

# DEĞİŞİM YÖNETİM MODELLERİNİN TÜRK JANDARMASINA UYGULANABİLİRLİĞİ

Erdem ERCİYES\*

## Öz

Değişim kelimesi Türk dilinde en çok kullanılan kelimelerden biridir ve Türkiye’de hayatın birçok farklı alanında değişim sıklıkla görülür. Jandarma Genel Komutanlığı, Türkiye’deki en büyük ve operasyonel kamu kurumlarından birisi olarak hızla değişen çevrenin merkezinde bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın ana amacı literatürdeki değişim yönetim modellerini incelemek ve bulgulara göre, Jandarma Genel Komutanlığı için özel bir değişim yönetim modeli önermektir. Ancak, hali hazırdaki literatür incelendikten sonra, Jandarmanın kendine has organizasyon kültürü nedeniyle, hiçbir değişim yönetim modelinin direkt olarak kuruma uygulanamayacağı ortaya çıkmıştır. Bundan dolayı, Jandarma’ya özgü bir değişim yönetim modeli geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Değişim Yönetimi, Değişim, Organizasyon Gelişimi, Kolluk Yönetimi.

## **APPLICABILITY OF CHANGE MANAGEMENT MODELS IN THE TURKISH GENDARMERIE**

### **ABSTRACT**

*The word, change, is one of the most utilized words in the Turkish language and many types of change are often witnessed in various aspects of life in Turkey. As one of the biggest and most operative public organizations in Turkey, the Turkish Gendarmerie General Command (TGGC) is at the center of this rapidly changing environment. The principal purpose of this research is to investigate the current change management models in the existing literature, and then according to the findings, to suggest a specific change management model for the TGGC. After analyzing the existing literature, it was realized that due to its sui generis structure of organizational culture, there is no specific change management model that can be applied directly in the context of the TGGC. Hence, a new change management approach must be developed specifically for the Turkish Gendarmerie.*

**Keywords:** Change management, Change, Organizational Development, Law Enforcement Management.

\* Dr. Jandarma Personel Binbaşı, Jandarma Genel Komutanlığı Personel Başkanlığı, erdemerciyes@yahoo.com

## 1. INTRODUCTION

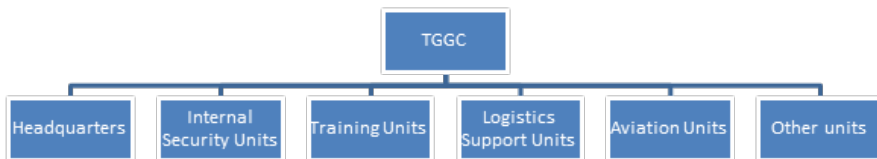
The *Turkish Gendarmerie General Command* (TGGC) is being restructured and is moving towards a more civilian structure. The Gendarmerie's military status was terminated and provided sole attachment to the Ministry of Internal Affairs. If the reform is continuous, the personnel ranking system, working conditions, and the education and human resource management systems, will all be affected by this process. Accordingly, this research will make an important contribution to the transformation process.

The history of the Turkish Gendarmerie dates back to the age of the *Seljuk Empire*. A military law enforcement organization, named “Şurta”, was established to provide security and public order services under that dynasty. Şurta was altered into “Subaşı” at the beginning of the *Ottoman Empire* (Koparan, 2007). With the publication of the *Tanzimat Edict* of the Ottoman Empire, a new law enforcement organization named, “Umur-ı Zaptiye”, was established in 1839. Hence, the first gendarmerie organization, as understood today, was established (The Gendarmerie General Command History, 2002) and 1839 is accepted as the official founding date for the Turkish Gendarmerie. This gendarmerie organization executed its security duties rather successfully and established public order effectively during the *First World War* and *Turkey's War of Independence*.

After the proclamation of the *Turkish Republic* in 1923, gendarmerie stations became widespread in the newly established country. The gendarmerie carried out security and public order services even in the remotest part of the country, under the *Law of 1930*, until 1983, when the law numbered 2803, entitled, “The Organization, Duties and Powers of Gendarmerie”, came into force. Today, this law is still in force in the country, albeit with a number of amendments. In addition to public security and order duties, gendarmerie units have been utilized successfully in the fight against terrorism – especially against PKK/KONGRA-GEL terrorist organization – mostly in eastern and southeastern Anatolian regions and partially in the Black Sea Region of Turkey, since 1984.

Before December 2016, the TGGC had a very complex subordination configuration. According to performed duties, the ranking structure was changing. Yet generally, the TGGC had adhered to the *Turkish General Staff* for training and

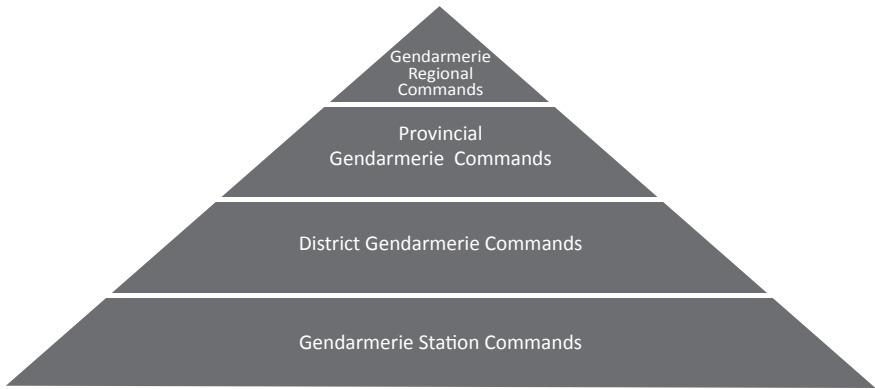
education of its personnel and performs military duties related to military laws and regulations. In addition, the TGGC was subordinated to the *Ministry of Internal Affairs* for executing security and public order duties. However, the Gendarmerie is now fully subjected to the Ministry of Internal Affairs with 25.07.2016 date and 668 number Delegated Legislation. The TGGC, as a law enforcement organization fulfills military, security, safety, and public order duties based on laws and regulations. According to the law number 2803, the duties of the gendarmerie are divided into four main categories as: administrative, judicial, military, and other duties. Administrative duties of the TGGC are: ensuring, maintaining, and protecting public security and order; investigating and fighting against smuggling; taking necessary precautions to prevent criminal activities; and providing external protection of prisons and detention houses. District attorneys give directives to district gendarmerie commanders regarding procedures and judicial services which are specified in the law and which are related to preventing crimes and investigating criminal actions. On the other hand, military duties of the TGGC were restricted in war and mobilization periods by 25.07.2016 date and 668 number Delegated Legislation. In addition, the Gendarmerie now performs military duties in the condition of getting approval from Minister of Internal Affairs or governors. The TGGC performs other duties different than administrative, judicial, and military responsibilities, such as supporting “Social Development Policies”, protecting the environment, and search and rescue activities, amongst other. These duties are assigned by orders, different laws, acts, and regulations. The main organizational structure of the TGGC is shown in Figure 1.



**Figure 1:** The organizational structure of the TGGC.

The *Headquarters* is the supreme body which provides professional assistance to the *Gendarmerie General Commander* in his decisions related to command and control of the gendarmerie units. The Headquarters informs and follows all events that occur in the responsibility area of the gendarmerie. The Headquarters has direct and easy communications with subordinate units

through an intranet network. Moreover, the Headquarters is responsible for developing long-term projects, policies, and principles, as regards the future of the Turkish Gendarmerie. Headquarters may be called the brain of the TGGC. The gendarmerie's internal security units are the biggest components of the TGGC. There are six *Gendarmerie Regional Commands*, eighty-one *Provincial Gendarmerie Commands*, nine hundred and twenty *District Gendarmerie Commands* and *Gendarmerie Station Commands*. The hierarchical relationship amongst internal security units is shown in Figure 2.



**Figure 2:** The Hierarchical Relation of Internal Security Units.

When the criteria of personnel number, responsibility area, time of organizational life, and job diversity are taken into consideration, it may be easily inferred that the TGGC is one of the biggest and oldest state organizations in Turkey, and even in Europe. Personnel profile of the TGGC is composed of officers, non-commissioned officers (NCOs), special gendarmerie sergeants, civil servants, sub-lieutenants, and conscripts. Officers, noncommissioned officers, special gendarmerie sergeants and civil servants serve professionally on long-term contracts, but sub-lieutenants and conscripts serve under temporarily or short-term (6-12 months) contracts. Along with changing profile positions, mostly, high ranking officers (Major, Lt. Colonel, Colonel, and General) hold senior positions, but on the other hand, junior officers (Captain, 1<sup>st</sup> Lieutenant, and 2<sup>nd</sup> Lieutenant), noncommissioned officers, special gendarmerie sergeants, civil servants, sub-lieutenants, and conscripts hold subordinate positions in the Headquarters.

Even though the TGGC now takes orders from civilian authorities, and civil

servants work at the TGGC, strict hierarchy and discipline are most dominant at the TGGC. Most of the top executive positions are held by colonels and generals. The managers follow command and control methods and decisions are taken from top to down. Discipline is followed rather strictly by subordinates and if they are happened to be found in violation, punishments can be severe. There is a major personnel rotation procedure in gendarmerie assignment policy: most of the positions rotate every 2-5 years; and circulation assignment time is shorter in executive positions. For example, it is very rare to see a TGGC commander serve for a four-year period as generally after 1 or 2 years, he is assigned to a higher position in the Army. When new executive staff and commanders rise to a new position, they may desire to change the existing system and set their management approach into that new structure. In this manner, the TGGC is rather considerably affected by the circulation of managers and faces change much more frequently.

The TGGC places great importance on international collaborations: the TGGC is a member of the Association of European and Mediterranean Gendarmeries and Law Enforcement Forces with Military Status and The Association of the Eurasian Law Enforcement Forces with Military Status and is an observer member of the European Gendarmerie Force. Moreover, the TGGC supports peacekeeping operations by having sent units and personnel to Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Afghanistan, and Libya, under the rubric of the UN, the EU and the NATO.

Headquarters is the supreme body of the TGGC and major decisions about the present and future of the institution are taken there. The staff who work at the Headquarters are assigned rather selectively due to the importance of this department. When internal security units and other divisions need to implement change vis-à-vis operational functions, they send their proposal to the TGGC. On behalf of the TGGC, firstly a director reviews the proposal and makes an examination order to the related department. Afterwards, the department examines and coordinates the issue with other related departments and divisions. The result of the examinations, in order of seniority, is firstly presented to the director, then the deputy commander, and finally the commander. The power to implement change at the TGGC lies in the hands of the commander. Without his approval, even the simplest of changes cannot be implemented.

Especially, after 25.07.2016 date and 668 number Delegated Legislation, the Turkish Gendarmerie begins to face a grand and challenging change process. Its military characteristic became an exception and be transformed into law enforcement feature. Its subordination of the Turkish General Staff was terminated (Gündüzöz, 2016). In order to be successful in this process, implementing a change model which is suitable for the special characteristics for the Gendarmerie gains importance.

## 2. CHANGE MANAGEMENT MODELS

Lewin (1947), as one of the pioneers of the change management approach, noted that in order to be successful at change process, every detail must be considered very carefully. For example, when a change is desired to be implemented for a social equilibrium need to heed a concern, all the components of the social field – such as the groups, subgroups, their relations, and their value systems, amongst others – must be included in the change processes. Lewin describes change, as a process “*from the present level to the desired level*”, and develops a three-step model that explicates successfully planned social changes (Ibid: 228-237).

**Step 1 - Unfreezing:** The source of human behavior is the result of a quasi-stationary equilibrium (Mills et al., 2009) which is supported by force-fields (Burnes, 2004). Before throwing away old behavior and adopting new ones, the equilibrium needs to be unfrozen. On the other hand, application of this step may run into some difficulties while implementing it for different contexts (Burnes, 2012).

**Step 2 - Moving:** The change happens in this step by moving to the new level. New policies, procedures, structures, behaviors, values, and attitudes are developed in this step (Mills et al., 2009).

**Step 3 - Refreezing:** The present level moves to a new stage through steps 1 and 2. Group life freezes and stays stable at this step (Lewin, 1947). In order to settle new desired behaviors, reward systems and social support can be utilized (Mills et al., 2009).

In the 1990s, Lewin’s change model received some criticism (Kanter et al.,

1992; Hendry, 1996; Weick and Quinn, 1999; Elrod and Tippett, 2002; Burnes, 2012; Adams and McNicholas, 2007), among which, the most important one concerned the issue of “refreezing”, because an organization goes through living and changing procedures. A change process is not something that someone can stop whenever they desire. Even after completing change, improvements still continue (Yıldız, 2011), and to this effect, Lewin’s model does not seem very practical for big organizations, and especially for the TGGC. This is for the reason that the TGGC, as one of the biggest public organizations in Turkey often faces vague, complex, and rapid change processes. In addition, the TGGC staff assignment policy is based on short-term staff rotations. To this effect, the application of the refreezing step will be rather difficult in the context of the TGGC.

Lippitt et al. (1958) developed a change management model that was based on Lewin’s. They extended Lewin’s three-step change model into five general steps for the change process<sup>1</sup>. In order to diagnose the dynamics of a system’s needs, they gave more importance to change agents than Lewin (Ibid). Even though they improved on Lewin’s model, the main structure was kept the same, therefore, the criticisms of Lewin’s model also stand for Lippitt and his colleagues as well.

At the end of the 1960s, Kübler-Ross wrote a book entitled, “On Death and Dying”. Even though the book was a collection of conversations with dying patients, it made an unexpected and major effect on change management discipline in the 1970s and ‘80s. Kübler-Ross (1969) summarized, in five steps, what she had learned from dying patients and derived a personal change model from their experiences. This model, is also referred to as “five stages of grief” in the literature. The Kubler-Ross model was mostly utilized to overcome employees’ resistance toward change process. Due to its structure and content, it is pretty difficult to adapt this model to organizational change processes (Yıldız,

---

<sup>1</sup> a. Development of a need for change (Lewin’s step 1-unfreezing).

b. Establishment of a change relationship.

c. Working toward change (Lewin’s step 2- moving). This step has three more sub-steps;

(1) The clarification or diagnosis of the client system’s problem.

(2) The examination of alternative routes and goals; establishing goals and intentions of action.

(3) The transformation of intentions into actual change efforts.

d. Generalizing and stabilization of change (Lewin’s step 3- refreezing).

e. Achieving a terminal relationship (Lippitt et al., 1958).

2011). Then again, it may be helpful for managers whilst dealing with resistance to change.

In order to diagnose problems in organizational improvement processes, the 7-S Model was first developed by Waterman & Peters at McKinsey & Company in 1980. This model was mostly utilized for the goal of product development, analysis of computer integrated manufacturing systems, use for strategic change, and innovation (Schwering, 2003). This model also tried to provide harmony between 3 “hard S” (strategy, structure, system) and 4 “soft S” (skills, staff, style and super-ordinate goals). One of the grave flaws of this model, is that organizations are changing very rapidly and even though these dimensions look adaptable to this rapid change environment, they cannot be adapted so easily, as it takes too much time to shift in dimensions. Furthermore, the shape of the diagram is significant and there is no starting point and hierarchy in it (Waterman<sup>1980</sup>). Therefore, this model does not seem applicable to a highly hierarchical organization such as the TGGC.

In the 1990s, the Punctuated Equilibrium Model was developed to specify how to make efficient fundamental change in an organization. The findings of Romanelli and Tushman (1994) concluded that fundamental organizational transformations occurred mostly in short and discontinuous bursts, and there was a direct proportion between major changes in environmental conditions and installation of a new CEO. The punctuated equilibrium paradigm presented a different perspective on handling a change and overcoming resistance of employees toward change process. The results of the paradigm concluded that fundamental change must not be implemented, slowly, easily, and continuously (Gersick, 1991), and small shifts would not bring essential changes. Finally, environmental changes and success of top managers directly affect the change process (Capraz, 2009). In lieu of gradual periods, the punctuated equilibrium model prefers rapid and sharp change actions. A gendarmerie commander changes between a one and four-year period. Therefore, when a new commander is assigned, he may show reluctance to continue with a changed situation. Furthermore, the TGGC’s organizational culture has been formed in accretion of almost 200 years. Its habit of constitution may react negatively to an abrupt change attempt and could see the new commander take an opportunity to shift back to a previous



condition. Bullock & Batten (1985) followed an entirely different approach than Romanelli & Tushman. Firstly, they examined thirty change management models and determined seven criteria <sup>2</sup> to describe and understand change management processes. According to their findings, there are no change models that could meet these seven criteria. To this effect, they developed their own four-phase change model which is summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1: Four-phase model (Ibid).**

Change Phases	Change Process
Exploration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Need Awareness</li> <li>b. Search</li> <li>c. Contracting</li> </ul>
Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Diagnosis</li> <li>b. Design</li> <li>c. Decision</li> </ul>
Action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Implementation</li> <li>b. Evaluation</li> </ul>
Integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Stabilization</li> <li>b. Diffusion</li> <li>c. Renewal</li> </ul>

The four-phase model utilized two major dimensions to define planned change, as phases and processes. Initially, according to the needs of the organization, an organizational state was investigated in a change phase and then an organizational development intervention was progressed. Change processes

<sup>2</sup> These seven criteria are; a. Change model must view change in a long time and must have a broad time horizon, b. The change model must be continuous, c. There must be some fluidity in change description, d. Change management model must be linear, e. Change management model must be active-based, f. Change management model can be applicable in different situations, and g. Change management model must be implemented in individual case studies (Bullock and Batten, 1985).

were utilized to move an organization from one state to another (Ibid). One of the biggest flaws of this model is defining change as a linear process and taking into consideration only planned changes. Due to the nature of the TGGC, it often faces unexpected changes. Therefore, this model may be used as reference for only dealing with a planned change but it does not bring a holistic change management approach that will cover all types of changes at the TGGC.

There is a domination of Western-origin change models in the existing literature. The TGGC gets its organizational culture roots from the Eastern culture. Therefore, in order to show the Eastern perspective on change management, parallel with Japan's economic success in the 1980s, the *Kaizen*<sup>3</sup> Model holds an important place in the literature. Kaizen's philosophy is based on making small and incremental improvement efforts and analyzes why companies cannot stay static for long periods in Japan (Kaizen, 1986). There are some ground rules set in this model<sup>4</sup>. From top to bottom, everyone is encouraged to continuously make small improvement suggestions (Imran, 2011). The Kaizen Model encourages team effort in organizations (Singh and Singh, 2009), and does not only deal with change process, but also aims to settle change in a discerning manner (Manos, 2007). This model has received very positive results at increasing productivity and efficiency at companies. It highly encourages participation of employees. As of late, even gendarmerie managers have begun to demonstrate more personnel-oriented management approaches. The TGGC is a strict hierarchical organization, and to this effect, utilizing this model may bring many difficulties in the phase of its application.

Different from other academics, Beckhard & Harris (1987) developed a mathematic formula to implement change through an equation :  $D \times V \times F > R$

$$\text{Dissatisfaction} \times \text{Vision} \times \text{First Steps} > \text{Resistance}$$

This formula shows that if any variable is zero or near zero, resistance to change will

<sup>3</sup> Kaizen means continuous improvement.

<sup>4</sup> The ground rules are: a. when a problem first occurs, go to the real place where each employee works, the place where we add value indeed. b. Check the uncomformable element/product. c. Take temporary measure on the spot. Find the main cause. d. Standardize to prevent reoccurrence (Titu et al., 2010: 2), Taking into consideration these rules, Kaizen model offers 5S principles in change attempt: a. Seiri: Sorting unnecessary and useless things. b. Seiton: Straightening what is necessary. c. Seiso: Scrubbing everything. d. Seiketsu: Standardizing and providing consistency in the work area and e. Shitsuke: Sustaining improvements and self-discipline (Ortiz, 2010: 50–51).

not be overcome. “Dissatisfaction”, “Vision”, and “First Steps” do not cover each other, and if one is very low, the cost of change will be greater (Passenheim, 2010). In addition, in order to implement a change, the four components of this model must be followed simultaneously: a. An external drive, b. An internal discontent about the present situation, c. A future vision, d. An action plan (Randlesome, 2000). This model gives a new vision for handling the resistance to change, but overcoming resistance is an important part of the change management process, yet not all of it. There is a high failure risk for this model while dealing with in-depth changes. For these reasons, it is better to benefit from this model only at the beginning of a change process while convincing employees of its necessity and benefits.

Unlike Beckhard & Davis, Nadler & Tushman (1989) desired to develop a holistic change management model. Therefore, they analyzed all organizational systems. According to their findings, change requires one or more elements of the organizational system, or it needs to restructure the whole system that covers fundamental components, such as, strategy, environment, resources, and external and internal organization. In this way, they developed a “Congruence Model” that may be applied to an entire organization for any kind of a change. It provides better understanding of complex organizations through interaction of these four components, but it costs large amounts of money and takes an inordinate amount of time to establish this model in big organizations. In addition to its size, the TGGC has financial and time restrictions for launching a big project as this. Hence, it does not seem applicable to the TGGC.

Different from previous change models, Isabella posited that “resistance to change” was not an obstacle, but a fundamental component of a change process. She integrated Lewin’s three-step change model to her own, but unlike Lewin, she evaluated change from a managerial perspective rather than an organizational viewpoint. Her model investigated how managers react to change mechanisms (Capraz, 2009) and offered four stages for a change process: a. anticipation; b. confirmation; c. culmination; and d. aftermath. One of the most important contributions of this model to the literature is its provision of a new perspective on overcoming employee resistance towards change process. Although she does not present a holistic change management model that covers all phases of the

process, her findings may be useful to managers while dealing with employee resistance.

Judson (1991) like Isabella, focused on resistance to change. He suggested many tactics for managers in order to minimize change resistance: threats and coercion; criticism; persuasion; promotion and reward; compromises and bargaining; guarantees against personal loss; psychological support; participation; ceremonies; and other ways to enforce organizational faithfulness, amongst others. Then again, it is a big risk to rely on threats, compulsion, and criticism, as they can lead to the possibility of greater increase in resistance (Fernandez and Rainey, 2006). This model<sup>5</sup> can at the least provide an idea to the TGGC while dealing with overcoming subordinates' resistance toward change, since reward, promotion and penalty are prevalent tools already in the management system of the TGGC. Jick (1991) explores leadership characteristics in his model which deals mostly with tactical change (Pryor et al., 2008). Therefore, while dealing with change at an operative or strategic level, it is rather probable that there will be problems to be faced. In any case, this model may provide a different perspective for the TGGC in dealing with tactical change processes.

Bridges (2003) brought a different approach to the literature through differentiating between transition and change. He defines change as an external situation, like a new position, a new boss, new team roles or a new policy. According to him, a change process not focused on output but rather on transition was more different than change: the transition is an internal, psychological, and slow process that people need time to get used to (in the new situation) which majors on ending not outcome. There are three phases in the transition: a. Ending: Transition started with an ending. The old situation is left behind. Due to a sense of loss, people could show many emotions like anger, confusion, uncertainty, and sadness (Ibid at 4-10); b. The neutral zone: The old situation has gone but new one has not presented itself in this phase. The neutral zone was an ambiguity, dangerous but opportune place. This stage is the core of a transition and people feel anxiety in this phase (Ibid at 9); and, c. New Beginning: New identity, experience, energy and purpose have developed and everyone accepts

---

<sup>5</sup> There are five steps in Judson's model: a. Analyzing and planning the change; b. Communicating the change; c. Gaining the acceptance of new behaviors; d. Changing from the status quo to a desired state; and e. Consolidating and institutionalizing the new state (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999: 301).

this new situation. The most important thing is that all three phases must be used together and not be implemented separately. Otherwise, failure would be inevitable (Ibid at 25). This model requires more patience and for this reason it is more suitable for organizations that can afford the time to realize results over time. However, impatience is a major characteristic of the TGGC's organizational culture. Due to short-term staff rotations, results of actions are demanded to be seen in a short time by gendarmerie managers. Therefore, this model may not be useful for the change process of the TGGC.

Burke and Litwin (1992) developed a change management model that was based on a linkage between organizational performance and change. Armenikais and Bedeian (1999) note that Burke-Litwin model emphasizes transformational and transactional dynamics inherent in successful change efforts. Due to external and internal environmental pressures, transformational factors need new employee behaviors for leadership, culture, mission and strategy concepts. On the other hand, transactional factors require psychological and organizational variables such as work climate, structure, systems, task requirements, and individual skills/abilities. They differentiate between transformational and transactional factors. Change agents and managers must understand need factors. One of the important flaws of this model, as seen in other diagnostic models, is that it has limitations, such as, complexity. Therefore, Burke and Litwin (1992) recommends being very careful during a change process. This model has a very complex structure that requires trained managers and employees. There is a big circulation number in the assignment system of the TGGC; every time, training of new personnel will require more effort, time and costs. Moreover, each time the command echelon is changed, there is a big risk that the new command echelon will not be convinced to continue with all ongoing change processes. Nevertheless, overall, this model illustrates very good organizational links and relationships between external and internal factors in one organization and may be useful for developing specific change approaches for transitional and transformational changes.

General Electric (GE) presented its Change Acceleration Process (CAP) Model in 1992. The main aim of integrating CAP into a project is to provide commitment of mobilized key stakeholders in a change (Neri et al., 2008) through

focusing on making sure all the elements take place in a successful transition process. The CAP model requires strong leadership during change efforts and gives importance to change systems and structures (Ramanathan, 2009). Then again, this model does not give off the sense of an original work. CAP and Lewin change model phases look rather similar (Mento et al., 2002).

Kotter (2008) as one of the most influential and important figures in the change management field, draws attention to importance of managing change and the role of leadership. Without a good leading process, change is doomed to fail. He detects eight common errors in change management efforts and as a result of these errors, it becomes difficult to implement new strategies and establish synergy in an organization. Furthermore, it would become pretty common to lose time and money. Moreover, control and quality programs would not obtain the desired results. In order to prevent the errors and established an efficient change management model which can be implement to hierarchical organizations as well.

Galpin (1996) emphasizes the importance of organizational culture in the change process. He developed a change management process model which was comprised of a wheel with nine wedges. He notes that there are ten important cultural components<sup>6</sup> which directly affect the success of change implementations. It is necessary to remove old components, and instead, new ones should take their place in order to facilitate a desired change. This model has some similarities with that of Kotter's. Yet still, this work does not make an original contribution to the literature but it is very practical for managers and change agents due to its nature which considers the role of humans and also cultural aspects in change processes. In addition, this model focuses on two levels of change: strategic and grassroots levels. All in all, it may be of practical reference usage while scrutinizing change management concepts at the TGGC.

Prosci introduced the ADKAR model in 1999. He utilized a pretty simple and outcome-oriented approach in a change management model. According to him, change firstly begins with individuals. In order to implement change successfully, individuals should have **A**wareness, **D**esire, **K**nowledge, **A**bility and

---

<sup>6</sup> Rules and policies, goals and measurement, customs and norms, training, ceremonies and events, management behaviors, rewards and recognition, communications, physical environment, and organization structure (Katherine, 1996: 69.)

**Reinforcement.** This model acquired its name from the initial letters of these five words (Acronym)<sup>7</sup>. ADKAR helped managers to understand gaps in a change management process. In order to manage a change process effectively, managers must diagnose employee resistance to change and facilitate transition periods through a change process (Hiatt, 2006). One of the biggest contributions of ADKAR to the literature is evaluating two dimensions simultaneously during a change process. This is because before ADKAR, either the business or the people dimension had each been separately analyzed in a change process. In addition, this model can appreciate employee readiness levels at every phase of a change process and facilitate preparing of manager action plans which are designed to develop readiness (Kazmi, & Naarananoja<sup>2013</sup>). Different from Kotter, ADKAR supported changes from bottom up. Therefore, when change is to be initiated from bottom to top at the TGGC, this model may provide a better solution for the change process.

Senge et al. (1999) only focused on profound change in their model and defined profound change as “combining inner shifts from people’s values, aspirations, and behaviors with outer shifts from process, strategies, practices and systems” (Ibid:15). According to them, an organization aims not only at doing something new, but also teaching how to make changes in a new way. Hence, this model prepared an organizational environment for an ongoing change. They described ten challenges in three main stages<sup>8</sup> vis-à-vis a profound change in an organization. In order to overcome challenges and manage profound change, they present, “growth process of profound change”. This model was highly effective with its concept of learning organizations but there was a tendency to see all organizations as the same type. In practice though, it is difficult to see such

---

<sup>7</sup> <http://www.prosci.com/adkar-model/the-adkar-book/> (Accessed 24 December 2016)

<sup>8</sup> a. Initiating Change

- (1) We do not have time for this stuff!
- (2) We have no help!
- (3) This stuff is not relevant!
- (4) They’re not walking the talk!

b. Sustaining Momentum

- (5) This stuff is \_\_\_!
- (6) This stuff is not working!
- (7) We have the right way/they do not understand us!

c. Redesigning the Organization

- (8) Who is in charge of this stuff?
- (9) We keep reinventing the wheel!
- (10) Where are we going? What are we here for? (Senge et al., 1999:26-29)

type organizations. Corporate culture is more dominant in the TGGC. Therefore, the TGGC may face many problems while implementing this change model.

Mento et al. (2002) analyzed Kotter's eight-step model, Jick's ten-step model, and GE's seven-step change acceleration process model and developed its own twelve-step change model that was based on these three well-known approaches. They put into practice their model at a Fortune 500 Defense Industry Firms exposition with the following twelve steps: a. Highlighting the idea and its context; b. Defining the change initiative; c. Analyzing the climate for change; d. Crafting a change plan; e. Finding and cultivating a sponsor; f. Preparing the recipients of change; g. Creating the cultural fit – making the change last; h. Choosing a change leader team and developing teamwork planning; i. Creating short wins for motivation; j. Communicating change constantly and strategically; k. Measuring progress of the change effort; and l. Integrating lessons learned. In order to implement these steps successfully, just following them sequentially is not enough and integrated and iterative processes are also necessary (Ibid at 58). Even though this model does not make an original contribution to the literature, it does aim to give guidance to the practitioners leading an organizational change process. Furthermore, this model also emphasizes recognition of emotional aspects of change within organizations, and ensures a change from a belief (Becker, 2005). To these effects, this model can be useful while the TGGC deals with transformational change.

### 3. Conclusion

Change management models in the existing literature provide a general idea on how to implement a change management approach in organizations. Yet, not only one model is right or holds true for an organization. Different models and implementations may also bring success. Every organization has different dynamics, needs and culture. Hence, a change management model must be interpreted uniquely for it according to the special features of that organization. Type of change, organizational expectation, needs, organizational structure, culture, and employee profiles should be taken into consideration when choosing a model. After deciding the type of model, it should be implemented carefully with determination and patience.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY



- Adams, C.A. and McNicholas, P. (2007) "Making A Difference: Sustainability Reporting, Accountability And Organizational Change", *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, Vol. 20 Iss: 3.
- Armenakis A. A. and Bedeian A.G. (1999) "Organizational Change: A Review of Theory and Research in the 1990s", *Journal of Management*, 25(3).
- Becker, K.L. (2005) "Changing Culture to Facilitate Organizational Change: A Case Study". In Daview, Doug and Fisher, Greg and Hughes, Raechel, Eds. *Proceedings Australia and New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM)*, Canberra, Australia.
- Beckhard, R. and Harris, R. (1987) *Organizational Transitions: Managing Complex Change*, Reading MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Bridges, W. (2003) *Managing Transitions Making the Most of Change*, 3th Ed, Cambridge, MA: DaCapo Press.
- Bullock, R. J. and Batten, D. (1985) "It's Just a Phase We're Going Through: A Review and Synthesis of OD Phase Analysis", *Batten, Group & Organization Studies*, Dec; 10, 4; ABI/INFORM Complete.
- Burke, W., & Litwin, G. (1992) "A causal model of organizational performance and change", *Journal of Management*, 18.
- Burnes, B. (2004) "Kurt Lewin and complexity theories: back to the future?" *Journal of Change Management*, Vol. 4, No. 4, December.
- Burnes, B. (2012) "Kurt Lewin and The Origins of OD", in David M. Boje, Bernard Burnes and John Hassard (eds), *The Routledge Companion to Organizational Change*, New York: Routledge.
- Capraz, B. (2009) *Örgütsel Değişim: Çok Boyutlu Bir Model Önerisi*, PhD thesis, EGE University.
- Elrod II, P.D. and Tippett, D.D. (2002) "The 'Death Valley' of Change", *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, Vol. 15, No. 3.
- Fernandez, S. and Rainey, H. G. (2006) "Managing Successful Organizational Change in the Public Sector", *Public Administration Review*, 66.
- Galpin, T. (1996) *The Human Side of Change: A Practical Guide to Organization Redesign*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gersick, C. J. G. (1991) "Revolutionary change theories: A multilevel exploration of the punctuated equilibrium paradigm", *Academy of Management Review*, 16.
- Gündüzöz, I. (2016) "Cumhuriyet Tarihinin En Önemli Kamu Yönetimi

Reformlarından Biri: Jandarma ve Sahil Güvenlik Teşkilatlarındaki Dönüşüm”, İdarecinin Sesi Dergisi, 173, September-October.

Hendry, C. (1996), “Understanding and Creating Whole Organizational Change Through Learning Theory”, Human Relations, 49(5), 62.

Hiatt, J. (2006) ADKAR: A Model for Change in Business, Government, and Our Community, Colorado: Prosci Research.

Imai, M. (1986) Kaizen: The Key to Japan’s Competitive Success, New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Imran, A.K. (2011) “KAIZEN: The Japanese Strategy for Continuous Improvement”, VSRD-IJBMR, Vol. 1 (3).

History of the Gendarmerie General Command, (2002) C. I, Ankara.

Jick, T. (1991) Implementing Change, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Judson, A. (1991) Changing Behavior in Organizations: Minimizing Resistance to Change, Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell.

Kanter, R. M., Barry A. S. and Jick, T. (1992) The Challenge of Organizational Change, New York: The Free Press.

Kazmi, S. A. Z., & Naarananoja, M. (2013) “Collection of change management models - an opportunity to make the best choice from the various organizational transformational techniques”, GSTF Business Review (GBR), 2(4).

Koparan, N. (2007) Turkish Gendarmerie Organization, unpublished master thesis, Ankara University.

Kotter, J.P. (2008) A Sense of Urgency, Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kübler-Ross, E. (1969) On Death and Dying, New York, NY: Macmillan.

Law No 2803 on “The Organization, Duties and Powers of Turkish Gendarmerie”, Official gazette, 1983.

Lewin, K. (1947) Frontiers in Group Dynamics, edited by Dorwin Cartwright, “Field Theory in Social Science, New York: Harper&Brothers.

Lippitt, R., Watson, J. and Westley, B, (1958) The Dynamics of Planned Change, New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace.

Manos, A. (2007) “The Benefits of Kaizen and Kaizen Events”, Quality Progress, 40(2).

Mento, A. J., Jones, R.M., and Dirndorfer, W. (2002) “A Change Management

Process: Grounded in Both Theory And Practice”, *Journal of Change Management* 3, no. 1.

Mills, J. H., Dye, K. and Mills, J.A. (2009) *Understanding Organizational Change*, New York: Routledge.

Neri, R. A., Mason, C. E., Demko, L. A., & Mazer, Sherry (2008) “Application of six Sigma/CAP methodology: Controlling blood-product utilization and Costs/ Practitioner Application”, *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 53(3).

Ortiz, C. (2010), “Kaizen vs. Lean: Distinct but related”, *Metal Finishing* Volume 108, Issue 1, January.

Passenheim, O. (2010) *Change Management*, (e-book), Ventus Publishing ATS.

Pryor, M. G., Taneja, S., Humphreys, J., Anderson, D. and Singleton, L. (2008) “Challenges Facing Change Management Theories and Research”, *Delhi Business Review*, X Vol. 9, No. 1, January - June.

Ramanathan, T.R. (2009) *the Role of Organizational Change Management in Offshore Outsourcing of Information Technology Service*, Florida: Boca Raton.

Randlesome, C. (2000) “Changes in Management Culture and Competencies: The German Experience”, *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 19 Iss: 7.

Romanelli, E., & Tushman, M. L. (1994) “Organizational transformation as punctuated equilibrium: An empirical test”, *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(5).

Senge, P., Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R., Roth, G., Smith, B. (1999) *the Dance of Change*, London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Singh, J. and Singh, H. (2009) *Kaizen Philosophy: A Review of Literature*, the Icfai University Press.

Titu, M.A, Oprean, C. and Grecu, D. (2010) “Applying the Kaizen Method and the 5S Technique in the Activity of Post-Sale Services in the Knowledge-Based Organization”, *Proceedings of International Multi-conference of Engineers and Computer Scientists*, 3.

Waterman, R.H., Peters, T.J., and Phillips, J.R. (1980) *Structure is Not Organization*, Business Horizons, June.

Weick, K. E., and Quinn, R. E. (1999) “Organizational Change and Development”, *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50(1).

Yıldız, A.K., (2011) *Bilgi Hizmetlerinde Değişim Yönetimi Süreç ve Haritalar*, Istanbul: Beta Basım A.S.

