in it for me? |

Fox, Amichai-Hamburger, and Evans (2001) indicate that the most important factor for failure in change attempts is the managers' inability to persuade organization members to support the change. Uncertainty and mistrust towards change agents cause resistance and only open and effective communication helps managers reduce uncertainty, show the benefit of the change, and create trusting relationships in the work environment. Emphasizing the importance of employee emotions, which are related to motivation and organizational citizenship behavior, the authors strongly emphasize that any change attempts should take into consideration the emotional elements of persuasion.

The emotional component uses pictures, colors, voices, music, taste, smell, atmosphere, sensation, aesthetic objects and songs as means of communication rather than arguments, analysis, information, numbers, and graphs. Fox and his colleagues (2001) identify five issues that must be considered while preparing a change message: the core messages about the change, how the messages are packaged (pictures, slogans, etc.), the characteristics of the change leaders (credible, fair, likeable), the interaction of change leaders with their audience (treating them in a courteous manner, listening to objections with sincerity), and the setting in which interaction takes place (intimate environment).

In addition to these rational and emotional components of a change message, it is also considered very important to provide information for staff about both the past achievements and failures in change programs (Wanous et al., 2000). Positive or negative past experiences with organizational change are not to be forgotten; rather, they are to be studied and lessons are to be learned from them. Moreover, communicating partial achievements and developments in ongoing change efforts may also garner more employee support for change. Publicizing all successful changes is a good strategy to overcome pessimism and to diminish negative employee attitudes about change. "No matter how small the change, if it is in the direction intended by management, then it should be communicated" (Wanous et al., 2000, pg. 149). Likewise, past failures are to be explained thoroughly and mistakes are to be admitted so that management credibility can be restored (Wanous et al., 2000).

Training

Organizational change is usually stressful for staff. The unknown behind the change programs and the vagueness about what will be different in the future bothers people and increases the desire to maintain the status quo. There is a way to eliminate such fear and uncertainty: training staff about the change. Training provided prior to and during the change is believed to minimize resistance levels among the staff (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005).

According to Kotter and Schlesinger (1979), the combination of education and communication is the first option to overcome resistance to change. Lack of information or inaccurate information may produce negative attitudes toward change. In order to avoid such a problem, management is supposed to train personnel regarding the change program beforehand. Explaining the logic of the change prevents groundless rumors in the organization (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979).

In a project to discover the causes of cynicism about organizational change, Reichers et al. (1997) conducted two surveys at a component parts manufacturing plant where more than two thousand workers were employed. They found that employees feeling uninformed about what was going on in the workplace are more likely to be cynical about change. They concluded that:

People need to be fully informed and educated about the necessity for change, the progress and problems associated with ongoing change processes, and the results of change programs.

Information minimizes employees' opportunities to fill in the blanks of missing information, and makes it difficult to conclude that most or all changes have been failures (pg. 53).

Socio-demographic Characteristics

Socio-demographic characteristics are commonly used in survey research because different demographic groups can often hold quite different beliefs, thoughts, and perceptions on important matters and such characteristics are helpful to recognize people who behave in similar ways (Alrect & Settle, 2004). However, the organizational change literature provides contradictory findings about the significance of demographic factors.

In a study, Lewis et al. (1999) examined officers' attitudes toward community policing. They used the six facets of the community policing program implemented in Racine, Wisconsin (organizational structure; community policing substations; relationship between supervisors and subordinates; community policing concepts; the Community Policing Unit; and specific community policing programs) to measure attitudes toward community policing.

This study revealed that age and years of service are strongly negatively related to positive attitudes toward community policing. Years of service was the best negative predictor of attitude toward community policing. Education was moderately positively related to favorable attitudes toward community policing. A difference in the attitudes was established among different ranks. While command staff was the most supportive group for community policing, patrol officers had a less positive view. Detectives, on the other hand, were holding the least favorable attitudes toward community policing (Lewis et al., 1999).

In another study, Adams and his colleagues (2002) analyzed data from six law enforcement agencies in North Carolina. Hypothesizing that it is vital that any change in

policing methods take into account officers' attitudes, they focused on the attitudes of street officers toward community oriented policing (COP). In order to answer their research question, "What are officer's attitudes toward community policing?" (pg. 405) they developed a self-administered survey of police officers. They used six statements to measure their dependent variable Attitudes toward Nontraditional Policing. For instance, one statement says: "An officer on foot patrol can learn more about neighborhood problems than can an officer in a patrol car." They have also used COP Optimist and COP Impact on Crime as dependent variables and socio-demographic characteristics and work experiences as independent variables.

In terms of ethnicity, gender, and education, Adams et al. (2002) found that only small differences exist among officers in their receptivity to the philosophy and practices of community policing. There are no differences along ethnic or education lines and only minor differences by gender and number of years in law enforcement. Male officers and officers with more experience in law enforcement are less optimistic about the impact of COP on crime. The findings of this study, according to Adams et al. (2002), showed that although demographic variables are not important regarding officer' attitudes about COP, training and participatory management is effective in a positive way.

Novak and his friends (2003) also conducted a similar research in the Kansas City (Missouri) Police Department. This research sought to determine the significance of officer attributes over the officers' acceptance of community policing. It is found that officer characteristics affect their attitudes. For instance, community policing got more support from non-white officers. Officers who had a problem solving role orientation were more likely to support community policing. As expected, officers who believe that

people do not respect the police had lower attitudes toward community policing.

However, officers' level of education, desire for autonomy, and rank failed to display significant results. Novak et al. (2003) provided one possible explanation for the lack of a relationship between rank and support for community policing: middle managers might view community policing as a loss of job authority.

Employee Attitudes toward Organizational Change

Though most of the previous studies only focused on the organizational change phenomenon itself, some studies conducted in recent years have identified positive employee attitudes and support for organizational change as a crucial condition for the accomplishment of a change program (Piderit, 2000). Folger and Skarlicki (1999) proposed that in order for the change to be effective, it is essential for employees to have positive attitudes and behave as organizational citizens. The term 'organizational citizenship behavior' indicates that employees voluntarily seek ways "to go beyond the call of duty in the change process" (pg. 43). For instance, they ask for additional tasks and also persuade other employees to do the same. Successful organizational change requires citizenship behavior, and such behavior is positively influenced by perceptions of fairness.

In recent years, some negative attitudes –cynicism and skepticism– have received considerable attention as possible antecedents for resistance to organizational change (Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000). It is commonly accepted that employees often resist change (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Strebels, 1996), and employee cynicism is taken as one of the potential reasons for this resistance (Abraham, 2000; Reichers et al., 1997; Vance, Brooks & Tesluk, 1996). Cynicism was

defined by Andersson (1996) as “both a general and specific attitude, characterized by frustration, hopelessness, and disillusionment, as well as contempt toward and distrust of a person, group, ideology, social convention, or institution” (pg. 1397-1398). Dean, Brandes, and Dharwadkar (1998) defined organizational cynicism as “a negative attitude toward one’s employing organization” (pg. 345). Organizational change cynicism is accepted as a reaction to failed change efforts, a negative attitude about the success of future efforts and the belief that change agents lack ability (Dean et al., 1998).

Cynics are sometimes confused with skeptics. Skeptics are described as people who have doubts about the success of something while, at the same time, they still hope that positive change will take place. Cynics, on the other hand, are viewed as more pessimistic about the success of change because of repeated failures (Reichers et al., 1997). The factor that distinguishes between cynicism and skepticism is the degree of optimism about success.

Many researchers have specifically studied cynicism toward change (Andersson & Bateman, 1997). Reichers et al., (1997), emphasized the importance of cynicism by saying that change efforts may fail when the employees lose confidence in leading management as change agents. They identified some important factors contributing to cynicism, such as a record of failed change efforts and insufficient information sharing about the change.

Wanous et al. (2000) focused on a specific form of cynicism within an organizational context, Cynicism about Organizational Change (CAOC), which is defined as pessimism about the success of change attempts due to the unmotivated or

incompetent persons who are responsible for making change. They asserted that if cynicism about change is widespread, even the most skillful attempts at organizational change will be impeded by prevailing cynicism (Wanous et al., 2000).

They found that “cynicism is more appropriately treated as a learned response rather than a personality-based predisposition” (pg. 147), and the more employees believe that change has occurred, the more they have participated in decision making, and the more effective their supervisors are, the less their cynicism about future organizational change is. On the other hand, cynicism is negatively correlated with the amount of change that had previously occurred and with the motivation to keep on trying to make change.

Using their findings, Wanous et al. (2000) suggested that management can influence the level of cynicism by publicizing clearly all successful changes. No matter how small the change, if it is in the direction intended, then it should be communicated. When employees are involved directly in change process, they become less likely to display dispositional attributes. Employees do not like surprises by management actions. As long as they understand the reasons for the actions, they will likely see things from the management perspective. It is also very important that past failures be fully explained rather than ignored.

In another study, acknowledging the similarities and differences in the definitions of cynicism from the literature, Stanley et al. (2005) constructed a definition of cynicism: “*change-specific cynicism* is a disbelief of management’s stated or implied motives for a specific organizational change; *management cynicism* is a disbelief in management’s stated or implied motives for decisions or actions in general; and *dispositional cynicism*

is a disbelief in the stated or implied motives of people in general for their decisions or actions” (pg. 436).

According to Stanley et al. (2005) it is change-specific cynicism which predicts intentions to resist change. In other words, when workers consider that managers have different motives than those stated for change programs, they will be reluctant to obey management’s call to change their behavior. Stanley et al. (2005) also tested whether cynicism contributes to employee resistance and found evidence for a relation between cynicism and resistance. They emphasized that change-specific cynicism significantly correlated with intention to resist change.

Employee Behaviors toward Organizational Change

In an organizational context, employees may support or resist change efforts with their behaviors, talk, and stand. Although the nature of the human has a tendency to seek change, the majority of literature focuses on the opposite inclination –i.e. rejection of change– and attempts to identify causes of employee resistance (Carter, 1995). De Jager (2001) says that “Resistance to change is normal and natural. It makes itself known as a plea for a reason to change. If there’s a reason for change, voice it. If there’s no reason to change, avoid it” (pg. 27).

Resistance to change is a common phenomenon and can range from apathy to aggressive resistance. Major changes in organizations create resistance as employees try to protect the status quo when they feel their security and status are in danger. Although resistance to change may serve positive purposes (Folger & Skarlicki, 1999), such as forcing management to rethink or reevaluate an envisioned change, it is usually seen as a negative force. Organizational change may create skepticism and resistance

among employees, and sometimes makes implementation of change programs very difficult or even impossible (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Folger & Skarlicki, 1999). The numbers are threatening as, according to Beer and Nohria (2000), 70% of all change initiatives fail. Since not all employees will embrace the change; their concerns need to be heard and dealt with openly and fairly. If employees' concerns are disregarded, resistance is likely to increase. Even well-prepared change plans may have the risk of eventual failure in the organizations where employee resistance is not managed (Coetsee, 1999).

It is necessary to define what resistance is to comprehend the concept of employee resistance. For Zander (1950), resistance to change is a behavior that is intended to defend an individual from the outcomes of actual or imagined change. Resistance is described by Collinson (1994) as “behavior that seeks to challenge, disrupt, or invert prevailing assumptions, discourses, and power relations” (as cited in Folger & Skarlicki, 1999, pg. 36). Argyris and Schon (1978) took resistance to change as a defense mechanism which is produced by frustration and anxiety. In a different approach, Dent and Goldberg (1999) assert that people resist loss of status or comfort rather than change itself.

In his study on symptoms of resistance, Hultman (1995) explained the importance of distinguishing the symptoms from the causes of resistance. He categorized these behaviors as active-resistance or passive-resistance. While active-resistance includes finding error, ridiculing, and manipulating, the latter includes approving verbally but not following through and withholding information.

Coetsee (1999) attempts to explain the nature of behaviors in the change process through a continuum model. According to Coetsee, the organization development literature considers commitment and denial of change as unrelated and disconnected facts. However, he argues that these facts, commitment and resistance to change, are to be seen as two poles of a continuum. He developed a continuum model and explained the elements of resistance and commitment.

Nature of resistance to change.

- *Aggressive resistance:* Actions such as violent strikes and boycotts, sabotage, destruction happen.
- *Active resistance:* the behavior is strong but not destructive opposing (blocking or impeding change by voicing strong opposing views and attitudes, working to rule, slowing activities down, protests)
- *Passive resistance:* there are mild or weak forms of opposition to change (regressive behavior such as threats to quit or voicing other indications of the rejection of change)
- *Apathy:* Perceptions and attitudes regarding the changes are neutral. It is a transition between resistance and acceptance of change.

Elements of commitment.

- *Knowledge:* There is a learning climate where employees can advance their knowledge, skills and abilities.
- *Information:* The information is distributed and employees understand and accept it.
- *Empowerment:* There are some opportunities for employees to assist with the identification of problems, which invites their input in the decision-making process.

- *Rewards and Recognition:* The employee efforts are acknowledged and recognized. They are rewarded with salary increases or promotions.
- *Values and Goals:* The values and goals are clearly conveyed to employees and employees accept these goals and values.

Coetsee (1999) argued that this continuum model provides a diagnostic framework to identify the extent of acceptance or rejection of change in organizations and therefore, new methods can be developed to measure the levels of commitment of individuals. The resistance levels can be identified through observation and the model may help managers control resistance to change.

It is obvious that not all staff in all organizations resist organizational change. How management treats staff and implements change programs may have a direct influence on resistance to change. When staff consider that management treats them fairly, they develop attitudes and behaviors desired for successful change. On the other hand, when they believe decisions and managerial actions in the workplace are unjust, staff would more likely experience feelings of anger and a desire for revenge. Through resistance to change, according to Folger and Skarlicki (1999), employees exercise their power to redress injustice within the existing power relationships.

In Table 3, Harvey (1999) summarizes the causes of resistance to change as well as the antidotes to overcome them.

Table 3

Sources of Resistance and Antidotes (Harvey, 1999, pg. 38)

| Cause | Antidote |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| Lack of ownership | Involvement |
| Lack of benefits | Payoff |
| Increased burdens | Lighten load |
| Lack of top brass support | Top brass support |
| Superiority | Empathy |
| Differential knowledge | Equal information |
| Lack of recognition | Involvement |
| Sudden, wholesale change | Gradualism |
| Failure | Affirmation |
| Extremes of organizational structure | Moderate centralization, formalization, or stratification |

Previous Applications of Internet Survey Method

In this section, information about Internet surveys, types of Internet surveys, cons and pros of this medium, comparison with other survey modes, and mixed survey methods will be discussed.

Internet Survey

The Internet has become an integral part of our daily life, that it has an extreme impact on almost everything (e.g. communication, academic studies, online education, shopping behaviors, traveling) is evident. As expected, the Internet has also quickly become a new survey medium (Schonlau, Fricker & Elliott, 2002). For Dillman (1999), two developments had great influences in survey methodology: the emergence of the random sampling concept in the 1940s and interview through telephone in the 1970s.

Today, the introduction of technology-based surveys seems to have greater advances in the field of survey methodology (Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003).

There are two types of Internet surveys: e-mail surveys and web-based surveys (Bradley, 1999).

E-Mail surveys.

These surveys can be divided into three types. Type I is called 'simple' as survey questions are sent within the e-mail message. It is quite easy to reply but simple text format is not attractive. In Type II, survey questions are submitted as an 'attachment' of an e-mail message. The items in this attached format can be supported with graphics and fonts; however, the virus threat may affect the response rate. Type III is 'URL embedded' whereby a hypertext link to the web-based survey is provided within the e-mail message (Wang & Doong, 2007).

Web-based surveys.

There are three methods used for web-based surveys. In Type I, the survey is simply 'open' to anyone. As there is no control, any visitor may complete the survey. In Type II, participants are invited to visit the site to respond to survey questions in a 'closed' survey, perhaps requiring a password. The Type III survey is 'hidden' and can be seen once a visitor triggers a mechanism, such as date, visitor number, on surfing specific pages (e.g. pop-up survey) (Wang & Doong, 2007).

The advantages of an Internet survey over the conventional survey methods have been explained in many studies; speed of data collection (Cobanoglu, Warde & Moreo, 2001; Cook & Thompson, 2000; Ilieva, Baron & Healey, 2002; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998), lower cost (Faria & Dickinson, 1992; Grandcolas, Rettie & Marusenko,

2003; Mehta & Sivadas, 1995; Nancarrow, Pallister & Brace, 2001), instant access to a wide audience in distant geographic locations (Roztocki 2001; Wang & Doong, 2007), ease of use and appealing possibilities such as graphic capabilities and easy navigation (Cook & Thompson, 2000; Schillewaert, Langerak & Duhamel, 1998).

Response time is also shorter in Internet surveys than other methods. According to Schaefer and Dillman (1998), "Over 50 percent of all completed e-mail questionnaires were received before the first completed paper questionnaire was returned" (pg. 389). In mail surveys, the response speed is between 9.79 and 21 days. In e-mail surveys, this period is just between 2.5 and 9.6 days (Wang & Doong, 2007). Such significant differences among studies may stem from differences in research designs, survey populations, type and length of the instrument, and number of contacts (Couper, Traugott & Lamias, 2001). One consistent finding is that an e-mail survey is returned more quickly than other survey methods (Wang & Doong, 2007).

Moreover, there is evidence that response quality is better in an e-mail survey compared with a paper version of the survey. With regard to survey questions left unanswered, Schaefer and Dillman (1998) state that "... 69.4 percent of those responding to the e-mail version completed at least 95 percent of the survey, while only 56.6 percent of those responding to the paper version completed 95 percent" (pg. 388).

In terms of disadvantages of Internet surveys, methodological and sampling difficulties (Bradley, 1999; Grandcolas et al., 2003; Schonlau et al., 2002; Wang & Doong, 2007), privacy of the participants (Boudreau, Gefen & Straub, 2001; Bradley, 1999), and response rate (Baruch, 1999; Cook & Thompson, 2000; Jones & Pitt, 1999) are the most frequently discussed in the literature. Whether Internet surveys persuade certain types of

people to answer the questions, thus causing a response bias, has been tested by researchers by comparing e-mail and mail respondents. It has been found that there are no significant response biases between the two methods (Mehta & Sivadas, 1995; Tse, 1998).

In addition to these issues, a number of studies have compared Internet surveys with traditional methods regarding response rate and quality of response and data (Baruch, 1999; Schonlau et al., 2002; Wang & Doong, 2007). There is a large variation in these findings (Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003), but, on the whole, electronic surveys seem to provide lower response rates (Jones & Pitt, 1999; Schonlau et al., 2002).

Response Rate

Even though the importance of the response rate is widely recognized, what response rate is reasonable or unacceptable has not been agreed upon so far. Underlying the wide variation in response rate across studies, Cook and Thompson (2000) found that the response rate for mail surveys is between 26-76% and it is between 6-68% for e-mail surveys. In his study, Baruch (1999) examined 175 different academic studies and found that the average response rate for paper surveys was 55.6%. Finding the average values, Baruch emphasizes that the researchers are supposed to explain especially any extreme response rates in their studies. For example, Schleyer and Forrest (2000) conducted an e-mail survey about clinical practices among dentists and achieved a 74% response rate. To explain this high response rate, they said that they send three follow-up e-mails to non-respondents and also let the respondents return their surveys by the Web, e-mail, or fax.

Several experiments have been conducted to find out if Internet surveys have lower or higher response rates than traditional survey modes. The same questions are used in these studies and the only difference between the study groups was the respond mode; one group is asked to respond through e-mail while the other through mail. According to Schonlau et al. (2002), the mail response rate was higher by as much as 21 percent in most studies. In another study, Jones and Pitt (1999) used three groups. Mail was used to contact Group 1 and as the response mode; their response rate was 72%. For Group 2, e-mail was used both to contact and obtain responses, and their response rate was 34%. Group 3 was contacted by e-mail and responses were collected through the Web. Their response rate was 19%.

As literature indicates that Internet surveys might achieve lower response rates than other media, some researchers have explained the possible reasons for that. According to Dommeyer and Moriarty (2000), the Internet's being a new survey medium, concerns about anonymity and privacy, and ease of disregarding survey invitations (just clicking 'delete' button) result in low response rates in Internet surveys. Moreover, respondents do not feel obliged to respond since Internet surveys are cheap and less effort is required (Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000)

Increasing Response Rate

The most popular method to increase response rate is multiple contacts with the survey sample. The more the researcher contacts survey participants, the greater the chances that they will respond (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Sheehan & McMillan, 1999). That is valid for Internet surveys as well. Comparisons have been made between a single contact e-mail survey and multiple contacts. Kittleson (1997) indicates that an e-

mail survey with no follow-up may produce a 25-30% response rate; however, this rate may be doubled by using follow-up reminders. According to Schaefer and Dillman (1998), "Of surveys reported in literature, the average response rate for e-mail surveys with a single contact is 28.5 percent, compared with 41 percent for two contacts, and 57 percent for three or more contacts" (pg. 380). On the other hand, multiple contacts and reminders may backfire when people reach a saturation point and are fed up with receiving reminders (Kittleson, 1997).

Another method associated with high response rates in Internet surveys is personalized contacts (Cook & Thompson, 2000). E-mail messages about the survey or containing survey items may be sent directly to individuals by name rather than to a whole mailing list. In this way, individuals feel that they are important in the survey process (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998)

Mixed Mode Design

It is clear that Internet use is increasing rapidly worldwide; so are Internet surveys (Schonlau et al., 2002). Even though many survey populations, such as an organization's staff, will be easily reached by e-mails in the near future, some groups or individuals within the organizational context may still remain out of e-mail access. Gonzalez (2002) considers that Internet surveys will be biased by excluding groups with no access to the Internet. Such a coverage error may be prevented, according to Gonzalez, by using two response modes at the same time. He indicates that "An organization can only expect accurate results from a survey of its members by Internet, if all members of the organization have Internet addresses. Alternatively, if the proportion of Internet addresses is known, then an Internet-based survey to a sub-

sample of individuals can accompany a mail-based survey and yield representative results” (pg. 30).

Likewise, Schaefer and Dillman (1998) propose a mixed-mode design to eliminate coverage error: “For these populations, a mixed-mode survey strategy needs to be considered –using e-mail when possible and other methods when not possible. Thus, a proposed method for e-mail surveys, to be generally useful, must take into account a way of reaching people whose e-mail addresses are not available and those who simply do not have or use them” (pg. 381).

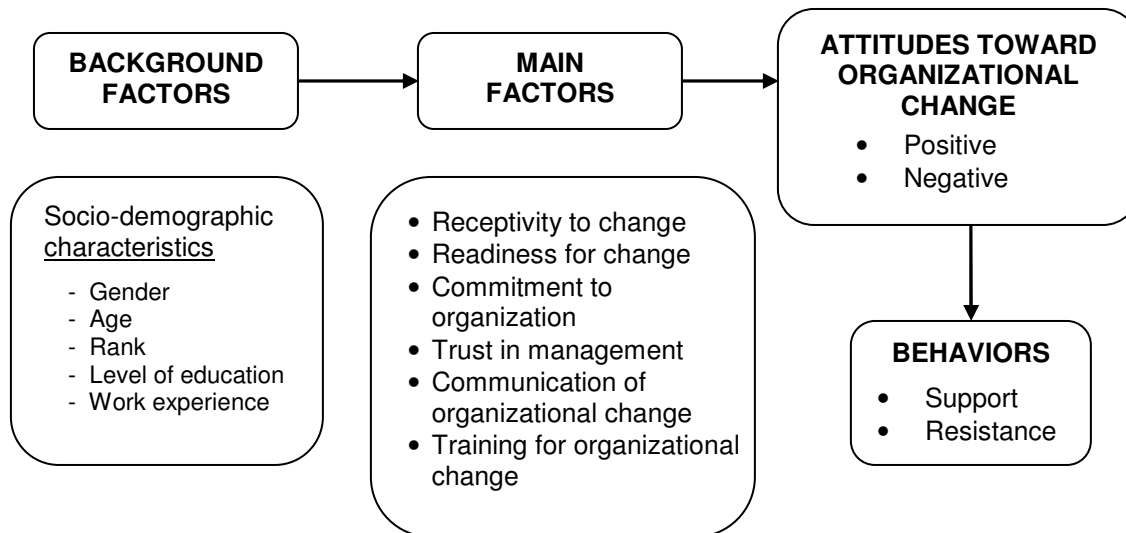
For various reasons, such as prevention of method bias and achieving high response rates, this mixed mode approach has been supported and encouraged by many researchers (Cobanoglu et al., 2001; Schonlau et al., 2002). In this respect, Cobanoglu and Cobanoglu (2003) further emphasize that “... the survey data obtained by using mail-, fax- and internet-based surveys may not be statistically different, provided that the surveys do not depend on printing quality, complex graphics and color” (pg. 478).

Summary and Officer Attitude Model

If this literature part is to be summarized, the researcher would come up with the conclusion that employee attitudes toward organizational change are as complex and complicated as human behaviors. Because human psychology is involved in the process of attitude formation, several factors may be influential in shaping employee attitudes toward organizational change. The Officer Attitude Model (Figure 4), inspired

by Ajzen and Fishbein's (2005) Reasoned Action and Planned Behavior theories, summarizes and visualizes the foundation for the study of TNP officers' attitudes toward change.

Figure 4. Officer Attitude Model.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The first section of this chapter explains the research design and why the survey method was selected. Then information about sample, population, and participants will be given. Data collection instruments, variables, and measurement are discussed in the third section. Following sections will provide information about data analysis procedures, limitations, the pilot test, and reliability analysis. The researcher also provides some explanations about why this study is designed to measure officer attitudes toward a general organizational change idea at an individual level.

Research Design

The survey method has been used in this study. People and organizations mostly prefer surveys to understand and predict human behaviors. Besides survey findings are commonly utilized in presentations to convince an audience, or to identify new service or product needs. According to Alreck and Settle (2004), "Attitudes are often the subject of surveys" (pg. 13). Since this study attempts to understand TNP members' individual attitudes toward organizational change and their thoughts, perceptions, and experiences about change related issues, a survey is apparently the most appropriate

way to collect such information. Moreover, some practical reasons make the survey method more preferable.

First of all, in terms of efficiency, a survey may be the best choice most of the time for collecting data. Through the survey method, not only can data about a broad range of topics be gathered from a large sample size but also this can be achieved in a relatively reasonable time and at low cost. Comparing the survey with the interview process, the survey is likely to be administered in organizations with little disturbance of their daily activities. The survey can guarantee anonymity. Data in quantitative form can be collected. This characteristic of the survey helps the researcher to collect the data in aggregate, analyze it statistically, and make inferences. Moreover, reliability and validity evaluations can be done effectively and easily on questionnaires (Alreck & Settle, 2004).

This survey is aimed to collect information to answer research questions and to test hypotheses about the predispositions of TNP members toward organizational change. Thereby, this survey will enhance knowledge about TNP members' attitudes toward organizational change and what factors might be related to those attitudes. Being the first survey on organizational change in TNP, this survey –as a base study– will help other researchers understand how some change concepts are operationalized and measured. Additionally, since attitudes are accepted as the main predictors of behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Fazio & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2005), this survey data may help TNP management make appropriate decisions for future change programs.

The survey was reviewed by the faculty and then pre-tested. As Hagan (2006) emphasizes that it is required to conduct a pretest of the instrument before using a

questionnaire because doing so would eliminate possible confusion or misunderstandings. Therefore, a pretest was administered to 34 ranking TNP members prior to data collection. Table 4 presents the Cronbach's alpha values of the scales. Participants in the pretest provided valuable feedbacks about the survey items, wording, and structure. This process provided an empirical basis to systematically revise questionnaires in order to reduce ambiguity and bias. The misunderstood questions and statements were modified; questions too wide or narrow in scope were eliminated and some changes were made to reduce response time. The necessary permissions were then obtained from TNP (Appendix 3) and the IRB (Appendix 4) before it was administered to the study's samples.

Sample, Population, and Participants

The population of this survey is police officers and first and mid-level police managers in TNP who are working all over the country and abroad. In total, there are 177,713 personnel in these ranks which compose 98.25% of all TNP staff (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a). A total of 3,171 personnel in ranks higher than superintendent rank are excluded from the study as they are the senior managers who usually initiate change programs in the organization and some survey items (i.e. trust in management) are not applicable to these senior managers.

The researcher, who is also a Police Superintendent in TNP, sent an official request to the Department of Personnel to obtain the list and badge numbers of the population of this study for sampling purposes. However, his request was rejected by

the official response of Department of Personnel (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007b) based on the following article of Turkish Law on the Right to Information numbered 4982.

Article 21: Privacy of the Individuals

With the proviso where the consent of the concerned individual has been received, the information and documents that will unjustly interfere with the health records, private and family life, honour and dignity, and the economical and professional interests of an individual, are out of the scope of the right to information.

Due to public interest considerations, personal information or documents may be disclosed by the institutions on the condition that concerned individual is notified of the disclosure at least 7 days in advance and his/her written consent is obtained.

The researcher's further attempts to obtain –at least– staff information of one local police department also failed due to the same privacy concerns. Therefore, the researcher decided to reach as much of the survey population as possible by applying a convenience sampling method.

Turkey is 780,580 sq. km., which is slightly bigger than Texas. Due to geographical difficulties, an 'URL embedded' e-mail survey has been used to administer the survey. In addition to the other advantages of the Internet survey, such as speed of data collection and low cost, the survey could be delivered to TNP members in distant geographic locations.

The researcher has a possibility to reach a significant number of ranking officers through the Internet. The population of ranking officers –sergeant, lieutenant, captain, and superintendent– is 10,630 (Department of Personnel, 2007a). The great majority of these ranking officers are graduates of the Police Academy between 1992 and 2006. Based on the graduating year from the Police Academy, they create their own e-mail

groups to facilitate their communication and to remain in touch (e.g. 1995 Graduates Yahoo Mail Group, 1996 Graduates Yahoo Mail Group). The researcher contacted each moderator of these e-mail groups to obtain the member numbers. As of the end of February, 2007, these 15 e-mail groups have more than 3,200 members, which compose 30% of the ranking officer population. Therefore, by diffusing the survey link in these groups, the researcher reached almost 1/3 of the first and mid-level ranking officers through the Internet.

However, surveying via the Internet excludes all police officers and a significant portion of ranking officers. In order to eliminate coverage error, the researcher made a decision to use mixed-mode design (Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003; Gonzalez, 2002; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

There are 167,083 police officers in TNP (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a). To reach the police officers as well as the ranking officers whose e-mail addresses are not available, a cluster sampling method has been used. First of all, seven cities were selected based on their populations and geographical locations. These cities are Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, Adana, Samsun, Van, and Kahramanmaras (Appendix 5–Map of Turkey). The first four cities are among the most crowded cities in Turkey, where a total of 52,805 TNP members (roughly 30% of all police in Turkey) are working (Department of Personnel–TNP, 2007a). The latter three have been selected purposefully from the different regions of Turkey. In these seven cities, division chiefs were asked to distribute the paper version of the survey. The criteria in selecting respondents were availability and accessibility at the time of the survey.

As to city selection for survey, the personnel appointment policy in TNP should be noted. Cities in Turkey are clustered under two regions and there are a total of six city groups (three groups in each region) nationwide. These cities, according to article 4 of TNP Appointment Regulation⁵, were categorized considering their security, public order, economy, social, cultural, and transportation means and conditions. Service periods may vary in each city and township. While the service period is between six to ten years in Region 1, it is between two to four years in Region 2. It is compulsory that each member of TNP is deployed to one of the cities in Region 2. This appointment policy results in a constant personnel rotation between cities. So, the specific places selected for the purpose of this survey are not critical because the respondents of this survey might have been appointed to these places from other cities a short time ago. There is, therefore, no reason or evidence to assume that the TNP members allocated to other cities would be different in their thoughts and attitudes toward organizational change than those working in cities where this survey has been administered.

Participation in this survey was on a voluntary basis. Approval was obtained from TNP to administer this survey (Appendix 3). While the survey was developed electronically by using a survey program and delivered to e-mail groups through the Internet, the paper version was distributed to TNP members in seven cities. Signed letters, together with the permission of TNP, were sent to the selected local police departments to explain the goal of this study and instruct how to complete the survey. The respondents were not individually identified.

⁵ Turkish version of this regulation is available at http://www.egm.gov.tr/personel/atama_yer_degistirme_yonetmeligi.htm

Data Collection Instruments, Variables, and Measurement

For the literature review part of this study, not only library resources but also the Internet played a critical role in gathering the most up-to-date and vital information. The researcher made the primary searches from the University of North Texas (UNT) library catalogs, electronic databases and Internet web-sites to ensure that the most important aspects of human factors in organizational change are evaluated. More than 200 sources were studied to create an initial pool of themes about officer attitudes toward change. These sources included academic articles, books, and studies from different disciplines as well as dissertations and papers presented at conferences.

To make the review process manageable, some particular phrases such as organizational change, attitudes toward change, receptivity to change, readiness for change, change acceptance, resistance to change, cynicism, trust in management, and organizational communication have been used as key words. In addition, the reference lists of most relevant sources have been examined to reach other related titles. Each of the pieces was read in depth with an eye for the particular themes that the writers attributed to an employee's attitudes toward organizational change. As a result of the literature review, a model has been created and all sources were categorized according to the variable names used in this model.

Survey Item Generation

The majority of the survey questions have been derived from the organizational change literature (Appendix 6–Survey). Rather than composing new survey items, those from the studies of Cochran et al. (2002), Wanous et al. (2000), Stanley et al. (2005),

Holt (2002), Becker et al. (1996), and Orth (2002) have been used in order to increase the reliability of this research. However, some necessary modifications have been made on statements so that they can be better understood and responded to by TNP members. Also, most of the items prepared to measure communication of organizational change and training for organizational change were created by the researcher pursuant to TNP practices.

Reliability tests of those scales which had been newly created or modified for the purpose of this study have been conducted in order to ensure internal consistency (Table 4). Answers from a pilot sample of 34 officers were used for this purpose.

Table 4

Cronbach's ALPHA Values for the Pilot Data and Final Data

| Variables | Number of items | Cronbach's ALPHA in the pilot data | Cronbach's ALPHA in final data |
|--|-----------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Officer attitudes toward organizational change | 6 | 0.74 | 0.75 |
| Receptivity to change | 3 | 0.77 | 0.72 |
| Readiness for change | 7 | 0.76 | 0.72 |
| Commitment to organization | 5 | 0.78 | 0.78 |
| Trust in management | 4 | 0.74 | 0.74 |
| Communication of organizational change | 5 | 0.82 | 0.82 |
| Training for organizational change | 2 | 0.74 | 0.67 |

At the beginning of the survey, a clarification has been provided for the respondents about what was meant by 'organizational change' in survey items. It was clearly explained that the 'organizational change' concept was used to indicate the changes which concern all TNP members or, in provincial organization, which affect all

Provincial Security Department staff rather than small scale, bureau- or division-based changes. These changes might be structural or concern police mandates, roles or job description.

The methods of writing good questionnaire items (DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1998) have been considered while generating survey items. Each item was intended to measure only one specific factor influencing officer attitudes. Item wording was given high attention so that the items are socially neutral. Each item was prepared so as to be as brief as possible and was carefully designed so that all respondents in different positions –subordinate or supervisor– and in different units can answer all items. Moreover, one item was negatively phrased and reverse-scored; double-barreled statements were avoided.

In terms of response format, a Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree) was selected because it is commonly accepted that Likert scales are approximately equal interval (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Furthermore, according to Thurstone (1928), the first requirement while specifying the attitude variable is to design the items in a way so that respondents can answer them in terms of 'more' or 'less.' The Likert scale adequately meets this requirement. The Likert response format also provides researchers with flexibility as items developed in this format can be easily changed to other formats. Another important advantage of this format is that since it has been used frequently in organizational surveys, the time needed to administer a questionnaire of this type would likely be minimal; less time will be spent on instructions and examples.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study is Officer Attitudes toward Organizational Change. According to Ajzen (1991), “attitude toward the behavior refers to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question” (pg. 188). Using Ajzen’s approach, this study defines officer attitudes toward organizational change as the degree to which an officer has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the organizational change.

As emphasized earlier, attitudes are often measured by surveys. Attitudes naturally come before behaviors and influence people to act in a certain way. Even though attitudes are believed to endure for months and even years, new information or experience may change them (Alreck & Settle, 2004). According to Alreck and Settle (2004), the following three components of attitudes are to be used in order to measure attitudes:

- “1- What the person knows or believes about the topic,
- 2- How the person feels about the topic or how it is valued,
- 3- The likelihood that the individual will take action based on the attitude” (pg. 13).

Based on these criteria, a six-item scale has been developed to measure the dependent variable (officer attitudes toward organizational change).

In terms of the first attitude component, as no specific change program was subject to this survey, the respondents were expected to consider organizational change in general terms and to answer the survey questions out of their thoughts, perceptions, and experiences about the previous or ongoing change programs in TNP. No particular knowledge was required to answer the survey questions. Therefore, rather

than asking respondents what they know about organizational change programs, only their beliefs about the change programs in general were to be evaluated. Survey items to measure personal beliefs about organizational change were:

- Most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems in this organization do much good.
- I am quite confident the organizational change programs have the desired effect in my organization.
- I have doubts that the organizational change programs achieve their objectives.

One might think that novice TNP members were to be excluded from the survey as their beliefs about organizational change might not be formed in a short time period. However, considering that the Police Academy and Police Schools graduate in June, even the freshest TNP members would have at least 9 months of experience when this survey will be administered. Also, the time spent in the Police Academy and Police Schools provide cadets perfect opportunities to get used to police sub-culture and to understand how things work in TNP. Therefore, the researcher did not require certain years of experience to join this survey.

To measure the feeling component of an attitude, the following two items were used in the survey:

- I am quite pleased with the organizational change efforts initiated in my organization so far.
- The change efforts rendered so far are good strategies for my organization.

It is possible that two people who have nearly the same beliefs and feelings about the subject of an attitude may act differently. Alreck and Settle (2004) explain this

matter with an example. Consider two housewives having almost the same idea and feeling for brand X. When this X brand is out of stock in one market, one housewife goes to another market to find it while the other housewife prefers buying a similar product. The difference in their behavior happened “because the action components of their attitudes toward the brand differ” (Alreck & Settle, 2004, pg. 15).

To measure the action component of the officer attitudes toward organizational change, the following item was used:

- I would support and do my best for any change program which I believe as beneficial to this organization.

Only to measure the dependent variable, a four-point Likert scale, ranging from completely disagree to completely agree, has been used. The higher the score is, the more positive the attitude toward organizational change will be. Data collected showed that the Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the mentioned six-items is .75, which indicates internal consistency.

Independent Variables

(1) *Receptivity to change*: Receptivity is defined as “willingness or readiness to receive especially impressions or ideas” (Webster’s Online Dictionary, 2006). In this study, receptivity to change has been defined as willingness to receive new change ideas in the organization. Becker et al.’s (1996) three-item scale has been used to measure this concept. This scale focuses on individual’s openness and willingness to change and his/her beliefs on the effectiveness of the initiated change program. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the following items is 0.72.

- I often suggest new approaches for doing my job in my workplace.

- Most changes in our organization make my work more effective.
- Most changes in our organization make my work more efficient.

(2) *Readiness for change*: For Bernerth (2004) “readiness is more than understanding the change, readiness is more than believing in the change, readiness is a collection of thoughts and intentions toward the specific change effort” (pg. 40). These thoughts include an individual’s perceptions of the need for change in an organization, appropriateness of the changes for the organization’s objectives, and perception of management and principal support (manager and peer support) (Holt, 2002).

A seven-item scale has been adapted from Holt’s (2002) study covering three important aspects of readiness to change. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient is 0.72.

- Our organization has problems that need to be addressed (Need for change).
- I think our organization benefits from the organizational changes (Appropriateness).
- Organizational changes improve our organization’s overall efficiency (Appropriateness).
- Our senior managers encourage all of us to embrace organizational changes (Management support).
- Our organization’s top decision-makers put all their support behind organizational change efforts (Management support).
- My superiors are committed to making the change effort a success (Principal support).
- My peers support organizational change efforts (Principal support).

(3) *Commitment to organization*: Becker et al. (1996) defined commitment to organization as the psychological attachment of officers to their agencies. A committed officer is supposed to embrace the organization's values, have a willingness to stay in the organization and accept change programs if he/she deems it necessary (Lau & Woodman, 1995).

In order to measure this variable, a five-item scale has been developed with modifications from Becker et al.'s (1996) commitment to organization scale. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.78.

- I accept my organization's values and would like to remain in this organization.
- When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult.
- When I talk about my organization, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they.'
- My organization's successes are my successes.
- When someone praises my organization, it feels like a personal compliment.

(4) *Trust in management*: Based on Mayer et al.'s (1995) definition of trust, trust in management is defined in this study as the willingness of an officer to be vulnerable to the actions of competent authorities based on the expectation that they will perform a particular action important to the officer.

For measurement of this variable, a four-item scale has been developed by combining Stanley et al.'s (2005) trust in management and management cynicism scales. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.74.

- I am willing to follow competent authorities' lead even in risky situations.
- When it comes to making decisions that affect me, I have as much or more faith in competent authorities' judgment as I would in my own.

- Even if a bad decision could have very negative consequences for me, I would trust competent authorities' judgment.
- In this organization, competent authorities convey the reasons for the changes in all aspects.

(5) *Communication of organizational change*: According to Hall (1996), communication means the exchange of information and the transmission of meaning. When it comes to organizational change phenomena, communication implies the extent to which officers receive necessary information about organizational changes in the agency.

A five-item scale has been created to measure communication of organizational change by using Holt's (2002) study as well as by taking into consideration the practices and routines in TNP. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.82.

- I am thoroughly satisfied with the information I receive about the changes in my organization.
- I believe that the information about the changes is swiftly and effectively transmitted to the personnel in my organization.
- I know how to access necessary information (i.e. competent department/staff, internal phone number or internet address) about the changes in my organization.
- I believe that the information transmitted about the changes in this organization explains why change is needed.
- I believe that the information transmitted about the changes in this organization explains how that particular change would affect each staff.

(6) Training for organizational change: According to Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) officers are to be adequately trained and informed of the change program so that the uncertainty and resistance to change are reduced to minimum levels. Organizations are to be well aware of the importance of training and they are expected to organize in-service trainings, seminars, and symposiums to keep their staff updated of recent or future changes. In this study, training refers the extent to which officers feel they receive necessary training about organizational changes. Based on Vakola and Nikolaou's approach, a two-item scale has been developed to measure this variable. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is 0.67.

- TNP headquarters and/or local police departments organize in-service trainings or seminars or symposiums in order to train personnel about the changes in this organization.
- I consider myself adequately trained about the changes in this organization.

(7) Socio-demographic characteristics: In addition to the mentioned variables, socio-demographic characteristics were also included in this study as independent variables and operationalized as follows;

- Gender (0= Female, 1= Male)
- Age
- Rank (1= Police Officer, 2= Sergeant, 3= Lieutenant, 4= Captain, 5= Superintendent)
- Level of education (1= 9-12 months police training, 2= 2 years high education, 3= University, 4= Master's degree, 5= Doctorate)
- Work experience (1= 1-5 years, 2= 6-10 years, 3=11-15 years, 4= 16-20 years, 5= 21 years-more)

Data Analysis Procedures

First, simple descriptive analysis was conducted to answer the first research question which was 'What are the attitudes held by Turkish National Police members toward organizational change?' The sample was described in terms of general demographic characteristics such as gender, age, rank, education and work experiences. Then sample frequencies were analyzed based on the main factors (receptivity to change, readiness for change, commitment to organization, trust in management, communication of organizational change, and training for organizational change). The findings based on the sample presented a general idea about the attitudes of TNP members toward organizational change.

In order to answer the second research question which was 'How well does the Officer Attitude Model explain officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP? Which of the following predictor variables (gender, age, rank, education, work experience, receptivity to change, readiness to change, commitment to organization, trust in management, communication of organizational change, and training) are most influential in predicting the officer attitudes? Is there any change in the power of the OAM in predicting the officer attitudes when the background factors are excluded as contributors?' multiple regressions (Ordinary Least Squares–OLS) were conducted two times, first with eleven independent variables and then with seven independent variables. Particularly, standard multiple regressions (enter model) were used. According to Mertler and Vannatta (2005):

In standard multiple regression, all independent variables are entered into the analysis simultaneously. The effect of the each independent variable on the dependent variable is assessed as if had been entered into the equation after all other independent variables had been entered. Each independent variable is then evaluated in terms of what it adds to the prediction of the dependent variable (pg. 170).

This enabled tests of the statistical power of the proposed Officer Attitude Model. The higher the R.square, the better the model will explain officer attitudes in TNP.

Additionally, researcher was able to evaluate contribution of each independent variable to the model.

Subsequently, independent t-test, one-way ANOVA, and bivariate correlation operation were conducted in order to see whether there are any relationships between background factors (demographics) and six main factors in the model.

After interpretation of multiple regression results through SPSS, the researcher was able to test eight hypotheses cited in Chapter 1 whether to accept or reject.

Limitations

There are a few limitations of this study. First, the data collected was self-reported. The respondents may have different perceptions with respect to survey questions. Secondly, it is important to consider survey results as another body of evidence because surveys do not include the absolute answers. As Alreck and Settle (2004) emphasize, "The reason that survey results aren't definite is simple but compelling: Respondents' answers merely stand-ins for actual conditions or actions"

(pg. 9). Therefore, other data, experience, and common sense are to be used when handling survey results.

Third, the researcher determined survey items, topics, and response categories. Such a predefined instrument may not be appropriate or perfect to measure all real situations or behaviors; how each officer perceives events, situations, and change efforts in the organizational context can never be evaluated thoroughly while developing a survey.

Fourth, this study does not explain all factors affecting employee attitudes toward organizational change. First of all, organizational change phenomenon is an extremely broad topic. Besides, human behavior is one of the most difficult and complex concepts to explain; several factors may intervene in the formation of attitudes and human behavior. As many as possible variables were included here to measure officer attitudes toward organizational change phenomenon from a wide perspective. Cynicism and resistance to change literature (Holt, 2002; Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000) were particularly effective in choosing the variables. However, some factors, which may be significant predictors of officer attitudes, such as officer satisfaction and job stress, were not included in here in order to make this study manageable.

Fifth, the purpose of this survey was apparent, and a multi-item direct measurement was used. According to Paulhus (1991), direct measures can be subject to response biases which may risk their validity. A tendency to give socially desirable responses is believed to be the most perilous bias in attitude surveys (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Bernreuter, 1933; Lenski & Leggett, 1960). To avoid such response biases, some researchers have used indirect measures or have tried to reduce the measure's

transparency (Ajzen, 2002). Since humans –normally– have no or little control over some physiological reactions, such as heart rate and palmar sweat, some techniques measuring such reactions are also believed to produce valid results. However, according to Ajzen and Fishbein (2005), there is “no evidence that the indirect assessment approach produced more valid measures of a person’s true attitude than did the direct approach...” (pg. 176).

In terms of social desirability, officers may have reported more positive responses about organizational change in order to be considered as a good officer. To mitigate social desirability problem, survey participants were guaranteed anonymity in the cover letter for survey and no names, badge numbers, or department/unit names were included in the survey.

Moreover, while TNP is an organization, it may be unique. It is a well-trained national police force and might not be like any other national non-police organizations such as postal service. Therefore, the findings of this study may not be very useful in understanding employee attitudes in other organizations.

Lastly, valid-reliable data require that a representative sample of organization members participate in the survey offering truthful responses when they do. As the relevant units of TNP refused to provide a list of study population because of privacy concerns, random sampling was not used in this study. The researcher used a mixed-mode design –e-mail survey and distributed paper version of survey– to reach as much of the population as possible. Therefore, findings of this study may be weak in terms of generalizability or external validity.

Some Explanations

This study aimed to measure officer attitudes toward a general organizational change idea at an individual level. One might think “Why were only the attitudes and not behaviors measured? Why was only a general change idea rather than specific change programs considered? Why was the research conducted at the individual level?”

First of all, behaviors were purposefully left out of this studies’ scope to make the study manageable. Moreover, TNP is a hierarchical organization where obedience to the rules and regulations is required. Conducting a survey with questions asking officer behaviors against organizational change programs would not yield valid responses. Officers most likely refrain from declaring their possible resistant and deviant behaviors against change out of fear of being identified. Thus, due to the self-reporting nature of the survey, the data on behaviors would be weak in terms of validity.

On the other hand, even though this study was aimed to measure officer attitudes, it does not imply that the officers will necessarily act in accordance with their beliefs and attitudes that they have expressed. This matter had been identified as a limitation in the early studies on human behavior (Thurstone, 1928). Human behavior is quite complex to explain. Although the attitudes are accepted as the main predictors of human behavior in the recent theories, it is also emphasized that there are other factors, such as social pressure, individual differences (i.e. inner motivated person), situational factors (i.e. time pressure), characteristics of the attitude (i.e. attitude formed by a direct experience or second-hand information), affecting behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). Moreover, attitudes may change upon the new events and information (Katz, 1960;

Ajzen, 1985). Therefore, it is not possible to know how officers will act in real life, especially in an organization requiring obedience.

Secondly, rather than assessing attitudes toward particular change attempts, this study focused on general change idea. The size of the research population is an important factor in deciding what attitudes to measure. TNP is a very big organization with more than 180,000 members. As there should be a division of labor in every organization, there are various tasks done by TNP members through different departments, divisions, and offices. While some members are working on the streets, some are issuing passports, protecting the President, Prime Minister, or important buildings, or tracing terror suspects. Such task variety has been disregarded while designing this survey. Since some particular change programs directly relate to particular departments or tasks, TNP has been considered as a whole and no sample selection process has been applied according to the task differences.

For example, if items concerning the creation of a new Border Police in TNP were included in the survey, probably most of the respondents –except those already working at border posts– would not have detailed knowledge about that structural change; thereby, no attitudes might have been formed toward that particular change program. Instead, the survey aimed to measure officer attitudes in TNP toward a general organizational change concept. Respondents were required to answer the survey questions out of their thoughts, perceptions, and experiences about previous or ongoing organizational change efforts. In so doing, the survey data provided a general picture of officer attitudes.

As this study focused on attitudes toward general change idea, the data were collected at one point in time. Replications of this study to understand attitudes toward specific change programs should consider a longitudinal method which might help researchers account for the dynamic nature of officer attitudes as well as the change processes to some degree.

Additionally, this study is the first study on organizational change in TNP. A foundational study is likely to be of more utility if it provides a general picture of officer attitudes toward change rather than limiting the topic to a particular change effort. Thus, not only will this study attract attention of most TNP members, but also other researchers will be able to use the concepts and findings of this general study in their researches on particular change programs in future.

Lastly, in terms of conducting an individual level study, attitudes are purely personal by nature. Holt (2002) expresses that “Nobody can have complete information about all of the things that take place in the organization” (pg. 75). Since TNP is quite a big organization, it is natural that the meanings of organizational events and change efforts vary among TNP members. For that reason, the officer attitudes were to be measured at the individual level. Moreover, change programs are put into practice through people. In order for a change program to achieve its objectives, each officer is supposed to support the change program and alter his/her behaviors accordingly. This feature of change also requires individual level measurement.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS

Pre-Analysis

Data was collected by a survey administered in Turkey among the TNP members with particular ranks (police officer, sergeant, lieutenant, captain, and superintendent). A mixed method –the Internet and paper based– was used. There were a total of 560 subjects who responded to the survey. In each of the seven selected cities, Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, Adana, Samsun, Kahramanmaras, and Van, 100 paper based surveys were distributed to the sample and a total of 470 surveys were gathered which provided a 67% response rate for the paper based survey. In addition, a total of 90 surveys were received from the survey administered through the Internet. Out of 560 respondents, 59 of them were females (10.5%) and 501 were males (89.5%). This rate is close to the gender ratio in the population which is roughly 6% female and 94% male. Gender distribution is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Gender Distribution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Female | 59 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 10.5 |
| Male | 501 | 89.5 | 89.5 | 100.0 |
| Total | 560 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Age of the respondents ranged from 22 to 52 years. This variable was transformed into a different variable as *age_a*. Three groups (21-30, 31-40, and 41-above) were created. 58.6% were between the ages of 31 to 40, while 20.7% were between 21-30 and 20.7% were 41 years old and above. Table 6 shows the age distribution.

Table 6

Age Distribution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| 21-30 | 116 | 20.7 | 20.7 | 20.7 |
| 31-40 | 328 | 58.6 | 58.6 | 79.3 |
| 41-above | 116 | 20.7 | 20.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 560 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

With 430 surveys, more than 3/4 of the respondents were police officers. 130 surveys that were completed by the ranking officers composed 23.2% of all responses. This police officer-ranking officer ratio is higher than the ratio in TNP. This is probably because a mixed method –the Internet and paper based– was used for data collection. The group e-mail addresses of the ranking officers working nationwide were available to the researcher. The survey link was sent to these e-mail groups and 90 responses were obtained. On the other hand, only those police officers working in seven selected cities were asked to participate in the paper based survey. Even though multiple contacts are suggested to increase response rate, the researcher purposefully avoided a second contact with e-mail groups to prevent more ranking officer participation in order to keep the ratio closer to the population. Rank distribution is displayed in Table 7.

Table 7

Rank Distribution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Police officer | 430 | 76.8 | 76.8 | 76.8 |
| Sergeant | 13 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 79.1 |
| Lieutenant | 20 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 82.7 |
| Captain | 46 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 90.9 |
| Superintendent | 51 | 9.1 | 9.1 | 100.0 |
| Total | 560 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

A total of 119 survey respondents completed 9-12 months police training and 164 participants completed 2 years high education. 201 persons have BA degrees, 62 have MA degrees, and 14 have Ph.D. degrees. These numbers indicate that almost half of the respondents, 277 persons, are university graduates. Table 8 demonstrates education levels of survey participants.

Table 8

Education Level Distribution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| 9-12 months police training | 119 | 21.3 | 21.3 | 21.3 |
| 2 years high education | 164 | 29.3 | 29.3 | 50.5 |
| University–BA | 201 | 35.9 | 35.9 | 86.4 |
| Master's–MA | 62 | 11.1 | 11.1 | 97.5 |
| Doctorate–Ph.D. | 14 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 100.0 |
| Total | 560 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

In terms of work experience, more than 1/3 of all respondents were within the 11-15 years range and 72% of the sample had 15 years of experience or less. This result is normal because 130 ranking officers completed this survey and personnel with ranks higher than superintendent rank were excluded from this study. Even though there can be some exceptions, the ranking officers included in this study may have a maximum 15 years of experience in accordance with the current rank duration regulations (Minimum service durations for ranks: Sergeant-4 years; Lieutenant-4 years; Captain-3 years; and Superintendent-4 years). Table 9 shows work experience distribution.

Table 9

Work Experience Distribution

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| 1-5 | 65 | 11.6 | 11.6 | 11.6 |
| 6-10 | 129 | 23.0 | 23.0 | 34.6 |
| 11-15 | 210 | 37.5 | 37.5 | 72.1 |
| 16-20 | 76 | 13.6 | 13.6 | 85.7 |
| 21-more | 80 | 14.3 | 14.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 560 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Prior to conducting data analysis, the data set was pre-screened in terms of missing cases. Only a total of 0.53% cases were missing and those were handled by replacing them with the mode (most frequent answers). Since the Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree) was used and ordinal level variables were created, it is appropriate to use the mode to handle missing data.

Data Processing

Survey item number 29 “I have doubts that the organizational change programs achieve their objectives” was reverse coded before creating index variables. (1 was recoded as 4; 2 was recoded as 3; 3 was recoded as 2; and 4 was recoded as 1).

According to Hagan (2006), “Scaling procedures involve attempts to increase the complexity of the level of measurement of variables” (pg. 309). For this purpose, such a scaling procedure was followed to create main factor scales. Each scale was created by computing related index variables and the levels of measurement were increased from ordinal to ratio level. By doing so, each subject had a score of receptivity to change, readiness for change, commitment to organization, trust in management, perception of communication of organizational change and perception of training for organizational change. Index variables, newly created scales and ranges are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Index Variables, Newly Created Scales and Ranges

| Variable Names | Newly Created Scales | Ranges |
|---|----------------------|--------|
| <i>recept1, recept2, recept3</i> | <i>receptiv</i> | 3-15 |
| <i>ready1, ready2, ready3, ready4, ready5, ready6, ready7</i> | <i>ready</i> | 7-35 |
| <i>commit1, commit2, commit3, commit4, commit5</i> | <i>commit</i> | 5-25 |
| <i>trust1, trust2, trust3, trust4</i> | <i>trust</i> | 4-20 |
| <i>commun1, commun2, commun3, commun4, commun5</i> | <i>communic</i> | 5-25 |
| <i>train1, train2</i> | <i>training</i> | 2-10 |
| <i>attitud1, attitud2, attitud3, attitud4, attitud5, attitud6</i> | <i>attitude</i> | 6-24 |

In addition, *attitude* scale was transformed into a different variable, *at_group*, by recoding scores 6-14 as 0, 15 as 1, and 16-24 as 2. In this new variable, 0 represents ‘negative’ officer attitudes toward organizational change, while 1 represents ‘neutral’ and 2 represents ‘positive’ officer attitudes toward organizational change.

Analysis and Findings

In order to derive a response to the first research question “What are the attitudes held by TNP members toward organizational change?” a descriptive analysis was used.

51.6% of the respondents have a positive, 36.8% have a negative, and 11.6% have a neutral attitude toward organizational change. Distribution of *at_group* is shown in Table 11. Though it is difficult to generalize these findings due to the sampling limitations, those figures gave the researcher a general perception of officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP.

Table 11

Distribution of at_group

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Positive attitude toward org. change | 289 | 51.6 | 51.6 | 100.0 |
| Neutral attitude toward org. change | 65 | 11.6 | 11.6 | 48.4 |
| Negative attitude toward org. change | 206 | 36.8 | 36.8 | 36.8 |
| Total | 560 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Cross tabulation of officer attitudes (positive, negative, or neutral) with demographics is presented in Table 12. Chi-square statistics revealed no significant relationship at the level of $p=.05$.

Table 12 shows that 52.3% of male officers and 45.8% of female officers have a positive attitude toward organizational change. It is seen that in the sample, male officers are somewhat more likely than female officers to hold a positive attitude toward change. In terms of negative attitudes, there is almost no difference between the male and female officers.

When differences in the percentages of positive attitudes were examined, it is understood that one out of two officers in police officer, lieutenant, and superintendent ranks have a positive attitude. This rate is higher among the captains (67.4%) and sergeants (76.9%).

In terms of education level, there is a slight difference in positive attitudes percentages among officers with 2 years high education, university graduates, and officers with MA degrees. More than half of the officers (roughly 55%) in these education levels have positive attitudes. However, officers with 9-12 months training (42.9%) and those with Ph.D. degrees (35.7) appear to have less positive attitudes toward change.

Table 12 further shows that there is no significant difference across the work experience variable. Only the less experienced officers (1-5 years) have the highest percentage (61.5%) for positive attitudes toward change.

Table 12

Cross Tabulation of Officer Attitudes with Demographics

| | | Officer Attitude toward Organizational Change | | | | | | Total | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|---|--------------------|---------|--------------------|----------|--------------------|-------|--------|
| | | Positive | | Neutral | | Negative | | | |
| | | Number | % within variables | Number | % within variables | Number | % within variables | | |
| Gender | Male | 262 | 52.3% | 54 | 10.8% | 185 | 36.9% | 501 | 100.0% |
| | Female | 27 | 45.8% | 11 | 18.6% | 21 | 35.6% | 59 | 100.0% |
| Age | 21-30 | 64 | 55.2% | 16 | 13.8% | 36 | 31.0% | 116 | 100.0% |
| | 31-40 | 169 | 51.5% | 36 | 11.0% | 123 | 37.5% | 328 | 100.0% |
| | 41-above | 56 | 48.3% | 13 | 11.2% | 47 | 40.5% | 116 | 100.0% |
| Rank | Police officer | 213 | 49.5% | 54 | 12.6% | 163 | 37.9% | 430 | 100.0% |
| | Sergeant | 10 | 76.9% | - | - | 3 | 23.1% | 13 | 100.0% |
| | Lieutenant | 10 | 50.0% | 3 | 15.0% | 7 | 35.0% | 20 | 100.0% |
| | Captain | 31 | 67.4% | 3 | 6.5% | 12 | 26.1% | 46 | 100.0% |
| | Superintendent | 25 | 49.0% | 5 | 9.8% | 21 | 41.2% | 51 | 100.0% |
| Education Level | 9-12 months police training | 51 | 42.9% | 17 | 14.3% | 51 | 42.9% | 119 | 100.0% |
| | 2 years high education | 87 | 53.0% | 22 | 13.4% | 55 | 33.5% | 164 | 100.0% |
| | University-BA | 110 | 54.7% | 21 | 10.4% | 70 | 34.8% | 201 | 100.0% |
| | Master's-MA | 36 | 58.1% | 5 | 8.1% | 21 | 33.9% | 62 | 100.0% |
| | Doctorate-PhD | 5 | 35.7% | - | - | 9 | 64.3% | 14 | 100.0% |
| Work Experience | 1-5 years | 40 | 61.5% | 8 | 12.3% | 17 | 26.2% | 65 | 100.0% |
| | 6-10 years | 65 | 50.4% | 14 | 10.9% | 50 | 38.8% | 129 | 100.0% |
| | 11-15 years | 111 | 52.9% | 25 | 11.9% | 74 | 35.2% | 210 | 100.0% |
| | 16-20 years | 35 | 46.1% | 11 | 14.5% | 30 | 39.5% | 76 | 100.0% |
| | 21 years -more | 38 | 47.5% | 7 | 8.8% | 35 | 43.8% | 80 | 100.0% |

In addition to the descriptive analysis explained above about officer attitudes with demographics, Table 13 provides mean values of each scale used in this study and the level percentages in terms of low, middle, and high (i.e. low level of readiness for change, high level of perceived communication of organizational change). The mean value is the mathematical average of each scale and gives a general idea about the respondents' perceptions and beliefs.

Table 13

Mean Values for Scales

| Scale | Score range | Mid-score | Mean | Percentage within scale | | |
|------------------------|-------------|-----------|-------|-------------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| | | | | High level (positive) | Mid-level (neutral) | Low level (negative) |
| Attitude toward change | 6-24 | 15 | 15.62 | 51.6% | 11.6% | 36.8% |
| Receptivity | 3-15 | 9 | 9.63 | 65.9% | 8.0% | 36.1% |
| Readiness | 7-35 | 21 | 23.24 | 68.4% | 5.9% | 25.7% |
| Commitment | 5-25 | 15 | 20.07 | 84.1% | 4.6% | 9.1% |
| Trust | 4-20 | 12 | 11.80 | 42.0% | 12.9% | 45.2% |
| Communication | 5-25 | 15 | 14.09 | 37.9% | 8.6% | 53.6% |
| Training | 2-10 | 6 | 6.03 | 40.9% | 22.5% | 36.6% |

In order to answer the second research question, standard multiple regressions (Ordinary Least Squares–OLS) were conducted. The first part of the question was 'How well does the Officer Attitude Model explain officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP? Which of the following predictor variables (*gender, age, rank, education, work experience, receptivity to change, readiness to change, commitment to organization, trust in management, communication of organizational change, and training*) are most influential in predicting the officer attitudes?'

Gender was included in the analysis as a *dummy* variable (0= Female, 1= Male); although *rank*, *education*, and *work experience* are ordinal variables, they were included in the regression since there is a sequential increase between intervals. Other predictor variables (*receptivity*, *readiness*, *commitment*, *trust*, *communication*, and *training*) are already created as a scale and included in the regression as continuous-metric variables. *Age* was also included in the analysis as a continuous-metric variable.

Prior to conducting multiple regression, data were screened for outliers. Outliers were identified by calculating Mahalanobis distance in a preliminary regression procedure. An exploration was then conducted on the newly generated Mahalanobis variable to determine which cases exceeded the Chi-square criteria. Using a Chi-square table, the critical value of Chi-square at $p < .001$ with $df = 12$ was found to be 39.909. Case numbers 211, 331, 382, 400, 499, and 538 exceeded this critical value and so were deleted from the analysis.

Mertler and Vannatta (2005) suggest that there are essentially two approaches to test the assumptions in multiple regression. The first approach involves routine pre-analysis which are bivariate scatter plots for linearity, Q-Q Plots, values of skewness and kurtosis for normality and Box's M Test for homoscedasticity. The alternative approach is to examine the residuals scatter plots. The alternative approach was applied for this study.

In bivariate scatter plots (Appendix 7), although it seemed that there were slight problems in terms of normality and linearity, according to the alternative approach, the distributions were not too extreme. 'Residual plots of standardized residuals versus

predicted values' showed that assumptions of linearity and normality can be assumed in the current data (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Scatter plot of standardized residuals versus predicted values (1).

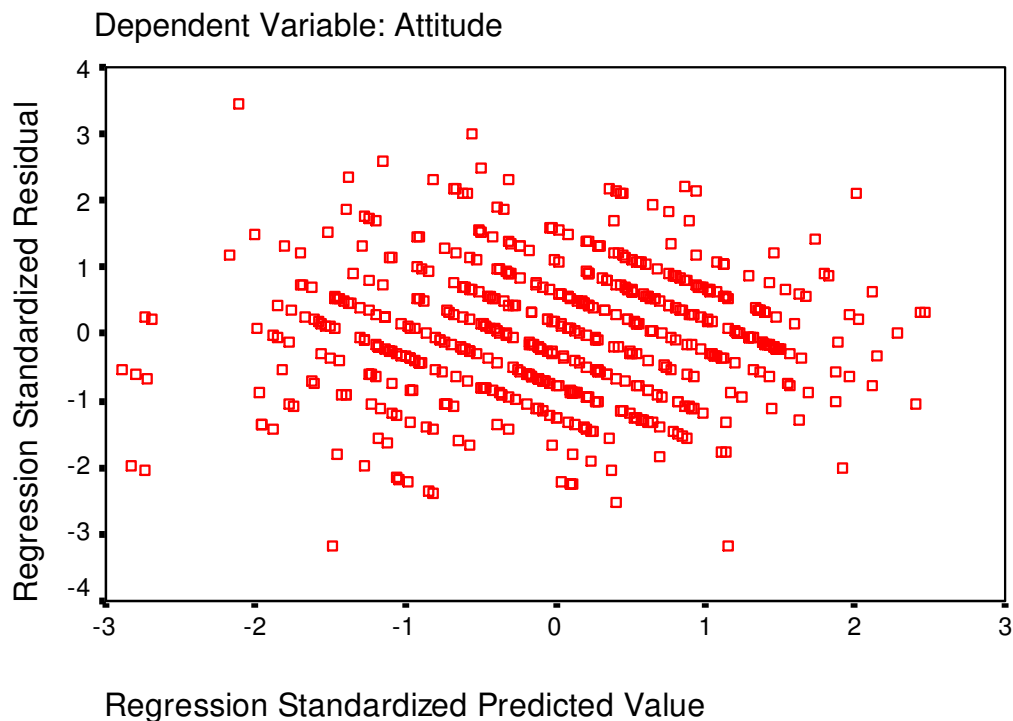


Figure 5 displays fairly consistent scores throughout the plot with concentration in the center. This plot also indicates that assumption of homoscedasticity is present for analysis. According to Mertler and Vannatta (2005), “when assumptions are not met, residuals may be clustered on the top or bottom of the plot (non-normality), may be curved (non-linearity) or may be clustered on the right or left side (heteroscedasticity)” (pg. 55). For this study, as shown in Figure 5, values are consistently spread out, which indicates normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

Review of the tolerance statistics and VIF (variance inflation factor) in the coefficients table (Table 14) indicates that there is no multicolleniariry problem since all tolerance statistics are greater than .1 and VIF values are less than 10.

Table 14

Tolerance Statistics

| | Collinearity Statistics | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | Tolerance | VIF |
| (Constant) | | |
| <i>Gender</i> | .871 | 1.148 |
| <i>Age</i> | .158 | 6.319 |
| <i>Rank</i> | .502 | 1.993 |
| <i>Educllev</i> | .520 | 1.923 |
| <i>Workexp</i> | .164 | 6.092 |
| <i>Receptiv</i> | .632 | 1.582 |
| <i>Ready</i> | .501 | 1.997 |
| <i>Commit</i> | .766 | 1.305 |
| <i>Trust</i> | .425 | 2.352 |
| <i>Communic</i> | .438 | 2.282 |
| <i>Training</i> | .616 | 1.625 |

After handling all the assumptions, a multiple regression (OLS) was conducted using the Enter Method. The model summary (Table 15) and the ANOVA summary (Table 16) indicated that the overall model of eleven independent variables significantly predict officer attitudes toward organizational change, $R^2=.448$, $R^2_{adj}=.437$, $F(11, 542)=40.010$, $p<.001$. Receptivity ($B=.243$) is the most influential variable in predicting officer attitude.

Table 15

Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .669 | .448 | .437 | 2.139 |

a Predictors: (Constant), Training, Age, Rank, Commit, Gender, Receptiv, Communic, Educlev, Ready, Trust, Workexp

b Dependent Variable: Attitude

Table 16

ANOVA Summary

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| 1 | Regression | 2013.253 | 11 | 183.023 | 40.010 | .000 |
| | Residual | 2479.363 | 542 | 4.574 | | |
| | Total | 4492.616 | 553 | | | |

a Predictors: (Constant), Training, Age, Rank, Commit, Gender, Receptiv, Communic, Educlev, Ready, Trust, Workexp

b Dependent Variable: Attitude

However, the data analyses presented in Table 17 revealed that five variables *receptivity* $\beta=.227$, *readiness* $\beta=.183$, *trust* $\beta=.169$, *communication* $\beta=.151$, *training* $\beta=.131$ significantly contributed to the model. R square indicates that the amount of variance in the dependent variable that is accounted for by OAM is 44.8%. In other words, this model accounts for 44.8% of variance in officer attitudes toward organizational change.

Table 17

Coefficients

| | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| Model | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 6.123 | 1.047 | | 5.847 | .000 |
| | <i>Gender</i> | -.205 | .320 | -.022 | -.640 | .523 |
| | <i>Age</i> | .015 | .036 | .035 | .436 | .663 |
| | <i>Rank</i> | .162 | .094 | .077 | 1.717 | .087 |
| | <i>Educllev</i> | -.013 | .123 | -.005 | -.111 | .911 |
| | <i>Workexp</i> | -.212 | .191 | -.088 | -1.115 | .265 |
| | <i>Receptiv</i> | .243 | .043 | .227 | 5.658 | .000 |
| | <i>Ready</i> | .123 | .030 | .183 | 4.056 | .000 |
| | <i>Commit</i> | -.007 | .028 | -.010 | -.267 | .790 |
| | <i>Trust</i> | .147 | .043 | .169 | 3.452 | .001 |
| | <i>Communic</i> | .109 | .035 | .151 | 3.133 | .002 |
| | <i>Training</i> | .199 | .062 | .131 | 3.215 | .001 |

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude

Based on the above table of coefficients, the following equation is generated by using B weights:

$$\hat{Y} = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_kX_k$$

**Officer attitudes toward organizational change = 6.123 -.205X_{Gender} + .015X_{Age}
+ .162X_{Rank} -.013X_{Educllev} -.212X_{Workexp} + .243X_{Receptiv} + .123X_{Ready} -.007X_{Commit}
+ .147X_{Trust} + .109X_{Communic} + .199X_{Training}**

Because *Enter* model is used, all of the eleven independent variables are included in the regression equation regardless of their significant scores. If the stepwise method were to be used, only the significant independent variables should have been included in the regression equation (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005).

Even though the R square value is 44.8 which may be considered not very high, the model significantly predicts officer attitudes. Moreover, non-significant prediction power of demographic variables supports some discussions in the literature part as well as the Officer Attitude Model. In Planned Behavior Theory, Ajzen explains that the background factors (demographic variables) are believed to affect human behaviors *indirectly* through their influence on beliefs and then on attitudes, subjective norms, or perceptions of control. So there is not necessarily a direct relationship between the background factors and attitudes. This assumption is supported by our study since none of the demographic variables, which are assumed to be background factors, were found to be significant contributors to the model.

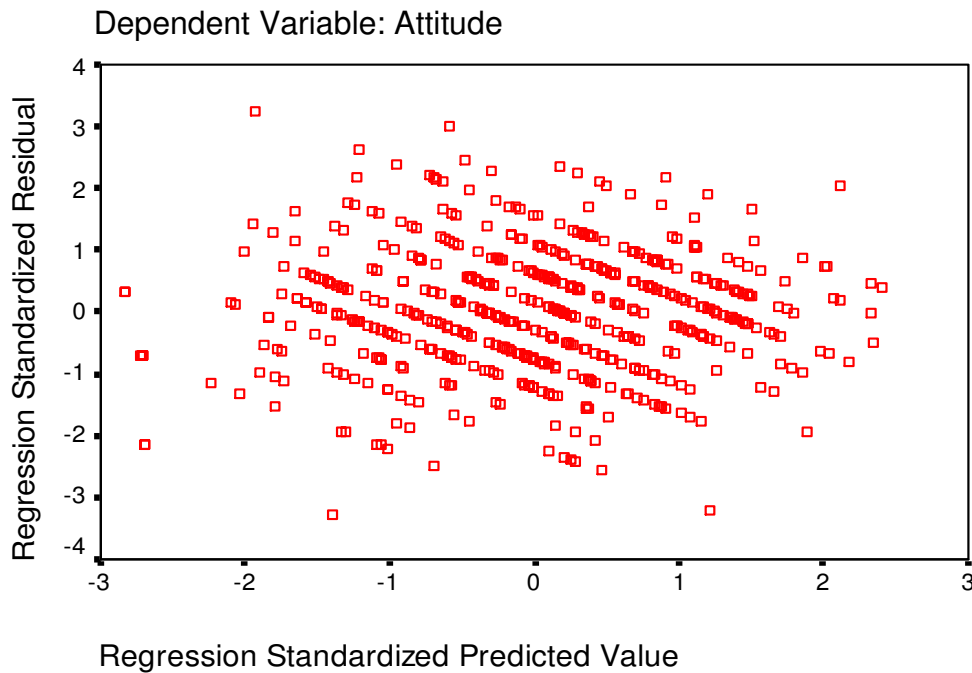
In order to answer the second part of the second research question 'Is there any change in the power of the OAM in predicting the officer attitudes when the background factors are excluded as contributors?' a second standard multiple regression (OLS) was conducted. Thus only six main factors were entered into the model as independent variables to find out their contribution on dependent variable (officer attitudes) after excluding background factors.

Before starting multiple regression data was again screened for multiple outliers. Outliers were identified by calculating Mahalanobis distance in a preliminary regression procedure. An exploration was then conducted on the newly generated Mahalanobis

variable to determine which cases exceeded the Chi-square criteria. Using a Chi-square table, the critical value of Chi-square at $p < .001$ with $df = 7$ was found to be 24.322. Case numbers 211, 314, 331, 395, 400, and 538 exceeded this critical value and so were deleted from the analysis.

Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity assumptions were evaluated by looking at residual plots of standardized residuals versus predicted values. As mentioned above, this is an alternative approach to traditional screening of bivariate scatter plots for linearity, Q-Q Plots, values of skewness and kurtosis for normality and Box's M Test for homoscedasticity. Residual scatter plots indicated that assumptions of linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity can be assumed for this analysis because Figure 6 displays fairly consistent scores throughout the plot with concentration in the center.

Figure 6. Scatter plot of Standardized Residuals versus Predicted Values (2).



Review of the tolerance statistics and VIF (variance inflation factor) in the coefficients table (Table 17) indicates that there is no multicolleniarity problem since all tolerance statistics are greater than .1 and VIF values are less than 10.

Table 17

Tolerance Statistics

| | Collinearity Statistics | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | Tolerance | VIF |
| (Constant) | | |
| <i>Receptiv</i> | .672 | 1.488 |
| <i>Ready</i> | .485 | 2.062 |
| <i>Commit</i> | .774 | 1.293 |
| <i>Trust</i> | .452 | 2.213 |
| <i>Communic</i> | .451 | 2.219 |
| <i>Training</i> | .619 | 1.617 |

In addition, bivariate correlations shown in Table 19 support that multicolleniarity is not a problem for our analysis because Pearson correlation does not exceed .8 for any pair of variables. If Pearson correlation exceeds .8, it indicates that variables are measuring the same concept, so one should be eliminated or both should be converged as one variable.

Table 19

Bivariate Correlations

| | | <i>Receptiv</i> | <i>Ready</i> | <i>Commit</i> | <i>Trust</i> | <i>Communic</i> | <i>Training</i> |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| <i>Receptiv</i> | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .540** | .228** | .386** | .407** | .320** |
| <i>Ready</i> | Pearson Correlation | | 1 | .365** | .543** | .522** | .476** |
| <i>Commit</i> | Pearson Correlation | | | 1 | .436** | .265** | .257** |
| <i>Trust</i> | Pearson Correlation | | | | 1 | .647** | .477** |
| <i>Communic</i> | Pearson Correlation | | | | | 1 | .565** |
| <i>Training</i> | Pearson Correlation | | | | | | 1 |

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

Having met all assumptions, a second multiple regression (OLS) was conducted using the Enter Method. The model summary (Table 20) and the ANOVA summary (Table 21) indicated that the overall model of six independent variables significantly predict officer attitudes toward organizational change, $R^2=.437$, $R^2_{adj}=.431$, $F(6, 547)=70.785$, $p<.001$.

Table 20

Model Summary

| | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| Model | | | | |
| 1 | .661 | .437 | .431 | 2.145 |

a Predictors: (Constant), Training, Commit, Receptiv, Trust, Ready, Communic

b Dependent Variable: Attitude

Table 21

ANOVA Summary

| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| 1 | Regression | 1953.754 | 6 | 325.626 | 70.785 | .000 |
| | Residual | 2516.320 | 547 | 4.600 | | |
| | Total | 4470.074 | 553 | | | |

a Predictors: (Constant), Training, Commit, Receptiv, Trust, Ready, Communic

b Dependent Variable: Attitude

This multiple regression result showed that there is almost no change in the power of the OAM in predicting the officer attitudes when the background factors are excluded as contributors. When compared with the first multiple regression results, there were very slight differences in terms of R square and variables that significantly contributed to the model. These variables were *receptivity* $\beta=.238$, *readiness* $\beta=.207$, *trust* $\beta=.133$, *communication* $\beta=.152$, *training* $\beta=.128$ (Table 22).

Table 22

Coefficients

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|-----------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|-------------|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 6.076 | .614 | | 9.896 | .000 |
| | <i>Receptiv</i> | .254 | .042 | .238 | 6.091 | .000 |
| | <i>Ready</i> | .138 | .031 | .207 | 4.486 | .000 |
| | <i>Commit</i> | -.009 | .028 | -.013 | -.343 | .731 |
| | <i>Trust</i> | .116 | .042 | .133 | 2.776 | .006 |
| | <i>Communic</i> | .110 | .035 | .152 | 3.171 | .002 |
| | <i>Training</i> | .195 | .062 | .128 | 3.150 | .002 |

a Dependent Variable: Attitude

Based on the above table of coefficients, the following equation is generated by using B weights for the second regression analysis:

$$\hat{Y} = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_kX_k$$

Officer attitudes toward organizational change = 6.076 + .254X_{Receptiv} + .138X_{Ready} - .009X_{Commit} + .116X_{Trust} + .110X_{Communic} + .195X_{Training}

A comparison of first multiple regression with demographics and second multiple regression without demographics supported our Officer Attitude Model that background factors *directly* affect main factors and thereby *indirectly* influence officer attitudes. A comparison table is provided below (Table 23).

Table 23

A Comparison of First and Second Multiple Regression Analysis

| | First Multiple Regression Analysis with demographics | Second Multiple Regression Analysis without demographics |
|---|--|--|
| R Square | .448 | .437 |
| Significantly contributing variables with Beta values | <i>Receptiv</i> .227 | <i>Receptiv</i> .238 |
| | <i>Ready</i> .183 | <i>Ready</i> .207 |
| | <i>Trust</i> .169 | <i>Trust</i> .133 |
| | <i>Communic</i> .151 | <i>Communic</i> .152 |
| | <i>Training</i> .131 | <i>Training</i> .128 |

In terms of the last part of the second research question, further analyses were conducted to see whether there are relationships between background factors (demographic variables) and six main factors.

First, an independent t-test was conducted between gender and six main factors. T-test results revealed that there is a significant relationship between gender and receptivity at the level of .01 ($p=.005$) (Table 24). Males were found to be more receptive to change than females. Similarly, a significant relationship was also found between gender and trust at the level of .01 ($p=.01$). Males showed more trust in management than females (see Appendix 8 for details).

Table 24

Independent Samples T-Test between Gender and Main Factors

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| <i>Receptiv</i> | Equal variances assumed | .190 | .663 | -2.841 | 558 | .005 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2.729 | 70.907 | .008 |
| <i>Ready</i> | Equal variances assumed | .742 | .389 | -1.057 | 558 | .291 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1.086 | 73.388 | .281 |
| <i>Commit</i> | Equal variances assumed | .570 | .451 | -1.485 | 558 | .138 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1.556 | 74.241 | .124 |
| <i>Trust</i> | Equal variances assumed | .058 | .810 | -2.598 | 558 | .010 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2.738 | 74.495 | .008 |
| <i>Communic</i> | Equal variances assumed | 2.421 | .120 | .118 | 558 | .906 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .128 | 75.765 | .899 |
| <i>Training</i> | Equal variances assumed | .069 | .792 | -.107 | 558 | .915 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -.101 | 70.398 | .920 |

Then bivariate correlation was conducted between age and six main factors. No significant correlation was found which indicates that age does not have any influence over any of the main factors (Table 25).

Table 25

Correlations between Age and Main Factors

| | | Age | Receptiv | Ready | Commit | Trust | Communic | Training |
|------------|---------------------|-----|----------|-------|--------|-------|----------|----------|
| <i>Age</i> | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.058 | .018 | .024 | .048 | -.022 | .020 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | . | .173 | .667 | .567 | .252 | .595 | .642 |

Finally, one-way ANOVA was conducted between six main factors and rank, education level, work experience respectively. The results revealed that receptivity, trust, and communication scores were significantly different among officers with differing ranks, $F(4, 555)=3.979, p<.01$ for receptivity; $F(4, 555)= 7.823, p<.01$ for trust; and $F(4, 555)= 3.368 p<.05$ for communication (Table 26). For Bonferroni statistics see Appendix 9. These results showed that there is a relationship between officers' ranks and three of six main factors (receptivity, trust, and communication).

Table 26

One-way ANOVA Test between Rank and Six Main Factors

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------|
| <i>Receptiv</i> | Between Groups | 111.987 | 4 | 27.997 | 3.979 | .003 |
| | Within Groups | 3905.012 | 555 | 7.036 | | |
| | Total | 4016.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Ready</i> | Between Groups | 56.923 | 4 | 14.231 | .769 | .546 |
| | Within Groups | 10270.490 | 555 | 18.505 | | |
| | Total | 10327.413 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Commit</i> | Between Groups | 116.162 | 4 | 29.041 | 2.092 | .081 |
| | Within Groups | 7705.836 | 555 | 13.884 | | |
| | Total | 7821.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Trust</i> | Between Groups | 317.934 | 4 | 79.484 | 7.823 | .000 |
| | Within Groups | 5639.064 | 555 | 10.160 | | |
| | Total | 5956.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Communic</i> | Between Groups | 209.819 | 4 | 52.455 | 3.368 | .010 |
| | Within Groups | 8644.165 | 555 | 15.575 | | |
| | Total | 8853.984 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Training</i> | Between Groups | 10.767 | 4 | 2.692 | .743 | .563 |
| | Within Groups | 2010.883 | 555 | 3.623 | | |
| | Total | 2021.650 | 559 | | | |

Similarly, the results revealed that commitment, trust, and communication scores were significantly different among officers with differing education level, $F(4, 555)=4.525$, $p<.01$ for commitment; $F(4, 555)=6.124$, $p<.01$ for trust; and $F(4, 555)=4.073$, $p<.01$ for communication (Table 27). For Bonferroni statistics see Appendix 10. The results showed that there is a relationship between the officers' education level and three of six main factors (commitment, trust, and communication).

Table 27

One-way ANOVA Test between Education Level and Six Main Factors.

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------|
| <i>Receptiv</i> | Between Groups | 78.055 | 4 | 19.514 | 2.750 | .028 |
| | Within Groups | 3938.943 | 555 | 7.097 | | |
| | Total | 4016.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Ready</i> | Between Groups | 52.192 | 4 | 13.048 | .705 | .589 |
| | Within Groups | 10275.221 | 555 | 18.514 | | |
| | Total | 10327.413 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Commit</i> | Between Groups | 247.024 | 4 | 61.756 | 4.525 | .001 |
| | Within Groups | 7574.975 | 555 | 13.649 | | |
| | Total | 7821.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Trust</i> | Between Groups | 251.805 | 4 | 62.951 | 6.124 | .000 |
| | Within Groups | 5705.194 | 555 | 10.280 | | |
| | Total | 5956.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Communic</i> | Between Groups | 252.514 | 4 | 63.129 | 4.073 | .003 |
| | Within Groups | 8601.470 | 555 | 15.498 | | |
| | Total | 8853.984 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Training</i> | Between Groups | 23.897 | 4 | 5.974 | 1.660 | .158 |
| | Within Groups | 1997.753 | 555 | 3.600 | | |
| | Total | 2021.650 | 559 | | | |

For work experience, the results showed that receptivity, commitment, and trust scores were significantly different among officers with differing work experience, $F(4, 555) = 3.274$, $p < .05$ for receptivity; $F(4, 555) = 2.414$, $p < .05$ for commitment; and $F(4, 555) = 2.960$, $p < .05$ for trust (Table 28). For Bonferroni statistics see Appendix 11. The results showed that there is a relationship between the officers' work experience and three of six main factors (receptivity, commitment, and trust).

Table 28

One-way ANOVA Test between Work Experience and Six Main Factors

| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------|
| <i>Receptiv</i> | Between Groups | 92.614 | 4 | 23.153 | 3.274 | .011 |
| | Within Groups | 3924.385 | 555 | 7.071 | | |
| | Total | 4016.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Ready</i> | Between Groups | 145.940 | 4 | 36.485 | 1.989 | .095 |
| | Within Groups | 10181.472 | 555 | 18.345 | | |
| | Total | 10327.412 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Commit</i> | Between Groups | 133.777 | 4 | 33.444 | 2.414 | .048 |
| | Within Groups | 7688.222 | 555 | 13.853 | | |
| | Total | 7821.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Trust</i> | Between Groups | 124.423 | 4 | 31.106 | 2.960 | .019 |
| | Within Groups | 5832.575 | 555 | 10.509 | | |
| | Total | 5956.998 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Communic</i> | Between Groups | 90.097 | 4 | 22.524 | 1.426 | .224 |
| | Within Groups | 8763.887 | 555 | 15.791 | | |
| | Total | 8853.984 | 559 | | | |
| <i>Training</i> | Between Groups | 10.510 | 4 | 2.627 | .725 | .575 |
| | Within Groups | 2011.140 | 555 | 3.624 | | |
| | Total | 2021.650 | 559 | | | |

The above discussed t-tests, bivariate correlation, and one-way ANOVA results indicate that there is some level of relationships between background factors (demographics) and six main factors in our model. However, as Table 29 shows, there is no relationship between age and any of the main factors; and no relationships have been found between any of the demographic variables and readiness and training.

Table 29

Relationship between Background Factors and Six Main Factors (Sig. values)

| | Gender | Age | Rank | Education level | Work experience |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | T-test | Bivariate correlation | | One-way ANOVA | |
| Receptivity | .005 | .173 | .003 | .028 | .011 |
| Readiness | .291 | .667 | .546 | .589 | .095 |
| Commitment | .138 | .567 | .081 | .001 | .048 |
| Trust | .010 | .252 | .000 | .000 | .019 |
| Communication | .906 | .595 | .010 | .003 | .224 |
| Training | .915 | .642 | .563 | .158 | .575 |

Hypotheses

The results of the first multiple regression analysis were used in this part for testing the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1, which predicted that more educated and ranking officers would have more positive attitudes toward organizational change, was rejected because the *education* and *rank* were not found as significant contributors to the model at the level of $\alpha=.05$ ($p=.911$ for *education* and $p=.087$ for *rank*).

Hypothesis 2, which stated that senior and more experienced officers would have more negative attitudes toward organizational change, was also rejected as *age* and *work experience* were not found as significant contributors to the model at the level of $\alpha=.05$ ($p=.663$ for *age* and $p=.265$ for *work experience*).

Hypothesis 3 indicated that the background factors in OAM would not contribute to the OAM subsequently in predicting officer attitudes. This hypothesis was accepted as none of the background factors were found as significant contributors to the model at the level of $\alpha=.05$ ($p=.523$ for *gender*, $p=.663$ for *age*, $p=.087$ for *rank*, $p=.911$ for

education level, and $p=.265$ for *work experience*). Moreover, the R square values for the two multiple regressions ($R^2_{\text{First}}=.448$ and $R^2_{\text{Second}}=.437$) indicated that background factors do not significantly affect the power of the OAM in predicting officer attitudes.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that officers more receptive and ready for change have more positive attitudes toward organizational change. Hypothesis 4 was accepted since *receptivity* and *readiness* were found as significant contributors in the positive direction to the model at the level of $\alpha=.01$ ($p=.000$ for both variables).

Hypothesis 5 predicted that officers less committed to their organization have more negative attitudes toward organizational change. Hypothesis 5 was rejected since *commitment* was not found as significant at the level of $\alpha=.05$ ($p=.790$ for *commitment*).

Hypothesis 6 anticipated that officers who trust in management have more positive attitudes toward organizational change. This hypothesis was accepted because *trust* was found as a significant contributor in the positive direction to the model at the level of $\alpha=.01$ ($p=.001$ for *trust*).

Hypothesis 7, which predicted that officers who are dissatisfied with the communication level of organizational change have negative attitudes toward organizational change, was accepted as *communication* was found as a significant contributor in the positive direction to the model at the level of $\alpha=.01$ ($p=.002$).

Hypothesis 8 asserted that officers who believe that they received adequate in-service training hold more positive attitudes toward organizational change. This was also accepted since *training* was found as a significant contributor in the positive direction to the model at the level of $\alpha=.01$ ($p=.001$). The hypothesis, test results, and significance values (p) of relevant variables are also provided in Table 30.

Table 30

Hypothesis Testing Results

| Hypotheses | Testing | Explanation ($\alpha=.05$) |
|---|----------|--|
| Hypothesis 1: More educated and ranking officers have more positive attitudes toward organizational change. | Rejected | $p=.911$ for <i>education</i> $p=.087$ for <i>rank</i> |
| Hypothesis 2: Senior and more experienced officers have more negative attitudes toward organizational change. | Rejected | $p=.663$ for <i>age</i> $p=.265$ for <i>work experience</i> |
| Hypothesis 3: The background factors in OAM will not contribute to the OAM subsequently in predicting officer attitudes. | Accepted | $R^2_{\text{First}}=.448$ $R^2_{\text{Second}}=.437$ |
| Hypothesis 4: Officers more receptive and ready for change have more positive attitudes toward organizational change. | Accepted | $p=.000$ and $B=.243$ for <i>receptivity</i> $p=.000$ and $B=.123$ for <i>readiness</i> |
| Hypothesis 5: Officers less committed to their organization have more negative attitudes toward organizational change. | Rejected | $p=.790$ |
| Hypothesis 6: Officers who trust in management have more positive attitudes toward organizational change. | Accepted | $p=.001$ and $B=.147$ |
| Hypothesis 7: Officers who are dissatisfied with the communication level of organizational change have negative attitudes toward organizational change. | Accepted | $p=.002$ and $B=.109$ |
| Hypothesis 8: Officers who believe that they received adequate in-service training hold more positive attitudes toward organizational change. | Accepted | $p=.001$ and $B=.199$ |

Summary of Findings

Among the 560 survey respondents, 51.6% of them have a positive, 36.8% have a negative, and 11.6 have a neutral attitude toward organizational change.

The Officer Attitude Model of eleven independent variables significantly predicts officer attitudes toward organizational change ($R^2=.448$).

Five variables *receptivity, readiness, trust, communication, and training* significantly contributed to the model. *Receptivity* ($B=.243$) was the most influential variable in predicting officer attitude. *Demographic variables* and *commitment* were not found to be significant contributors to the model.

The Officer Attitude Model of six independent variables (without demographics) also significantly predicts officer attitudes toward organizational change ($R^2=.437$). The comparison of the results from two multiple regressions showed that exclusion of the background factors from the OAM as independent variables did not significantly change the power of the OAM in predicting the officer attitudes.

Non-significant prediction power of background factors (demographic variables) supports Ajzen's Planned Behavior Theory as well as the Officer Attitude Model. In this theory, Ajzen explains that the background factors are believed to affect human behaviors *indirectly* through their influence on beliefs and then on attitudes, subjective norms, or perceptions of control.

Further analysis to find out the relationship between demographic variables and six main factors showed that there is a significant relationship between the following variables:

- Gender and receptivity, trust
- Rank and receptivity, trust, communication
- Education level and commitment, trust, communication
- Work experience and receptivity, commitment, trust

Overall, the data validate the OAM. Five of the main factors are significant in predicting officer attitudes, and background factors (except age) *directly* affect four of the main factors (receptivity, commitment, trust, and communication); thereby, they *indirectly* influence officer attitudes.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Most organizational change programs, if not all, can not be achieved without the acceptance and support from the organization members (Piderit, 2000). The change process is difficult not only for the organization but also for the organization members. While some members may not be bothered by organizational change and instead consider it as a chance to grow and learn; others may react negatively to even any change idea. Common opinion in organizational change literature indicates that humans tend to preserve status quo and resist major changes in work environment (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Strebelt, 1996). The importance of the human factor in the change process has been well acknowledged in the last decades.

Turkish National Police today is facing more change, at a more rapid pace, than ever before. However, there is neither enough systematic knowledge of organizational change efforts nor research on officer attitudes toward change in TNP. This study, therefore, focused on the human factor –officers– in the change process rather than organizational change phenomenon per se.

The purpose of this study is threefold: to understand officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP; to explore which factors affect officer attitudes in a positive or negative direction; and to test the Officer Attitude Model.

An attitude survey of 560 officers in different ranks was administered in Turkey to test the OAM and to respond to research questions. A total of 470 surveys were gathered from the paper based survey which was conducted in police departments in Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, Adana, Samsun, Kahramanmaras, and Van, and the other 90 surveys were received through the Internet survey administered among the ranking officers.

Findings and Discussions

Attitudes of TNP Members toward Organizational Change

To answer the first research question “*What are the attitudes held by Turkish National Police members toward organizational change?*” officer attitudes (positive, negative, and neutral) were cross tabulated with demographics. The data distribution of attitude categories (*at_group*) revealed that 51.6% of the respondents have positive, 36.8% have negative, and 11.6% have neutral attitudes toward organizational change. However, as a result of chi-square statistics, no significant relationship was found between officer attitudes and demographics.

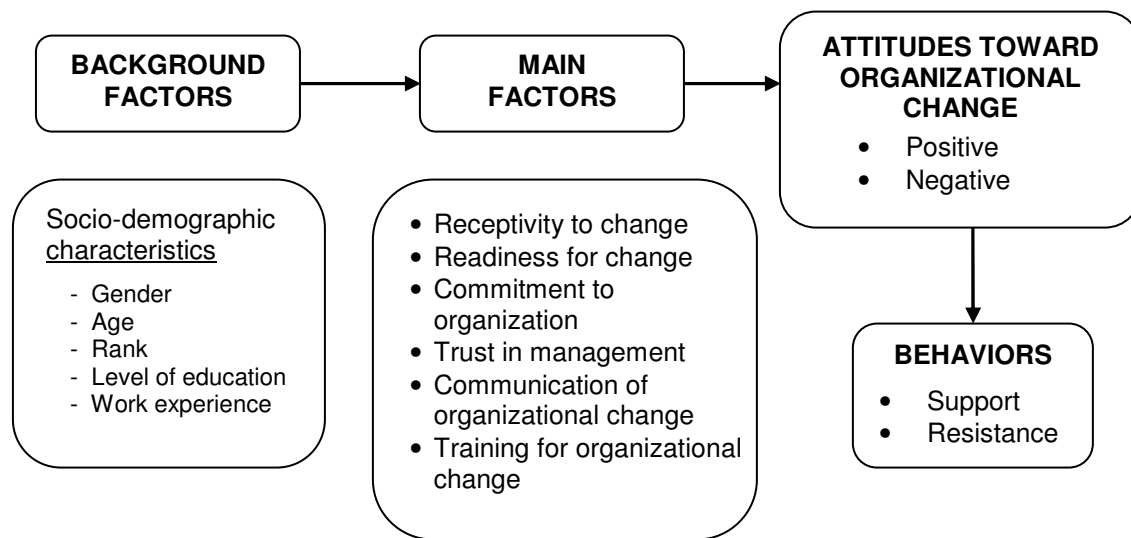
Testing of Officer Attitude Model

Standard multiple regressions (Ordinary Least Squares–OLS) were conducted two times to answer the following second research question.

‘How well does following Officer Attitude Model (Figure 7) explain officer attitudes toward organizational change in TNP? Which of the following predictor variables (gender, age, rank, education, work experience, receptivity to change, readiness to

change, commitment to organization, trust in management, communication of organizational change, and training) are most influential in predicting the officer attitudes? Is there any change in the power of the OAM in predicting the officer attitudes when the background factors are excluded as contributors?'

Figure 7. Officer Attitude Model.



First multiple regression with demographics.

The first multiple regression (OLS) revealed that the OAM with eleven independent variables significantly predicts officer attitudes toward organizational change. This model has accounted for 44.8% of the variability in officer attitudes with the variables specified in the model.

Five out of the eleven independent variables significantly contributed to the model. These significant variables are *receptivity to change, readiness for change, trust in management, communication of organizational change, and training for*

organizational change. Among these significant variables, receptivity to change was found to be the most influential variable in predicting officer attitude.

On the other hand, commitment to organization and the demographic variables (gender, age, rank, education level, and work experience) were not found as significant contributors to the model.

Receptivity to change: This variable measured the respondents' willingness to receive new change ideas in the organization and their beliefs in the effectiveness and efficiency of change programs. This variable proved to be the most influential variable in predicting officer attitude and thereby supported Hypothesis 4 "*Officers more receptive and ready for change have more positive attitudes toward organizational change.*"

Since the literature accepts attitudes as the main predictors of human behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Fazio, 1990), then it can be assumed that more receptive officers, who come up with new ideas for doing their jobs in the workplace and who consider that most change programs make the work more efficient and effective, will more likely support organizational change programs.

Organizations need individuals who can adapt easily to change. However, there can be some situations where receptivity and openness to change may be undesirable. For instance, some organizations want their staff to openly question change programs to eliminate unnecessary and costly changes rather than directly conceding all change programs. This critical approach from the staff to the proposed change programs may not be implicitly encouraged in police organizations. Furthermore, although thinking and productive officers are welcomed in police organizations, superiors might not be happy

with subordinates suggesting new approaches everyday to change routine daily activities.

Readiness for change: The other significant predictor of officer attitudes is the readiness for change variable. With the readiness scale, respondents' perceptions about the need for change, appropriateness of change programs, management and principal (superiors and peers) support were measured. The data analysis supported Hypothesis 4 *"Officers more receptive and ready for change have more positive attitudes toward organizational change."* Readiness corresponds to Lewin's 'unfreezing' step where people feel discomfort with the old behavior and identify a need for change.

It is likely that the most important issue for the success of organizational change is developing readiness among the organization members. Change is always demanding. As Eisenberg, Andrews, Murphy, and Laine-Timmerman (1999) explain, "Many people are reluctant to abandon routines for psychological reasons, preferring certain dysfunctionality to an uncertain future" (p. 128). Therefore, people within organizational change have to perceive changes as necessary and reasonable.

Moreover, people want to see the change programs supported by the management level as well as by their superiors and peers. According to Goldhaber (1999), even though organization members do not feel satisfied with their organization in general, most of them seem to like their immediate work environment and the people with whom they work closest. Therefore, support and an encouraging approach from immediate superiors and peers may have a particular importance. In any case, it is clear that when organization's senior managers, top decision makers, immediate superiors,

and peers support and encourage change initiatives, this would help officers be more prepared for the organizational changes.

In a content-analysis study over readiness for change, Holt (2002) found that individuals with higher levels of readiness demonstrate less resistance and more supportive behaviors. Likewise, this study's findings indicate that officers with higher levels of readiness have more positive attitudes toward organizational change.

Trust in management: According to Dirks and Ferrin (2001), "trust is a psychological state that provides a representation of how individuals understand their relationship with another party in situations that involve risk or vulnerability". In this study, the trust in management variable measured officers' willingness to follow competent authorities' lead and decisions even under uncertain and risky conditions. It is assumed that officers who trust in their decision-makers and management level are more likely to react positively to changes in organizational direction. Trust in management was found as a significant contributor in the positive direction to the model and Hypothesis 6 "Officers who trust in management have more positive attitudes toward organizational change" was supported.

This finding about trust in management supports Albrecht's (2002) model created to determine the antecedents of negative employee attitudes toward change. He proposed that trust in management was one of the antecedents of cynicism. His model explained 38% of the variance in change cynicism. He found that trust in senior management affects employee attitudes (cynicism) toward change and when the employees consider management to be credible and trustworthy, they hold more positive attitudes toward change initiatives.

The nature of police work warrants trust among the officers. The higher the level of trust in work partners, the more risks an officer is likely to take. Such a risk-taking behavior is expected to result in positive outcomes like increase in performance. Dirks and Ferrin (2001) studied the main effects of trust on a variety of behavioral and performance outcomes and found that trust has significant positive effects on organizational citizenship behaviors as well as on individual performance.

The literature suggests that high levels of trust associates with acceptance of information and positive perceptions of organizational change (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). As perceptions about the need for change is essential for the readiness of the officers and success of change programs, high level of trust in management help officers accept the reasons for change conveyed by the competent authorities. Likewise, Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1999) discovered that trust in management moderated the relationship between management's reasons for change and the perceived legitimacy of those changes. Thus, trust in management not only has a positive effect on officer attitudes toward change but may also influence other variables such as readiness for change.

Communication of organizational change: Communication is a means of achieving and improving coordination (Johnson, 1999), and quality communication and information is vitally important in policing. Quality of information can be judged in terms of clarity, appropriateness, timeliness, and believability. The communication scale used in this study measured officer perceptions about communication of change programs within TNP. The respondents with high communication scores are satisfied with the information about the changes communicated within the TNP and consider themselves knowledgeable about accessing necessary information about changes. They believe

that the information is swiftly and effectively transmitted to the personnel and it explains why change is needed and how that change will affect them.

The data analysis proved that communication variable is a significant predictor of officer attitudes and supported Hypothesis 7 “Officers who are dissatisfied with the communication level of organizational change have negative attitudes toward organizational change.” This finding is consistent with the assumptions in organizational change literature. For example, Connor (1992) and Hultman (1998) indicated that cynicism and skepticism –negative attitudes toward change– were both negatively related to employee perceptions of the adequacy of communication about the change.

It is believed that in large organizations, members can be relatively isolated from information flow (Salem, 1999). TNP is a very large organization and has modern and secure channels to communicate daily activities and operations. However, only 37.9% of survey respondents are happy with the level of communication of organizational change (Table 12). This percentage may indicate that change agents in TNP are not well aware of the importance of communication for change programs or they may consider that present means and levels of communication are sufficient to transmit messages about change initiatives. Whether and how adequately existing communication channels are being used to transmit messages regarding organizational change requires further research.

Training for organizational change: The uncertainty and resistance to change can be prevented through training activities about change programs (Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). The training scale used in this research was designed to measure perceptions of

officers about the training activities and whether they consider themselves adequately trained about change programs.

It is found that training is a significant predictor of officer attitudes. This finding supported Hypothesis 8 “Officers who believe that they received adequate in-service training hold more positive attitudes toward organizational change.” According to the responses given to survey item number 25, more than half of the survey respondents (54%) believe that the relevant bodies of TNP –at headquarters or in local police departments– are doing well in organizing in-service trainings or other types of informative gatherings in order to train personnel about the organizational changes. On the contrary, while 22% of the respondents remain neutral, 24% consider that those relevant units do not organize adequate training for change programs.

What is interesting and warrants attention is that even though the majority, both the positive and neutral respondents, seems to be pleased with the competent authorities for organizing in-service trainings, according to the responses for item number 26, only 30% consider themselves adequately trained about the change programs (20% neutral). Half of the participants feel untrained about the organizational changes. In other words, when the difference in percentages of these two survey items is taken into consideration, a noteworthy amount of survey participants (24%) are happy with the level of training activities but at the same time think themselves untrained. Why these officers feel untrained may have various explanations (i.e. nonattendance of the training activities or low quality of trainings) which require further studies.

Commitment to organization: This variable was used in this study to measure officers’ psychological attachment to TNP because, according to Codery et al. (1993),

the more employees have sympathy for their organizations, the greater their willingness to accept organizational change. The high scores in this scale indicate that an officer accepts the organization's values, would like to remain within the TNP, and identifies himself with the organization. *Commitment* was not found as significant as a result of the data analysis and Hypothesis 5 "Officers less committed to their organization have more negative attitudes toward organizational change" was rejected.

Even though Vakola and Nikolaou's (2005) findings indicate that cynicism about organizational change is notably associated with decreased organizational commitment and that the employees with high cynicism scores are much more likely to be low in organizational commitment, this study does not support their findings. On the other hand, the descriptive analysis of commitment variable showed that 471 respondents (84.1%) out of 560 were committed to TNP, 26 were neutral, and 63 respondents were not committed (Table 12).

Demographic variables: Gender, age, rank, education level, and work experience were used in this study in order to determine whether any officer group holds quite different attitudes toward change than others. However, the findings showed that none of the demographic variables was a significant predictor of officer attitudes and this result rejected Hypothesis 1 "More educated and ranking officers would have more positive attitudes toward organizational change," Hypothesis 2 "Senior and more experienced officers would have more negative attitudes toward organizational change," and Hypothesis 3 "The background factors in OAM will not contribute to the OAM subsequently in predicting officer attitudes." The results of multiple regressions

($R^2_{\text{First}}=.448$ and $R^2_{\text{Second}}=.437$) also indicate that background factors do not significantly affect the prediction power of the OAM.

Since the organizational change literature provides contradictory findings about the significance of demographic factors, the findings of this study support some of the previous research. For instance, in their study, Novak and his friends (2003) attempted to determine the significance of officer attributes over the officers' acceptance of community policing in the Kansas City (Missouri) Police Department; however, officers' level of education and rank failed to display significant results. On the other hand, Lewis et al. (1999) examined officers' attitudes toward community policing in Racine, Wisconsin and found that age and years of service are strongly negatively related to positive attitudes toward community policing. While the variable 'years of service' was the best negative predictor of attitude toward community policing, education was moderately positively related to favorable attitudes.

In order to see whether there would be any change if demographics are not included in the model as independent variables, a second multiple regression was conducted. Thus only six main factors (receptivity, readiness, commitment, trust in management, communication, and training) were entered into the model as independent variables to find out their contribution to the dependent variable (officer attitudes) after excluding background factors.

Second multiple regression without demographics.

The second multiple regression (OLS) revealed that the overall model of six independent variables significantly predict officer attitudes toward organizational change (Table 26). When compared with the first multiple regression results, there were very

slight differences in terms of R square and variables that significantly contributed to the model. The decrease in R square values from .448 to .437 may indicate that even if the demographics were non-significant predictors of officer attitudes, they contributed a little prediction power in the first regression. The Beta values of receptivity, readiness, and communication were slightly increased in the second regression.

As a result of both multiple regressions, it is seen that the OAM significantly predicts officer attitudes. In terms of the demographics, Azjen and Fishbein (2005) explain in Planned Behavior Theory that the background factors (demographic variables) are believed to affect human behaviors indirectly through their influence on beliefs and then on attitudes, subjective norms, or perceptions of control. The OAM was already designed in a way to identify demographics as background factors rather than main factors. In the last part of the data analysis, the researcher explored the relationships between background factors (demographic variables) and six main factors.

Relationship between demographics and main predictor factors.

Gender: The independent t-test between gender and six main factors revealed that there is a significant relationship between gender and receptivity (Table 24). Males were found to be more receptive to change than females. Similarly, a significant relationship was also found between gender and trust. Males showed more trust in management than females (see Appendix 8 for details).

Age: Bivariate correlation between age and six main factors showed no significant correlation. This finding indicates that age does not have any influence over any of the main factors (Table 25).

Rank: One-way ANOVA between six main factors and rank indicated that receptivity, trust, and communication scores were significantly different among officers with differing ranks (Table 26). Those results showed that there is a relationship between officers' ranks and three of six main factors –receptivity, trust, and communication.

Education level: One-way ANOVA between six main factors and education level revealed that commitment, trust, and communication scores were significantly different among officers with differing education levels (Table 27). The results showed that there is a relationship between the officers' education level and three of six main factors – commitment, trust, and communication.

Work experience: Similarly, one-way ANOVA between six main factors and work experience showed that receptivity, commitment, and trust scores were significantly different among officers with differing work experience (Table 28). The results indicated that there is a relationship between the officers' work experience and three of six main factors –receptivity, commitment, and trust.

Table 31 illustrates the relationship between background factors and six main factors. It is clearly seen that there is no relationship between age and any of the main factors. Moreover, no relationships have been found between any of the demographic variables and readiness and training.

Table 31

Relationship between Background Factors and Six Main Factors (Sig. values)

| | Gender | Age | Rank | Education level | Work experience |
|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | T-test | Bivariate correlation | | One-way ANOVA | |
| Receptivity | .005 | .173 | .003 | .028 | .011 |
| Readiness | .291 | .667 | .546 | .589 | .095 |
| Commitment | .138 | .567 | .081 | .001 | .048 |
| Trust | .010 | .252 | .000 | .000 | .019 |
| Communication | .906 | .595 | .010 | .003 | .224 |
| Training | .915 | .642 | .563 | .158 | .575 |

Adams et al. (2002) studied the attitudes of street officers toward community oriented policing. In terms of officers' receptivity to the philosophy and practices of community policing, they found that there are no differences along education lines, and minor differences by gender and number of years in law enforcement. This study also did not find any relationship between education level and receptivity; however, the relationships between gender and work experience were significant.

Overall, even though some level of relationships were established between demographics and four of the main factors, results of multiple regression with demographics explained above revealed that demographics have no direct impact on officer attitudes toward change.

Discussion of Model

According to the first multiple regression with demographics, the OAM explains 44.5% of the variance in officer attitudes toward organizational change. One out of the

six main factors, commitment to organization, and five demographic factors were found to be non-significant predictors of officer attitudes.

In terms of commitment variable, in the OAM, four variables among the six main factors directly focus on organizational change and the survey items were designed accordingly. Receptivity of change, readiness for change, communication of organizational change, and training for organizational change all target change. However, rather than change per se, the organization was consciously selected as the target for the commitment variable in this study. There were two reasons for this decision. First, commitment to organization was referred to in many studies in organizational change literature as a significant factor related to negative attitudes – cynicism and stress– about organizational change (Becker et al., 1996; Codery et al., 1993; Guest, 1987; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). Second, this study aimed to understand officer attitudes toward organizational change in general terms; no specific change program was included. It is proper to use commitment to change variable when the change is specific and its strategies are known. For instance, to measure officer commitment to community policing its strategies such as decentralization, civilization, and empowerment can be utilized. Therefore, commitment to organization variable was preferred in the OAM.

The items for this scale measured organizational commitment with the assumption that officers with high organizational commitment levels would have positive attitudes toward change. The findings of this study showed that liking the organization, accepting its values, and desiring to remain within the organization do not necessarily affect the officer attitudes toward change. It is possible that an officer who is highly

committed to the organization may have a negative attitude for organizational change when he/she thinks that such a change program is not necessary or will not yield positive outcomes for the organization.

Conner (1992) defines commitment to change as “the glue that provides the vital bond between people and change goals” (p. 147), and Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) categorized it as follows: “(a) a desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits (affective commitment to change), (b) a recognition that there are costs associated with failure to provide support for the change (continuance commitment to change), and (c) a sense of obligation to provide support for the change (normative commitment to change). That is, employees can feel bound to support a change because they want to, have to, and/or ought to” (pg. 475).

In their study, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) hypothesized that both commitment to change and organizational commitment would be related to change-relevant behavior, but commitment to change would account for a greater percentage of the variance in behavioral support for a change than would organizational commitment. Their study supported this hypothesis. Both variables contributed to prediction but commitment to change contributed more unique variance to the prediction of behavioral support for the change than did commitment to the organization. Furthermore, they found that normative commitment to change contributed uniquely to the prediction of change-relevant behavior.

Since commitment to organization in OAM failed to predict officer attitudes it is suggested that commitment to change be used in the model to explain officer attitudes toward a specific change program. On the other hand, significance of normative

commitment to change in Herscovitch and Meyer's study reflect the subjective norms from Azjen's TPB which affect human behaviors. Ajzen (1991) defined subjective norms as "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (pg. 188).

The model tested in this study was designed to understand officer attitudes toward change. As explained in previous chapters, understanding officer behaviors toward change is out of this study's scope. However, it should be noted here that some features of police organizations may have a direct impact on officer behaviors. Police culture, organizational norms, discipline regulations, obligation to comply with orders, and peer pressure may all influence officer behaviors toward change. Some survey items were used in this study to understand the officer perceptions about the support given by the senior managers, superiors, and peers for the organizational change efforts. However, these items were used just to measure officer readiness for change and not directed to figure out the effects of social pressure over officer attitudes. Therefore, any attempt to extend the OAM to understand officer behaviors should include normative beliefs and subjective norms explained by Azjen in TPB. On the other hand, whether such social pressure in police organizations also influences officer attitudes toward change warrants further empirical study.

Overall, both multiple regressions proved that the OAM significantly predicts officer attitudes toward organizational change. In the model, demographic variables were purposely placed as background factors and not as main factors. This implies that demographics directly influence six main factors and may have indirect influence on officer attitudes through these six main factors. The multiple regression with demographics showed that demographic variables are not significant predictors of

officer attitudes. Moreover, analysis (t-test, bivariate correlation, and one-way ANOVA) found significant relationships between background factors (gender, rank, education level, and work experience) and four main factors (receptivity to change, commitment to organization, trust, and communication). Thus, the OAM was supported by the existing data to a great extent.

Importance of Officer Attitudes

Officer attitudes are vital because they are the main predictors of officer behaviors. Negative officer attitudes toward change and their sources shed light on the antecedents of resistance phenomenon. Attitudes are important because they offer clues helpful to manage change programs and overcome resistance. Literature refers to resistance intensely and many theories, models, and approaches explain how to deal with resistance. Understanding how the resistance phenomenon is being conceived by the management is necessary as the strategies to overcome resistance vary accordingly.

It is not the change per se that people resist but the manner in which they are treated in the change process and the probable negative outcomes of change such as loss of status, loss of pay, or loss of comfort. It is better to see change-resistance phenomena from Lewin's perspective. The status quo represents an equilibrium between the barriers to change and the forces favoring change. Most people prefer routine to change because it gives them a feeling of control. To begin a change, in other words, to achieve Lewin's first step 'unfreezing,' the barriers are to be weakened and the driving forces strengthened. Like in any action-reaction force pair, when the balance

is disturbed, the feeling of control is threatened and people tend to restore the balance, to defend the status quo.

Even though it is commonly acknowledged that people resist any major change, there are different approaches about whether resistance is harmful or useful for the organization or when it can be useful. One approach considers resistance as wholly negative and detrimental to organizational goals.

According to the other approach, resistance to change is not always inappropriate, rather it is quite a normal reaction and Harvey (1999) indicates that "Great change agents celebrate resistance" (pg. 28). In certain instances, negative officer attitudes and resistance can play a positive and useful role in organizational change. An officer who questions the need for change does not necessarily have an attitude problem. Well-intended criticism may be intended to produce better understanding as well as additional options and solutions. Resistance may help management to reconsider a proposed change program; and sometimes it may serve as a filter helping the selection of the most appropriate change among the options.

On the other hand, these negative attitudes and resistance may only be beneficial during the 'unfreezing' step of change when strategic decisions are about to be made. Resistance during institutionalization of change, in 'refreezing' step, could be very subversive.

In any case, negative attitudes and resistance to change are to be handled prior to or during the implementation of change programs. As explained in the literature part, attitudes can be altered by new events or new information (Ajzen, 1991; Fazio, 1990; Katz, 1960).

Implications

Five variables that were found to be significant predictors in this study – receptivity to change, readiness for change, trust in management, communication of change, and training for change– can be either facilitators or barriers for the implementation of organizational changes depending on their directions (low or high level). With regard to the equation form of the model, officers that scored low levels in these significant factors will have negative attitudes toward organizational change. Since attitudes are accepted as the main predictors of human behavior, negative attitudes are *likely* to result in resistance to organizational change, which may be very detrimental for organizations.

On the other hand, it has to be noted that human behaviors are extremely complex; no formula or equation can assure how an officer will behave. In other words, negative attitudes do not necessarily mean that an officer with negative attitudes will resist the change or vice versa. Furthermore, there are types of resistance –aggressive, active, or passive (Coetsee, 1999; Hultman, 1995). How an officer will resist or whether the resistance will go underground (Harvey, 1999) might depend on the officer’s personality or on the background factors explained in the OAM. Many factors, such as police culture, social pressure, organizational rules and regulations, may also interfere with the course of behavior formation. In addition, as long as an officer does not believe that organizational change programs would produce serious negative consequences for

himself or the organization, he may still behave in compliance with the requirements of the change program.

In order to prevent or mitigate negative attitudes, this study will not propose any new strategies that have not already been postulated and practiced. The findings clearly direct the researcher to the classic solutions, good communication and training.

First of all, it is necessary for all decision makers and the Departments of TNP to take the organization members into consideration while analyzing the organizational needs and planning change programs. Directly or indirectly, every change initiative influences most or a group of organization members. It is good for the management to make the changes with good timing –when the overall morale of staff is good and adequate sources are available– and at the same time, to look after the officers’ interests in each change program. Police work under risky and difficult conditions for long hours and have some unsolved problems about their personnel rights. Therefore, trying to reduce burdens on officers in terms of energy and time and to increase payoffs in each change program would send a positive message to the organization members.

Secondly, the management needs to evaluate the sources of possible resistance prior to change implementation. In terms of resistance, Harvey (1995) says that “A change without resistance is no change at all –it is an illusion of change” (pg. 18). He further explains four reasons for the lack of resistance to change.

- Nothing changes in fact.
- Organization members do not care about the organization.
- Organization members think in the same way, no different approaches or ideas – which is bad in the long run.

- Resistance has gone underground and nobody speaks aloud.

Taking into consideration that every change contains negative elements and for every change someone loses something (e.g. power, time), officers may resist change for good and logical reasons. It is management's responsibility to find out and handle those reasons. Furthermore, coercive methods to overcome resistance are to be avoided as it is quite likely that resistance only goes underground and does not dissolve. Since people seem to have a deep capacity to wait to get even, resistance repressed by coercive methods or social pressure may reappear some other time in a different shape.

Good communication is the primary condition for change and is commonly considered a change management strategy to reduce the negative attitudes toward the change and resistance. Communication may be intended to provide information to officers attempting to persuade them to support the change. By using the communication channels, management needs to keep officers systematically informed of change programs with timely, appropriate, and credible information.

Since the decision-making powers in TNP are mostly gathered at the top management in Headquarters, officers working in local police departments strongly believe that only those officers working at Headquarters, the fountainhead, know what is going on in the organization. They feel uninformed of any organization-wide decisions, concerns, problems, or goals. In a situation of infrequent or inadequate communication, officers will seek other means for reducing uncertainty, such as reliance on rumors and other informal communications. Therefore, as clarified by Armenakis and Harris (2002)

the management needs to communicate a change message (Table 2) to the organization members which provides answers to the following questions:

- Why is change needed? (discrepancy);
- Can the organization and its members do this? Will this work? (self-efficiency)
- Why this particular change? (appropriateness)
- Do organizational leaders believe and support this change? (principal support)
- What is in the change for the organization members? (personal valence)

People want to be valued and kept informed. Explaining how change will affect organization members, what is in the change program for officers and how the burdens were eliminated sends a positive message that officers are valuable for the organization.

The strength of an organization is related to its ability to accept failures and errors. Some level of risks are taken by the management during change times but what is important is that past failures should not to be disregarded; rather, lessons are to be taken from them. By evaluating the implementation of change programs periodically, each small success needs to be publicized and mistakes and failures acknowledged.

Management can communicate the change message through various channels. Detailed information about the change programs can be disseminated as an official correspondence (circular letter); booklets for the change programs can be distributed; weekly press statements by the official spokesman can explain change programs; and official web-sites of TNP or local police departments can post change related information and provide all necessary updates and guidelines about the change programs. These web-sites can also be used to ensure two-way communication in the

organization by encouraging the staff to send their ideas and suggestions about the change initiatives.

The discussed components of change messages and management's honest and frank stand eliminate uncertainty within the organization and are directly related with the officers' levels of receptivity to change, readiness for change, and trust in management, and their perceptions for communication of change. When communicated adequately, such an inclusive change message is expected to increase officer's receptivity and readiness for change, inflate their trust in management, and eliminate negative perceptions about communication problems. Thus, negative officer attitudes can be mitigated to a great extent and the barriers to the success of organizational change can be avoided.

In addition to communication, training for organizational change is another way to mitigate negative officer attitudes. The training provided before and during the change transmits the logic of the change, explains the change strategies and how things are expected to be done, and prevents uncertainty and groundless rumors in the organization. In this study, only 30% of the respondents consider themselves adequately trained about the change programs. Indeed, training in big organizations may necessitate good planning. Even though central management can not provide adequate training for all organization members, local police departments can organize more in-service trainings and different training activities for organizational change programs. New methods, such as online training or posting detailed information on change programs to a particular section of TNP's website, can be explored to provide better and updated information to the organization members.

In order to identify the demographic groups that should be given priority –if there is a need– for the strategies to prevent negative attitudes toward change, Fazio’s MODE model can be used. According to Fazio (1990), as explained in Chapter 2, whether or not a deliberate attitude-behavior process happens depends on the strength of the attitudes. The stronger the attitude, the more likely it will be automatically activated; and hence, attitude-consistent behavior will result. Fazio (1990) further explains that strong attitudes are more likely to resist change than weak attitudes when exposed to new information.

It is found that among survey respondents with weak negative attitudes, there is a slight difference in percentages across the gender (male-33.5% and female-35.6%). For officer age groups, 26.7% of respondents between 21-30 ages have weak negative attitudes. This percentage is 35.7 for the 31-40 age group and 35.3 for 41 years old and above. It means that in any strategy (i.e. training, communication) aimed to change officer attitudes into the positive direction, the priority can be given to the officers who are 31 years old and older. In terms of other demographics, superintendents (41.2%) among the ranks, officers with Ph.D. degree (57.1%) among the education level, and officers with 21 years and more work experience (41.3%) can be targeted for such strategies as these groups have the highest percentage for weak negative attitudes toward change (See Appendix 12–Cross Tabulation of att_MODE Scale).

In conclusion, communication methods and training programs are not magic bullets to spread organizational change rapidly through the organization and prevent resistance. As seen in Harvey’s (1995) change checklist (Appendix 13) great attention should be given to each step in the change process.

Recommendations for Future Study

This study has identified a number of areas where future research would be valuable. In particular, there are a number of ways to improve and extend the current model.

First of all, the findings of this research provide considerable support for the application of the Officer Attitude Model to the domain of organizational change. The non-random sampling method applied in this study, however, limits generalizability. The decision on the sampling method was a consequence of relevant TNP authorities' non-approval to provide information required for random sampling. Still this research is considered appropriate for a first attempt at testing the Officer Attitude Model. Generalization beyond the respondents of this study warrants further attempts to replicate the findings by using different samples.

Second, by identifying the statistically significant and non-significant predictors of officer attitudes, these results could guide the selection of independent variables. In the first place, the non-significant variable, commitment to organization, could be replaced with commitment to change variable when measuring attitudes toward a specific change program. Moreover, because a conscious decision was made to limit the number of predictor variables in the OAM so that this research would be manageable, some other factors can be added to the model. For instance, job satisfaction and work-related stress may influence officer attitudes as well. Job satisfaction may be a predictor of officer attitudes since officers happy with their job may better be able to weather periods of change and be more positive in their approach to the change programs. Likewise,

individual mental outlook may also be used as a background factor in the OAM. It is possible that officers with high self-esteem and self-confidence may be better equipped to deal with changes in organizational life. In a study to identify the predictors of individual openness to an organizational change, Wanberg and Banas (2000) used three individual difference variables –self esteem, optimism, and perceived control– which were believed to be core individual differences that facilitate coping and adjustment during stressful life events. Therefore, the development of the OAM seems to be a good idea to increase the predictor power of the OAM.

Third, there are some characteristics of the present sample that warrant discussion. Policing is a male-dominated occupation, and the nature of police work is different in many respects from other occupations. Discipline and obedience to the rules is mandatory in policing and police culture may shape officer behavior to a great extent. Therefore, in addition to the officer attitudes studied in the frame of the OAM in this research, including the subjective norms (social pressure) described in Ajzen's TPB might help us better understand officer attitudes and behaviors toward organizational change. Moreover, the question whether some particular groups or units within the TNP, such as undercover police or others outside the police norm, fit the OAM in the same way merits further research.

Fourth, the researcher chose to measure officer attitudes with self-report ratings as it is believed that aspects of attitudes might not be easily observed or reported by individuals other than the officers themselves. Besides, the responses were made anonymously and it was presumed that participants might be more likely to provide honest assessments of their own attitudes. Bearing in mind some problems associated

with the use of self-report data, such as socially desirable response bias, the possibilities of other data resources should be evaluated and if possible, future research in this area should be conducted with multi-source data.

Lastly, human attitudes and behaviors are complex issues to understand. Besides, organizational change is also a very complex and dynamic process. Change programs may be subject to change when new organizational needs are explored or when change is resisted. Moreover, officer attitudes and behaviors toward change may also change over time. It can be assumed that the level of officer resistance will be lowest while a change program is being developed. However, resistance is likely to increase once the details of the change program become clear and during the implementation phase. Still, officers with negative attitudes may reluctantly cooperate with the change program but are unlikely to become fully committed to the change. Since officer attitudes toward a general change idea were examined and no specific change program was subjected in this study, the researcher preferred collecting the data at one point in time (cross-sectional data). However, it seems very difficult to measure such dynamics by a cross-sectional study. Therefore, officer attitudes and behaviors toward a specific change program are to be evaluated over some periods of time by longitudinal studies.

For instance, an officer attitude survey can be administered prior to a specific change program. Such a survey identifies trends in officer perceptions and attitudes toward change. According to the findings, management may anticipate potential problems and determine necessary strategies to increase the positive attitudes and reduce negatives. The same attitude survey can be used one more time during the change

program and the comparison of both survey findings may provide valuable information for the change agents. Thus, such a longitudinal method helps researcher control the dynamic nature of officer attitudes as well as the change process to some degree.

Conclusion

This study not only emphasizes the importance of officers in the change process but also identifies their attitudes towards organizational change and factors affecting those attitudes. Its significance stems from the fact that this is the study which addressed the officer attitude topic for the first time in TNP at a time of constant organizational change.

This research contributes to the literature in many ways. First, the model created and tested in this study, Officer Attitude Model, was supported to a great extent by the research findings. The OAM (without demographics) explains 43.7% of variance in officer attitudes. This model was inspired by Ajzen's Planned Behavior Theory and the variables were derived from the organizational change literature. Thereby, the TPB was partially implemented in a different culture and geography, and the results fully support Azjen's TPB.

A second contribution of this study comes from the fact that the predictor variables found here may cause officer resistance to change and the findings, thereby, are quite helpful to manage change programs. Also the developed model can be extremely useful for change agents and other researchers in TNP in identifying the variables and how they are operationalized and measured.

Moreover, this study is prepared in a simplistic method so that the readers can easily understand officer attitudes toward organizational change and how they can be affected. It provides the basics of organizational change phenomena, emphasizes the importance of the human factor in the change process, and visualizes the attitudes and predictor factors in the OAM.

More importantly, by strongly emphasizing the importance of officers in a change process, this study reminds the management to take into consideration the human factor in the planning of organizational changes. Without the acceptance and support of the officers, it is not possible to implement any change programs successfully.

This study provides a first step to understand the importance of officer attitudes in the change process and the significant factors affecting those attitudes. Since organizational change is inevitable for TNP and it is more difficult to implement change programs in police organizations, further research on officer attitudes toward change has much to offer the field of organizational change. If we want truly to change our organization for the better, we must first try to understand it.

“If you want truly to understand something, try to change it.”

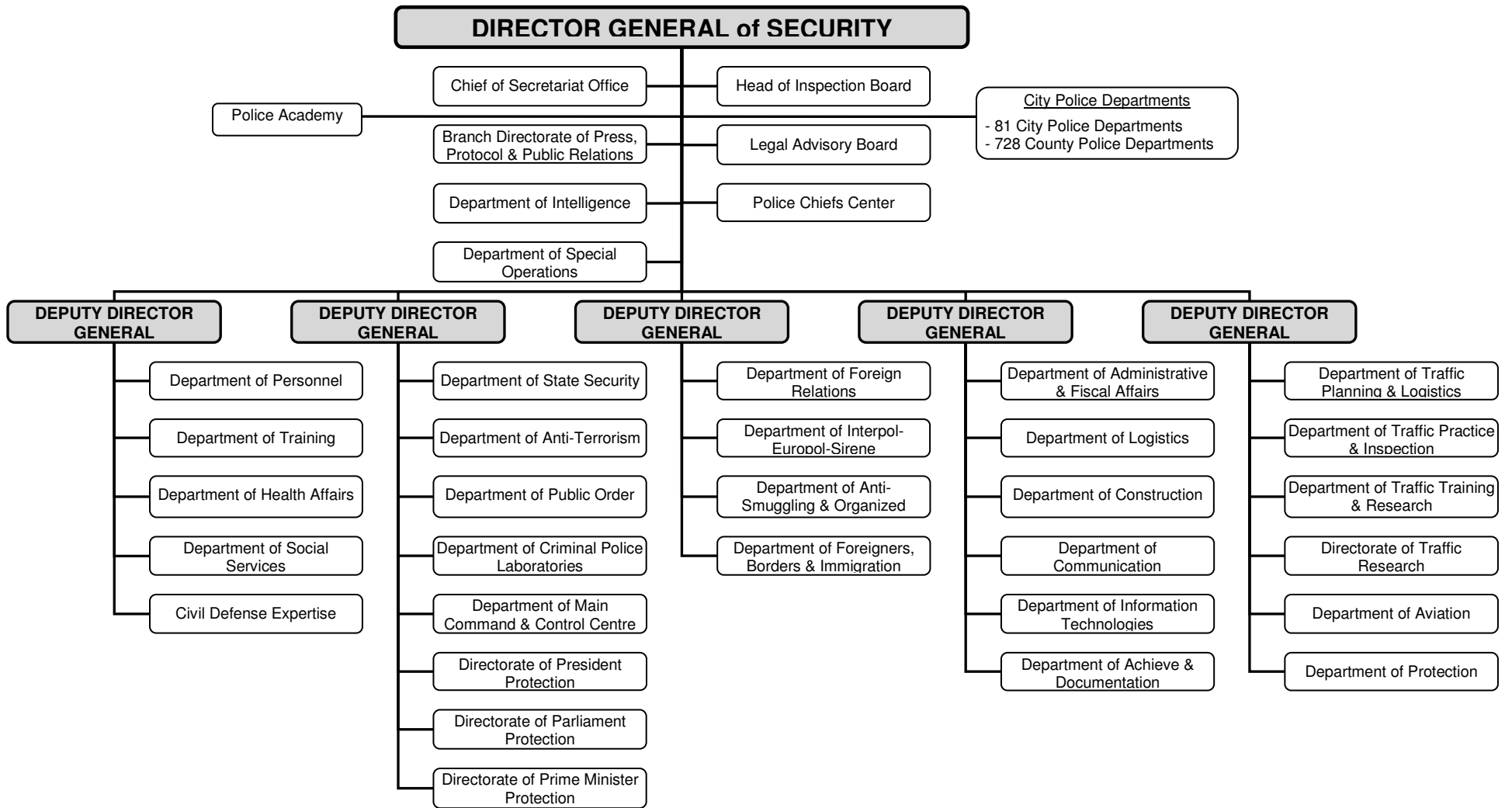
Kurt Lewin⁶

⁶ As quoted in Kelly, B. (2003, pg. 39)

APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE











(Adapted from www.osce.org and www.egm.gov.tr)



APPENDIX B

RANKS, TITLES, AND TASKS IN TNP

(Adapted from Sever, 2005)

| Ranks | Titles | Tasks |
|---|--|--|
|  | The Chief of General Directorate of Security | He is the Chief of the Central Police at the headquarters located in the capital. |
|  | Chief Superintendent First Class | The Police Chief of the large cities and head of regions and divisions. Internal Affairs investigators, legal counselors. |
|  | Chief Superintendent Second Class | Assistant Chief of Police in large cities and head of the few small towns or divisions. |
|  | Chief Superintendent Third Class | Directors of small cities and Police Chief of mid-size cities. |
|  | Chief Superintendent Fourth class | Assistant Chief of mid-size cities and police chief of small towns. |
|  | Superintendent | Assistant Police Chief in small town police department bureaus and Chiefs of Bureau in big Divisions; Acting Chief Police in a big division of department |
|  | Captain | Regional Commanders and Assistant of Central police in large cities. |
|  | Lieutenant | First Line Commanders in Police Stations; Second line commanders and supervisors in Departments |
|  | Sergeant | Group leaders in police stations; the Squad Commanders in metropolitan stations |
|  | Police Officer Constable | Police officers graduate from Police Training Schools. They may get higher ranks by the time in service, achievements on the job and success in the tests. They are the backbone of the force. |

APPENDIX C

TNP APPROVAL FOR THE SURVEY

T.C.
İÇİŞLERİ BAKANLIĞI
Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü



Sayı : B.05.1.EGM.0.72.02.03/423

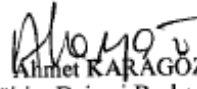
...../03/2007

Konu : Araştırma Tezi

GENEL MÜDÜRLÜK MAKAMINA

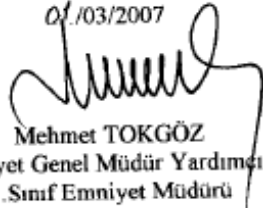
Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik hükümleri çerçevesinde ABD'ye yurtdışı eğitime gönderilen 182684 sicil sayılı Emniyet Amiri Hüseyin DURMAZ'ın teşkilatımız personeline yönelik olarak "Türk Polis Teşkilatı Mensuplarının Örgütsel Değişim Olgusuna Karşı Tutumları" konusunda anket uygulama talebinde bulunduğu Dışilişkiler Dairesi Başkanlığının 23.01.2007 gün ve 289 sayılı yazısı ile bildirilmiştir

Adı geçen personelin İstanbul, İzmir, Bursa, Samsun, Adana, Kahramanmaraş ve Van Emniyet Müdürlüklerinde görevli personele yönelik anket çalışması yapabilmesi hususunu onaylarınıza arz ederim


Ahmet KARAGÖZ
Eğitim Dairesi Başkan V.
Eğitim Daire Başkan Yardımcısı
2. Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

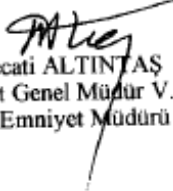
Uygun Görüşle Arz Ederim.

01./03/2007


Mehmet TOKGÖZ
Emniyet Genel Müdür Yardımcısı
1. Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

O L U R

05./03/2007


Dr. Necati ALTINTAŞ
Emniyet Genel Müdür V.
1. Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

APPENDIX D

COPY OF IRB LETTER

April 18, 2007

Huseyin Durmaz
School of Information and Library Science
University of North Texas

RE: Human Subjects Application No. 07-138

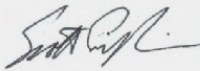
Dear Mr. Durmaz:

In accordance with 45 CFR Part 46 Section 46.101, your study titled "Officer Attitudes toward Organizational Change in Turkish National Police" has been determined to qualify for an exemption from further review by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Enclosed is the consent document with stamped IRB approval. Please copy and **use this form only** for your subjects.

No changes may be made to your study's procedures or forms without prior written approval from the UNT IRB. Please contact Shelia Bourns, Research Compliance Administrator, ext. 3940, if you wish to make any such changes.

Sincerely,



Scott Simpkins, Ph.D.
Chair
Institutional Review Board

SS:sb

Informed Consent Notice (Paper based)

My name is Huseyin Durmaz and I am a Ph.D. student in the Information Science Department at the University of North Texas. I am conducting a study about "*Officer Attitudes toward Organizational Change in Turkish National Police.*" The purpose of this study is to understand officer attitudes toward organizational change and to identify factors affecting these attitudes. Thus reasons behind the acceptance or resistance to change programs will be better understood and necessary precautions can be taken for the success of organizational change programs prior to their implementations.

There are 37 survey items and all participants are expected to circle the response that best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete this survey. Your responses are extremely valuable contributions to this dissertation study and your effort and time spent are sincerely appreciated.

This study is not expected to be of any direct benefit to you. However, it will be the first one in Turkish National Police on organizational change and officer attitudes. It is very timely due to the ongoing or planned organizational change programs in TNP. Therefore, it will be of great help to the management/change agents to understand TNP members' attitudes toward organizational change. These agents will be able to better understand factors affecting officer attitudes and thus find solutions to the possible problems, such as officer resistance to change, before implementing change programs.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to skip any question you choose not to answer. There are no foreseeable risks involved in this study; however, if you decide to withdraw your participation you may do so at any time.

There are no survey items designed to collect your identifiable personal information. Your name, badge number or your unit's name will not be requested so your responses will be anonymous. Moreover, all data will be reported on a group basis.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact Huseyin Durmaz at telephone number 1-940-3826418 or Brian O'Connor-Ph.D. UNT-School of Library and Information Sciences (SLIS), at telephone number 1-940-5652445.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the UNT Institutional Review Board which can be contacted at 1-940-5653940 with any questions regarding your rights as a research subject.

If you agree to participate, you may keep this document for your records.

By responding to the survey items, you are confirming that you understand the purpose of this study and you are giving your informed consent to participate in this study.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Huseyin Durmaz
Ph.D. Candidate
University of North Texas

APPROVED BY THE UNT IRB
FROM 4/18/07 TO 4/17/08
JB

Informed Consent Notice for Online Survey

My name is Huseyin Durmaz and I am a Ph.D. student in the Information Science Department at the University of North Texas. I am conducting a study about "Officer Attitudes toward Organizational Change in Turkish National Police." The purpose of this study is to understand officer attitudes toward organizational change and to identify factors affecting these attitudes. Thus reasons behind the acceptance or resistance to change programs will be better understood and necessary precautions can be taken for the success of organizational change programs prior to their implementations.

There are 37 survey items and all participants are expected to circle the response that best describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. It will take approximately 15 minutes to complete this survey. Your responses are extremely valuable contributions to this dissertation study and your effort and time spent are sincerely appreciated.

This study is not expected to be of any direct benefit to you. However, it will be the first one in Turkish National Police on organizational change and officer attitudes. It is very timely due to the ongoing or planned organizational change programs in TNP. Therefore, it will be of great help to the management/change agents to understand TNP members' attitudes toward organizational change. These agents will be able to better understand factors affecting officer attitudes and thus find solutions to the possible problems, such as officer resistance to change, before implementing change programs.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to skip any question you choose not to answer. There are no foreseeable risks involved in this study; however, if you decide to withdraw your participation you may do so at any time by simply leaving the web site.

There are no survey items designed to collect your identifiable personal information. Your name, badge number or your unit's name will not be requested so your responses will be anonymous. Moreover, all data will be reported on a group basis.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact Huseyin Durmaz at telephone number 1-940-3826418 or Brian O'Connor-Ph.D. UNT-School of Library and Information Sciences (SLIS), at telephone number 1-940-5652445.

This research project has been reviewed and approved by the UNT Institutional Review Board which can be contacted at 1-940-5653940 with any questions regarding your rights as a research subject.

If you agree to participate, you may keep this document for your records.

By clicking the below link, you are confirming that you understand the purpose of this study and you are giving your informed consent to participate in this study.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Huseyin Durmaz
Ph.D. Candidate
University of North Texas

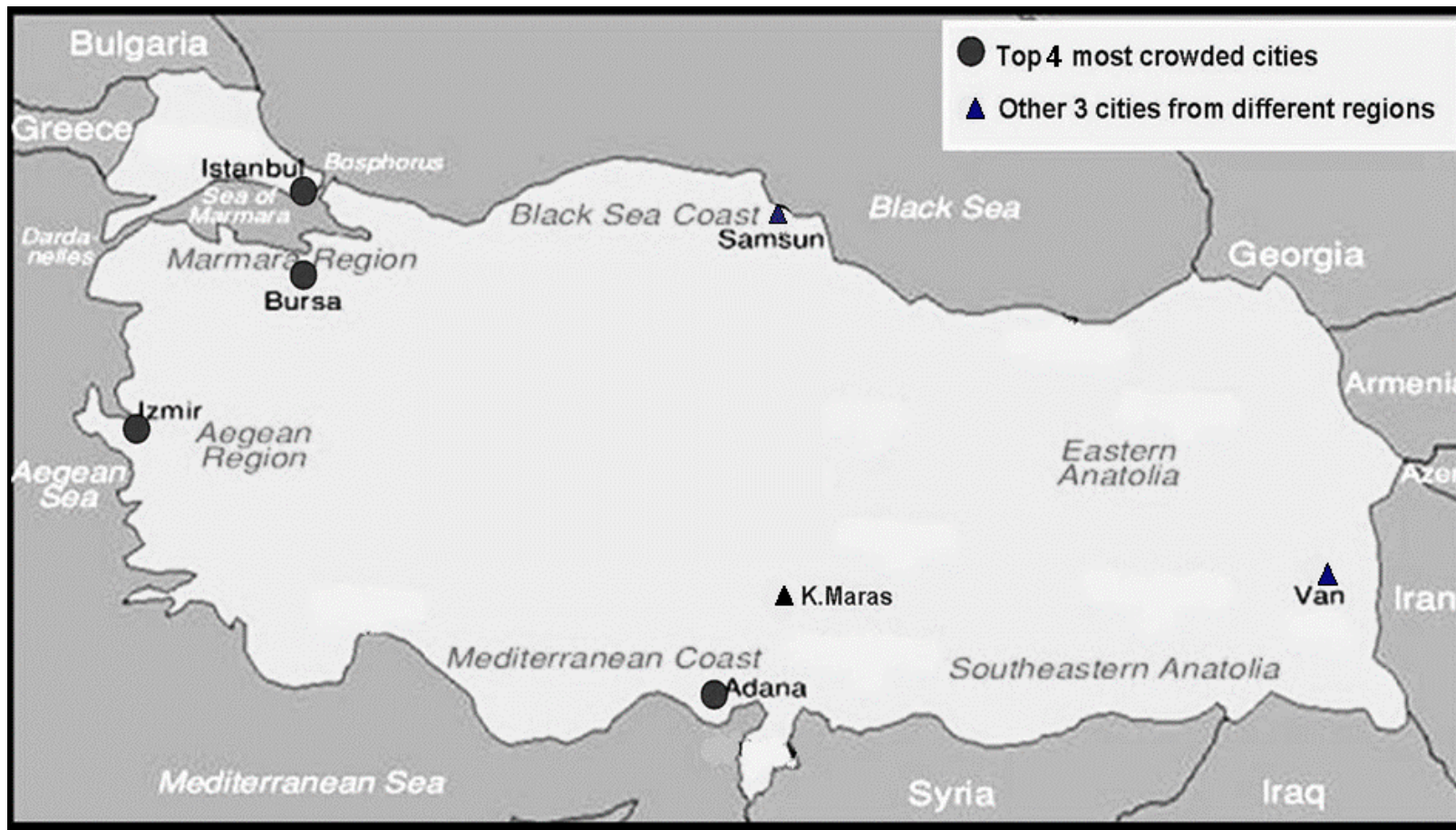
APPROVED BY THE UNT IRB
FROM 4/18/07 TO 4/17/08
JB

[Click here to enter study](#)

APPENDIX E

MAP OF TURKEY

(Cities selected for survey)



APPENDIX F

SURVEY

**Officer Attitudes toward Organizational Change
in Turkish National Police**

OFFICER ATTITUDE SURVEY

The purpose of this study is to understand the officer attitudes toward organizational change phenomenon in Turkish National Police and the factors affecting these attitudes. By organizational change, it is meant here the changes which concern all TNP members or –in provincial organization– which affects all Provincial Security Department staff rather than small scale, bureau or division based changes. No specific change program is subject to this survey. Therefore, respondents are expected to consider organizational change in **general** terms and to answer the following survey items out of their thoughts, perceptions, and experiences about the previous or ongoing organizational change programs.

‘Competent authorities’ mentioned in survey items are high level executive management who are authorized to make decisions and determine policies that affects all organization members (or in provincial organization, which affects all Provincial Security Department staff).

Please do not write your name, badge number or the name of your department anywhere on the survey form. There are demographic questions at the end of the questionnaire, but they are for analysis only. Respondents or their departments will never be identified and all the responses will be anonymous and confidential. Moreover, the data collected will be used only for academic purposes. Please circle a number from the scale to show how much you agree with each statement.

Thank you very much for your participation.



Huseyin Durmaz
Ph.D. Candidate
University of North Texas

SECTION 1: Circle the response that **best** describes the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

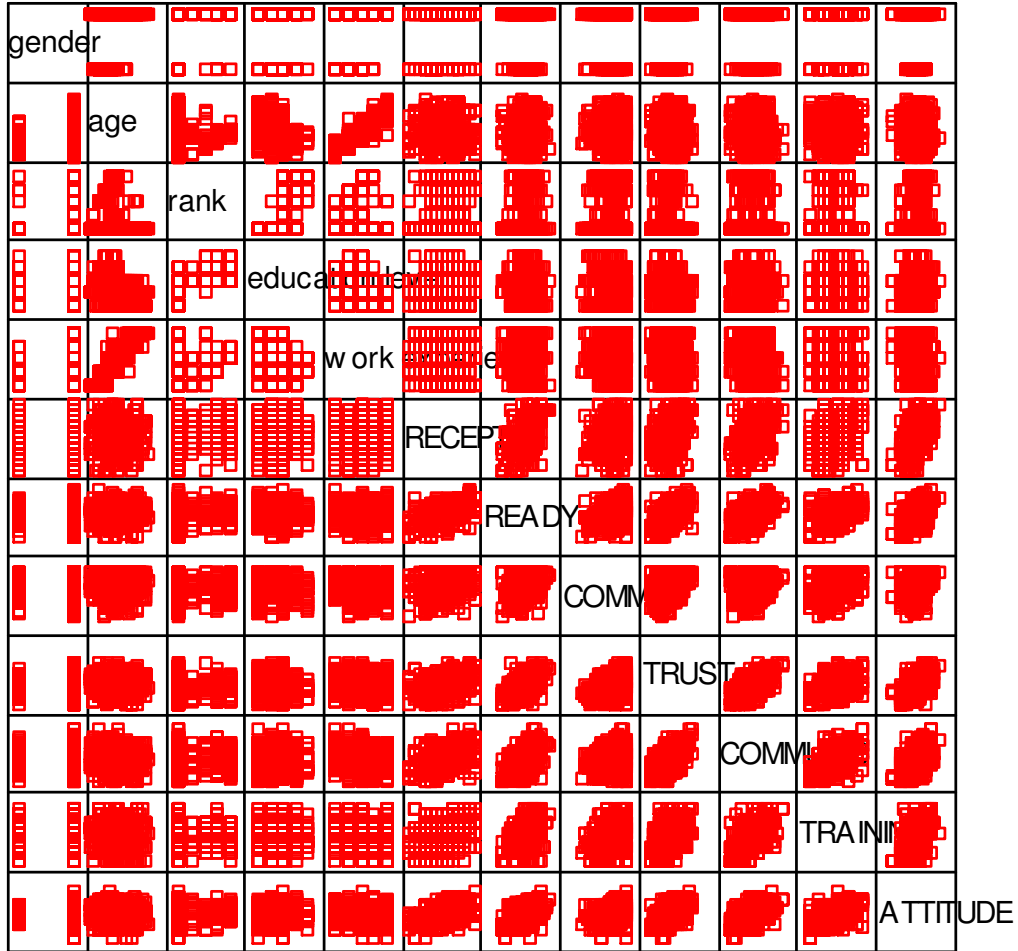
| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree | | | |
|------|-------------------|----------|----------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | | |
| | | | | <u>Strongly disagree</u> | <u>Disagree</u> | <u>Neither agree nor disagree</u> | <u>Agree</u> | <u>Strongly agree</u> |
| 1 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 2 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 3 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 4 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 5 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 6 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 7 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 8 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 9 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 10 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 11 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 12 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| 13 - | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | <u>Strongly disagree</u> | <u>Disagree</u> | <u>Neither agree nor disagree</u> | <u>Agree</u> | <u>Strongly agree</u> |
|---|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| 14 - My organization's successes are my successes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 - When someone praises my organization, it feels like a personal compliment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 - I am willing to follow competent authorities' lead even in risky situations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 - When it comes to making decisions that affect me, I have as much or more faith in competent authorities' judgment as I would in my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 - Even if a bad decision could have very negative consequences for me, I would trust competent authorities' judgment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 - In this organization, competent authorities convey the reasons for the changes in all aspects. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 - I am thoroughly satisfied with the information I receive about the changes in my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 - I believe that the information about the changes is swiftly and effectively transmitted to the personnel in my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 - I know how to access necessary information (i.e. competent department/staff, internal phone number or internet address) about the changes in my organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 - I believe that the information transmitted about the changes in this organization explains why change is needed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 - I believe that the information transmitted about the changes in this organization explains how that particular change would affect each staff. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 - TNP headquarters and/or local police departments organize in-service trainings or seminars or symposiums in order to train personnel about the changes in this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 - I consider myself adequately trained about the changes in this organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX G

SCATTER PLOT MATRIX

Scatter plot Matrix



APPENDIX H

INDEPENDENT T-TEST (Between *gender* and six main factors) AND
GROUP STATISTICS

Independent t-test between *gender* and six behavioral beliefs

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | Sig.(2- tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
|----------|--------------------------------|---|------|------------------------------------|--------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|--|-------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Receptiv | Equal variances assumed | .190 | .663 | -2.841 | 558 | | | | .005 | -1.04 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2.729 | 70.907 | .008 | -1.04 | .382 | -1.803 | -.281 |
| Ready | Equal variances assumed | .742 | .389 | -1.057 | 558 | .291 | -.63 | .592 | -1.787 | .537 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1.086 | 73.388 | .281 | -.63 | .576 | -1.774 | .523 |
| Commit | Equal variances assumed | .570 | .451 | -1.485 | 558 | .138 | -.76 | .514 | -1.774 | .246 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1.556 | 74.241 | .124 | -.76 | .491 | -1.742 | .214 |
| Trust | Equal variances assumed | .058 | .810 | -2.598 | 558 | .010 | -1.16 | .447 | -2.040 | -.283 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -2.738 | 74.495 | .008 | -1.16 | .424 | -2.007 | -.316 |
| Communic | Equal variances assumed | 2.421 | .120 | .118 | 558 | .906 | .06 | .548 | -1.012 | 1.142 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .128 | 75.765 | .899 | .06 | .506 | -.943 | 1.073 |
| Training | Equal variances assumed | .069 | .792 | -.107 | 558 | .915 | -.03 | .262 | -.543 | .487 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -.101 | 70.398 | .920 | -.03 | .277 | -.580 | .524 |

Group Statistics

| | GENDER | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|----------|--------|-----|-------|----------------|-----------------|
| Receptiv | female | 59 | 8.69 | 2.787 | .363 |
| | male | 501 | 9.74 | 2.649 | .118 |
| Ready | female | 59 | 22.68 | 4.171 | .543 |
| | male | 501 | 23.30 | 4.312 | .193 |
| Commit | female | 59 | 19.39 | 3.543 | .461 |
| | male | 501 | 20.15 | 3.759 | .168 |
| Trust | female | 59 | 10.76 | 3.059 | .398 |
| | male | 501 | 11.92 | 3.269 | .146 |
| Communic | female | 59 | 14.15 | 3.633 | .473 |
| | male | 501 | 14.09 | 4.022 | .180 |
| Training | female | 59 | 6.00 | 2.026 | .264 |
| | male | 501 | 6.03 | 1.889 | .084 |

APPENDIX I

BONFERRONI STATISTICS

(Between *rank* and *receptivity, trust, and communication*)

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: RECEPTIV

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) RANK | (J) RANK | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Police officer | Sergeant | -.90 | .747 | 1.000 | -3.01 | 1.20 |
| | Lieutenant | -.05 | .607 | 1.000 | -1.76 | 1.66 |
| | Captain | -1.20 | .411 | .036 | -2.36 | -.04 |
| | Superintendent | -1.11 | .393 | .051 | -2.21 | .00 |
| Sergeant | Police officer | .90 | .747 | 1.000 | -1.20 | 3.01 |
| | Lieutenant | .86 | .945 | 1.000 | -1.81 | 3.52 |
| | Captain | -.30 | .833 | 1.000 | -2.65 | 2.05 |
| | Superintendent | -.20 | .824 | 1.000 | -2.52 | 2.12 |
| Lieutenant | Police officer | .05 | .607 | 1.000 | -1.66 | 1.76 |
| | Sergeant | -.86 | .945 | 1.000 | -3.52 | 1.81 |
| | Captain | -1.16 | .710 | 1.000 | -3.16 | .84 |
| | Superintendent | -1.06 | .700 | 1.000 | -3.03 | .91 |
| Captain | Police officer | 1.20 | .411 | .036 | .04 | 2.36 |
| | Sergeant | .30 | .833 | 1.000 | -2.05 | 2.65 |
| | Lieutenant | 1.16 | .710 | 1.000 | -.84 | 3.16 |
| | Superintendent | .10 | .539 | 1.000 | -1.42 | 1.62 |
| Superintendent | Police officer | 1.11 | .393 | .051 | .00 | 2.21 |
| | Sergeant | .20 | .824 | 1.000 | -2.12 | 2.52 |
| | Lieutenant | 1.06 | .700 | 1.000 | -.91 | 3.03 |
| | Captain | -.10 | .539 | 1.000 | -1.62 | 1.42 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: TRUST

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) RANK | (J) RANK | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Police officer | Sergeant | 2.51 | .897 | .053 | -.02 | 5.04 |
| | Lieutenant | .95 | .729 | 1.000 | -1.10 | 3.01 |
| | Captain | 1.70 | .494 | .006 | .31 | 3.10 |
| | Superintendent | 1.85 | .472 | .001 | .52 | 3.18 |
| Sergeant | Police officer | -2.51 | .897 | .053 | -5.04 | .02 |
| | Lieutenant | -1.56 | 1.136 | 1.000 | -4.76 | 1.64 |
| | Captain | -.81 | 1.001 | 1.000 | -3.63 | 2.01 |
| | Superintendent | -.66 | .990 | 1.000 | -3.45 | 2.13 |
| Lieutenant | Police officer | -.95 | .729 | 1.000 | -3.01 | 1.10 |
| | Sergeant | 1.56 | 1.136 | 1.000 | -1.64 | 4.76 |
| | Captain | .75 | .854 | 1.000 | -1.66 | 3.16 |
| | Superintendent | .90 | .841 | 1.000 | -1.47 | 3.27 |
| Captain | Police officer | -1.70 | .494 | .006 | -3.10 | -.31 |
| | Sergeant | .81 | 1.001 | 1.000 | -2.01 | 3.63 |
| | Lieutenant | -.75 | .854 | 1.000 | -3.16 | 1.66 |
| | Superintendent | .15 | .648 | 1.000 | -1.68 | 1.97 |
| Superintendent | Police officer | -1.85 | .472 | .001 | -3.18 | -.52 |
| | Sergeant | .66 | .990 | 1.000 | -2.13 | 3.45 |
| | Lieutenant | -.90 | .841 | 1.000 | -3.27 | 1.47 |
| | Captain | -.15 | .648 | 1.000 | -1.97 | 1.68 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: COMMUNIC

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) RANK | (J) RANK | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Police officer | Sergeant | 1.61 | 1.111 | 1.000 | -1.52 | 4.74 |
| | Lieutenant | .08 | .903 | 1.000 | -2.46 | 2.63 |
| | Captain | .88 | .612 | 1.000 | -.84 | 2.61 |
| | Superintendent | 1.91 | .584 | .011 | .26 | 3.56 |
| Sergeant | Police officer | -1.61 | 1.111 | 1.000 | -4.74 | 1.52 |
| | Lieutenant | -1.53 | 1.406 | 1.000 | -5.49 | 2.43 |
| | Captain | -.73 | 1.240 | 1.000 | -4.22 | 2.76 |
| | Superintendent | .30 | 1.226 | 1.000 | -3.16 | 3.75 |
| Lieutenant | Police officer | -.08 | .903 | 1.000 | -2.63 | 2.46 |
| | Sergeant | 1.53 | 1.406 | 1.000 | -2.43 | 5.49 |
| | Captain | .80 | 1.057 | 1.000 | -2.18 | 3.78 |
| | Superintendent | 1.83 | 1.041 | .795 | -1.11 | 4.76 |
| Captain | Police officer | -.88 | .612 | 1.000 | -2.61 | .84 |
| | Sergeant | .73 | 1.240 | 1.000 | -2.76 | 4.22 |
| | Lieutenant | -.80 | 1.057 | 1.000 | -3.78 | 2.18 |
| | Superintendent | 1.03 | .802 | 1.000 | -1.23 | 3.29 |
| Superintendent | Police officer | -1.91 | .584 | .011 | -3.56 | -.26 |
| | Sergeant | -.30 | 1.226 | 1.000 | -3.75 | 3.16 |
| | Lieutenant | -1.83 | 1.041 | .795 | -4.76 | 1.11 |
| | Captain | -1.03 | .802 | 1.000 | -3.29 | 1.23 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX J

BONFERRONI STATISTICS

(Between education level and commitment, trust, and communication)

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: COMMIT

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) EDUCLEV | (J) EDUCLEV | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 9-12 months police training | 2 years high education | -.91 | .445 | .403 | -2.17 | .34 |
| | University - BA | -.50 | .427 | 1.000 | -1.70 | .71 |
| | Master's - MA | .58 | .579 | 1.000 | -1.05 | 2.21 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 2.61 | 1.044 | .126 | -.33 | 5.56 |
| 2 years high education | 9-12 months police training | .91 | .445 | .403 | -.34 | 2.17 |
| | University - BA | .42 | .389 | 1.000 | -.68 | 1.51 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.49 | .551 | .069 | -.06 | 3.05 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 3.53 | 1.029 | .006 | .63 | 6.43 |
| University - BA | 9-12 months police training | .50 | .427 | 1.000 | -.71 | 1.70 |
| | 2 years high education | -.42 | .389 | 1.000 | -1.51 | .68 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.08 | .537 | .454 | -.44 | 2.59 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 3.11 | 1.021 | .024 | .23 | 5.99 |
| Master's - MA | 9-12 months police training | -.58 | .579 | 1.000 | -2.21 | 1.05 |
| | 2 years high education | -1.49 | .551 | .069 | -3.05 | .06 |
| | University - BA | -1.08 | .537 | .454 | -2.59 | .44 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 2.03 | 1.093 | .633 | -1.05 | 5.12 |
| Doctorate - PhD | 9-12 months police training | -2.61 | 1.044 | .126 | -5.56 | .33 |
| | 2 years high education | -3.53 | 1.029 | .006 | -6.43 | -.63 |
| | University - BA | -3.11 | 1.021 | .024 | -5.99 | -.23 |
| | Master's - MA | -2.03 | 1.093 | .633 | -5.12 | 1.05 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: TRUST

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) EDUCLEV | (J) EDUCLEV | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 9-12 months police training | 2 years high education | -.49 | .386 | 1.000 | -1.57 | .60 |
| | University - BA | .28 | .371 | 1.000 | -.77 | 1.32 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.50 | .502 | .030 | .08 | 2.91 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 2.34 | .906 | .100 | -.21 | 4.89 |
| 2 years high education | 9-12 months police training | .49 | .386 | 1.000 | -.60 | 1.57 |
| | University - BA | .76 | .337 | .241 | -.19 | 1.71 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.99 | .478 | .000 | .64 | 3.33 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 2.83 | .893 | .016 | .31 | 5.34 |
| University - BA | 9-12 months police training | -.28 | .371 | 1.000 | -1.32 | .77 |
| | 2 years high education | -.76 | .337 | .241 | -1.71 | .19 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.22 | .466 | .089 | -.09 | 2.54 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 2.06 | .886 | .202 | -.43 | 4.56 |
| Master's - MA | 9-12 months police training | -1.50 | .502 | .030 | -2.91 | -.08 |
| | 2 years high education | -1.99 | .478 | .000 | -3.33 | -.64 |
| | University - BA | -1.22 | .466 | .089 | -2.54 | .09 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | .84 | .949 | 1.000 | -1.83 | 3.51 |
| Doctorate - PhD | 9-12 months police training | -2.34 | .906 | .100 | -4.89 | .21 |
| | 2 years high education | -2.83 | .893 | .016 | -5.34 | -.31 |
| | University - BA | -2.06 | .886 | .202 | -4.56 | .43 |
| | Master's - MA | -.84 | .949 | 1.000 | -3.51 | 1.83 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: COMMUNIC

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) EDUCLEV | (J) EDUCLEV | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 9-12 months police training | 2 years high education | -1.11 | .474 | .194 | -2.45 | .22 |
| | University - BA | -.26 | .455 | 1.000 | -1.54 | 1.02 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.01 | .617 | 1.000 | -.73 | 2.75 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 1.10 | 1.112 | 1.000 | -2.03 | 4.24 |
| 2 years high education | 9-12 months police training | 1.11 | .474 | .194 | -.22 | 2.45 |
| | University - BA | .85 | .414 | .401 | -.32 | 2.02 |
| | Master's - MA | 2.12 | .587 | .003 | .47 | 3.77 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 2.21 | 1.096 | .440 | -.88 | 5.30 |
| University - BA | 9-12 months police training | .26 | .455 | 1.000 | -1.02 | 1.54 |
| | 2 years high education | -.85 | .414 | .401 | -2.02 | .32 |
| | Master's - MA | 1.27 | .572 | .270 | -.34 | 2.88 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | 1.36 | 1.088 | 1.000 | -1.71 | 4.43 |
| Master's - MA | 9-12 months police training | -1.01 | .617 | 1.000 | -2.75 | .73 |
| | 2 years high education | -2.12 | .587 | .003 | -3.77 | -.47 |
| | University - BA | -1.27 | .572 | .270 | -2.88 | .34 |
| | Doctorate - PhD | .09 | 1.165 | 1.000 | -3.19 | 3.38 |
| Doctorate - PhD | 9-12 months police training | -1.10 | 1.112 | 1.000 | -4.24 | 2.03 |
| | 2 years high education | -2.21 | 1.096 | .440 | -5.30 | .88 |
| | University - BA | -1.36 | 1.088 | 1.000 | -4.43 | 1.71 |
| | Master's - MA | -.09 | 1.165 | 1.000 | -3.38 | 3.19 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX K

BONFERRONI STATISTICS

(Between *work experience* and *receptivity, commitment, and trust*)

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: RECEPTIV

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) WORKEXP | (J) WORKEXP | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 1-5 | 6-10 | .43 | .404 | 1.000 | -.71 | 1.57 |
| | 11-15 | -.04 | .377 | 1.000 | -1.11 | 1.02 |
| | 16-20 | 1.12 | .449 | .126 | -.14 | 2.39 |
| | 21-more | .63 | .444 | 1.000 | -.62 | 1.88 |
| 6-10 | 1-5 | -.43 | .404 | 1.000 | -1.57 | .71 |
| | 11-15 | -.48 | .297 | 1.000 | -1.31 | .36 |
| | 16-20 | .69 | .385 | .731 | -.39 | 1.77 |
| | 21-more | .19 | .378 | 1.000 | -.87 | 1.26 |
| 11-15 | 1-5 | .04 | .377 | 1.000 | -1.02 | 1.11 |
| | 6-10 | .48 | .297 | 1.000 | -.36 | 1.31 |
| | 16-20 | 1.17 | .356 | .011 | .16 | 2.17 |
| | 21-more | .67 | .349 | .556 | -.31 | 1.65 |
| 16-20 | 1-5 | -1.12 | .449 | .126 | -2.39 | .14 |
| | 6-10 | -.69 | .385 | .731 | -1.77 | .39 |
| | 11-15 | -1.17 | .356 | .011 | -2.17 | -.16 |
| | 21-more | -.50 | .426 | 1.000 | -1.70 | .70 |
| 21-more | 1-5 | -.63 | .444 | 1.000 | -1.88 | .62 |
| | 6-10 | -.19 | .378 | 1.000 | -1.26 | .87 |
| | 11-15 | -.67 | .349 | .556 | -1.65 | .31 |
| | 16-20 | .50 | .426 | 1.000 | -.70 | 1.70 |

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: COMMIT

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) WORKEXP | (J) WORKEXP | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 1-5 | 6-10 | .82 | .566 | 1.000 | -.78 | 2.41 |
| | 11-15 | .79 | .528 | 1.000 | -.70 | 2.28 |
| | 16-20 | 1.67 | .629 | .082 | -.10 | 3.44 |
| | 21-more | .11 | .622 | 1.000 | -1.64 | 1.86 |
| 6-10 | 1-5 | -.82 | .566 | 1.000 | -2.41 | .78 |
| | 11-15 | -.03 | .416 | 1.000 | -1.20 | 1.15 |
| | 16-20 | .85 | .538 | 1.000 | -.66 | 2.37 |
| | 21-more | -.70 | .530 | 1.000 | -2.20 | .79 |
| 11-15 | 1-5 | -.79 | .528 | 1.000 | -2.28 | .70 |
| | 6-10 | .03 | .416 | 1.000 | -1.15 | 1.20 |
| | 16-20 | .88 | .498 | .786 | -.53 | 2.28 |
| | 21-more | -.68 | .489 | 1.000 | -2.06 | .70 |
| 16-20 | 1-5 | -1.67 | .629 | .082 | -3.44 | .10 |
| | 6-10 | -.85 | .538 | 1.000 | -2.37 | .66 |
| | 11-15 | -.88 | .498 | .786 | -2.28 | .53 |
| | 21-more | -1.56 | .596 | .093 | -3.24 | .12 |
| 21-more | 1-5 | -.11 | .622 | 1.000 | -1.86 | 1.64 |
| | 6-10 | .70 | .530 | 1.000 | -.79 | 2.20 |
| | 11-15 | .68 | .489 | 1.000 | -.70 | 2.06 |
| | 16-20 | 1.56 | .596 | .093 | -.12 | 3.24 |

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: TRUST

Bonferroni

| | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------------|
| (I) WORKEXP | (J) WORKEXP | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| 1-5 | 6-10 | 1.16 | .493 | .193 | -.23 | 2.55 |
| | 11-15 | 1.22 | .460 | .084 | -.08 | 2.51 |
| | 16-20 | 1.43 | .548 | .094 | -.12 | 2.97 |
| | 21-more | .36 | .541 | 1.000 | -1.17 | 1.88 |
| 6-10 | 1-5 | -1.16 | .493 | .193 | -2.55 | .23 |
| | 11-15 | .06 | .363 | 1.000 | -.96 | 1.08 |
| | 16-20 | .27 | .469 | 1.000 | -1.05 | 1.59 |
| | 21-more | -.80 | .461 | .834 | -2.10 | .50 |
| 11-15 | 1-5 | -1.22 | .460 | .084 | -2.51 | .08 |
| | 6-10 | -.06 | .363 | 1.000 | -1.08 | .96 |
| | 16-20 | .21 | .434 | 1.000 | -1.01 | 1.43 |
| | 21-more | -.86 | .426 | .439 | -2.06 | .34 |
| 16-20 | 1-5 | -1.43 | .548 | .094 | -2.97 | .12 |
| | 6-10 | -.27 | .469 | 1.000 | -1.59 | 1.05 |
| | 11-15 | -.21 | .434 | 1.000 | -1.43 | 1.01 |
| | 21-more | -1.07 | .519 | .397 | -2.53 | .39 |
| 21-more | 1-5 | -.36 | .541 | 1.000 | -1.88 | 1.17 |
| | 6-10 | .80 | .461 | .834 | -.50 | 2.10 |
| | 11-15 | .86 | .426 | .439 | -.34 | 2.06 |
| | 16-20 | 1.07 | .519 | .397 | -.39 | 2.53 |

APPENDIX L

CROSS TABULATION OF att_MODE SCALE

(Determining weak attitudes that can be changed according to the MODE Model)

Cross Tabulation of Att_MODE scale (determining weak attitudes that can be changed according to MODE Model)

| | | Officer Attitude toward Organizational Change | | | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|---|-----------------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|--------|
| | | Strong Positive Attitude (%) | Positive Attitude (%) | Neutral (%) | Negative Attitude (%) | Strong Negative Attitude (%) | Total |
| Gender | Male | 3.6% | 48.7% | 10.8% | 33.5% | 3.4% | 100.0% |
| | Female | - | 45.8% | 18.6% | 35.6% | - | 100.0% |
| Age | 21-30 | 4.3% | 50.9% | 13.8% | 26.7% | 4.3% | 100.0% |
| | 31-40 | 3.0% | 48.5% | 11.0% | 35.7% | 1.8% | 100.0% |
| | 41-above | 2.6% | 45.7% | 11.2% | 35.3% | 5.2% | 100.0% |
| Rank | Police officer | 3.5% | 46.0% | 12.6% | 34.9% | 3.0% | 100.0% |
| | Sergeant | 7.7% | 69.2% | - | 15.4% | 7.7% | 100.0% |
| | Lieutenant | - | 50.0% | 15.0% | 25.0% | 10.0% | 100.0% |
| | Captain | 2.2% | 65.2% | 6.5% | 23.9% | 2.2% | 100.0% |
| | Superintendent | 2.0% | 47.1% | 9.8% | 41.2% | - | 100.0% |
| Education Level | 9-12 months police training | 0.8% | 42.0% | 14.3% | 41.2% | 1.7% | 100.0% |
| | 2 years high education | 5.5% | 47.6% | 13.4% | 30.5% | 3.0% | 100.0% |
| | University-BA | 2.5% | 52.2% | 10.4% | 30.3% | 4.5% | 100.0% |
| | Master's-MA | 4.8% | 53.2% | 8.1% | 33.9% | - | 100.0% |
| | Doctorate-Ph.D. | - | 35.7% | - | 57.1% | 7.1% | 100.0% |
| Work Experience | 1-5 years | 6.2% | 55.4% | 12.3% | 20.0% | 6.2% | 100.0% |
| | 6-10 years | 1.6% | 48.8% | 10.9% | 37.2% | 1.6% | 100.0% |
| | 11-15 years | 3.3% | 49.5% | 11.9% | 33.3% | 1.9% | 100.0% |
| | 16-20 years | 5.3% | 40.8% | 14.5% | 32.9% | 6.6% | 100.0% |
| | 21 years -more | 1.3% | 46.3% | 8.8% | 41.3% | 2.5% | 100.0% |

APPENDIX M

CHANGE CHECKLIST

(Adapted from Harvey, 1995)

| Change Checklist (Harvey, 1995) | |
|--|--|
| Steps in the change process | Questions to be answered |
| Analysis | |
| 1. Description | What is the change? Is it clear and understandable? |
| 2. Need | Is there a need for change? |
| 3. Potential actors | Who are the changers? Who are the changees? |
| 4. Payoff | What is in it for the changee? |
| 5. Unfreezing | Strain? (Any stress in relation to change?) Potency? (Does the changee believe he can change?) Valence? (Payoff) |
| 6. Resistance | What are the sources of resistance? |
| 7. Investment | Who already supports change? |
| 8. Culture | Does the organizational culture support change? |
| Planning | |
| 9. Actual changees | What actors are actually going to be changed? |
| 10. Change strategy | Rational-empirical? Power-coercive? Normative-reeducational? |
| 11. Resistance strategy | How is resistance to be dealt with? |
| 12. Participation | How is involvement to be generated? |
| 13. Excitement | How is excitement to be generated? |
| 14. Change environment | How does change fit broader patterns of change? |
| 15. Scope | Is the effort too trivial or too big? |
| Implementation and Evaluation | |
| 16. Advocates | Who are the visible advocates for the change? |
| 17. Time frame | What is the time frame for planning and implementation? |
| 18. Monitoring | How will the change be monitored? Who is responsible for monitoring? |
| 19. Action plan | What are the precise who's, what's, and when's of the change process? |
| 20. Risk analysis | Do gains (+) outweigh losses (-)? |

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