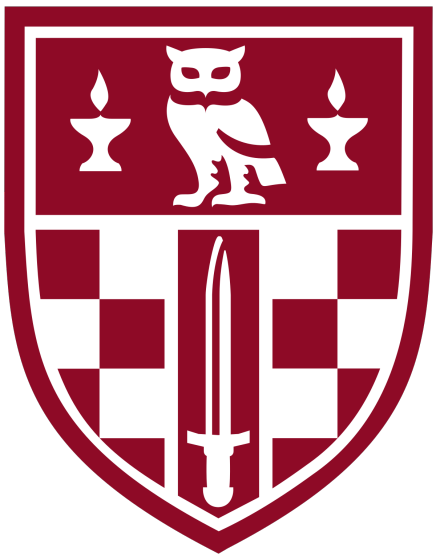
Examining the factors that facilitate a participative approach to organisation design

Examining the factors that facilitate a participative approach to organisation design

Submitted by Timothy Gore

BIRKBECK, UNIVERSITY OF LONDON

April 2024



Supervised by

Dr Joanna Yarker and Dr Rachel Lewis

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Professional Doctorate in Occupational Psychology (DOccPsy)

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my thanks and acknowledgement to a number of people who have directly or indirectly made this thesis possible.

Firstly I would like to thank my Supervisors on this doctoral programme, Dr Jo Yarker and Dr Rachel Lewis. You have quite literally made this possible by creating the programme and granting me a place on it so I could fulfil a lifelong wish. Without your guidance I would not have known what I was doing and without your support I would have spent a lot longer tying myself up in mental knots.

I would also like to thank the people who participated in my study and who gave up their time and knowledge to provide the content for the empirical part of the thesis. Their selflessness was inspiring and something that I will endeavour to pass on to others.

To my wife Krystyna who will be even more pleased than me that this thesis has been completed. She has endured me living abroad for 5½ years, much agonising while I wrestled with parts of the thesis and put up with me using as a study what could otherwise have been a very nice dressing room.

To my parents. My Dad unfortunately didn't see me finish my master's degree and unfortunately my Mum passed away while I was completing this doctorate. I hope there is some place where they are aware that I managed to complete both.

Finally to my fellow cohort group on this adventure. We were robbed of the physical get togethers early on in the process but made up for it with our humour and motivational posts on WhatsApp. Those are moments I will treasure.

Abstract

This thesis examines the factors that help organisations adopt a participative approach to organisation design. Organisations need to be designed effectively to achieve their purpose and this is an ongoing exercise as they respond to different pressures and changes. Employees can often be well positioned to understand how their organisation should be designed, so a participative approach can be a beneficial method to follow. However there has been a lack of research into what helps this approach to be effective.

To address the main research aim of this thesis two studies were conducted. The first was a systematic literature review which examined what was already known about the participatory approach to organisation design. Thirteen studies met the inclusion criteria. The results revealed that most of the current literature was descriptive and advocative of the participative approach to organisation design, but with some promising evidence for its association with organisational outcomes and some factors which may influence the participative approach. The second was a qualitative study examining the perspectives and experiences of organisation design practitioners as to what helps the participative approach to succeed in organisations. Thematic analysis identified four main themes and eleven sub-themes which participants reported helped when adopting a participative approach to organisation design.

This thesis adds to existing literature by going beyond describing and advocating for the participative approach to organisation design, to developing a framework to support organisations in understanding how success can be achieved. This framework could be used by organisation design practitioners who guide organisations through the participative approach, by senior leaders within organisations contemplating this

approach and human resource professionals who support it. Suggested future research directions in this area are also provided.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Professional practice statement

As a Chartered Psychologist and Registered Occupational Psychologist, I am exempt from the first module (Professional Practice Portfolio) of the Professional Doctorate. This thesis therefore satisfies the requirements for Part 2 of the doctorate (Research Thesis). The following statement provides a summary of my professional practice to provide some context to this thesis.

Following a bachelor's degree in Experimental Psychology I took up a role within Human Resources and so in one sense this has been the umbrella for my career over the last 35 years, taking a Diploma in HR and gaining my Chartered Fellow status of the CIPD along the way. However, it was always my intention to continue my interest and vocation within psychology, so in the early 2000s I pursued my master's degree at Birkbeck. This was followed by the long process of getting chartered and registered as a psychologist. In another sense then organisational psychology could be seen as the umbrella for my career.

During my career I have worked on most aspects of HR. As time has gone on, I have focused more on the organisational development side of HR, though this has been far from clear cut. I increasingly then found myself working in organisation design as an area of expertise, while not seeing it as a field in its own right until more recently.

Organisational design is necessarily a multi-disciplinary field and it has often required me to align with several different professional bodies. As well as being expensive in subscription fees, one thing I have noticed is how each field almost acts as a different

tribe despite working in the same general space. I can for instance go to a HR event and organisational psychology may only be referred to at all if it is termed ‘neuroscience’. I can just as easily go to an organisational psychology event though when it seems the only concern is the incremental validity of a particular test. It is therefore a continual interest and ambition of mine to try and bring the various fields together to benefit from each other’s expertise and perspectives.

My interest in the participation of people in their workplaces has been longstanding and I have seen how powerful this can be, if not always comfortable, to facilitate. As my work within the organisational design field increased, I also saw first-hand how participation could work with people designing their own processes and structures. This led me into wondering how much other people were using participation in organisation design and how much was known about it. When the opportunity came up to pursue the professional doctorate this seem good timing to investigate this topic further.

Deciding to undertake a professional doctorate at a later stage in my career has allowed me to develop my appreciation and skills of the academic approach to my practice, while reflecting that this is something which has often been almost actively discouraged within my corporate career.

Thesis Structure

This thesis is comprised of five chapters. The introductory chapter one describes the topic of participative organisation design, sets the context for the thesis and explains why this research is important. Chapter two explains the epistemological stance of the thesis which informed the research design and the methodology used to explore the topic. Chapter three details the first study which was conducted for this thesis, a systematic literature review (SLR) of participative organisation design which then informed the focus for the second study. Chapter four describes the second study which was undertaken for this thesis, an empirical qualitative investigation of the perceptions of organisation design practitioners when considering the process of participative organisation design. Chapter five summarises the findings from the two studies and the implications for this in contributing to our knowledge and practise of participative organisation design.

Chapter 1: Context and aims of the research

1.1 Why organisation design matters

According to the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants, FTSE100 businesses spent £8.2bn on designing and restructuring their organisations during the financial year of 2018-2019. This figure was an increase of 30% from the year before. Restructuring costs were also the most frequent type of exceptional costs reported by FTSE100 businesses, impacting over a quarter of those listed. Over half of the FTSE100 businesses reported to shareholders that they were undertaking major restructuring programmes during 2018-2019. The average costs of restructuring per company were £161m per annum during this year, an increase of over 25% from the year before. The report also noted the increase in the occurrence of transformation costs which related to fundamentally changing the processes, systems and technology by organisations in order to achieve better operational efficiency and performance (CIMA, 2020). More recent figures from the S&P 500 companies shows reported restructuring costs generally rising during 2022 and for the first two quarters of 2023 to approximately $7.5bn for the second quarter of 2023 (Calcbench, 2023).

Restructuring and redesigning an organisation is not just costly to organisations but over the last decade it has becoming an increasingly frequent activity. Research by the management consultancy McKinsey in 2015, surveying a large set of global executives, suggests that many companies are in a nearly permanent state of organizational flux. Almost 60 percent of the respondents reported that they had experienced a redesign within the previous two years and an additional 25 percent said they experienced a redesign three

or more years previously. To contrast this, a generation or two back most executives might have experienced some sort of organizational upheaval only a few times over the course of their careers (Aronowitz, De Smet & McGinty, 2015).

In 2009, Grant and Parker proposed that the amount and frequency of restructuring may increase as the move towards service and knowledge-based economies in many countries has altered the types of organisations that exist and how work needs to be done to suit customers and the context. Interactions within and between organisations, increasing interdependence and the need to take a more proactive approach to tackle environmental complexity, also make it more likely that organisations will need to restructure to meet their purpose as it evolves. These changes are being realised and evidence suggests have accelerated post-pandemic, impacting all aspects of the way work is done.

According to research by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2021), HR practitioners expect internal change around operating models, structures and processes to be a key future trend requiring more agile organisational design. This trend is seen to be driven by factors such as digital transformation changing how and where work can be done; societal attitudes changing how people want to work and more knowledge based and service based work meaning existing hierarchical decision-making structures may no longer be appropriate (Green, Peters & Young, 2020). It is very possible that the global Covid-19 pandemic, which was first declared in 2020 (World Health Organization, 2020), may have increased both the rate and financial impact of organisational redesign and restructuring. Indeed, there were immediate impacts for many organisations and individuals with people needing to work from home because of

government guidance to do so where possible (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2021). While exclusively working from home may have been a temporary situation, a 'hybrid' working pattern of some time spent at a communal place of work and some time spent working from the individual's home may become a more permanent feature (Office for National Statistics, 2022). The Covid-19 pandemic has also accelerated these trends, particularly regarding the digitisation of industries (e.g., Harapko, 2023).

Despite the prevalence and costs of organisational design, less than a quarter of organisational design efforts succeed in their aims according to research by the McKinsey consultancy (Aronowitz et al, 2015). Just under half were found to have run out of steam after getting under way and a third failed to meet objectives or improve performance after implementation. According to research by the Boston Consulting Group (Pot, Friedman, Rosiello, Meyer, & Brocca, 2022) only about half of the companies that underwent an organisation design following a post-merger integration found it to have been successful.

Getting the right design organisation right matters so that, at minimum, the costs and efforts involved in the exercise help the organisation to achieve its purpose. Beyond this though, the design of the organisation can have a significant influence on its effectiveness (Doty, Glick & Huber, 1993), as well as a powerful additive effect on its competitive advantage through its ability to create value (e.g., Sengul, 2018) and in its ability to promote innovation (e.g., Sengul, 2019). Getting the right organisation design can also have positive effects on the people who work in it. These effects include improved performance, lowered turnover and lowered rates of absenteeism (e.g., Fried & Ferris,

1987); psychological outcomes such as higher job satisfaction, higher internal work motivation, lower stress, and lower rates of burnout (Parker & Wall, 1998); as well as physical outcomes such as blood pressure, cardiovascular disease, and even mortality (Ganster, Fox & Dwyer, 2001; Melamed, Fried & Froom, 2001).

As organisation design is both prevalent and costly and can have positive impacts for the organisation and employees if done well, it would be beneficial to better understand the factors that lead to its success.

1.2 What is organisation design?

An organisation is defined by the Cambridge Dictionary as *'a group of people who work together in an organized way for a shared purpose'.* To perform a purpose people must coordinate their activities effectively otherwise an organisation can actually be more detrimental than an individual's efforts. An example of this comes from the research into idea generation where a group may perform worse than an individual working alone (Diehl and Stroebe, 1987; Mullen, Johnson & Salas, 1991). Organisation design has been variously described as a 'work redesign at a team group level which results in interdependent differences to the team's function, job responsibilities, reporting relationships and ways of working' (Parker, 2014); 'how people and work are organised to carry out an organisation's strategy and achieve its aims' (Stanford, 2015) and 'a systematic and holistic approach to aligning and fitting together all parts of an organisation to achieve its defined strategic intent' (European Organisation Design Forum, April 2023), which is the definition used in this thesis. The focus here is on the

design at the level of the organisation, organisational unit or the team rather than that of individual jobs. It also covers more than just the number of roles and reporting relationships which might appear on an organisation chart. Instead, organisation design looks at aspects of the organisation including the processes which will need to be in place in the organisation, the skills people will need and how best to reward people to encourage the required behaviours (e.g., Galbraith, 1977).

Organisation design, organisational redesign and organisational restructuring are sometimes used interchangeably, albeit incorrectly. From the author's perspective, organisation design refers to the design of the organisation from first principles, as though working with a blank slate. It also describes the field and practise of organisation design. Organisation redesign is the alteration and redesign of what is already existing in the organisation and is most commonly what occurs in the practise of organisation design. From the author's experience it would be rare to design a large organisation from first principles, as most have either grown organically from smaller organisations before they undertake a redesign or, if they are created as a large organisation, they are modelled on a pre-existing organisation. Organisational restructuring typically refers to the reconfiguration of jobs and reporting lines which are represented in an organisation chart. While this represents only a superficial representation of how an organisation works, from the author's experience as a consultant this is often what organisational management, employees and some management consultants think of and focus on when they are considering the design of an organisation.

1.3 Defining terms

Organisation design is defined here as 'a systematic and holistic approach to aligning and fitting together all parts of an organisation to achieve its defined strategic intent' (European Organisation Design Forum, April 2023). Redesign is defined by the author as altering the organisation design which is already pre-existing. Participation is defined by the author as involving the team members who form the subject of the organisation design, in a combination of discussions, proposals and implementation of the design that affects them. Schweitz, Granata, Storjohann and Grady (1997) describe participative design as *'an approach that calls for people to participate in planning and restructuring their own workplace toward self-management and multi-skilling'* (p.34).

1.4 A brief history of organisation design and the advent of the participatory approach

Organisation design as an activity has a long history. In their review of the history of organisation redesign, Visscher and Fisscher (2012) note that Pindur et al. (1995), refers to Jethro in the Book of Exodus as having designed the organisation which helped his son-in-law Moses rule the Hebrews in the desert and Kennedy (1999) describes Benedict of Nursia setting out the tasks, responsibilities and authority for the design of cloister organisations in the fifth century AD. Adam Smith in his book 'The Wealth of Nations' published in 1776 described how the manufacture of pins at the time could be made more

efficient by the identification and separation of specific tasks which could then be performed by different people (cited in Burnes, 2000).

1.4.1 The Scientific Approach

Organisation design as a field really came about with the work of Frederick Taylor put forward in The Principles of Scientific Management, in which he proposed the idea of studying the discrete tasks to be performed to accomplish a job and then finding the most efficient ways in which these could be carried out. The aim was to both speed up and reduce the costs of production; though also had the effect of limiting the skills of workers so they could be more easily replaced (Taylor, 1911).

In their review of the history of organisation design, Visscher and Fisscher (2012) describe the classic design approach in which organisational design is seen as a scientific endeavour, whereby the complexity of the organisation can be decomposed into increasingly smaller problems and then recomposed into an organisational solution which tends to represent the formal structure and workflows (Simon, 1969). They cite Galbraith (1974) as describing the decomposition and recomposition of tasks as being the core of organisational design. In this classical approach the design of organisations is mostly seen as the responsibility of organisational leaders as a topic of strategic remit, perhaps with the help of management consultants who may also be consulting with them on other areas of strategic focus (Khandwalla, 1977; Harris and Raviv, 2002 cited in Visscher and Fisscher (2012); Balogun, 2007).

1.4.2 The social side of organisation design

There were criticisms of this scientific approach to organisation design (see Visscher and Fisscher, 2012), one of which is the lack of agency given to employees in designing their work. Eric Trist, Ken Bamforth and Fred Emery in their work on British coal mines during the late 1940s and 1950s while based at the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations in London, noted the relative benefits in productivity and commitment along with the low rates of absence and accidents among miners working who had developed their own work organisation. From this work they developed the concept of Social-Technical Systems (STS) in work design, which highlighted the importance of how people worked and cooperated contributed to a workplace's productivity as much as how technology and technical systems may contribute (e.g., Trist, 1981). From these initial studies they also introduced the concept of self-managing work teams, which are defined as groups of interdependent individuals who can self-regulate their behaviour on whole tasks (e.g., Goodman, Devadas & Hughson, 1988).

Weisbord (1985), reflecting on his own experiences of self-managing work teams in the 1960s, noticed how these teams tended to be self-correcting over time and suggested that the experts in the field had learned two main lessons in the following two decades: *"The first: Given some minimal guidance, most work groups produce designs 85 to 90% congruent with the best that outside experts can produce - and with vastly more commitment to implementing them. The second: Use "minimum critical specification." Give people some boundaries and let them fill in the blanks as they go along. Don't try to figure out every contingency in advance"* (pg.18).

Building on the STS approach, Emery and Thorsrud (1969) identified six critical human requirements for work based on their studies across different countries and industries. These six critical requirements are that:

1. People have adequate ‘elbow room’ to determine their own work while still having some structure so they know what they need to do.
2. People have the opportunity to learn on the job, they can set realistic goals for this learning and they get accurate feedback so they can adjust their behaviour
3. People can vary their work so as to balance getting into a rhythm without also getting bored
4. People need to feel their contribution is respected and that they are able to give and get help from their colleagues
5. People need to feel that their work has some meaning and contribution to society
6. People need to feel that there is some kind of career path for their job which allows for personal growth

These six requirements were seen as a system of values which are fundamental for a self-managing work group and need to be evident for people to develop responsibility and commitment to their work (see Cabana, 1995a).

Cherns (1976) warned of the dangers of ignoring the social side of organisation design, in that it will make itself known and possibly in ways which work against the designer’s plans. To ensure the technical and social aspects of organisation design can work in harmony rather than in opposition, Cherns set out nine principles of this socio-technical design approach. These principles were that:

1. There needs to be compatibility between the objectives of the design and the process used in design. So, if for example the objective of the organisation design is to encourage people to collaborate with each other, then they also need to be encouraged to collaborate in the actual design process rather than excluded from it.
2. People need to be given the minimum critical specification necessary for the design – no more than is necessary but no less than is required – and then allowed to create the rest of the design beyond that. There may for example be specifications required to be met for the outputs of work, but how those outputs are delivered can be determined by those who do the work.
3. Variances which cannot be eliminated need to be controlled as near to the source of the variance as possible. So for example quality control of a product, whose output may vary, should be done close to the production stage where the variance may occur, not some way down the production process.
4. People should be able to perform a multifunctional role so they can adapt when the conditions require it, rather than being skilled and responsible for only a specialised and singular task which cannot be deviated from even if it is necessary.
5. Ensure boundaries within an organisation are defined with consideration to who will need to work effectively together to achieve the organisational purpose. People within these boundaries can then take responsibility for controlling their activities and organisational management can take responsibility for controlling the interfaces between boundaries to ensure the whole organisation is effective.
6. Information in the organisation should be made available to people who need to take action based on that information. Information systems and information flows

therefore need to be built around this principle rather than for example being built around supplying information based on hierarchy or function.

7. Management actions should be congruent with their espoused philosophy. So for example, if the management philosophy is one of collaboration in the organisation then the measurement and reward system should also be based on collaborative efforts. They should not be based on individual's efforts which may undermine the team performance.
8. Organisations should be designed to provide people with as much variety, involvement, responsibility and opportunity for growth in their roles as they want.
9. Organisational design is always an incomplete and therefore an ongoing process; as soon as a design can be said to have been completed there will be a need to review and adapt this as circumstances change.

1.4.3 Coherent approaches to organisation design

There are a number of models and approaches to organisation design which have attempted to encompass the various factors under consideration when designing an organisation. In so doing they include the social factors at play within an organisation in addition to the technical side of organisation structure and formal processes. Some of these models are applicable beyond organisation design and can be used to analyse an organisation's current state and help to inform interventions for organisational development and organisational change. Three of the most well-known models used in organisation design are the McKinsey 7S model (Waterman, Peters, & Phillips, 1980), Galbraith's Star model (Galbraith, 1977) and the Burke-Litwin model of Organizational

Performance and Change (Burke & Litwin, 1992). Each of these models and the strengths and limitations of them are presented below as illustrative rather than intended to be an exhaustive exploration of the organisation design field.

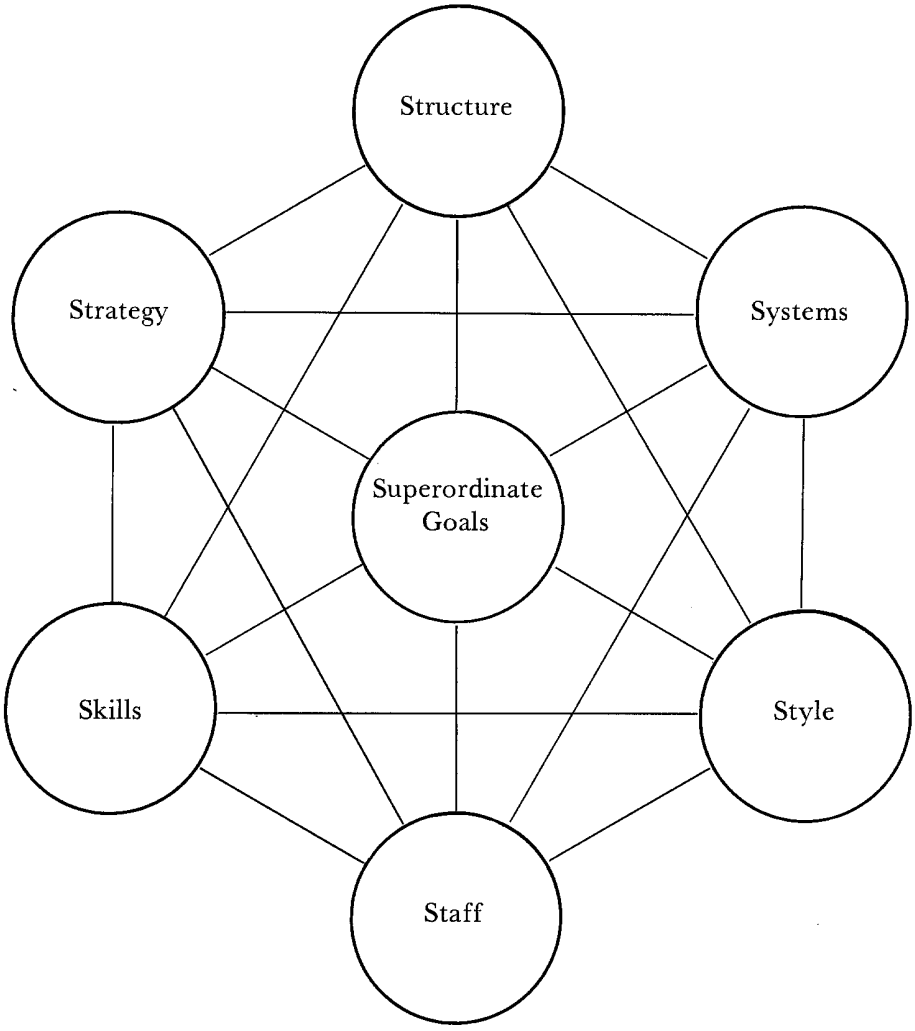


Figure 1: The 7S Model
Reproduced from Waterman, Peters and Phillips (1980, pg. 18).

The 7S model (Figure 1) shows seven factors which need to be considered when thinking about an organisation. These are Superordinate goals (later changed to Shared Values),

Strategy, Structure, Systems, Style, Staff and Skills. The Galbraith Star model (Figure 2) envisions five factors in an interconnected star formation as they are all seen to be interlinked with each other. The five factors are Structure, Information and Decision processes, Reward systems, People processes and Task. In the original model Strategy fed into Task but in later versions Strategy replaced Task as one of the factors.

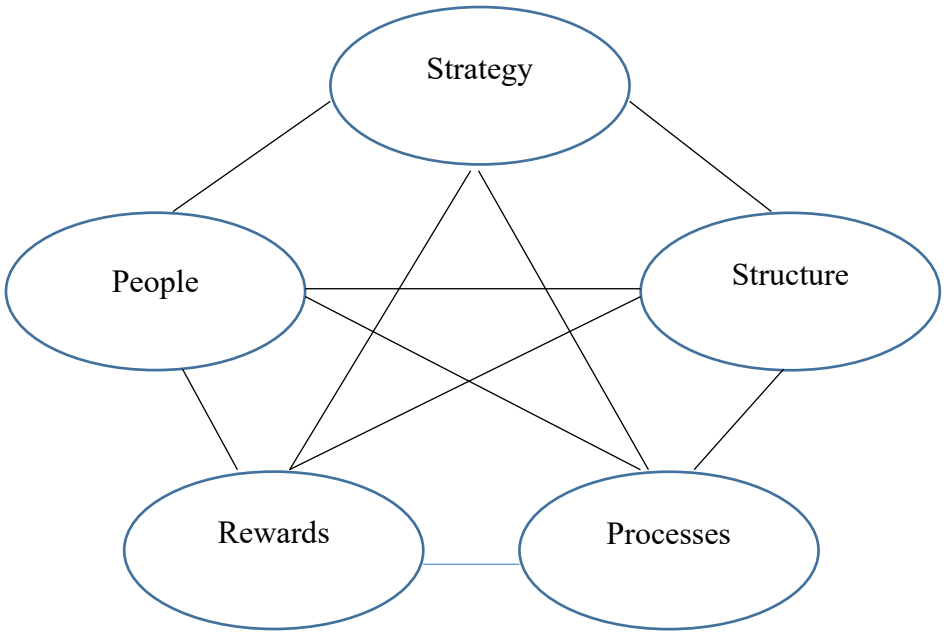


Figure 2: The Star Model
Adapted from Galbraith (1977)

Both the 7S model and the Star model have strengths in highlighting the factors beyond just the structure which need to be taken into account when considering an organisation's design. They also draw attention to the interrelationship between the various factors; making a change to one of the factors may affect and needs to be considered in the context of the other factors.

The models have also been criticised however for lacking explicit considerations of the inputs to the organisation design, particularly the external environment and how this may impact the organisation, as well outputs from the design such as performance variables to assess whether the design is actually successful in achieving its objectives (e.g., Burke & Litwin, 1992; Stanford, 2015). It could be argued that the factor of 'Strategy' in both models could incorporate an understanding of the environment and how the organisation needs to attend to this. Without this explicitly stated however it would be possible for practitioners using these models to become insular in terms of the elegance of the organisation design, but forgetting that design needs to exist within a changing context and actually has to make a difference to the organisation's performance.

To address some of these concerns, the Burke-Litwin (1992) model (Figure 3) includes consideration of the external environment as an input to, in our context organisation design, as well as the overall output of individual and organisational performance. The model is also useful in distinguishing between those transformational factors which are more likely to lead to deeper and broader change and those transactional factors which may only affect day to day activities. If the aim of the organisation design (or change) is to radically alter how the organisation functions, then the model would suggest the work needs to focus on the factors which are likely to produce this such as leadership and organisational culture. These may not be straightforward to change however. If the aim is to make only incremental changes to the organisation's operation, such as improving a process, then the focus can be on the transactional factors which will affect this.

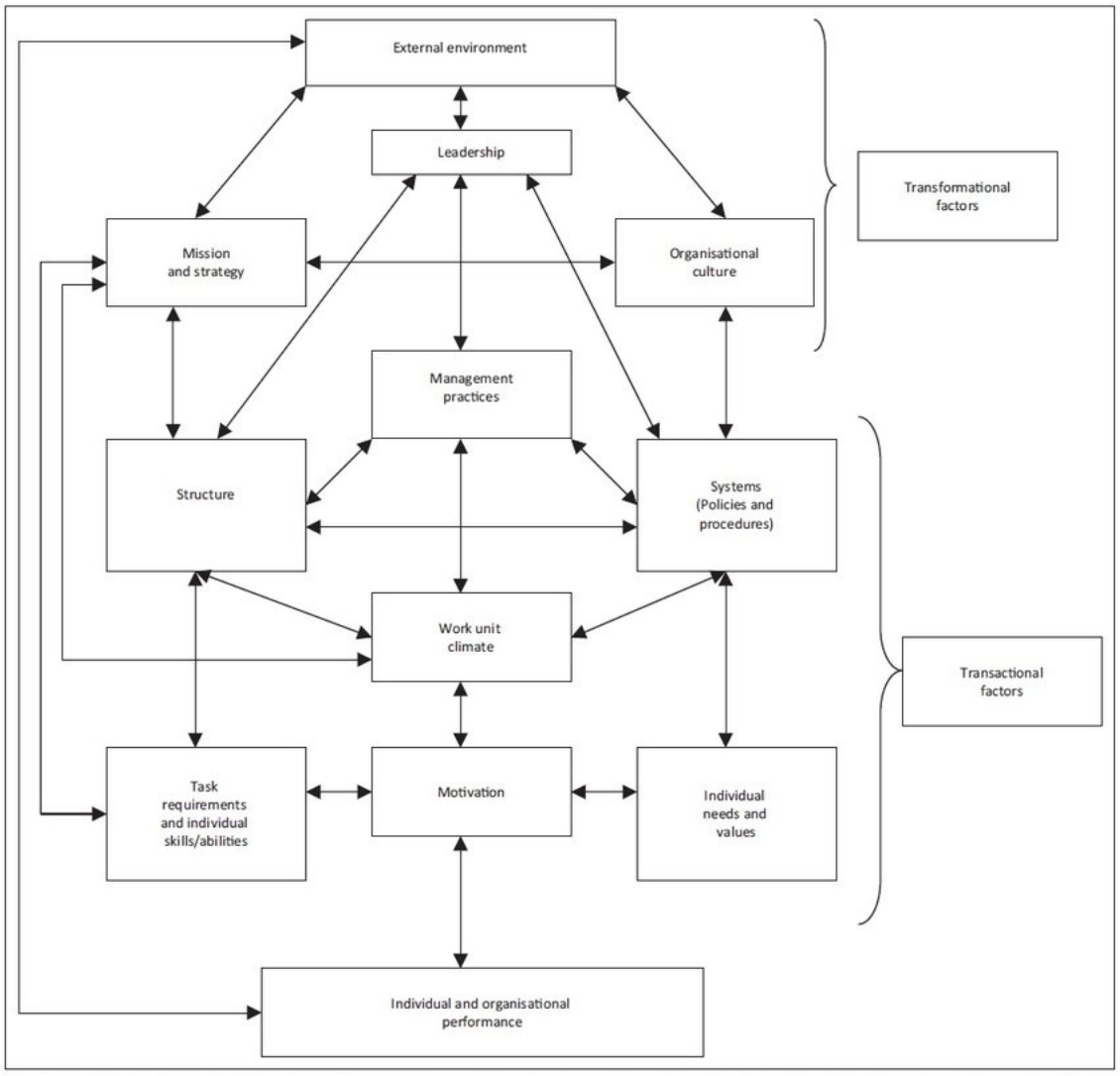


Figure 3: Burke-Litwin Model of Organizational Performance and Change
Burke and Litwin (1992)

There are criticisms of the Burke-Litwin (1992) model (e.g., Stanford, 2015). One of these is that its comprehensiveness also makes it seem unwieldy in comparison to the 7S and Star models. While organisational participants could conceivably use the 7S or Star models to focus and generate discussion quite quickly, albeit imperfect, the Burke-Litwin model would require some explaining. It is not immediately clear for example why the factor of 'Leadership' in the model does not have a direct impact on 'Organisational

culture' (or vice-versa) or why 'Leadership' does not have a direct impact on 'Mission and strategy', when received wisdom would suggest they should. The answer is that leadership is seen as having an indirect or mediating role in these other factors. However a model that requires a lot of explaining creates its own barrier to entry. This would particularly be a challenge when using these models as part of a participative design exercise. It is worth noting that the Star model also does not include culture as a factor as it is seen as something which can't be directly addressed but is an outcome of the decisions made elsewhere.

While the models presented are undoubtedly useful in at least laying out some of the factors which need to be considered when designing an organisation, they do not provide much in the way of the process to designing an organisation. They may present the 'what' but not the 'how'. While they also consider the people factors as an aspect of design, they do not address the participation of people as a factor itself in the effectiveness of the design.

1.4.4 Participation as an approach in itself

In response to the scholasticisation of the STS approach to organisation design, which he felt went against its original aims (Emery, 1995), Emery set out an overall approach to a participative approach to organisation design (Emery & Devane, 1999; Cabana ,1995b and Schweitz, et al, 1997). This approach consists first of a pre-work phase to ensure management understand the implications of the participative approach, set out the

minimum critical specification for the work design and train participants on the participative design approach. The participative design workshop of one and a half to two days is formed of an overall group of about 30 people working in sub-groups to work through a set of activities. These are:

1. Assessing the current structure of work against the six critical requirements of work described by Emery and Thorsrud (1969) above.
2. Assessing the skills possessed by each individual against the skills required for the entire work process that the group is responsible
3. Analysing how their work is currently structured by mapping the workflow and the formal organisation chart
4. Redesigning the work to ensure the minimum critical specification set by management is met, but also to ensure responsibility for effort, quality and coordination is placed with those doing the work and increase the degree to which everyone's six critical requirements of work are met.
5. Reviewing initial designs with management
6. Developing a series of implementation tasks for the final design including the rationale for the design, arrangements for coordination with other areas and training requirements.

Following the workshop is the actual implementation, review and iteration (see Schweitz et al., 1997 pg. 40).

The STS process also often led to parallel design teams in organisations, which went against the original aims of participation. The Future Search Conference (see Weisbord

& Janoff, 1996) and Conference Model (Axelrod, 1992) were developed in reaction to the STS approach to enable the involvement of large numbers of employees in the design of the organisation. In these approaches either the whole organisational membership, or as many as possible, are engaged in multi-day conferences to engage with the organisation's position and challenges, develop design options which respond to these and then develop specific actions to implement the agreed upon design (see Axelrod, 1992).

1.4.5 The wider context of employee participation in organisations

It is noted that the literature on participation in organisation design is a part of a much wider literature base concerning participation in organisations. This literature can be found across different but overlapping fields of study. Participation viewed from a political/industrial relations perspective may for example focus on employee power, representation and collective bargaining from both a national and organisational context. An operational management lens may see participation from the perspective of involving employees in continuous improvements and increasing efficiency. Participation approached from an organisational development perspective may look at the organisational system and how employees can be involved in and affect intervention efforts. Participation viewed through a human resources lens may focus on employee empowerment, democratic leadership and involvement in setting working practices. This can pose difficulties for a researcher in that there may be limited cross-referencing and communication between these different disciplines even though they are touching on the same topic (Wilkinson, Gollan, Marchington & Lewin, 2010).

As well as participation, the literature may also be expressed under other but to some extent permeable terms including employee involvement, empowerment and communications (Wilkinson, Dundon, Donaghey & Freeman, 2020). As noted by Boxall and Purcell, (2010) the common essence within all these terms is the degree of influence employees have in such things as making decisions about how their work is performed, the conditions under which they work and even how the organisation is managed.

The research interest within participation has also varied over time. As summarised by Dundon and Wilkinson (2021), the 1960s saw a focus was on job enrichment and enhanced worker motivation with the rise of the socio-technical school (e.g., Trist, 1981). In the 1970s there was a shift to broader industrial democracy and the power of employee representation through unions. Changes in public policy and industry during the 1980s and 1990s led to an interest in participation through individual commitment and best management practices at a work group level. During the late 1990s and early part of the 2000s participation has been seen in the context of a rise in state regulation and the individuals' employment rights.

Taking it that the literature covering participation in organisations is from a broad base, overlapping and the focus of interest changes with time, we can examine the participation literature which contextualises or directly relates to participative design.

Wilkinson, Dundon and Marchington (2013) propose a framework which can be used to analyse the extent to which employees are able to participate in their work. This considers the level, depth, scope and form of participation. The first considers whether participation

occurs at a level which affects the whole organisation, such as with collective bargaining, or at a more limited team level, such as the allocation of work rotas. The depth of participation considers whether employees are really making or influencing critical decisions at the deeper end, or merely being informed of decisions which affect them at the shallower end. The next aspect of the framework looks at the scope of topics that employees may participate in. These may be wide, covering many different aspects of the organisation and their work, or it be narrow focusing on just one topic. Lastly the framework considers the form in which participation may take place. This could describe direct methods such as meetings and task groups, or indirect methods such as through employee representatives. Using this framework we could conceive of employee participation in organisation design which at one end of a scale merely involves informing a work team about a new practice they will need to adopt, with little if any opportunity to influence this. At the other end of the scale employees may be directly involved in analysing and making crucial decisions on all aspects of an organisation's function and future. It is towards the latter end of the scale that we would find participative organisation design.

We might add to this framework the dimension of timescale, whether participation is something that happens at a discrete point in the organisation's decision making or is a more permanent feature of how things are done. In this vein, Cotton, Vallrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall and Jennings (1988) undertook a comprehensive review of studies looking at the different forms of participation in organisations and how successful these had been. They found that long-term informal participation, where participation is part of the day-to-day interactions between employees and management, was found to increase

employees' productivity and satisfaction. Short-term and formal participation didn't show these benefits. Marchington and Wilkinson (2008) also noted how a packaged approach to employee participation was seen to be preferable to participation initiatives that focus on a single dimension.

Brown (2000) looked at the literature on worker involvement and outlined three different approaches to decision making within this. The first is *Parallel Suggestion* where employees work on solving organisational problems separate to but alongside the normal functioning of the organisation. In this, employees are able to analyse and suggest improvements to organisational activities, but without any authority to implement these. The research suggests this can lead to organisational improvements, but that these are difficult to maintain as employees tend not to have the skills to solve complex problems. Management may also resist the ideas suggested by the groups if they feel threatened by them. The second approach is *Job Involvement* where employees can design work which is more enriching and motivating for them. The research shows improvements to productivity and quality through this approach, although the worker involvement is limited to immediate work decisions. The third approach is that of *High Involvement* where employees are involved in how they do their jobs, how the team performs, how the team is rewarded and how the entire organisation performs. This requires top management commitment for it to work to ensure access to necessary information and that outcomes are supported and embedded in the organisation. Brown suggests there is not one best approach to worker involvement but that a best-fit approach is preferred depending on organisational circumstances.

Again, drawing on this literature, participative organisation design would reflect that of the High Involvement approach suggested by Brown (2000), with a note being made of the top management commitment this requires along with the benefits from ongoing interaction between employees and management suggested by Cotton et al (1988).

Batt and Applebaum (1995) looked at which groups benefitted from participation in organisations and in what ways. Examining worker surveys across three different occupations they found that both organisations and workers tended to gain from participation expressed through self-managed teams. However, there were mixed results within this. Craft workers benefitted the most through greater autonomy and job satisfaction, whereas customer service workers gained in autonomy but not job satisfaction. Machine operators had enhanced jobs and improved team satisfaction, but reduced job satisfaction per se because of increased stress. They advocated for more research across industries and occupations to identify under what conditions and why different forms of participation make a difference to workers and organisations.

Approaching participation from a political, industrial relations perspective, Gill (1993) described how employee participation varied across member states of the European Community. They found more participation being reported in the northern geographical members of the community and less in the southern members. Gill tried to explain this variance in the context of five factors which may influence it (pg.329) and it is these which are of note regarding participative design. The first factor is management's dependence on the skills and co-operation of the workforce in achieving its objectives; with greater dependence meaning more participation. Second is the management style

and attitude towards participation in the organisation, with some cultures being more favourable to this than others. The third factor is the power of organised labour to force management to involve them in decision making, which would then mean more participation. Fourth was any existing regulations which set out participation rights for workers or their representatives and so may mandate at least a partly participative approach. The final factor was the extent to which the industrial relations system is centralised in a country; with more centralisation meaning the higher likelihood of participation. These factors suggested by Gill (1993) may well influence whether a participative approach is taken to the design of an organisation; though not necessarily whether it will be successful or welcomed by all.

Adopting an operational management lens, then approaches such as the Japanese Kaizen approach (e.g., Imai, 1986) focuses on a practice of seeking to continually improve how things are done within an organisation. This is enacted through a cycle of seeking opportunities for improvement, implementing these, evaluating the results, iterating or ensuring these become standard practise across the organisation and then looking again for opportunities to improve. Core to this approach is the involvement of employees at all levels of the organisation so that it becomes a part of how the organisation continually operates, not a separate activity looking at how the organisation operates. This is seen to enable those doing the work to think about their work and take ownership and accountability for improving how it is done. The Kaizen approach has been adopted by a number of organisations, possibly the most well known being Toyota as part of its Toyota Production System (Ohno, 1988) though also by Unilever (Imai, 1997) among others.

Involvement of employees through a Kaizen approach of continual improvement has relevance to their participation in organisation design, which is also about adaptations to ensure the organisation continues to be fit for purpose. However there are also criticisms of the Kaizen approach which are relevant to bear in mind when considering participative organisation design. One of these is that Kaizen may encourage a focus on incremental, short term and superficial improvements to an organisation's operation, to the detriment of deeper and systemic thinking which may be required (e.g., Bessant, Caffyn & Gallagher, 2001). This would particularly be the case where an organisation needs to fundamentally rethink its design rather than merely making tweaks to how it operates. Another criticism is that the Kaizen approach requires a certain culture which supports people taking responsibility for their work, working together, wanting to making improvements for the organisation's benefit and being able to propose these to decision makers. This may not be the case in many organisations because of the prevailing national culture or management culture (e.g., Dahlgaard-Park & Dahlgaard, 2007). This is of relevance to participative organisation design in that it suggests participation may require certain cultural conditions to be present for it to be successful.

The literature on participation from the context of organisational development, covers several areas which are relevant to participative design. Organisational change, a key part of organisational development and itself a wide topic for study, is descriptive of what happens when a design for an organisation is developed and implemented. Coch and French (1948) highlighted the possibility that employees participating in changes which affect their working methods, may lessen their resistance to those changes. Dunphy and Stace (1992) set out four approaches to the management of change which varied

depending on the degree to which employees were involved: Collaborative, Consultative, Directive and Coercive. They suggest that Consultative and Directive approaches tend to dominate the change practices, except where rapid organisational transformation is required in which case coercive approaches tend to be used. Storey (1992) identified two key dimensions of change. The first concerned the amount of collaboration between the parties involved, varying from change which is defined exclusively by management through to that which is brought about through joint agreement. The second dimension concerned the form of the change, varying from change which is part of a complete package through to that which is a sequence of individual initiatives.

Kotter (1996) proposed that the overall direction of change should be decided by senior management, but its implementation is the responsibility of empowered managers and employees at all levels. Burnes (2017) constructs a framework for change where the preferred approach depends on the interaction of the speed of the change required and the scale and complexity of the change being encountered. In this framework, a participative approach is best used where urgency is not a priority and the change concerns changes to the organisation's culture (large scale and complex) or people's behaviours (smaller scale, less complex), rather than the technical side of the organisation such as structures and procedures.

From the above literature we would suggest that participative organisation design reflects the principle of involving employees in a collaborative, complete approach to change. Again the points about senior management deciding the direction of the change and

whether participation is only suitable for non-urgent, cultural change should be noted and will be revisited later.

Participatory Action Research (PAR) describes an approach of working with - and within - a community to understand and make improvements to issues which affect that community. The work of Kurt Lewin (1946) was one of the foundational pieces of research in this area and a major influencer for its application within the field of organisational development. The PAR approach has though been developed and applied by researchers working within other contexts. These include the work of Paulo Freire (1970) applying PAR in an educational setting where students, parents and teachers can be involved in developing an effective learning environment. Orlando Fals Borda's (1987) was also influential in the development and application of PAR for education reform and community development in a Latin American context. Anisur Rahman (1993) advocated for the use of PAR approach in working with marginalised communities in areas such as South East Asia. Participatory Action Research has also been used in the context of improving public health (e.g., Israel, Schulz, Parker, and Becker, 1998).

The links between Participatory Action Research as an approach and the subject of participative organisation design are easy to make and there are a number of authors, in addition to those mentioned above, who have applied the approach to the design and development of organisations. Reason (e.g., Reason & Bradbury, 2001) emphasised the participatory and collaborative approaches of involving stakeholders in understanding organisational situations, including the effective design of those organisations. Pasmore (1988), in the context of the socio-technical systems approach to organisation design,

advocated for the involvement of employees in designing their work as they were more likely to support and implement any changes required.

It should be noted the potential problems with PAR. There is the assumption that the community has the knowledge, capability and motivation to understand the issues that are affecting it and how to improve this. It also assumes the community is capable of consensus, rather than just concession: It may be that some voices are more powerful in the community and force their agenda through to the detriment of others (e.g., Cooke & Kothari, 2001).

Appreciative Inquiry (e.g., Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987; Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005) is another approach to organisational analysis and development which has applications to the topic of participative organisation design. Appreciative Inquiry (AI) focuses on what an organisation already does well and how this can be capitalised on to develop it for the future. It is based on the premise that focusing on strengths, rather than deficiencies and problems, is more likely to energise people to develop for the future. The key stages of AI – Definition, Discovery, Dream, Design and Delivery – can be readily incorporated into participative organisation design. Employees may well be best placed and motivated to define what the focus for the redesign of the organisation is; what is currently working well in the organisation to deliver on its purpose; imagining what the future organisation may look like, as well as then designing and implementing the required outputs for this all to come to fruition.

Again, while there is much to be gained from this approach to participative organisation design, there are potential drawbacks with a purely AI perspective which other researchers have noted (e.g., Marshak, 2006; Bushe, 2010). While focusing on an organisation's strengths can be empowering, these may not be the strengths an organisation requires for the future and may also be based on power dynamics and inequities which should not be sustained. The focus on strengths and positivity may also ignore problems that an organisation needs to engage with, however unpalatable.

In contrast to the traditional diagnostic approaches to organisation development they felt had come before, focused on expert driven, diagnosis of organisational problems and then planned linear changes to improve this, Bushe and Marshak (2009) conceptualised the approach of 'Dialogic Organisation Development'. This treats dialogue not just as a tool that an expert might use within their approach, but instead it is the approach. Here what faces the organisation and how to improve this are not seen as something which can be viewed as objectively separate from the people within the organisation and the constructions they create. Therefore working with and within these constructions through dialogue is the way to understand the organisation and how to develop it. While there might still be an expert leading this process, the expertise is now about understanding how to elicit and guide dialogue towards creating meanings and direction which are right from the perspective of the participants.

There is a clear relevance of this dialogic approach to organisation development and change and the practice of participative organisation design. As organisation design is an example of organisation change, then dialogic organisation development would advocate

for the involvement of participants in conversations to understand the current way of delivering the organisation's purpose and how this might need to be altered. There is not a 'correct' design which can be seen and implemented by an organisation design expert, with input from information providers, but a design is created and agreed upon by those who have the information.

While a lot can be gained from understanding and using the dialogic approach to organisation development, there are criticisms of it which are also relevant to participative organisation design. Bushe and Marshak (2015) touch on some of these criticisms. Perhaps key amongst these for those not used to it, are its lack of planned structure and its potential to lead to ambiguity and confusion among the participants. While this may be a necessary and important part of the process, it may not be welcomed by those going through it or those ultimately accountable for the organisation delivering on its outputs.

Looking at participation in organisations from the perspective of leadership, which as already stated cannot be seen as completely distinct from the perspectives covered above, there are several pieces of literature which are relevant to participative organisation design.

Likert (1967) proposed a theory of management which describes four systems of management. System 1 is an authoritative, exploitative approach where all control and decision making is held at the top of the organisation and employees are dealt with as resources, not to be trusted and therefore closely supervised. System 2 is still authoritative, with power held by top management, though in a more paternalistic way so

there is some consideration as to what may benefit employees, though without them being involved in deciding this. System 3 is an approach where employees are more trusted by management and are therefore consulted on decisions, although management will have the final say on what happens. System 4 describes a management approach where management and employees work as a more equal group in setting goals, making decisions and evaluating results.

Gastil (1994) proposed the idea of democratic leadership where the leader distributes responsibility amongst the team and empowers them to make decisions to ensure they participate in decision making and problem solving. Sharma and Kirkman (2015) also suggest empowering leadership includes delegating decision making to the team members. In a meta-analysis, Lee, Willis and Tian (2018) found evidence of empowering leadership practices, such as creating meaning in work and developing team member competence, as having effects on people's performance, organisational citizenship behaviour and creativity. Walton (1985) set out the difference between a management strategy based on imposing control and a strategy based on eliciting commitment and the difference this made to two chemical plants in the same U.S. corporation. The plant focused on eliciting commitment was a top performer economically and showed high measures of employee satisfaction and safety, along with low rates of absenteeism and turnover.

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of situational leadership and decision making (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) is relevant to participative organisation design. This

model sets out how organisational leaders can approach decision making and adopt an appropriate leadership style depending on the objectives and context. In this model there are five different approaches leaders can take to decision making. These range from an entirely autocratic style, where the leader makes the decision themselves based on whatever information they have, through to a participative approach where the work group would analyse and make a decision in collaboration with the leader.

Importantly the model sets out how leaders can work through a series of questions and decision tree in order to determine what the most appropriate approach would be. The first three questions posed in the model cover questions on whether the quality of the decision is important, whether the team's commitment to the decision outcome is important and whether the leader has sufficient information to make the decision alone. Each yes/no response may either lead to another decision question or to a suggested leadership style to take. Where for example the quality of the decision is important, the leader has all the information to make the decision and the team's commitment to the decision outcome is not important, then an autocratic style can be adopted by the leader in tackling that decision. Using this model, the participative approach to organisational design would be where the leader doesn't have all the information required to make the decision themselves, team commitment to the final decision is important and where the team shares the same organisational goals as the leader.

1.5 Why participation matters in organisation design

As already noted, the classical approach to organisation design can be seen as the remit of senior managers in the organisation (Khandwalla, 1977; Harris and Raviv, 2002 cited in Visscher and Fisscher (2012); Balogun, 2007). Yet with the continued shift to knowledge work in certain economies and the increased complexity and velocity of change that many organisations are dealing with (Grant & Parker, 2009), along with the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and digitisation, it may be that senior management are excluding from organisation design the very people who may be best placed to determine and implement it.

What we can glean from looking at the wider literature on participation in organisations is that, in certain circumstances at least, employee involvement is generally seen to be beneficial for the organisation and its people, being seen as both a right and as economic good sense (Dundon & Wilkinson, 2021). Research has also emphasised the importance of employee participation by documenting statistical links between high involvement practices and organisational performance (e.g., Becker and Huselid, 2009).

Participatory approaches have also been found to empower employees through social support, self-direction and action (Arneson and Ekberg, 2005), with both the type and amount of participation being linked to outcomes such as working conditions (Aust, Rugulies, Finken & Jensen, 2010), job satisfaction (Nielsen, Randall & Albertsen, 2007), employees' beliefs that joint problem-solving was worthwhile engaging in (Heaney, Israel, Schurman, Baker, House & Hugentobler, 1993) and achievement of goals and organizational commitment (Lines, 2004). Furthermore, as Nielsen (2013) points out,

employees play an important role in crafting both the content and process of an intervention and they should therefore not be seen as passive recipients in this. The way work is organized, designed and managed requires both line managers and employees to jointly change their behaviours in order to change work practices and procedures.

1.6 Research Aims

This thesis aims to examine what is known about participatory approaches to organisation design and seeks to understand what helps participative approaches to organisational design succeed in organisations.

1.7 Reflexive Position

I have been involved in designing organisations to some extent throughout my career in Human Resources. Yet it is only relatively recently that I have been involved in Organisation Design as a field and found it becoming an increasing part of my professional life. Throughout my time working in organisations, I have seen organisational designs both done well and done badly and been on the receiving end of each. I have also seen many organisational designs merely existing as changes in what jobs are called, what tasks they consist of, where they sit in the hierarchy and who they report to. Not often have I seen the design of organisations consider factors beyond this, such as what capabilities need to be present in the organisation for it to achieve its purpose, what processes need to exist and change to get the work done, or what

behaviours are required of people and how these behaviours should best be measured and rewarded.

My interest and belief in people being involved in decisions and changes that affect their work is long standing, from values which lean towards socialism with a small ‘s’ and my experience within Human Resources and Organisation Development. I experienced this involvement within organisation design when I was facilitating a large-scale redesign within an organisational department several years back. I advocated for a partial involvement of the employees in designing the processes which should exist within the new department. As they were the ones doing the work and closest to the customers, it made sense that they would know the current processes and be able to design and implement the required processes more effectively. They may also be more inclined to ensure these succeeded. This was accepted by the senior leadership along with the external consultants who were advising on the technical changes required.

Having completed this stage of the redesign well, I suggested to the senior leadership that the employees should also be involved in the design of the actual structure of the new department. After some discussion and anxiety, they agreed. As we arranged a meeting to present this to the employees, it was a moment of serendipity when we discovered that they had also requested a meeting with us to propose that they should be involved in designing their new structure, not just the processes. The redesign was the most successful that had occurred in an organisation with a long history of clandestine restructuring and was referred to as a model of how to do it thereafter.

An illustrative side note to this though was that, even after the final design had been put forward and agreed by all parties, a member of my own leadership team within HR tried to propose an alternative structure to the departmental director while I was away on holiday. Thankfully the director was fully on board with the involvement and engagement their team had shown in creating their own redesign and rejected this.

These experiences further cemented my interest in the field and raised questions which are addressed in the research aims of this thesis.

1.8 Summary

This research thesis is set within the field of organisation design and is examining what helps participatory approaches to such design, where team members take an active part in influencing the process and outcome. Most, if not all organisations will need to design and redesign their organisations effectively to deal with changes which affect them. For many organisations the expertise of their people is the main enabler for their success. Examining how these people can be involved in the design of their organisations and what helps this approach is a valuable topic for study.

Chapter 2: Methodology

2.1 Overview

This chapter sets out the overall methodology used to examine the question 'What helps the participatory approach to organisation design?' along with the rationale for decisions made. The author's epistemological approach is also discussed.

Two separate studies were conducted as part of this research. The first study was a systematic literature review to explore what is already known about participatory approaches to organisation design. The rationale for conducting a systematic review is provided. The second study was qualitative empirical research looking at what helps participatory approaches to organisation design when seen through the perspectives of the organisation design practitioners who facilitate this. The rationale for taking a qualitative approach to this study is provided. Finally, this chapter also sets out the ethical considerations which were considered in the second study and how these were addressed.

2.2 Research approach

A critical realist perspective (Bhaskar, 1975; 2008) is adopted in this thesis. This posits that some objective reality may exist, but we can only partially know it from what we observe and experience. The reasons for adopting this approach are two-fold.

The first is that the interest and focus of this thesis from a research perspective is in how we can establish some understanding of what helps the participatory approach to

organisation design to succeed. It is not the aim of the thesis to try and establish definitively whether the participatory approach does work, or whether it works better than other non-participatory approaches. This may certainly be an interesting research area. However, it would be difficult to operationalise what we mean for an approach to be considered objectively successful. It would also be complex to isolate and control for all the variables in deciding how much the design of an organisation contributes to the organisation's success.

This therefore argues against adopting a purely positivist approach to the topic. Instead, the focus is in developing some understanding and narrative of what may help the participatory design approach to work. In doing this the author recognises that we need to be willing to accept some agreement among the actors that the participatory approach can work or can work in particular circumstances. Also that we can then establish some shared participatory practices which help this approach. It is also acknowledged that the author is establishing one 'story' about the factors which enable participative organisation design to work. This story is set within a certain time and using the various voices involved in the story, along with the author's own narrative creation of this story. A different author, different voices and/or different time may well create a different story.

The second reason for adopting a critical-realist approach (Bhaskar, 1975; 2008) represents my role as an organisation design consultant. Seen from this role, the main audience for the outputs of this thesis are likely to be other organisation design practitioners, human resource practitioners and management within organisations. As such it is the author's experience that these audiences, while appreciating the contextual

nature of the research, will favour a practicable set of outcomes. In essence this amounts to a '*what did you find out about participative organisation design and how can we use this?*'.

The stance taken therefore is that there is some shared understanding of reality which can be found in the research and which we can collectively agree upon which help participatory approaches to succeed, even though our agreement may not overlap completely and we may debate the exact nomenclature.

2.3 Study one – Systematic Literature Review

The first study was a Systematic Literature Review examining what is known about employee participation in organisation design. A Systematic Literature Review (SLR) is defined by Denyer and Tranfield as "a specific methodology that locates existing studies, selects and evaluates contributions, analyses and synthesizes data and reports the evidence in such a way that allows reasonably clear conclusions to be reached about what is and is not known" (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009, p. 671).

SLRs can offer advantages over traditional literature or narrative reviews by being clearer about the questions the review is designed to answer, having strict inclusion criteria, taking in a wide body of literature, trying to minimise researcher bias and reporting the review in detail so it could be replicated (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). However, systematic literature reviews can take longer than traditional literature reviews (e.g., Allen

& Olkin, 1999; cited in Petticrew & Roberts, 2006) and have been criticised for being inconclusive (Cassell, 2011) and disregarding relevant data (Burke, 2011).

As part of the reflection on this thesis the author can attest that these concerns were valid, as literature which is prevalent amongst practitioners in the field of participative organisation design was excluded by the criteria set by the SLR. While this discrepancy was understood and captured in the contextual narrative for the thesis, it was still a concern that a systematic literature review might omit authors and publications which are 'de rigueur' for anyone wanting to have credibility in the field. However, on balance, SLRs have been found to be worth the additional effort required (Rojon, McDowall & Saunders, 2011) and are considered the 'gold standard in literature reviews' (Hong & Pluye, 2018 pg. 263).

There are other methods available for reviewing previous research in a systematic way, such as a meta-analytic study (Glass, 1976) which has been used in the field of organisational psychology (e.g., Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). However, this was felt unsuitable for examining this research topic. Primarily this was because the aim wasn't to examine a quantitative appraisal of the field but secondly because a brief examination of the literature prior to the SLR suggested a lack of suitable studies to draw from. Furthermore, it is recognised that the scope and scale of reviews can vary greatly. For the purposes of this thesis and given time and resource constraints, the research question, search strategy and approach was necessarily contained.

The reasons for conducting a Systematic Literature Review as part of this thesis then were three-fold. The first was to investigate what was already known about what the topic of

participative organisation design and what may help these approaches to succeed. A review of the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews indicated no previous systematic reviews of this topic had been conducted and an initial search of Google Scholar also suggested a systematic review had not been carried out. This suggested that a systematic review of the published literature would be a useful first step in researching the thesis topic.

The second reason for conducting a systematic literature review was to understand the context in which the empirical study would take place. It would be of use to set out not just what was already known about participative organisation design but also how the topic had been approached by other researchers. It would be interesting to see whether participative organisation design is investigated in a positivist, quantitative way or whether researchers take a more interpretive, qualitative approach. It would also be interesting to understand whether authors were attempting to contextualise and add their research to an existing body of knowledge in the field, or whether each publication was isolated to itself.

This then led on to the third reason for conducting an SLR which was to help shape the research aims for the second study. Understanding what was already known about participative organisation design, how participative approaches had been implemented and understanding the research gaps within an existing body of literature, helped to craft the research questions for the empirical study. Together, the systematic review of the current literature and the author's original research aims to provide a better picture of

what factors need to be in place for participatory approaches to succeed in organisation design.

In performing the systematic literature review, the characteristics set out by Pluye, Hong, Bush and Vedel (2016) were followed. These were having specific research questions, established eligibility criteria, an extensive and systematic search of the literature, cross checking of the selection of studies by two or more researchers and a rigorous synthesis of the findings.

2.4 Study two – empirical research

Within the Critical-Realist perspective (Bhaskar, 1975; 2008) already described, the second study employed a qualitative method to investigate the perceptions and experiences of organisation design practitioners who facilitate participative design exercises within organisations. The reason for focusing on organisation design practitioners is that they should have a perspective covering many participative designs and they may also be able to distinguish between what was intended in the participative exercise and what transpired from it. This would then allow a narrative to be developed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) of the factors which help the participative approach to succeed. While new guidance on thematic analysis has been released by Braun & Clarke, (2022) this was not available at the time of my research planning, conduct and commencement of the study analysis and for this reason I refer to the original formulation of the approach throughout.

A semi-structured interview approach was employed with the participants to identify the experiences and perceptions they had of participative organisational design. The design of semi-structured interviews and their advantages and drawbacks are set out by Adams (2015). The advantages are that the semi-structured approach provides a focus for the interview, some basis for consistency and comparison across participants, yet also allows exploration around the topic if the conversation developed in this way. This suited the research aims as there was no prior expectations of what participant's perceptions would be and so allowed themes to be developed during the analysis. The drawbacks of the approach are that semi-structured interviews are time intensive for the researcher and participant to conduct and particularly time intensive for the researcher when it comes to transcribing and analysing the scripts. The semi-structured interview approach also requires a level of skill on the part of the researcher to design the questions and conduct the interview effectively and with care. Perhaps the biggest drawback with the semi-structured interview approach is the limited number of participants which can be included in the study when there is only one researcher.

Other approaches considered were using focus groups (Merton & Kendall, 1946) of organisation design practitioners, which may have also led to rich discussion and data for analysis. However, it may have been practically difficult to get people together for the length of time anticipated, even if the focus group was conducted virtually. There was also the problem that the information divulged by participants would not be confidential, which may have led people to be less willing to share useful pieces of data. The main reason for rejecting this approach though was that some voices may have been lost in the process in deference to those deemed as having more expertise, whether accurate or not.

There is also the risk that useful pieces of data may also have been lost to that which was deemed as more obvious.

Another approach would have been to use some form of survey, perhaps combining some closed-ended questions with more open-ended questions. The advantages of this method would have been the volume of questionnaires which could have been issued, though the response rate may not be high (e.g., Nayak & Narayan, 2019). A survey would also not easily allow the researcher to delve into a participant's responses without carrying out a further interview with them.

Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) was the chosen analytic method as it suited the key aims of the research, which were to understand the factors which may affect the success of the participative design method. The approach was to gather practitioners' experiences and perspectives of what influences the participative design approach and then form these into a thematic structure which fitted the researcher's understanding of the practitioners' views. In this regard, Thematic Analysis can be used either with or without a pre-existing theoretical framework in place and the researcher's approach was to allow sense-making to come through the analytic process rather than overlaying the findings onto a model of participative design. Thematic Analysis also suited the researcher's philosophical Critical-Realist (Bhaskar, 1975; 2008) stance that, while the thematic structure developed was only one possible way of conceiving of the factors influencing participative design, it would form enough of a collective basis amongst researchers and practitioners to contribute to our knowledge of this area.

Other techniques which had been considered as part of the initial analytic design were Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (Smith, 1996), which looks at how people apply meanings to and make sense of their experiences. However, the research aims for this thesis were about how we can identify factors which help the participative design approach, rather than an individual consultant's sense making while they were facilitating a design exercise. Another analytical approach considered was Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) whereby an inductive approach is used to generate a new hypothesis or theory from the data that is gathered. However, the focus of the research for this thesis was less about generating a hypothesis about participative design and more about identifying themes which were important for it to work.

2.5 Reflexivity Statement

As part of the professional doctorate the thesis also includes a systematic reflection on the process of developing the thesis (Appendix 1). This included the skills I gained, the things I learnt and my own performance as a student and researcher. It is important also to note the assumptions and biases I may have brought to the methodology, some of which may be so ingrained it is a challenge even to be aware of them.

One of the most evident potential biases is that I share many of the demographic characteristics with my participants for the empirical study. All my participants were White, of European or North American origin, of a similar average age to my own and in 12 out of 15 cases, male. It was not an intention of the study to find people like me, but

that has happened. That my perspective is that this demographic profile reflects those working in the field of organisational design is also an indication of possible bias. Perhaps my viewpoint is too narrow; there may be a world of thinking about participative organisation design of which I am only partly aware.

I am also a consultant, applying principles of organisation design through projects I manage, so I am conscious that I may share certain paradigms and assumptions with my participants in the study. This could have led to biases in the nature of the research questions set, the kinds of questions I asked of participants, the questions I left unasked through assumptions or fear of appearing ignorant and how I analysed the data to create themes. One paradigm that I may share with my participants is that we have been educated and socialised within a Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich and Democratic system (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). This paradigm may among other things value the establishment of a truth, getting things done and an individual's rights even if this all comes at the expense of short-term social harmony (e.g., Hofstede, 2001). We bring this to our work and more importantly may believe this is right and universal.

I also recognise that I am approaching the topic of participative organisation design through the lenses of Organisation Design, Organisation Development, Organisational Psychology and Human Resources. This brings with it certain shared paradigms in these fields, such as people being already situated within the restrictions of an organisation, which may have been different had I approached the participation topic through the lens of community development or education for example.

As a researcher undertaking a professional doctorate in this area, I am also approaching the topic through a critical, but also realist lens. I am seeing the topic as something which we can identify, understand and then apply in a way to improve current practice. I am not therefore trying to deconstruct the topic of participative organisation design and by doing so determine that it is entirely a constructed phenomenon; something which we can only ever understand in the context of the actors within a situation from which no objective principles can be drawn and applied.

2.6 Ethics

As a Chartered Psychologist and Registered Occupational Psychologist, I adhered to the British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2018) and the Health and Care Professions Council Standards of Conduct, Performance and Ethics (2016). There were several actions taken in respect of this research in order to ensure it was conducted in an ethical manner.

Participants for Study 2 were informed about the objectives and nature of the research through an Information Sheet for Participants (Appendix 2). This set out the purpose of the study and who was conducting it; why they were being asked to take part; the procedures for taking part; the main questions that would be asked of them; what would happen to the information they provided and their right to withdraw. Participants were then explicitly asked to consent to take part in the study (Appendix 3).

All information gathered from participants was kept securely and analysed only by the author. Any information used in this thesis was anonymised both in name and the context so an individual could not be identified directly or indirectly. Following the interviews, participants were sent a Debrief sheet (Appendix 4) which reminded them of the aims of the study, that their information would be anonymised and treated confidentially and who to contact if they had any concerns about the study. A risk assessment was carried out by the author for the study and ethical approval was granted by the Birkbeck School of Business, Economics and Informatics School's Review Committee before the study commenced (Approval Number: OPEA-21/22-07).

2.7 Summary

This thesis examines what helps the participative approach to organisation design. A Critical-Realist (Bhaskar, 1975; 2008) perspective is taken as my epistemological stance. Two separate studies were undertaken. The first was a systematic literature review to discover what was already known about participatory approaches to organisation design. This then informed the design of the second study, a qualitative study into what helps the participatory approach from the perspectives and experiences of organisational design practitioners who facilitate the process. Thematic Analysis was identified as the most appropriate methodology to generate the themes from the second study.

Chapter 3: A systematic review of participative organisation design and restructuring (Study One)

3.1 Abstract

Organisations spend significant amounts of money and resources on organisational design and restructuring (CIMA, 2020), yet many of their efforts fail to meet their objectives (Aronowitz et al., 2015). Involving team members in the design and implementation of their own organisational design may improve the success rate of these initiatives (e.g., Emery, 1995) To the author's knowledge no systematic review has been conducted looking at what happens when such participative approaches are applied to organisational design. The purpose of this study was therefore to systematically review the research on team members' participation in organisation design. The review identified 13 studies which met the inclusion criteria. Findings indicate that the majority of studies are descriptive and advocative of the participative approach to organisational design, yet with some promising evidence for the approach's association with positive outcomes and what factors may affect participation. The implications for future research and the practical implications for participative organisational design are discussed.

3.2 Introduction

Chapter 1 set out some of the key literature regarding the approaches to organisation design and the many factors that influence its effectiveness. Researchers have long since recognised the role of involving people in the design of their own work and organisations (e.g., Cherns, 1976; Trist, 1981) and more recent work has attempted to encapsulate this

into a participative approach to organisation design (e.g., Emery & Devane, 1999). As yet though, no attempt has been made to bring this literature together to capture what works and what doesn't work with the participative approach.

3.3 The present study

The present study is a systematic literature review to explore what is already known about employees' participation in organisational design. The aim is to fill the gap identified in the literature so we can see how the evidence informs our understanding of what helps this approach when designing organisations. This would add to our academic knowledge of this field and may suggest further avenues for research. The review would also be helpful for organisation design practitioners to inform how they might advise management within organisations regarding the feasibility of the participative approach and what may facilitate its success.

3.4 Objectives of this systematic review

The overall research question for this systematic literature review is to examine what is already known about the participative approach to organisation design and what helps this approach to be successful. The focus is on the perspectives of those involved from actual designs using a participative design approach, rather than theoretical deduction of what should work.

This overall objective is divided into a number of research questions for the systematic review:

1. What is known about the effect of using the participative design approach on the people in the team who are participating?
2. What is known about the effect of using the participative design approach for the organisation?
3. What is known about the factors that affect the success of the participative design approach?

3.5 Method

In conducting the review, a systematic approach was used as advocated by Briner and Denyer (2012). In adapted form this consists of several pre-determined stages: 1.) Identifying and defining the question(s) to be addressed by the review 2.) Setting out the inclusion and exclusion criteria which will determine what literature will be considered in answering the review question(s) 3.) A full search of the literature according to the inclusion criteria 4.) Sifting the literature to determine what should be accepted and what should be rejected according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria. 5.) Systematic extraction of relevant information across comparable categories 6.) Critical appraisal of the quality of the included literature 7.) Synthesis of the extracted information in answering the review question(s) 8.) Write up and dissemination of the review.

3.5.1 identifying the questions to be addressed by the review

The overall research topic and research questions were developed based on the research interest for the thesis and a high-level review of literature relevant to participatory organisation design. The research questions and search strategy were developed in consultation with two research supervisors and a subject matter expert librarian.

3.5.2 Setting out the inclusion and exclusion criteria

Based on the research questions being addressed in the study, the inclusion and exclusion criteria were established using the SPIO framework (Study Design, Participants, Interventions and Outcomes) after Robertson, Cooper, Sarkar and Curran (2015) and are shown in Table 1. Due to the nature of the topic being addressed, high-level review of relevant literature suggested that grey literature should also be included in the search strategy.

Table 1:SPIO inclusion and exclusion criteria

	Inclusion criteria	**Exclusion criteria**
Study design	Quantitative or Qualitative Longitudinal or cross-sectional design studies Open publication date in order to capture potential material from any time period which may still be of relevance to the research topic	Thought papers

Participants	Working adults (18+) as this is the population of interest in terms of the proposed research study which will be based on teams working in organisations	Non-working adults or student samples
Intervention focus	Studies related to participative organisational restructuring Organisations as the research topic will be on what happens in teams working within organisations Any type of organisation Any country	Non organisation based studies (e.g., those based on community or interest groups) Studies related to organisational change which did not involve organisational restructuring Studies which were about participative decision making which wasn't about organisational restructuring Not self-managed teams Not job crafting or work design at an individual job level
Outcomes	Any outcomes of people's experiences of participative organisational restructuring English language, peer reviewed journals plus PhD theses and a search of the grey literature via Google	Non-English language studies Commentary on participative organisational restructuring (e.g., forum posts and opinions on articles)

3.5.3 Search strategy

During March – April 2020 a computerised search was conducted of databases covering both peer reviewed articles and the grey literature, with the inclusion of the latter deemed relevant as it was expected that the nature of the research topic would mean articles were likely to appear in occupational publications. The selection of databases and search

options chosen were identified through discussion between the research team and consultation with literature search experts. These are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Search databases and search options chosen

Literature Source		**Search options chosen**
Peer reviewed	Business Source Premier PsycArticles PsycInfo	Boolean Apply related words Apply equivalent subjects Scholarly peer reviewed journals
	Scopus	Documents Article title, Abstract, Keywords
Grey literature	Ethos	Also tried combinations including 'Participation in organisation restructuring'
	Index to Theses	Search string but removed the * in front of words as wouldn't accept them Chose all document types
	Business Source Premier	Case studies Proceedings Reports Working Papers
	Google Scholar	Search string and reviewed first 10 pages of results (100 results reviewed)
	Google	Search string and reviewed first 10 pages and selected relevant titles Also repeated the search using search term 'Employee Participation in organisational Restructuring'

Keyword search terms were identified covering the Subject, the Mechanism and the Context through preliminary exploration of the subject literature, consultation with literature search experts and discussion between the research team. From the search terms identified, several search strings were trialled and then refined to ensure the search was capturing relevant literature but not to the extent that large quantities of irrelevant material were being included. The final search string used was:

(employee OR "team member*" OR worker OR individual* OR staff) AND (participati* OR collaborat* OR involve* OR collective) AND ("organi* restructur*" OR "work* restructur*" OR "job crafting" OR "organi* design" OR "team restructur*" OR "team work*" OR "work *design" OR "job *design" OR "work organi*")

The time period for when studies could have been published was left open ended as it was felt that relevant literature relating to the research topic could have been written at any time and the findings may still be relevant. Only literature published in the English language was included in the search strategy.

The search grid and refinement of literature records retrieved from searches and subsequent inclusion were tracked on a spreadsheet.

3.5.4 Selection of studies for inclusion

The initial records retrieved from the literature search were imported into Mendeley and duplicates were removed, first using the auto function in Mendeley and then performing a manual search through the results to ensure all duplicates were captured and removed. The resulting records were then subjected to broad screening by the first researcher, selecting relevant titles according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The second researcher also independently completed a review of the titles according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria and the results from both researchers were then compared to identify titles that were selected by both researchers.

This resulted in 36 titles being selected by both researchers. Where there were discrepancies, with titles being selected by only one of the researchers, a third researcher checked these titles only and decided whether they should be included. There were 246 titles selected only by the first researcher and 34 titles selected only by the second researcher resulting in a Kappa Coefficient (Cohen, 1960) of 0.19, suggesting slight agreement between the researchers. The reason for the large discrepancy was the first researcher deliberately deciding to include titles at this stage even where there was a slight possibility it may be related to the research topic. This discrepancy was discussed at this stage by the first and second researchers. As a result of the review by the third researcher a further 17 titles were included. The whole process resulted in 6,632 of the titles being rejected as the subjects were not related to organisational restructuring.

Following the title sift, the first researcher then obtained the abstracts for the selected papers and performed a narrow screen sift of these against the inclusion and exclusion

criteria. This abstract sift was also performed independently by the second researcher and the resulting papers were compared for discrepancies. This resulted in 17 papers being selected at abstract by both researchers, nine papers being selected by only the first researcher and two papers being selected only by the second researcher. This resulted in a Kappa Coefficient (Cohen, 1960) of 0.58 suggesting moderate agreement. Any discrepancies were then checked by the third researcher and a further two papers were included resulting in 19 papers being included at the abstract stage.

The final part of the sifting process involved the first researcher reviewing the full papers selected against the inclusion and exclusion criteria and from this determining the final papers to be included in the study.

3.5.5 Data extraction

The author developed an extraction format adapted from Robertson et al (2015) which covered information on the aims of the study, study design, participants, intervention, measurements and findings. All papers were then reviewed by the first researcher and the relevant information was extracted into a spreadsheet, in consultation with the second researcher.

3.5.6 Quality assessment

A systematic quality assessment was carried out on the papers using an adapted version of the methodology set out by Snape, Meads, Bagnall, Tregaskis, Mansfield and MacLennan (2017) in which aspects of the papers' quantitative and qualitative evidence were assessed. Each study was assessed by the first researcher against seven criteria covering the study's conceptual quality, methodological quality and reporting quality with each aspect being scored 1 (low) to 5 (high) resulting in a maximum possible score of 35. This process was then cross checked by the second researcher to ensure they agreed with the assessment and the score given.

3.5.7 Data synthesis

The initial data synthesis was conducted by the first researcher with findings and themes identified being presented in a narrative format as this suited the nature of the qualitative approach taken by most of the studies. This was then followed by an iterative process of review between the first and second researcher and reference back to the original papers where required.

3.6 Results

The search of the nine databases retrieved a total of 8,077 records, which were reduced to 6,685 once duplicates were removed. A further 6,632 papers were rejected based on title and then another 34 following a review of the abstracts. Following a full paper review

a further six papers were rejected which left 13 studies considered suitable for inclusion in the review based on the criteria established. Figure 3 presents a PRISMA (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff & Altma, 2009) flow diagram of the search results.

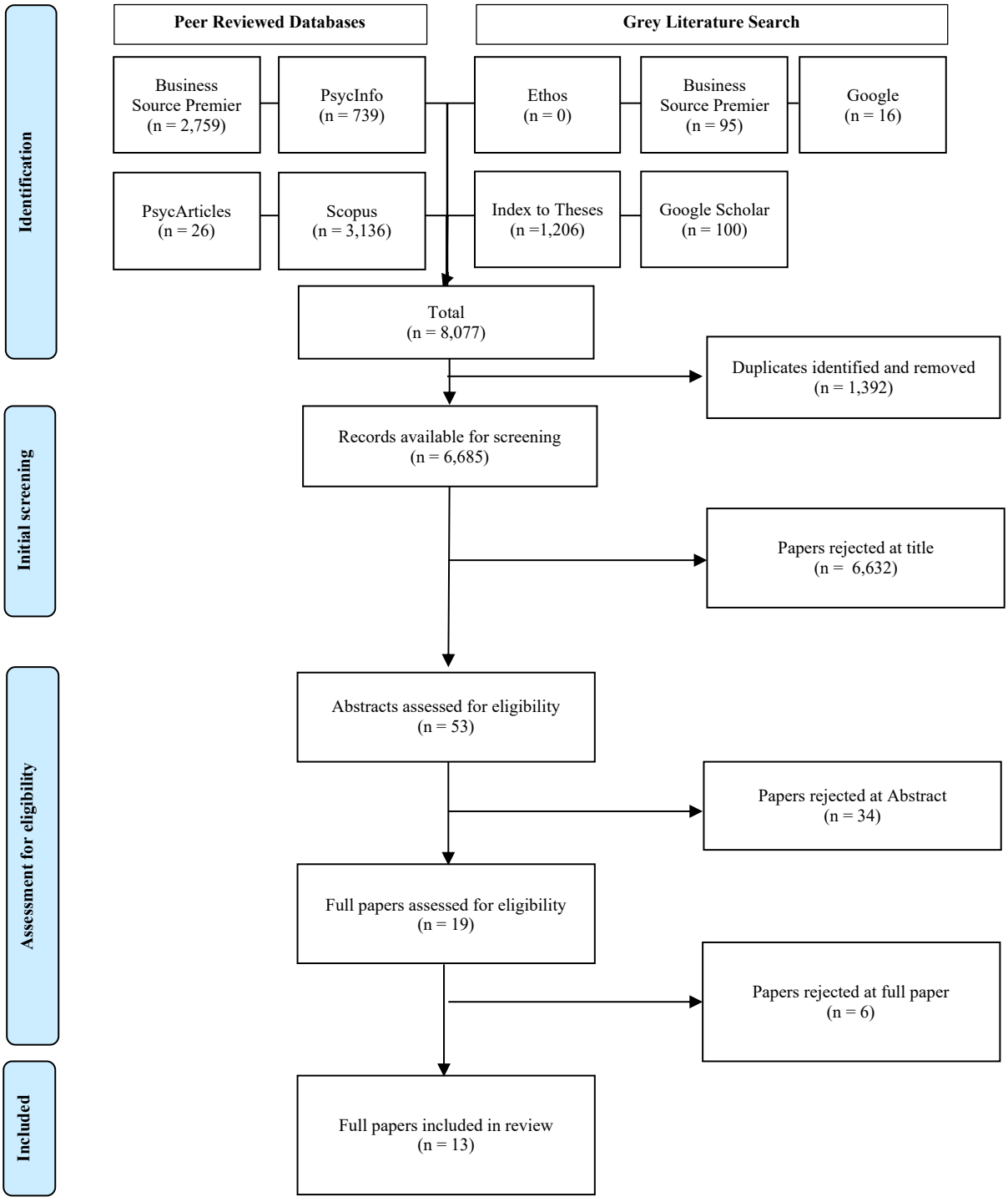


Figure 4: PRISMA flow diagram for literature search results
From: Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG, The PRISMA Group (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement

3.6.1 Study Characteristics

Table 3 shows a summary of the studies' characteristics. Ten of the studies appeared in journal articles (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989; Townsend, 1990; Perlman, 1990; McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992; Axelrod, 1992; Christensen, 1993; Frost, 1997; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999; Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001; Lindsay, Findlay, McQuarrie, Bennie, Dunlop Corcoran & Van Der Meer, 2018), two were conference proceedings (Taylor, 1976; Zappe, Hoyt & Veloz, 2003) and one was a book chapter (Garde & Van Der Voort, 2013).

The studies selected range in publication dates between 1976 and 2018. One study was from the 1970s (Taylor, 1976), one from the 1980s (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989), seven from the 1990s (Townsend, 1990; Perlman, 1990; McDonald et al, 1992; Axelrod, 1992; Christensen, 1993; Frost, 1997; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999), two from the 2000s (Nadin et al, 2001; Zappe et al, 2003) and two from the 2010s (Garde & van der Voort, 2013; Lindsay et al, 2018). Where given, the periods investigated by the studies ranged from a few months up to five years, if follow up evaluation periods are included in this. The United States was the origin for nearly two thirds of the studies (n=8: Taylor, 1976; Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989; Townsend, 1990; Perlman, 1990; Axelrod, 1992; Christensen, 1993; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999; Zappe et al, 2003), followed by the United Kingdom (n=2: Nadin et al, 2001; Lindsay et al, 2018) and then one each from Canada (Frost, 1997), Australia (McDonald et al, 1992) and The Netherlands (Garde & van der Voort, 2013).

Table 3: Summary of study characteristics

Paper	Study Characteristics						
	Year	**Publication Type**	**Type of study/ Research Design**	**Time span investigated**	**Country**	**Sector**	**Organisation**
Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies, and Work Redesign (Lindsay et al, 2018)	2018	Journal Article	Qualitative Academic	Not given	United Kingdom	Public/Healthcare	NHS pharmacy distribution
Co-designing better work organization in healthcare (Garde & van der Voort, 2013)	2013	Book chapter	Qualitative Descriptive	Not given	The Netherlands	Public/Healthcare	Hospital
The Road Less Travelled: Staff-Driven Re-org (Zappe; Hoyt. & Veloz, 2003)	2003	Conference Proceeding	Qualitative Descriptive/Advocative	Approx. 1 year - 10 months for intervention plus reflection a few months later	United States	Higher education	University - Technology Support unit and associated areas
Participation in job redesign: An evaluation of the use of a sociotechnical tool and its impact (Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001)	2001	Journal Article	Qualitative Academic/Evaluative of the tool	Approx. 6 months	United Kingdom	Private/manufacturing	Manufacturer of photographic products
Work redesign and implementation: staff perspectives (Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999)	1999	Journal Article	Quantitative/Qualitative Descriptive/Advocative	6 months	United States	Public/Healthcare	Academic teaching hospital
The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring (Frost, 1997)	1997	Journal Article	Qualitative/Quantitative Descriptive/Advocative	Approx. 8 months	Canada	Private/Manufacturing	Steel plant
High-involvement redesign (Christensen, 1993)	1993	Journal Article	Quantitative Descriptive/Advocative	2 years intervention plus 3 years evaluation	United States	Private/Chemicals	Fertilizer plant of large chemical company
Getting everyone involved: How one organization involved its employees, supervisors, and managers in redesigning the organization (Axelrod, 1992)	1992	Journal Article	Qualitative Descriptive/Evaluative	3 months	United States	Private/Printing	Commercial Printer (One division)
A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc) (McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992)	1992	Journal Article	Quantitative/Qualitative Descriptive	18 months	Australia	Private/Healthcare	Nursing Association
Employee-Centered Work Redesign (Perlman, 1990)	1990	Journal Article	Quantitative/Qualitative Descriptive/Advocative	3-5 years	United States	Healthcare	Not specified
A participative approach to administrative reorganization (Townsend, 1990)	1990	Journal Article	Qualitative Descriptive	1 month intervention and follow up 12 months later	United States	Public/Healthcare	Community Hospital - Nursing Division
Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study In The Public Sector (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)	1989	Journal Article	Quantitative Academic	9 months	United States	Public/Military	Military base
Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White Collar Example (Taylor, 1976)	1976	Conference Proceeding	Qualitative Descriptive/Evaluative	12 months	United States	Service	Not given

The majority of the studies were qualitative in their approach (n=7: Taylor, 1976; Townsend, 1990; Axelrod, 1992; Nadin et al, 2001; Zappe et al, 2003; Garde & van der Voort, 2013; Lindsay et al, 2018), four were mixed methods (Perlman, 1990; McDonald et al, 1992; Frost, 1997; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999) and two were quantitative (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989; Christensen, 1993). Only one of the studies used a pre and post intervention design with a control group included (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989).

Healthcare (n=6: Townsend, 1990; Perlman, 1990; McDonald et al, 1992; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999; Garde & van der Voort, 2013; Lindsay et al, 2018), particularly hospitals (n=3: Townsend, 1990; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999; Garde & van der Voort, 2013), was the most frequently represented sector in the studies. This was followed by manufacturing (n=4: Axelrod, 1992; Christensen, 1993; Frost, 1997; Nadin et al, 2001) and one each in higher education (Zappe et al, 2003) and the military (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989). One was unspecified (Taylor, 1976).

3.6.2 Participants

Table 4 shows a summary of the studies' participants. In many cases, perhaps because of the nature of the intervention focus (see below), the knowledge about the participants is missing. Where it is provided we can see that the participants were adults, or reasonably assumed to be adults from the nature of the organisations and context of the studies. In only two of the studies were the age profiles provided, with one study stating 76% of the population were between age 20 and 30 and 21% were under 25 (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989) and the other study stating that the population were all adults between 25 and 65

with a mean age of 41 (Lindsay et al, 2018). In all the other studies ages were not specified. Only two of the studies specified the gender of the participants, with one study stating all the participants were male (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989) and the other study stating a split of 69% female and 31% male (Lindsay et al, 2018).

The number of participants directly involved in the studies ranged from 4 to 82. Four of the studies directly involved 20 or less participants (Taylor, 1976; Townsend, 1990; Christensen, 1993; Nadin et al, 2001) ; three had between 20 and 50 participants (Zappe et al, 2003; Garde & van der Voort, 2013; Lindsay et al, 2018) and two had between 50 and 82 participants (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989; Axelrod, 1992). Four of the studies did not specify the number of people directly involved in the participative reorganisation Perlman, 1990; McDonald et al, 1992; Frost, 1997; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999). There were a variety of roles under investigation in the studies, though tending towards healthcare and manufacturing.

Table 4: Summary of study participants

Paper	Participants			
	Number	**Age**	**Gender**	**Roles**
Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies, and Work Redesign (Lindsay et al, 2018)	36 staff/10 stakeholder representatives	Adults between ages 25 and 65 (with a mean age of 41)	69% women and 31% men	Pharmacists, Pharmacy technicians, Support workers Senior management, employee partnership groups, trade unions
Co-designing better work organization in healthcare (Garde & van der Voort, 2013)	4000 employees in the hospital 40 participants in the project workshops	Adults but ages not specified	Not specified	Nurses, Nurse Practitioners, Ward Assistants, Secretaries and a Physiotherapist.
The Road Less Travelled: Staff-Driven Re-org (Zappe; Hoyt. & Veloz, 2003)	94 staff in the work groups of which approx. 30 participated in the reorganisation at some point.	Adults but age not specified	Not specified	Client Services, Technology Support Desk, Hardware Technicians, Engineering Computing Support Team, the Learning Spaces staff, and the library Circulation staff
Participation in job redesign: An evaluation of the use of a sociotechnical tool and its impact (Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001)	1,000 people within the company Production covers 210 people In the workshop there were 7 participants	Adults but ages not specified	Not specified	In workshop - operators from the Melting department and Solutions department, technical/design specialist, project manager and project facilitators
Work redesign and implementation: staff perspectives (Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999)	Not given Hospital was a 350-bed unit	Adults but ages and other demographics not given	Not specified	On redesign team were nursing administrators, nurses, nursing aides, nursing station clerks, laboratory reps, radiology reps, pharmacy reps, respiratory therapy reps, transportation reps, EKG reps and HR reps.
The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring (Frost, 1997)	Plant employs 1,400 people and the union represents 978 workers.	Adults but ages and other demographics not given	Not specified	Production Operators and Skilled Maintenance workers
High-involvement redesign (Christensen, 1993)	12 in design team Total population not given	Adults but ages not specified	Not specified	Design team of production employees, supervisors, engineer, quality control lab. Wider group included supervisors, managers and professionals.
Getting everyone involved: How one organization involved its employees, supervisors, and managers in redesigning the organization (Axelrod, 1992)	200 people in the division 60-80 participants in the conferences	Adults but ages not specified	Not specified	Managers, supervisors and employees
A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc) (McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992)	2,000 full time and part time employees in the organisation	Adults but ages and other demographics not given	Not specified	Registered nurses Home help personnel
Employee-Centered Work Redesign (Perlman, 1990)	475 across various interventions	Adults but ages not specified	Not specified	Admissions Clerks, Department manager, Housekeepers, Scheduling coordinators Quality Assurance Technician, Nurses
A participative approach to administrative reorganization (Townsend, 1990)	Not specified - about 20 participants were involved in a typical meeting and hospital had 200 beds	Adults but ages and other demographics not given	Not specified	Nursing staff Associate/Assistant Directors for medical/surgical and critical care, perioperative, administrative and educational services
Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study In The Public Sector (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)	82	Adults - 21% under 25; 76% aged between 20 and 30	Male	Security guards - responsible for the security of aircraft and missiles
Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White Collar Example (Taylor, 1976)	4 people in study group 16 people in the affected section	Adults but ages not specified	Not specified	Manager, Supervisor, Clerical

3.6.3 Intervention focus

Table 5 shows a summary of the Intervention Focus.

In terms of the intervention focus of the studies, we can cluster these into different themes. The first theme is where the intervention is descriptive and advocative of the participative design approach that the authors took in a particular design exercise. In these cases the focus was on describing the process and how effective this was. Townsend, (1990) set out an autobiographical account of a reorganisation in a nursing division of a medical centre in which the managers were involved in the organisational design. Zappe et al (2003) was also an autobiographical description of a staff driven reorganisation for a technology support department at a university. Perlman (1990), while still descriptive and advocative in their focus, differed in setting out the author's experience of 34 participative design interventions they had been involved in. Reichert and Smeltzer (1999) described the author led participative redesign at a teaching hospital. McDonald et al (1992) was descriptive of the review and redesign of a nursing association in Australia which involved staff at all stages of the review.

Table 5: Summary of studies' intervention focus

Paper	Intervention focus
Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies, and Work Redesign (Lindsay et al, 2018)	Qualitative review of people's redesign experiences
Co-designing better work organization in healthcare (Garde & van der Voort, 2013)	Application and evaluation of co-design tools
The Road Less Travelled: Staff-Driven Re-org (Zappe; Hoyt. & Veloz, 2003)	Descriptive of author led participative redesign
Participation in job redesign: An evaluation of the use of a sociotechnical tool and its impact (Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001)	Descriptive of the Sociotechnical Systems approach
Work redesign and implementation: staff perspectives (Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999)	Descriptive of author led participative redesign
The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring (Frost, 1997)	Descriptive of union's role in cooperating to redesign work and using conflict to force this involvement
High-involvement redesign (Christensen, 1993)	Descriptive of the Sociotechnical Systems approach
Getting everyone involved: How one organization involved its employees, supervisors, and managers in redesigning the organization (Axelrod, 1992)	Descriptive of the author led Conference Model approach
A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc) (McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992)	Descriptive of author led participative redesign
Employee-Centered Work Redesign (Perlman, 1990)	Not specified
A participative approach to administrative reorganization (Townsend, 1990)	Descriptive of author led participative redesign
Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study In The Public Sector (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)	Longitudinal and controlled examination of participative work redesign
Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White Collar Example (Taylor, 1976)	Demonstration study of the programmed Socio-Technical Systems approach.

The next cluster is where the approach is also descriptive and advocative of the author led participative design exercise, but where there was some attempt to evaluate the results of this. Axelrod (1992) was descriptive and evaluative of an intervention piloting the researcher's own Conference Model approach to organisation design within a division of a printing company. Christensen (1993) described and evaluated over a five-year period the use of a Socio-Technical Systems approach at a fertiliser plant, which involved a cross sectional design team of employees to create the organisational structure and processes. Frost (1997) described and discussed a local union's strategy of using both cooperation and conflict in a Canadian steel plant. Garde and Van der Voort, (2013) described the application and evaluation of a scenario-based game developed by the authors to help participants design the new work processes when their hospital was moving to a new building.

The last cluster is where the focus of the study was more objective in evaluating the success of the participative design exercise. Lindsay et al (2018) examined people's experiences of collaborative innovation while going through a technology driven redesign in a pharmacy distribution service. Nadin et al, (2001) described and evaluated the use of a sociotechnical tool within a company manufacturing photographic products to redesign a group of jobs and tasks prior to the introduction of new technology. Taylor (1976) was descriptive of a demonstration project testing the feasibility and applicability of the Socio-Technical Systems approach where the manager, a supervisor, and two clerical employees took the responsibility for the analysis and design of their work system. Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) used the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) to assess

whether allowing security guards at a military base to participate in changing their jobs would show an increase in job satisfaction measures.

3.6.4 Measures

A mixture of qualitative and quantitative measures were used across the studies and could be clustered into three themes. A summary of the outcome measures employed and the outcomes found are shown in Table 6 and discussed below.

Effect on people in the team

The first theme identified are the outcomes describing the effect of the work redesign on the people in the team. One set of outcomes were looking at the levels of satisfaction in people (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989); skills and wages (Frost, 1997), stress (Zappe et al, 2003) and anxiety levels (Axelrod, 1992); participation in the design exercise (Axelrod, 1992) and people's commitment to the design (Axelrod, 1992; Garde & van der Voort, 2013). Another set of outcomes looked at the effect of the design on people's understanding of their role and workplace practices (Lindsay et al, 2018), access to resources to do their jobs (Zappe et al, 2003) and interactions with each other (Perlman, 1990; Lindsay et al, 2018). A final set of outcomes identified were those concerning the levels of accidents (Frost, 1997), staff turnover (Perlman, 1990) and absenteeism (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)

Table 6: Summary of outcome measures and outcomes

Paper	Outcome measures	Outcomes summary
Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies, and Work Redesign (Lindsay et al, 2018)	How managers and employees were able to define their roles in, and understanding of, the innovation process The interaction of employees with each other and their managers in managing and learning during the innovation process Identifying changes in workplace practices and employees ' experiences over the lifetime of the innovation process.	The redesign project produced new operational forms built around cutting-edge technologies and involved the creation of new job roles and ways of working. Workers deployed to the hospital wards largely supported the idea that redesign had increased opportunities for learning and increased task variety and valued working closer to pharmacists and patients Workers deployed to the distribution centre reported undertaking additional training, but focused almost entirely on servicing the robotics technologies. Some were frustrated at limited opportunities for rotation and learning and feared their skills would become narrower and/or outdated. The work intensification and lean staffing meant that there were few opportunities for progression. Found evidence of collaborative activity with employees enabled to take action beyond the specific constraints of their roles Managers highlighted their engagement of staff in the planning of the redesign project, but the redesign was seen by some staff as driven from the top down. Pharmacy technicians suggested that their feedback was rarely actioned with some saying "listening events" amounted to little more than top-down announcements of pre-planned, management-driven changes. The claims made by managers at the outset of the redesign project of the inclusion of employees at all levels in decision making were not fully realized, something acknowledged by managers themselves.
Co-designing better work organization in healthcare (Garde & van der Voort, 2013)	No specific measurements given	Describes the content related results which needed to be addressed for the actual design, such as the product requirements and responsibilities, rather than participatory design as an approach Describes the participants' increase in commitment for the project as they felt their concerns and ideas were being listened to. Found the workshop set-up enabled participants to generate new work situations and to walkthrough imaginative work processes. Workshop proved to be suitable for investigating different work organization related problems and can accommodate both actions that can be planned as well as actions that emerge Workshop and scenario based game was seen as replicable although the scenario would have to be adapted to fit the context of the reorganisation. Also describes a general challenge with co-design in that participants need to be able to come up with creative solutions and yet they must be restricted by boundaries to ensure the solutions put forward are feasible.
The Road Less Travelled: Staff-Driven Re-org (Zappe; Hoyt. & Veloz, 2003)	80% of campus' technology support needs to be resolved at the first point of contact External desired outcomes included: - Happier customers - Faster problem resolution - Ability for clients to submit and track their problems Internal desired outcomes included: - Relieving stress for staff - Staff skills and talents matched with needs - Internal efficiencies must be achieved at the same time as improving external ease-of-use - People need the tools to do their jobs, including access, hardware, software, infrastructure, communication venues, etc.	The intervention hadn't been formally evaluated and they were unable to say if they hit their target of resolving 80% of technical needs at first point of contact. Anecdotal evidence was that they were meeting the campus support needs, solving more support issues at the first point of contact, service was more consistent, fewer daily crises, and less miscommunication, less of a backlog of cases and the staff have reasonable case loads. Organisation and morale seem higher. Managed to not hire consultants for new installations and did this themselves. Creating new processes was confusing and challenging at times Overall perception that the department is heading down the right road together. They believe that key to their successful work redesign is the collaborative work environment they created over the preceding five years, it was the foundation for the process they used to envision, develop and implement their new structure.
Participation in job redesign: An evaluation of the use of a sociotechnical tool and its impact (Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001)	Measurement of the job design tool: 1. have a structured and systematic format; 2. consider trade-offs; 3. examine the content and quality of the human's job; 4. enable its users to make informed choices; 5. encourage participative use by end users; 6. require minimal training and support; 7. be adaptable and tailorable to different situations; 8. be easy to learn and usable.	Three design options were identified across the three workshops and these were then evaluated against the 12 criteria. Led to some conflict as different workers would evaluate the scenario differently depending on whether it meant an improvement or detriment for them. Some agreement, for example that new technology would lead to less opportunity for social contact No scenario was seen as the outright choice by all participants and each had some advantages and disadvantages for psychological and operational criteria, though one of the scenarios was seen as being the best compromise. The tool itself was found to be structured and systematic (measure 1) and this led wide ranging discussion which the authors felt would not have happened had the tool not been used. The tool also supported participation (measure 5), one reason being that it encouraged a common language and debate about how the terms applied in the context, opening up questions which had not previously been addressed. Overall the tool was successful in meeting the eight measures, with some areas for improvement noted Background knowledge of participants varied, which meant some people couldn't participate until there had been time to explain how the new plant would work rather than the actual job design Coverage of sensitive issues meant some scenarios were avoided for fear of conflict, or scepticism over whether their involvement would have any impact As there was a number of absences from some workshops the discussions became skewed depending on who was there, leading to conflicts because of vested interests Much of the technology was already designed which limited the scope for job redesign as the design options were already largely predetermined and it was more a case of evaluating them. The facilitator can become part of the politics in the situation - in this case the researchers were seen as part of management, as their views aligned with what the management wanted to do

Table 6: Summary of outcome measures and outcomes (contd.)

Paper	Outcome measures	Outcomes summary
Work redesign and implementation: staff perspectives (Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999)	Money saved Quality of care indicators - patient outcomes (e.g., unscheduled readmission rates) Patient satisfaction indicators (e.g., increased patient communication) Cost indicators (e.g., decreased overtime) Staff/Physician satisfaction indicators (e.g., increase internal customer satisfaction)	Describes the definition of seven process improvement areas which produced a $10,000,000 saving - $150,000 in actual savings related to decreases in overtime and bed turnaround time and over $9,000,000 described as 'enabling savings' of which one third was turned into real dollar savings Design team defined the deployed tasks and their integration into six newly defined roles and their staffing requirements per unit Team also created a measurement system to evaluate the effectiveness of the changes once these have been implemented.
The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring (Frost, 1997)	Increase in wages for workers Increase in skills for workers Measures of accident frequency and severity	The activities of the union had provided improved outcomes for both workers and management. Workers wages and skills had increased and the accident rate and severity were unchanged. For management, resources to do the required maintenance work were created without adding to headcount, and they managed to increase productivity by 7.5% and the quality of the product showed a 3% improvement and the stability of this quality increased by 4%. Long term, the union got management agreement to redesign the whole of the maintenance department which led to a number of significant improvements. Overall the union has taken on a greater role in the governance of the workplace. Although the author cautions making a direct link, she does associate the union's involvement and the plant's performance compared to its peers.
High-involvement redesign (Christensen, 1993)	Productivity Operating expenses Labour cost Customer complaints	Relates the plant experiencing, over a three year period following the redesign: 98% productivity improvement/44% decrease in operating expense/43% increase in production (difference between this and productivity improvement not stated) 28% labour cost reduction/90% decrease in customer complaints States that more than 60% of the workforce served directly on one of the design teams or implementation teams and every employee has been involved at some level with the work. Any individual can also bring up ideas in the team for consideration
Getting everyone involved: How one organization involved its employees, supervisors, and managers in redesigning the organization (Axelrod, 1992)	Speed of time for the organisation design to be completed Participation of people in the redesign Issues between the design team and the steering committee Anxiety amongst people during a redesign Level of commitment of people to the redesign	The new organisation was four departments instead of twenty The design was completed in three months from the time of the first conference, compared to 12-18 months reported in another division of the same company using a traditional STS design approach Reduction of issues between the design team and the steering committee Reduction in reported anxiety of people during the reorganisation Support reported by the overwhelming majority of people in the division at all levels Also reported a deep commitment to the actual process, even proceeding despite the division director being transferred and the consultant having major surgery in the middle of the reorganisation
A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc) (McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992)	Improve viability and quality of services Improve operating efficiency Rationalise levels of management Examine alternative corporate structures.	Evaluation was reported on approximately 12 months since the changes began to be implemented and the evaluation was ongoing. Client load had increased by 3% and had been a corresponding increase in the number of homes visited and a 5% increase in the duration of the average time spent with each client which seems to be critical in client satisfaction. Increase in productivity is actually greater as the number of nursing FTEs involved in direct care has decreased by 7% through attrition. Has been achieved through flexible staff deployment and possibly reduction in hierarchical levels and reduction in people not providing direct care. Increase in productivity also achieved during the time of implementation and the development of new systems - it is expected for further gains to be realised as time goes on because of the appreciation amongst staff of productivity issues.
Employee-Centered Work Redesign (Perlman, 1990)	Not specified explicitly but measures given in the results were: Staff turnover Changes in roles Employee awards Department cooperation	Describes results in three examples: Hospital admissions department where turnover reduced from 34% to 6% for first year and 9% for the next two years and department manager expanded their position to provide a coordination service which provided cost savings to the hospital Environmental services department where there were two hospital wide employees of the quarter and an employee of the year; a departmental newsletter that promoted sanitation; lateral reclassifications of staff; manager developed greater leadership traits. Three years later a new manager came in with a different attitude and reorganised the department without employee input - within the third year one third of the employees had resigned and later the manager was fired. Nursing department where positive results did not surface for approximately three months but then showed interdepartmental communication improving dramatically, letters of concern were replaced with letters of commendation and a spirit of greater teamwork. Two nurses designed teaching/training components into their work allowing for professional growth and improved education for the staff; one nurse became the purchasing liaison for the department; three nurses became quality assurance coordinators and were able to identify and correct 80% of prior deficiencies within six months; two other nurses organised a professional development committee which became the model for other nursing departments and they were also invited to present their model at other facilities and conferences; by the end of the second year interdepartmental problems had virtually ceased, all deficiencies had been corrected and the department lost only one member of staff.

Table 6: Summary of outcome measures and outcomes (contd.)

Paper	Outcome measures	Outcomes summary
A participative approach to administrative reorganization (Townsend, 1990)	Not explicitly given but describes all original managers being retained and all management positions being filled	Describes two major goals having been achieved: 1. All managers had input to and a common understanding of the role changes anticipated 2. The Clinical Nurse Specialist (CNS) and Department Administrator roles were clearly defined in operational terms The consensus document created has been useful for candidates in assessing whether the environment would be suitable for them and, if so, they can start work and interface in a predictable way with the rest of the management team. Also describes how a year later, when all the CNSs had been recruited, they addressed some issues which had purposefully been left open and despite not having been involved in the original decisions they were able to come to a consensus with the other managers with only minor adjustments to the original decisions made.
Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study In The Public Sector (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)	Employees' general job satisfaction Employees' satisfaction with supervision (Measured using the Job Diagnostic Survey - Hackman and Oldham, 1975) Number of occasions of absenteeism - two months preceding the pre-test and two months following the post-test	Short form of Job Diagnostic Survey was administered a few weeks after the pre-test but before any changes were made to check whether the intervention effort itself was enough to cause changes in satisfaction and job characteristics but no significant changes to the variables were found at this stage The overall measure of job change the motivating potential score (Hackman and Oldham, 1976) rose from 45.0 to 56.6 - a significant change, though showed the job of guarding missiles and aircraft is one that is never likely to be enriched. Among the individual job characteristics, only autonomy and feedback from the job improved significantly, although as most of the changes concerned these this was not surprising. Sources for both general satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision improved significantly - changes in the job characteristics, particularly autonomy, as well as the environmental improvements and the participative nature of the project, seem to have contributed to these positive changes. The occasions of absenteeism were significantly less for the experimental group than for a control group of employees. The process of the change effort forcing employees, supervisors and managers to work together in a collaborative way was a key element of its success. Decision making input was solicited and communication was good. Trust developed naturally out of the process. The interaction the process required was an important source of motivation for the project. This also suggests social influence may be a possible cause of improved attitudes. The interactions required could have socially reconstructed the military organisation into a more pleasant place to work with improved jobs and working conditions.
Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White Collar Example (Taylor, 1976)	Not specified beyond participant experiences	Study described that the design team were able to use the programmed STS approach to identify a problem, analyse this and then make recommendations for changes which covered both the technical and social aspects of the problem. That the design team of interest took longer to get going than the other departments (which aren't described in the paper), actually seem to work in their favour by allowing the two clerical members of the team to build their confidence in what they were trying to do and their role in this. The results reported that the implementation of the recommendations was lacklustre because the full recommendations weren't accepted by top management and also the two clerical members of the team had moved on to other roles by the time of the planned implementation. The conclusion was that the length of time of the study was a help in building confidence in the clerical members of the design team but a hindrance in that people had moved on in their careers by the time the study was coming to a conclusion.

Effect on organisations

The second theme identified are the outcomes describing the effect of the work redesign on organisations. This included the effect on customer's satisfaction (Christensen, 1993; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999; Zappe et al, 2003); quality measures (McDonald et al, 1992; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999); productivity (Christensen, 1993) and cost indicators including money saved (Christensen, 1993; Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999).

Viability of the processes and tools used

The third theme identified were the outcomes concerning the viability of the design process and tools used such as the Socio-Technical Systems approach (Taylor, 1976; Nadin et al, 2001); scenario based workshop (Garde & van der Voort, 2013) and Conference Model method (Axelrod, 1992).

In summary these outcome measures tend to focus on the outcome of the design rather than the participative approach, though they do tell us something about how a participative approach can be beneficial to people's experiences of going through a design exercise (e.g., Axelrod, 1992). They also tell us how the design may result in beneficial outcomes for individuals and organisations. They don't tell us whether the participative approach would have been more or less successful than a non-participative approach in achieving this, although it may be implied (e.g., Frost, 1997). The measures employed are also only incidentally telling us about what aspects are helpful in enabling the participative approach to succeed, for example with the use of a tool to guide the process (Nadin et al, 2001).

3.6.5 Outcomes

Adapting the headings used in section 3.6.4, we can synthesise the outcomes across the three categories of ‘The effect on people in the team’, ‘The effect on organisations’ and ‘The factors that affect participation’. These are shown in Table 7. Where no information is provided this is because the information was absent in the research papers.

Table 7: Summary of outcomes

Paper	Outcomes regarding the effect on people in the team	Outcomes regarding the effect on organisations	Outcomes regarding the factors that affect participation
Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies, and Work Redesign (Lindsay et al, 2018)	Different reactions among staff depending how the designs affected them personally New operational structures were built around new technologies Creation of new jobs and new ways of working More collaborative activity between people More problem solving and innovation Some roles diminished as a result of redesign		**Involvement:** Redesign exercise seen by some staff as driven from the top down and that their feedback was rarely actioned **Scope:** Technologies brought in to automate service delivery diminished some people's roles **Perception:** Some people's roles were enriched as a result of the design changes and some not
Co-designing better work organization in healthcare (Garde & van der Voort, 2013)	Increase in commitment		**Process:** Scenario based workshop used helped identify requirements for the design but would need to be adapted for each situation **Involvement:** Increase in participants' commitment when they felt their concerns and ideas were being listened to **Scope:** Participants need to come up with creative solutions but these must also be feasible
The Road Less Travelled: Staff-Driven Re-org (Zappe; Hoyt. & Veloz, 2003)	Increase in morale Decrease in stress	More support issues solved at first point of contact	**Culture:** Collaborative culture helped the participative process
Participation in job redesign: An evaluation of the use of a sociotechnical tool and its impact (Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001)	People evaluated design scenarios based on whether these affected their roles positively or negatively		**Process:** Design tool used was structured and systematic which supported the discussion and participation of people **Involvement:** Researchers acting as design facilitators can be seen by employees as part of management **Scope:** Design of technology limited scope for design options **Perception:** Different workers evaluated design options depending on whether it meant an improvement or detriment for them. Some design scenarios avoided for fear of conflict or scepticism whether involvement would make a difference **Contribute:** Knowledge of people varied which affect participation as did people's actual attendance at workshops
Work redesign and implementation: staff perspectives (Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999)		Potential savings of $10,000,000 - $150,000 actual savings and over $9,000,000 of enabling savings of which one third turned into actual savings	
The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring (Frost, 1997)		7.5% increase in productivity 3% improvement in quality Accident rate and severity unchanged	**Involvement:** Workers less likely to engage in design work where they have no guarantee that their interests will be taken into account **Force:** Union had the ability to force participation with management
High-involvement redesign (Christensen, 1993)		90% decrease in customer complaints 98% improvement in productivity 44% decrease in operating expenses	

Table 7: Summary of Outcomes (Contd.)

Paper	Outcomes regarding the effect on people in the team	Outcomes regarding the effect on organisations	Outcomes regarding the factors that affect participation
Getting everyone involved: How one organization involved its employees, supervisors, and managers in redesigning the organization (Axelrod, 1992)	Increases in commitment Decrease in anxiety Improved interactions between people		**Process:** Conference model approach helped organisation redesign in three months compared to 12-18 months for other departments using a Socio-Technical Systems approach
A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc) (McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992)		Increase in client visitation rate and duration spent with clients Increase in productivity	**Perception:** Some employees made commitments to the design changes even though it disadvantaged them while others left the organisation **Contribute:** Opportunity to participate varied according to people's knowledge at different stages of exercise
Employee-Centered Work Redesign (Perlman, 1990)	Improvements in interdepartmental communication Greater spirit of team work Professional development for staff Departmental deficiencies reduced	Decrease in staff turnover from 34% to 6% for the first year and 9% for next two years	
A participative approach to administrative reorganization (Townsend, 1990)	All managers inputted to changes in roles and had a common understanding of these Key roles were clearly defined		
Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study In The Public Sector (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)	Increases in general satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision Increase in motivating potential score of the Job Diagnostic Survey Increased autonomy and feedback Participative approach seen as key element of success	Decrease in absenteeism for experimental group compared to control	**Culture:** Participative nature of the process forced people to work together in a collaborative way **Involvement:** Positive impact on employees when design proposals were adopted by management **Scope:** Nature of job limited the scope for redesign **Perception:** Employees' roles were enriched and this improved their motivation and satisfaction
Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White Collar Example (Taylor, 1976)			**Process:** Socio-Technical Systems approach helped team make recommendations for changes covering both technical and social aspects of the work **Involvement:** Redesign efforts viewed negatively by participants when management didn't accept recommendations **Contribute:** Time taken on exercise helped build people's confidence but then people moved on before implementation

3.6.5.1 Outcomes regarding the effect on people in the team

Across the studies we can draw out some outcomes which are about the effects on the people in the team affected by the organisation design. The first cluster within this can be categorised as the effect on people's internal state from participating in the design or because of the design changes. In a longitudinal study design, Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) reported on increases with the satisfaction levels of military security guards while participating in the redesign of their work. Both general satisfaction (M = 3.0 to 3.6, SD = 1.2, Z = 3.16, p<.000) and satisfaction with supervision (M = 4.2 to 5.0, SD = 1.2, Z = 3.48, p = <.000) improved significantly. Changes in the job characteristics such as the level of autonomy, environmental improvements for the work and the participative nature of the project seeming to have contributed to this. In addition participants' motivation from the work, as measured by the motivating potential score of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), rose from a mean of 45.0 to a mean of 58.6 (SD = 37.6, Z = 2.09, p<.02). This was noted by the author as a significant change, though they also noted that the job of guarding missiles and aircraft is one that is never likely to be enriched.

Increases in commitment and participation amongst people during the design work were reported across some of the studies. Axelrod (1992), describing their Conference Model approach to the design work, reported how the overwhelming majority of people at all levels supported the redesign and showed a deep commitment to the actual process. Zappe et al (2003) described how morale seemed higher in people working on the redesign of their technology department and Garde and van der Voort (2013) also reported an increase in commitment for the design project within the participants as they felt their concerns

and ideas were being listened to. There were also reports in the studies of a decrease in anxiety (Axelrod, 1992) and stress (Zappe et al, 2003) among people during the redesign work.

The effects of the participative design work weren't always positive however. Nadin et al (2001) reported how different employees evaluated the design scenarios generated, based on how these affected their roles positively or negatively. Similarly, Lindsay et al (2018), describing the redesign within pharmacy services of the Scottish National Health Service, reported different reactions among staff depending on the how the changes affected them personally. In this, Pharmacy Technicians and support workers deployed to the hospital wards valued working closer to pharmacists, patients and a broader range of professional functions and so largely supported the idea that opportunities for transformational learning and increased task variety had been generated by the redesign project. However, those technicians deployed to the pharmaceutical distribution centre reported being focused almost entirely on servicing the new robotics technologies, so some were therefore frustrated at limited opportunities for rotation and learning within hospital environments and feared that their skills would become narrower and outdated. The quality assessment suggested it was unclear whether the effect of participation had a positive effect on participants satisfaction, commitment and levels of anxiety.

The second cluster of findings regarding the effects of people in the team concerns how people's roles and interactions changed through the redesign work. Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) showed changes in the motivating potential of people's jobs, increased autonomy and feedback as a result of the redesign work. In addition, the participative

approach to this, forcing employees, supervisors and managers to work together in a collaborative way, was seen as a key element of its success. The interaction the process required was an important source of motivation for the project, with trust developing naturally from this and resulting in a more pleasant place to work.

Perlman (1990) reported how in a nursing department interdepartmental communication improving dramatically and there was a greater spirit of teamworking. They described how, by the end of the second year following the redesign, interdepartmental problems had virtually ceased, nursing staff had designed professional development for other staff and deficiencies within the department were being rectified. Townsend (1990) described how two major goals had been achieved in the redesign at a community hospital. The first was that all managers had input to and a common understanding of the changes in roles being anticipated. The second was that the clinical nurse specialist and department administrator roles were clearly defined in operational terms, which helped with later appointments into the roles.

Improved interactions between people were also reported by Axelrod (1992), citing a reduction of issues between the project design team and the project steering committee during the design work. Lindsay et al (2018) reported how the redesign of pharmacy services produced new operational structures built around the new technologies and involved the creation of new job roles and ways of working. The authors found evidence of collaborative activity with employees enabled to act beyond the specific constraints of their roles within lean teams and to engage in problem-solving in flexible and responsive ways to drive change through innovation. However, as noted above, for some technicians

their roles seem to be diminished because of the redesign. The quality assessment suggested there was promising evidence for participation improving interactions between people and having positive impacts on work design and ways of working.

3.6.5.2 Outcomes regarding the effect on organisations

The next categorisation of findings across the studies is about the effect on the organisation from the design work. McDonald et al (1992) found that a year after the changes in a nursing association the client visitation rate and duration spent with clients had increased, which was seen as important for client satisfaction. Christensen (1993) reported a 90% decrease in customer complaints following the redesign work at a fertiliser plant. Zappe et al (2003) related how they felt they were solving more technology support issues at the first point of contact, service was more consistent and the backlog of cases had reduced. The quality assessment suggested there was promising evidence for participative design having a positive effect on customer outcomes.

For the organisations themselves there were reports of improvements in productivity, quality and costs from the design work. McDonald (1992) reported that, along with the improvements for the clients of the nursing association, the increase in productivity was actually greater as the number of full-time equivalent nurses had decreased 7% through attrition. This had been achieved through flexible staff deployment, reduction in hierarchical levels and reduction in people not providing direct client care. Christensen (1993) reported a 98% improvement in productivity at the fertiliser plant along with a 44% decrease in operating expenses. Frost (1997) reported a productivity increase of

7.5%, and a quality improvement of 3% at the steel plant. Although they cautioned against making a direct link, they did associate the union's role with the improvement in the plant's performance.

Reichert and Smeltzer (1999) describes how seven process improvement areas identified in the teaching hospital outlined potential savings of $10,000,000. $150,000 of this was actual savings related to decreases in overtime and bed turnaround time and over $9,000,000 were described as enabling savings, of which one third was turned into real dollar savings. The quality assessment suggested there was promising evidence for participative design having positive impacts on organisational productivity, quality outcomes and lowering costs.

There were also positive effects of the design work on outcomes such as accident levels, absenteeism and turnover. Frost (1997) described positive outcomes for workers and management from the participative redesign work while keeping the accident rate and accident severity unchanged. Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) noted how the occasions of absenteeism were significantly less for the experimental group of military security guards than for a control group over the period of the study. Perlman (1990) reported the outcome of a redesign in a hospital admissions department where turnover in staff had reduced from 34% to 6% for the first year and 9% for the next two years. The quality assessment suggested there was promising evidence for participative design work having positive impacts on accident levels, absenteeism and turnover.

3.6.5.3 The factors that affect participation

The last categorisation of findings across the studies focuses on the factors identified which may affect the participative process. Table 8 summarises which studies identified which factors.

Table 8: Studies highlighting the factors that affect participation

Factors identified affecting participation	**Studies**								
	Taylor, 1976	Rosenbach and Zawacki, 1989	Axelrod 1992	McDonald et al 1992	Frost, 1997	Nadin et al, 2001	Zappe et al, 2003	Garde and Van der Voort, 2013	Lindsay et al, 2018
Use of a process and tool for the design	✓		✓			✓		✓	
Having a collaborative culture		Part					✓		
Staff perception of their actual participation in the design outcomes	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓
The limited scope for design if solutions are predetermined		✓				✓		✓	✓
How people perceive the design affects them personally		✓		✓		✓			✓
Ability for people to contribute	✓			✓		✓			
The ability for people to force participation					✓				

Use of a process and tool for the design

Using a process and tool, where reported, seemed to help the design process and participation of people in this. Taylor (1976), reporting on the use of a Socio-Technical Systems approach in a small administrative team, described how this had helped the team make recommendations for changes which covered both the technical and social aspects of the work. Axelrod (1992), reporting on their own Conference Model approach, stated how the redesigned organisation had been reduced from 20 departments to four in the space of three months. This they compared to the 12-18 months reported in another division of the same company using a traditional Socio-Technical Systems design approach.

Nadin et al (2001), examining the redesign of a photographic manufacturing organisation, found the job design tool they were using to be structured and systematic and believed this led to a wide ranging discussion which the authors thought would not have happened had the tool not been used. They believed the tool also supported participation, partly by encouraging a common language and debate about how the terms used applied in the context so opening up questions which had not previously been addressed. Garde and van der Voort (2013), describing the use of a scenario based workshop in the design of a hospital move, found it allowed identification of the product requirements, rules, tasks, responsibilities, task flows and questions which needed to be addressed as a prelude for the actual design that was created. They described the workshop as proving to be suitable for investigating different work organization related problems which could consider both actions that could be planned as well as actions that may emerge. They also noted that the scenario needs to be adapted to the specific situation for it to work. The quality assessment

suggested there was promising evidence for use of a process and tool having a positive impact on participative design. Multiple studies suggested these had had a beneficial effect on participation, although only one of these was assessed to be of high quality.

Having a collaborative culture

One paper (Zappe et al, 2003) wrote about how having a collaborative culture seemed to help the participative process. They believed a key to their successful redesign was the collaborative organisational culture they had created in the department prior to the exercise, which enabled people to be active participants in the process. This included ways of working with each other which expressed honesty, mutual respect, integrity and encouragement of people to take responsibility. Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) described how the participative nature of the redesign process forced employees, supervisors and managers to work together in a collaborative way. Though here, collaboration was a consequence of the participative process rather than a pre-requisite for it. They did propose that a change program must be congruent with the culture of the organisation; which suggests participation needs a somewhat collaborative environment for it to work. The quality assessment indicated it was unclear whether a collaborative culture helped the participative process as this was from a single study which was rated of low quality.

Staff perception of their actual participation in the design outcomes

How much staff believed their input was making a difference to the design outcomes seemed to be a factor affecting participation. Taylor (1976) related how the redesign

efforts were viewed negatively by the participants when management didn't accept their recommendations. Frost (1997) noted how workers are less likely to engage in work redesign where they have no guarantee that their interests will be taken into account, or they have no leverage with management. Lindsay et al (2018) notes how the redesign exercise was seen by some staff as driven from the top down and that staff feedback was rarely actioned. For some, management 'listening events' amounted to little more than top-down announcements of pre-planned, management-driven changes. This was despite management claiming at the outset of the project that employees would be included in decision making at all levels. That this had not happened was something later acknowledged by the managers themselves.

Nadin et al (2001) also noted how the researchers, acting as facilitators for the redesign exercise, can be seen by employees as part of management as the researchers' views aligned with what the management wanted. As such, they can become part of the politics in the situation. On the positive side, Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) noted the effects on military security guards when they saw their design proposals were adopted by management. Garde and Van der Voort (2013) also noted the increase in participants' commitment for the project as they felt their concerns and ideas were being listened to. The quality assessment indicated there was promising evidence that staff perception of the amount of participation being allowed by management was having an affect on the participative process.

The limited scope for design if solutions are predetermined

A number of the studies noted how the participative design exercise could be negatively affected by the constraints imposed by technology or other work parameters. Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) noted how the job of guarding missiles and aircraft has only so much scope for it to be redesigned so as to be more enriching for incumbents. Nadin et al (2001) also noted how the pre-determined design of technology would limit the design options open for participants to explore and it was more a case of evaluating what was possible. Garde and van der Voort (2013) described a general challenge with participative design in that participants need to be able to come up with creative solutions and yet must be restricted by boundaries to ensure the solutions put forward are feasible. Lindsay et al (2018) noted some employees' roles and options were diminished by needing to work with and service the robotic technologies that had already been brought in to automate service delivery. The quality assessment suggested there was promising evidence that having a limited scope for the design options will impact on the participative design approach.

How people perceive the design affects them personally

How people perceive that the design outcomes affect their own role and employment may impact the participative process. In the Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) study, employees' roles were enriched by the design changes they came up with and this improved their motivation and satisfaction. It was not clear though whether this would still have been the case had the changes not been participative and the authors advocate for the effects of participation and job design to be measured separately. McDonald et al (1992) reported

how some employees made commitments to the design changes even though it disadvantaged them, while others left because they could not or did not wish to identify with the new direction the organisation was taking.

Nadin et al (2001) noted how different workers would evaluate the different design options identified, depending on whether it meant an improvement or detriment for them personally. They also found that coverage of sensitive issues meant some design scenarios were avoided for fear of conflict, or scepticism over whether their involvement would have any impact. They wondered whether people would willingly design themselves out of a job. Lindsay et al (2018) noted how the employees who were transferred into roles servicing technology had more negative experiences than those whose roles were enriched because of the design changes. The quality assessment indicated it was unclear whether the participative design process is affected by how people perceive the design outcomes affect them personally.

Ability for people to contribute

The ability for people to contribute to the design exercise was noted in a number of the studies as affecting the participative approach. Taylor (1976) reported how the length of time the design process took was helpful in allowing the clerical members of the design team to build their confidence that they could participate. They did also note that the time became a hindrance in the implementation of the design recommendations, as people had moved on in their careers by the time the study was concluding. McDonald et al (1992) noted a question of whether staff would have the knowledge, skills and objectivity to

contribute effectively in a participative process. It was also clear that at different stages in the project the opportunity for participation changes according to participants' knowledge of the issues and capacity to make a contribution.

Nadin et al (2001) reported that the background knowledge of participants varied, which meant some people couldn't participate until there had been time to explain how the technology would work rather than working on the actual job design. With the cross section of participants involved, the authors also saw how absences from some workshops meant the discussions became skewed depending on who was there, leading to conflicts because of vested interests. This suggests that although participation may be encouraged by management, the actual participative design approach can be influenced by who actually participates, either by being physically absent from the discussion or vocally absent from the discussion. The quality assessment indicates promising evidence that the participative approach is affected by the ability of employees to contribute.

The ability for people to force participation

A factor which affects the participative approach is identified by Frost (1997) as that where people have some bargaining power with management to force their participation. In this case it was through the union using both cooperation and conflict strategically with management to meet their needs, knowing management needed their cooperation to achieve their aims. While interesting, the quality assessment indicates unclear evidence whether the ability for employees to force participation affects the participative process.

3.6.6 Quality assessment

The full results of the quality assessment are presented in Table 9. Table 10 shows a summary of the evidence statements and the quality ratings.

Three of the studies were assessed to be of low quality with a lack of actual research questions, deficits in the study design and poor reporting of the results. These were Zappe et al (2003), Garde and van der Voort (2013) and Townsend (1990). These studies were descriptive of the author led design exercise that took place in an organisation, adopting a *'this is how we did it'* style to the paper.

Seven of the studies were assessed to be of moderate quality, with some deficits or absence to the conceptual foundations, design of the study and/or the reporting of the results. These were Frost (1997), McDonald et al (1992), Perlman (1990), Axelrod (1992), Taylor (1976), Christensen (1993) and Reichert and Smeltzer (1999). These studies tended to be descriptive, advocative and in some cases evaluative of the participative approach. This is akin to adopting a '*this is how we did it, this is what happened and you should consider it too'* approach.

Three of the studies were assessed to be of high quality, showing conceptual rigour relating to the research topic, suitable research design and methodology and clarity of the reporting. These were Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989), Nadin et al (2001) and Lindsay et al (2018). These studies took a more objective approach to participative design, adopting a *'this is what we were looking at and this is what we found'* approach.

Table 9: Quality assessment of included studies

Study No.	Study title and authors	CONCEPT		METHOD			REPORTING		TOTAL: (MAX 35) 30-35 High 20-29 Moderate 10-19 Low 1-9 Very Low	
		The relevance of the study questions to the research topic	Relevance of the study participants and setting to the research topic	Number of participants considered in the study and how many of these were followed through to completion	Time span of the study with an increasing longitudinal nature of the study being given favour	Quality of the research design used to investigate the questions	Was the analysis appropriate for the research	How clear are the results reported to address the research questions		
12	**Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study In The Public Sector** (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989)	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	**33**	**High**
4	**Participation in job redesign: An evaluation of the use of a sociotechnical tool and its impact** (Nadin, Waterson & Parker, 2001)	4	5	4	4	5	5	4	**31**	**High**
1	**Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies, and Work Redesign** (Lindsay et al, 2018)	5	5	4	3	4	5	4	**30**	**High**
6	**The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring** (Frost, 1997)	2	5	5	4	4	5	3	**28**	**Moderate**
9	**A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc)** (McDonald, McDermott & Fletcher, 1992)	2	5	5	5	2	4	4	**27**	**Moderate**
10	**Employee-Centered Work Redesign** (Perlman, 1990)	2	5	4	5	2	4	3	**25**	**Moderate**
8	**Getting everyone involved: How one organization involved its employees, supervisors, and managers in redesigning the organization** (Axelrod, 1992)	1	5	5	4	3	3	2	**23**	**Moderate**

13	**Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White Collar Example** (Taylor, 1976)	2	4	2	5	3	2	3	**21**	**Moderate**
7	**High-involvement redesign** (Christensen, 1993)	1	5	5	5	1	2	2	**21**	**Moderate**
5	**Work redesign and implementation: staff perspectives** (Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999)	2	5	2	4	2	3	3	**21**	**Moderate**
3	**The Road Less Travelled: Staff-Driven Re-org** (Zappe; Hoyt. & Veloz, 2003)	1	5	4	4	1	1	2	**18**	**Low**
2	**Co-designing better work organization in healthcare** (Garde & van der Voort, 2013)	1	5	3	1	2	3	2	**17**	**Low**
11	**A participative approach to administrative reorganization** (Townsend, 1990)	1	5	2	4	1	2	2	**17**	**Low**

Adapted from Snape et al (2017)

Table 10: Evidence statements and quality ratings

Evidence statement	Quality rating	Reasoning
Participative design has a positive effect on employees':		
… job roles and interactions… satisfaction, commitment and levels of anxiety	Promising evidence	There are multiple studies suggesting this with quality ratings from high to low
	Unclear evidence	There are multiple studies showing different effects and of mixed qualities
Participative design has a positive effect on organisations':		
…accident levels, absenteeism and employee turnover	Promising evidence	There are several studies suggesting this of high to moderate quality
… productivity, quality and costs	Promising evidence	There are multiple studies suggesting this all of moderate quality
…customer satisfaction	Promising evidence	There are several studies suggesting this of moderate to low quality
The factors that affect participative design:		
… ability for people to contribute	Promising evidence	There are several studies suggesting this of high to moderate quality
… use of a process and tool	Promising evidence	There are multiple studies suggesting this with quality ratings from high to low
… staff perception of their actual participation in the design outcomes	Promising evidence	There are multiple studies suggesting this with quality ratings from high to low
… the limited scope for design if solutions are predetermined	Promising evidence	There are multiple studies suggesting this with quality ratings from high to low
… the ability for people to force participation	Unclear evidence	There was one study suggesting this of moderate quality
… how people perceive the design affects them personally	Unclear evidence	There are multiple studies giving mixed views on this and it is unclear whether the participative process is affected or just people's views on the design outcomes
… having a collaborative culture	Unclear evidence	There was one study suggesting this of low quality

3.7 Discussion

3.7.1 Introduction

This systematic review was examining the research on team members' participation in organisation design and restructuring. The focus was particularly on what is known about what works and what doesn't work with the participative approach, drawn from an empirical rather than theoretical perspective.

From the studies selected for the review, the 1990s appear to be a decade when there was most interest in participation in organisational restructuring. Being a little generous with our time span, 10 of the 13 studies were published during a 14-year window spanning from 1989 to 2003. All the studies published during the 1990s were assessed to be of moderate or low quality and were of an anecdotal and advocative nature. It could be that the 1990s were a period of empowerment within Human Resources (Wall, Wood & Leach, 2004) and that this has partly driven the interest in participation in restructuring. It may also reflect the interest in emergent organisational change during the 1990s in response to the perceived limitations of planned change (e.g., Weick, 1995); the rise in efforts at corporate restructuring and business process reengineering (e.g., Bowman & Singh, 1993; Hammer & Champy, 1993); the interest in transformational change and the role of leaders in driving this (e.g., Bass, 1985) and the focus of human resource management becoming more strategic in its outlook (e.g., Wright & McMahan, 1992). Yet this raises the question of why there has been comparatively less research over the ensuing two decades with the interest in employee engagement (Gifford and Young, 2021), the growth of the knowledge worker (Zumbrun, 2016) and the increased need for

agility in organisations (Harraf, Wanasika, Tate & Talbott, 2015) which would seem to argue for it. It may be that the focus of research has shifted to areas such as employee well-being and Diversity, Equity and Inclusion (e.g., Guest, 2017; Shore, Cleveland & Sanchez, 2018).

In answering part of the overall objective for this systematic review, **'***what is already known about the participative approach to organisation design and what helps this approach to be successful?'*, we can say there is a wide ranging literature base which can inform this, drawn from different perspectives about participation in organisations. However, there is not a systematic knowledge base about the participative approach to organisation design which is derived from empirical research. Instead, the literature encompassed by the review is skewed towards being presented through the descriptive and advocative voice of the authors promoting the benefits of participative design rather than critically evaluating it**.**

From the findings of the papers included in the systematic review we get a picture of the participative design approach being associated with positive outcomes, such as better work-based interactions, improved customer satisfaction, increases in productivity and lower levels of absenteeism and turnover. However, the stance of many of these papers is from the perspective of narrating a story promoting the gains to be made by adopting the participative approach. It is unclear in these cases how much the participative design approach caused these outcomes any more than a non-participative design approach

would have. More critically for this review these papers do not give us an objective picture of the factors which help or hinder the participative design approach.

3.7.2 What is known about the effect of using the participative design approach on the people in the team who are participating?

Regarding the first question for this systematic review, what is known about the effect of using the participative design approach on the team members who are taking part, we can see from many of the reviewed papers that it is generally associated with positive reactions from those involved. However, the evidence for these positive reactions are moderate or low quality; being mostly based on the author's reports when they were also the ones leading and advocating for the participative design approach. As such, there is a potential conflict of interest with this approach in only reporting the positive results. It is also unclear whether the participative approach resulted in the positive reactions of team members or whether the general positivity of employees facilitated a participative approach.

From the evidence where the quality was rated as high, then there is a mixed picture of the positive effect of the participative approach on participants' reactions. There was one study (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989) where the participative design approach showed an improvement in satisfaction and motivation among team members. In other studies however (Nadin et al, 2001; Lindsay et al, 2018), those who saw the outcomes as an improvement for their roles and development reacted more positively than those who perceived them to be a detriment. It is not clear from the evidence whether participants

could be positive about the process, even if the outcome of this process ended up being unfavourable to them personally. These findings fit with the six critical human requirements for work identified by Emery and Thorsrud (1969), in as much as the positive impact which can be had from people having scope to determine their own work, experience variety in the job and have the opportunity to learn, as well as the negative impact if these things are missing.

There is promising evidence that the participative design approach results in changes to people's job roles and working relations (e.g., Lindsay et al, 2018). However, as this is the aim of organisational design interventions, it would be surprising if this wasn't the case. We can't know from the reviewed literature whether the participative approach made more or better changes in this regard than a non-participative organisation design intervention would have. It is also unclear from many of these author reports how far the participative approach led to these improved working relations, or whether improved working relations through some other factor facilitated the use of a participative approach.

3.7.3 What is known about the effect of using the participative design approach for the organisation?

Regarding the second research question for this review, what is known about the effect of the participative approach for the organisation, from the reviewed literature we can see promising evidence that the participative approach is associated with benefits for the organisations. These benefits were seen in terms of effects on customers (e.g., McDonald et al, 1992), productivity (e.g., Christensen, 1993), cost savings (e.g., Reichert &

Smeltzer, 1999) and on measures such as absenteeism (Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989). Again though, the majority of these benefits are being reported by authors who are advocating for the participative design method, so there is the potential for a conflict of interest with this. It is also unclear from these reports whether these benefits had been due to the participative method rather than due to the undertaking of an organisational redesign exercise per se.

In some cases the authors did try and indicate that the benefits were due to the participative approach. Axelrod (1992) compares the speed of the participative redesign exercise favourably with the length of time taken for the redesign of another department in the same organisation which had used a less participative approach. Frost (1997) compares the performance of the plant adopting the participative method favourably with its peers; although they also caution against making a causal link with this. Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989) did apportion a key part of the redesign's success with the participative nature of the intervention. They do however also note the limitations by not including a control group in their study and not measuring the effects of the redesign and the participation separately so as to understand the effects of each on the outcomes.

3.7.4 What is known about the factors that affect the success of the participative design approach?

In answering the third research question for this systematic review, what is known about the factors that affect the success of the participative approach, the findings suggest

several factors which have been relevant. It is important to note that, although these factors are presented separately, there is likely to be some overlap between them. This is discussed below where relevant.

There is some promising evidence that the use of a process and relevant tools has a positive effect on the participative approach to organisation design. This fits with previous literature in the organisation design field where the use of some kind of process (the prescribed steps to take in designing the organisation) and associated tools (things we can use to help with each step) are widely advocated (e.g., Galbraith, 1977). Even with participatory approaches which may involve many of, or the whole organisation in the design exercise, a prescribed process is followed (e.g., Emery & Devane, 1999; Axelrod, 1992).

As noted by Nadin et al (2001) though, there is a tension between having a prescribed process to follow and the nature of participation. The more prescribed the process and tools the more this may undermine the ethos of having people involved in the design. This was something Emery (1995) argued had happened to the Socio-Technical Systems approach, that the approach itself had become too technical. This tension can be eased somewhat by arguing that while the process and tools are set out, the content and outcomes of any design discussions are the things that are participatory. It is also possible that people can be involved in the design of the process and tools, as suggested by Nadin et al (2001).

There is also promising evidence that the perception of participants' participation in the design outcomes is a factor in the success of the participative approach. At an intuitive level this makes sense – if people don't feel they are actually participating then this doesn't bode well for a participative approach. This was something noted by Lindsay et al (2018) where some staff felt the design exercise was already being decided on by management and their participation was not being honoured. This fits with one of Emery and Thorsrud's (1969) six critical human requirements for work that people need to feel their contribution is respected. It also fits with some of Cherns' (1976) principles of the socio-technical design approach; notably that management actions should be congruent with their espoused philosophy. If management are advocating for a participative approach, then they need to allow this to happen and to respect the recommendations which come from this.

Linked to this factor there is promising evidence that having a limited scope for the design if solutions are predetermined will have an impact on the participative approach. While there is a difference from the previous factor in that people may feel they are actively participating in the design, the overlap is that this participation may still end up being limited in practice if technology or other constraints mean there are few design considerations for people to be involved in. This was something noted by Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989), where there was only so much leeway for employees to redesign their work because of the nature of the job and environment. It was also noted by Garde and van der Voort (2013) that participation and creative solutions may be encouraged, yet any design proposals must still be practicable within the boundaries that the organisation needs to work within. These are balances which need to be made by management; first

by understanding whether participation is warranted and then being clear with participants on the scope and criteria within which the design work needs to fit.

This leads into the third factor where there is promising evidence for an effect on the participative approach and that is whether people have the ability to contribute. Again the difference from the previous factors are that people's participation may be welcomed and there is scope for them to come up with design options, yet the overlap is that a lack of knowledge or just a lack of partaking means there isn't any meaningful participation occurring. As pointed out by McDonald et al (1992) and Nadin et al (2001), the findings would suggest that management are considerate of whether all participants will have the requisite knowledge and skills to make a meaningful contribution and at which stages of the design project this can happen. Management also then need to make sure people are given the time and permissions to participate in the design activities.

There were a number of factors identified from the findings but where the evidence is unclear whether these would have an impact on the participative approach. The first of these was whether having an existing collaborative culture in the organisation would be beneficial to taking a participative approach. While there may be an intuitive appeal to this, we can't promote this as a pre-requisite or beneficial based on the review findings. It may also be that the participative approach can build a collaborative culture, or work with an aspirational collaborative culture as noted by Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989). Further research would be needed in this area.

The second factor identified where the evidence is unclear is whether people's perception of how the design outcomes affect them personally is an influence on the participative approach. In other words, is it possible that people can participate in the design of their organisation without being influenced by how this design impacts their role and status? As noted by Nadin et al (2001), would people be willing to design themselves out of a job? Nadin et al (2001) reported how some design scenarios were avoided because of sensitivity for people's roles and a fear that this may cause conflict between participants. Yet avoiding discussing certain scenarios can undermine the participative design approach just as much as someone actively influencing a decision. This is another area where further research is required, as advocated by Rosenbach and Zawacki (1989), to try and separate out the impact of participation from the impact of the actual design outcomes.

The third factor identified where the evidence is unclear is where the ability for people to force participation influences the participative approach. This was advocated by Frost (1997) and supports Gill's (1993) five factors which may influence participation; namely how much management are dependent on the co-operation of the workforce, the power of the workforce to organise themselves to force involvement and any regulations existing which require worker participation. While it may be that workers can for some reason force their participation on management, this isn't the same as management wanting there to be participation. It is unclear then whether the ability to force participation would be a good thing or not for the actual participative approach. It may happen, but it may not be successful; in the same way that management forcing participation may make it happen in principle but not in practise.

3.7.5 Summary

Overall from the reviewed literature, while there are some factors which we can draw out which seem to affect the participative design approach, this could not be considered a systematic and comprehensive understanding of the field. Rather we are identifying some factors from a small number of the included studies. Some of these are presented as part of a positive autobiographical narrative of the design exercise, rather than as an objective identification of the factors which may help participation. Some of the factors are also presented as by-products of the main research purpose of the study. We are left then with some pointers as to what may help the participative approach, but with scope to explore these and other possible factors in a further study. Furthermore, studies do not report on the experience of practitioners facilitating or providing oversight of the design process. Such practitioners are uniquely positioned to report on the design process as they are likely to consult with both employees and leaders throughout the process.

3.8 Strengths and Limitations

One of the strengths of this study is using a systematic approach to identify, evaluate and analyse the literature base as to what helps the participative approach to organisation design. Using a systematic approach means the research focus was clear, the inclusion and exclusion criteria were stated, the methodology was transparent and the results are clearly reported. This offers scope for the study approach to be replicated, or altered within identified parameters, by future researchers.

The main limitation of this study at an outcome level is the limited research literature looking at participative organisational design, particularly in terms of the factors which may influence its successful application. Much of the literature which met the inclusion criteria was assessed to be of moderate to low quality, lacking in either a clear research focus, outcome measures and/or reporting clarity. Instead, much of the literature took a descriptive and advocative narrative of the participative design exercise. Another limitation at an outcome level was that two thirds of the studies originated from the United States and over three quarters were based on either the healthcare or manufacturing sectors.

At the procedural level, a limitation of the study was that only research published in the English language was included. This may have biased the included literature to English speaking countries and therefore missed countries which may have a more collectivist, rather than individualistic culture (Hofstede, 2001) and where participative design may be more prominent. Another limitation of using the systematic review methodology was that the criteria set may have excluded some literature at the initial identification stage even though it was directly related to the research focus. This was the case, for example, with some literature describing the approach to participative organisation design (e.g., Emery & Devane, 1999) which was excluded from the systematic literature review as it wasn't describing an actual study into participative design.

3.9 Implications for Research

This study has suggested future avenues for research into participative organisational design. The first of these would be a more systematic and direct exploration of the factors which influence the progress and success of the participative design approach, in order to explore and build on the factors which have been identified in this study. A second avenue for research would be to more objectively assess whether participative organisational design initiatives have actually met their intended objectives, both in the outcomes of the design and in the objectives of the participation. This could be achieved through a non-invested third party separate from the consultants leading the design exercise and the use of randomised controlled trials in order to better assess and report on the outcomes and objectives of the intervention. A third area for research would be an examination of the Vroom-Yetton-Jago contingency model of decision making and leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) when applied to organisational design. The model suggests a participative leadership approach is appropriate when certain conditions are met. This model could be employed therefore when considering whether a participative approach is relevant to a design exercise; but also using the design exercise as action research for whether the model's propositions are supported. A fourth avenue of research would be to widen and deepen the experiences and voices that are captured when researching participative organisation design. This would include encompassing experiences from different countries and industry sectors, as well as voices from some of the actors involved in the design exercise such as team members, senior management and the design experts who facilitate the exercises for organisations. This would be particularly fruitful using a longitudinal study design so that experiences of each party can be compared over the course of the design.

3.10 Implications for practice

This systematic review has implications for practice in two main ways. The first is in using the promising evidence identified for the association of the participative approach with beneficial outcomes, when building a business case and seeking buy in from senior leaders within organisations for the participative method. There should be caution exercised with this as the association leaves it unclear whether these outcomes are due to the participative nature of the approach or in making organisation design changes per se. However, it may at least be reassuring for leaders that taking the participative approach is not likely to result in more negative outcomes for the organisation than would be the case when adopting a non-participative approach.

The second implication for practice is in using the promising evidence for certain factors influencing the success of participation when using this approach. So, if we know there is evidence for certain factors affecting the participative design process, we can ensure these factors are embedded into our practice. If, for example, we know the ability of staff to contribute is an important factor affecting participation, we can ensure this is considered when deciding whether to use the participative approach and/or ensure everyone has sufficient knowledge to contribute. Embedding these factors into practice could be achieved through awareness raising within practitioners, the production of checklists for use in practice and incorporating these factors into training materials for participative organisation design.

3.11 Conclusions

This study has presented the findings from a systematic review of the literature into what helps the participative approach to organisation design. This found that much of the reviewed literature was descriptive and advocative of the participative approach to organisational design, rather than critically examining what helps and hinders the approach. Some of the factors that do influence the participative approach have been identified from the reviewed literature and set in the context of what was known from the wider literature base. These factors include the amount of participation allowed in practice by management, whether employees feel their participative input is being taken notice of by management and the use of some kind of tool or structured process to facilitate the design exercise. We are therefore left without a comprehensive answer to the question of what helps the participative approach to organisation design and future research could look at this more directly.

Chapter 4: Factors affecting the participative approach to organisation design (Study Two)

4.1 Abstract

The design of organisations is seen as a significant endeavour for most leaders to contend with (CIMA, 2020; Aronowitz et al, 2015) and the involvement of team members in this may be beneficial (e.g., Emery, 1995). While there are guidelines for how to go about this participative approach to organizational design (e.g., Emery & Devane, 1999), a systematic review of the literature (Chapter 3) suggests a mostly descriptive and advocative stance to the subject, drawn from limited voices and with only a partial insight into what factors may help the approach. To increase knowledge in this area, 15 organisation design practitioners with experience of facilitating participative organisation design exercises were interviewed for their perspectives. Adopting a qualitative approach and thematic analysis as the method, four main themes were identified which help the participative design process. These were application of organisation design expertise, clarity and alignment for the design work, commitment to the design work and people feeling participation will make a difference. These themes were also considered in the context of current research in the area. The outcomes of this study will aid those involved in facilitating participative organisation design exercises, human resource professionals and senior management within organisations.

4.2 Introduction

As presented in Chapter 1, organisational design is a practice that leaders of organisations need to devote considerable amounts of money (CIMA, 2020) and time to (Aronowitz et al, 2015). With the impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic in 2020 (e.g., World Health Organization, 2020) on working patterns in organisations (e.g., Office for National Statistics, 2022) and trends such as the digitisation of work (e.g., Harapko, 2023), it is very possible that getting the design of their organisation right is a challenge organisational leaders will increasingly need to contend with.

4.3 Literature review of participative organisation design

A systematic review of the literature (Chapter 3) suggests general support for participation as an approach to organisation design, though lacking a wide and systematic empirical basis for this. The review identified some promising evidence for the association of the participative approach with positive outcomes such as increases in productivity (e.g., Christensen, 1997), financial improvements (e.g., Reichert & Smeltzer, 1999) and improved working relations (e.g., Lindsay et al, 2018). It was unclear whether these positive outcomes were due to the participative nature of the design approach or the improvements from the design work per se. The review also indicated it was unclear whether the participative approach to organisation design was associated with positive reactions from participants.

The review identified promising evidence for several factors which may influence the success of the participative approach. These were the use of a relevant process and tools; participants' perceptions of the amount of participation being allowed by management; the ability of participants to contribute and whether there was scope for participants' input to make a difference to the design outcomes. It was unclear whether the factors of having a collaborative culture in the organisation; how people perceive the design affects them personally and the ability of people to force participation, influenced the participative approach.

The systematic review included and built on previous literature regarding participative organisation design. This existing literature, not included in the systematic review in Chapter 3, covers several important contributions to the field. Emery and Thorsrud's (1969) work on identifying six critical human requirements for work includes people being able to determine their own work and feeling that their contribution is respected. Cherns (1976) set out nine principles of the socio-technical design approach to work, which advocated for consideration of the social aspects of work design as well as the technical requirements. Gill (1993) identified several factors which may influence participation at a national and organisational level. These included any existing legislation which may set out requirements for worker involvement, organisational management's attitude to participation and how much management needed workers' cooperation to achieve their aims.

Emery and Devane (1999) provided a systematic approach to participative design which organisational consultants and management could follow when involving employees in

work design. The overview of the steps of this approach are set out in section 1.4.4. The role of the organisation design consultant in this approach would cover several areas. A primary role would be to understand the theory and practise of participative organisation design. They would need this understanding in order to advise the organisation's senior management on the principles of the participative approach and to ensure that the organisation and management are ready and committed to this approach. One principle, for example, would be that in a participative approach no design solutions can be imposed on staff by management, otherwise risking the whole point of participation.

The consultant would also then need to guide management and staff through each step of the participative design process. This would include training management and participants on the principles and steps of organisation design and ensuring they understand the differences the participative approach brings. A key difference might be that, beyond setting out the design criteria, management would be no more senior than any other participant in providing contributions to the design options. Another key role for the consultant would be to facilitate the process of participants generating and deciding on their own design options, without being drawn on providing their own 'expert' view of what is right. By focusing on the process and facilitation of the group, the consultant can act as an objective observer and share their perspectives on what they see happening which may be helping or hindering the participative design process. This is something which would be more difficult for the consultant to do if they were also a participant in the design itself. This 'detached' process facilitator is a crucial and sometimes difficult role for a consultant to play as ultimately they are part of the overall

system, but in doing so they reinforce the message that the participants own the design outcomes.

The systematic review concluded that there were some principles to guide the participative design approach and the identification of some factors which may influence its success. However, there was a lack of empirically derived literature looking specifically at what may help and hinder the involvement of employees in work design.

4.4 Key Aims of this research study

The key aim of this research is to examine what helps the process of participative organisational design when viewed through the lens of the organisation design practitioners who guide the exercise.

Within this overall research question, there are a number of sub-questions which the research aims to address:

1. What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?

2. What are the factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing?

3. What can undermine the participative approach?

4. What roles do people need to play to make the participative approach successful?

4.5 Method

4.5.1 Study design

As described in Chapter 2 this study adopted a qualitative method within a Critical-Realist perspective (Bhaskar, (1975; 2008), as the research aims were to investigate the experiences and perspectives of the study participants. This recognises that there may not be an objective or quantifiable truth to be found in examining this research topic, beyond the narrative of the participants and the constructions of the researcher. However, something of use can be identified and developed in answering the research questions which would be recognised as valid by the participants and other practitioners in the field.

4.5.2 Participants

The subject of the study were organisation design practitioners who had experience of guiding at least one participative design exercise within an organisation as an internal or external consultant. The advantages of focusing on organisation design experts as the subjects for the research are that they should have a perspective covering a range of design exercises varying across different organisations, industries and sectors. Their perspectives would also take in their experiences of guiding a large number of participants through participative design exercises. Practitioners may also be able to distinguish between what was intended in the participative design exercise and what subsequently transpired. They should therefore be able to give a good perspective on what helps and hinders the approach.

Employees of organisations were considered but rejected as study participants as it was felt that they would either have a perspective on only one organisation, if all drawn from that organisation, or a more limited perspective across a number of organisations. To meet the research objectives, it was felt that perspectives which could cover a wide range of interventions and organisations would be required.

Recruitment for the study was sought through two methods. The first was by using a recruitment flyer posted through the primary researcher's LinkedIn profile. This explained an outline of the study, the eligibility criteria for the participants being sought and then invited people to contact the primary researcher for further information and inclusion. The second method was by the primary researcher approaching some organisational design practitioners they knew of professionally from the organisational design field to request their participation. These people were also then asked for further contacts who may be interested in participating and these people were then contacted directly. Each prospective contact was emailed individually about the study and included with this was an Information Sheet and a Consent Form to complete if they were willing to take part. Interviews were then arranged with the participants virtually using the Microsoft Teams virtual meeting platform. The reason for using a virtual platform for the interviews was due to the restrictions in place during the period of the study imposed by the Covid-19 pandemic, as in-person meetings were not permitted at this time. Using a virtual platform for the interviews though did have the advantage that participants based outside of the primary researcher's own locality (the United Kingdom) could easily be included. This widened the possible participant pool considerably and meant the interviews could be recorded visually and audibly.

Eligibility for participating in the study was having guided at least one participative design exercise within an organisation either as an internal or external consultant. Beyond this, the number of design exercises facilitated by the consultant or the type, size and industry context of the organisations in which the design exercises took place were not in themselves part of the eligibility criteria, but these were discussed in the interviews and are summarised in Table 11.

Table 11: Participants included in the study

Participant	Gender	Location	Internal/External Consultant	Number of participative design exercises facilitated	Approx. numbers of people involved in each exercise	Range of industries covered
P1	Male	United Kingdom	External consultant	12	12-140	Various
P2	Male	United States	External consultant	30-40	50-2,000	Various
P3	Male	United Kingdom	External consultant	50	Various	Various
P4	Male	United States	External consultant	12-20	100-2,000	Various
P5	Male	United States	External consultant	300+	Various	Various
P6	Female	United Kingdom	External consultant	Hundreds	Various	Various
P7	Male	United Kingdom	External consultant	Dozens	Various	Various
P8	Male	United States	External consultant	100+	100 - Thousands	Various
P9	Male	United States	External consultant	20	10-800	Various
P10	Male	United Kingdom	External consultant	100+	Various	Various
P11	Male	United Kingdom	External consultant	6-10	200-300	Various
P12	Female	United Kingdom	Internal consultant	Various	Various	Various
P13	Male	United States	External consultant	300-400	Various	Various
P14	Female	United Kingdom	Internal consultant	One	Hundreds	Pharmaceuticals
P15	Male	Germany	External consultant	25	10-300	Various

As can be seen, of the fifteen study participants, three were female (20%) and twelve were male (80%). The age range of participants was from 30 years old to 70+ years old, though as actual ages weren't captured in all instances it is difficult to determine mean age and standard deviation of this. Eight of the participants were from the United Kingdom, six were from the United States and one was from Germany. Ethnicity of participants was not captured as it was not seen to be relevant to the study objectives. Thirteen of the participants were external consultants (87%) at the time of the study and two were internal consultants (13%), though it should be noted in many cases participants would have had

experience of both internal and external consulting during their careers. The number of participative design exercises facilitated by the study participants ranged from one to 'hundreds' and the number of people involved in the design exercises varied from ten to 'thousands'. Apart from one study participant, the participative design exercises facilitated were across a variety of industry sectors.

4.5.3 Data Collection

The interviews took a semi-structured format with the structure being built around the research questions. The particular questions asked of participants were:

1. *What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?*
2. *What parts of the design need to be prescribed by senior management and what can team members be involved in?*
3. *What things most help participative organisational design to succeed?*
4. *What difficulties are found during participative organisational design and how can these be overcome?*
5. *What is the role of senior management during participative organisational design?*
6. *How does the relationship between team members and senior management impact on participative organisational design, and how does the process of participative organisational design impact on the relationship?*
7. *What is the role of the Organisation Design Consultant during participative organisational design?*

The first two questions were intended to address the first research question, *What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?* Question 3 was addressing the second research question, *What are the factors that facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing?* Question 4 was addressing the third research question, *What can undermine the participative approach? Questions* 5, 6 and 7 were intended to inform the last research question, *What roles do people need to play to make the participative approach successful?*

Although individual questions addressed each of the research sub-questions, as a semi-structured interview the conversations with participants ventured around and beyond these if they were addressing the overall research question for the study, '*What helps the participative approach to organisation design?'.* The benefit of using this format for the interviews was that it used the same questions for each of the participants, so that experiences and perceptions of participative organisational design could be compared across the different participants. This suited the aim of the research as it was not coming from a strong a priori foundation of what people's experiences of participative organisational design would be, but that themes may be developed from the data. The design of a semi-structured interview, as well as the advantages and disadvantages of the format, are set out by Adams (2015) and covered in chapter 2 (Page 54, para 1).

The interviews with participants were open ended in terms of time, but in practice lasted between 28 minutes and 104 minutes with the mean average being 54 minutes and a standard deviation of 20 mins. Each interview was recorded through the Microsoft Teams platform and by using a separate recording device as a back-up.

4.5.4 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval for the study was granted in November 2021 by the Birkbeck School of Business, Economics and Informatics School Review Committee (approval number OPEA-21/22-07). Ethical consideration included informed consent of participants, maintaining confidentiality through anonymised data and protection of information and potential conflicts of interest. The mental well-being of participants was also safe-guarded and mental health support services were included in the Information Sheet. As a Chartered Psychologist and Registered Occupational Psychologist, the author also adhered to the BPS (2018) and HCPC (2016) ethical standards.

4.5.5 Analysis

Following completion of each interview the audio files were transcribed using a combination of the transcription functions in Microsoft Word and NVivo. These transcriptions were then checked manually by the author against the audio file and corrected where necessary to ensure the transcription was an accurate version of what was said by the participant and the researcher. The transcriptions followed an orthographic (verbatim) method capturing the words as they were said. A paralinguistic method, trying to capture how something was said was not used, though this was checked at the final stage of the analysis to ensure the coding was representative of the participant's intended meaning rather than just a literal interpretation of the words they used. All utterances etc. were captured, but not laughter or particularly long pauses as these weren't felt salient to the content of what was being said.

Punctuation such as quotation marks weren't used unless it was explicit that the person was quoting someone verbatim as reported speech. The choice of where to put full stops was down to the researcher based on their understanding of what the person was saying during the interview, while being careful not to alter the essence of what they were saying by doing this. Where the researcher wasn't sure of what someone had said, due to the audio being unclear, a [?] was used rather than trying to guess at the words used.

The interviews were analysed using Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) in order to answer the research questions set. Thematic Analysis has been chosen because it suited the methodology of using interviews to collect data and the nature of the research questions which are about people's experiences and perceptions. It also assumes no a priori theoretical framework in place but sense making comes through the analysis and synthesis in the context of the research questions.

The following steps of thematic analysis were undertaken. There was first a complete read through of each interview transcript for the researcher to familiarise themselves with the complete data set. At this stage any observations of immediate interest were noted using the Microsoft Word comment feature and highlighting of the text. Each transcript was then read through again more slowly and any data of interest which related to the interview questions was highlighted and extracted into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The spreadsheet was formatted so that each participant was represented as a row and each of the seven interview questions were represented by a column. Any data extracts of interest were therefore placed within the appropriate cell corresponding to the participant and the interview question it related to. This was a deliberately inclusive process, so data

was highlighted and extracted even if at this stage the relevance to the interview question was tenuous. Highlighted data for each participant may also have been included under more than one of the question columns where relevant, as often a participant would talk about something which related to a different or several interview questions when answering. During this extraction process the researcher also boldened relevant sections of the text which were considered particularly pertinent to answering an interview question.

Once this process was completed for all transcripts, the researcher then transferred all the relevant data from a question column on the Excel sheet into a table in a Word document. Once this was complete for each question it meant the Word document contained all the relevant data extracts relating to a particular interview question consolidated in one area, though still separated by participant. This allowed the researcher to easily scan down the data extracts for a particular question across all the participants.

Using this same table, the researcher created a separate column to the right of the data extracts to enable the identification of codes which were relevant to each interview question. Where a participant said something which was identical to an existing code, or the intent was deemed to be identical, then it was given the same code label. Where the researcher felt there may have been even a slight difference in intent then a piece of data was given its own unique code. This process was followed for all the data extracts relating to each interview question in turn until data extracts for all seven questions were covered.

Once all codes were identified these were then transferred to a separate Microsoft Word document and kept in rows relating to the interview question to which they belonged. A first round process was then undertaken within the Word document to start grouping the codes within each interview question according to underlying concepts around which these codes seemed to coalesce. This concept was then given a theme name. This was very much an iterative process of trying different groupings based on what made most sense from what participants were saying in relation to the interview question. While this was a bottom up approach being driven by the data, there was inescapably some top down grouping as different themes were being developed. This process was completed for each interview question in turn, so that each question had its own set of theme groupings based on the codes for that question. The intention at this stage was to develop theme groupings within questions and not to be swayed by developing overarching themes for the whole data set.

While still adopting the protocol of thematic analysis, a completely independent second round of theme development was then undertaken. This consisted of printing and cutting all the individual codes relating to a particular research question and then trying to group these according to an underlying concept. This allowed a different medium to try different groupings and theme development, without being influenced by the outcomes from the first round. Again this was very much an iterative process of trying out different groupings from the data upwards and then considering these from a top-down perspective of how the developed themes related to the particular interview question. The themes which were developed for each question from this second round were then compared to the themes which had been derived from the first round. Where there were differences these were

considered, though in the main the results from the second round of theme development were used.

The next stage of the thematic analysis was to write out each of the themes identified for each interview question onto separate post-it notes. These themes where then grouped into overall themes which addressed the main research question, *'What helps the process of participative organisational design when viewed through the lens of the organisation design practitioners who guide the exercise?'*. This was again an iterative process of trying different theme groupings and testing whether some of these themes were superordinate to others.

The framework which emerged from this deductive 'themes of themes' approach was then separately checked inductively by taking all individual codes across all participants and interview questions and trying to group these using a 'bottom up' approach. This was again a very iterative exercise over an extended period, exploring different possible groupings of individual codes to answer the overall research question. The results of this inductive approach was then compared to the results from the deductive approach. This was again an iterative process over several days developing and testing the overarching themes and framework structure which best addressed the overall research question.

Once the overall themes and framework had been developed, this was itself then checked by reading through all the original data extracts to see whether they supported this framework or whether something was missing. The final stage of the thematic analysis process was to re-read all the original participants' transcripts and see whether these

supported or contrasted with the overall themes and framework developed. While no major changes emerged from this exercise, some very minor changes were evident in a few of the codes where a nuance presented by the participant wasn't emphasised enough, though this resulted in no substantive change to the code's meaning itself.

4.6 Findings and Discussion

4.6.1 Introduction

This study set out to examine what helps the process of participative organisation design from the perspectives of organisational design practitioners who guide the process. Within this overall aim there were four questions this study aimed to address:

1. What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?

2. What are the factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing?

3. What can undermine the participative approach?

4. What roles do people need to play to make the participative approach successful?

The discussion will be divided into three parts. The first part addresses the empirical study's aim and each of the four research questions, by presenting the findings and considering how these fit with existing literature. The second part considers the strengths

and limitations of this as an empirical study. The third part examines the implications of this study for future research and practice.

4.6.2 Overall Research Aim: What helps the process of participative organisation design from the perspectives of organisational design practitioners who guide the process?

The main aim of this study was to examine what helps the process of participative organisation design when seen from the perspectives of the design consultants who guide the process. In addressing this, thematic analysis of the participants' responses conceptualised a framework of four main themes and eleven sub-themes which are presented in Table 12.

Although all the four main themes were seen as of equal importance, the theme **'Consultant Applying Organisation Design expertise'** is conceptualised as an overarching theme as it is seen to be ingrained in and a pre-requisite to the other three main themes. The other three main themes, '**There is clarity and alignment for the design work**', '**There is commitment to the design work**' and '**People feel participation will make a difference**', all then follow in a loose order of application. So expertise must be there to know what to do, there then needs to be clarity and alignment for what needs to be done, there needs to be the ongoing commitment to do it and then people need to feel it is actually worth doing.

Table 12: Framework of themes identified

Examining what helps and hinders the process of participative organisation restructuring			
Overarching Theme	**Consultant Applying Organisation Design expertise**		
Sub themes	Knowing about participative organisation design Following a process Working with the client effectively Being able to work with a participative group effectively		
Main Themes	**There is clarity and alignment for the design work**	**There is commitment to the design work**	**People feel participation will make a difference**
Sub themes	Leadership understanding and agreeing to a participative design approach Clear intent and scope for the design work	Time and resources are devoted to completing the work Leaders visibly support the participative design process	People feel they are involved People feel safe enough to participate People believe leadership mean it

Having presented an overall framework of what helps, we can now use this to address each of the study's research questions.

4.6.3 Research Question One: What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?

The first of the study's research questions was about understanding the conditions which need to be in place for the participative design approach to have the right foundations for success. From the framework presented in Table 12, two main themes and five sub-themes can be identified which answer this. These are presented in Table 13 below.

Table 13: Conditions required for participative design to be viable

Conditions required for participative design to be considered viable	
Main theme	Sub-themes
Consultant applying organisation design expertise	Knowing about participative organisation design Following a process Working with the client effectively
There is clarity and alignment for the design work	Leadership understanding and agreeing to a participative design approach Clear intent and scope for the design work

Main theme: Consultant applying organisation design expertise

The main theme ***'Consultant Applying Organisation Design expertise'*** can be summarised colloquially as the consultant 'knowing what they are doing' when it comes to participative organisation design. It is made up of four sub-themes, three of which are seen as being necessary from the outset for the participative design approach to be viable.

Interestingly the application of expertise was talked about by many of the study participants almost as an assumption or afterthought that this would be present and required. As P1 expressed it *"where's the design theory, […] you know tools and models and frameworks, it's all in there but what I'm describing is the application of all those things, […]it's only in its application that these things become effective".*

Sub theme: Knowing about participative organisation design

The first sub theme is the Organisation Design Consultant having the requisite depth of explicit and tacit knowledge gained from theory and practice in the field of participative organisation design. They need to know how organisations are designed to meet a purpose and how to help a group of people work effectively together to design their organisation. The findings suggest this expertise is something the consultant needs to have from the outset of the design exercise, it is not something they can develop as the exercise proceeds.

They consultant particularly needs to understand the differences between participative organisation design and a more 'expert-derived, one right answer' design approach. Participant responses suggested this is crucial. It means having the background knowledge to know how to do something and spot when it may be going wrong, while at the same time allowing the group to come up with their own answers. As P8 expressed it *"the consultant in the design process should be seen and rarely heard"* .

The social aspects of designing an organisation are especially important for the participative approach, both in driving its use to help change become embedded but also in its application to ensure people work effectively as a group. The consultant needs to embody this, to have, in P1's words *"an appreciation and acceptance that this is 51% social, 49% technical"* and to understand the responsibility that this entails for the consultant and the organisation. Effective organisation design may result in cultural changes for the organisation, but participative design may require it from the outset. As P12 relayed it *"when you have a participative approach it comes with certain expectations and responsibilities and if your organization isn't ready, to take that ownership because it's such a different culture, people don't believe it, right, that they've got the mandate".*

Sub theme: Following a process

Along with a well-developed declarative knowledge about participative organisation design, findings suggest the consultant also needs to be well versed in the procedural knowledge of 'how to do it'. This means the consultant following a process - and the right process - to go from the initial contact with the client all the way through to the new design being implemented. The importance is illustrated by P1 when they said the "*single biggest thing is getting the sequence of decisions right, […] each decision leads to the next that's the sort of joining of the dots"*

A process helps in walking the client through the steps to design their organisation without getting side-tracked or caught out by doing the wrong thing at the wrong time. There was a feeling among participants that clients probably wouldn't be able to negotiate a participative design exercise alone, perhaps equating it with reshuffling roles and reporting relationships with some input from staff. The consultant's expertise was needed throughout therefore to lead the client through the process and challenges to ensure the approach was comprehensive and effective. In P4's words, *"Unless someone like us is leading them through the conversation they don't have a clue about what to do first or second or third, or anything else".*

That the process is explicit is also seen as important for its own sake in offering a clarity and coordination which is helpful for the client, the participants and the consultant. It has a benefit of reducing ambiguity and anxiety for the client and participants as they go through what can be an unusual and unsettling exercise of designing their own organisation. As P3 says *"with all of that psychological anxiety that's going to come with this, people need to be well held as they go through this".*

Sub theme: Working with the client effectively

While knowing about the theory and process of organisation design is important, the findings suggested this is only of use if the consultant can apply this in practice with a client. This may mean being able to quickly develop a working relationship with the client and establish clear roles with them. The consultant's role was seen as guiding the client and design exercise participants through the process to arrive at their own answers, rather

than telling them what would be right. This may come with tensions that the consultant needs to be able to manage, such as the client or participants looking to them for the technical answer to a design problem which may be veiled under such terms as ‘what do other organisations do?’. While the consultant may be able to inject some technical information as part of the design process, the study participants indicated that the consultant needs to be clear that they are stepping out of the process facilitation role and adding some data which may or may not be of relevance to the client’s situation.

Importantly, working with the client effectively doesn’t mean doing whatever the client wanted. There is an integrity to the process and principles of participation that the consultant needs to hold the client to. They need to be prepared to be assertive, as first steps in the process are likely to involve asking the client some challenging questions to ascertain motivations and pointing out to the client if they believe the participative approach is not suitable for their situation. P1 highlights this need for integrity with the client when they say *“if they reject that and say I don't care about the methodology I want answer to 37 now, we'll walk away from the work”.*

Main theme: There is clarity and alignment for the design work

The main theme ‘***There is clarity and alignment for the design work’*** can again be expressed in colloquial terms as everyone buying in to what the participative design work is aiming to do and why. This is comprised of two sub-themes, ‘Leadership understanding and agreeing to a participative design approach’ and ‘Clear intent and scope for the design work’.

Sub-theme: Leadership understanding and agreeing to a participative design approach

The leadership of the organisation, those that are in the position to make the decisions on what does and doesn't happen, need to understand the participative design approach and agree to adopt this for their situation. The findings indicate that the design exercise will only proceed if the key leaders of the organisation really understand what participative organisation design is and agree to pursue it. Without this collective understanding and agreement then the participative approach will not go ahead. Although there may be a culture or popular desire among people for participation in an organisation, this alone will not be enough. It may provide the 'movement' for the endeavour, but the leaders, the sponsors who control formal power, rewards and resources, need to provide the 'mandate' for the work to proceed (e.g., French & Raven, 1959 and Stanford 'Community Organising', n.d.).

Leadership understanding about participative design means they are versed in the principles of participative design, for example the belief that people who do the work may know how best to design it. They also need to understand what comes with the approach, for example that it is difficult to renege on participation if the design recommendations are not what the leaders want.

Understanding and agreement are separate yet go hand-in-hand. Understanding on its own should not be taken as agreement; if leaders understand the approach but don't explicitly agree to it then it will fail. Equally though, agreeing to an approach that isn't fully understood will unravel when one of the principles of the approach conflicts with leaders' expectations. Such may be the case if leaders approach participative design as a version

of ‘top down’ design with some employee input and then wonder why they lose credibility if they reject employees’ recommendations for another option they favour. As P13 cautions, “*a participative design is very, very different in terms of how they* [leaders] *behave and their role (…) they need to understand those expectations so that when they go into the process, they’re prepared”.*

The reasons and parameters are things that may be explored with the design consultant in the early stages of the process, but these may also influence whether a participative design approach is the most suitable route to take. Once reasons and parameters are confirmed and assuming the participative approach is the way forward, then these can be communicated out to participants when the design work begins.

Sub theme: Clear intent and scope for the design work

After leadership understand and agree to participation as the approach to take, the second part of ‘clarity and alignment’ is for everyone to be clear on the reason for the design work taking place, the outcomes expected and what the boundaries for the work are. There first needs to be, in P8’s words a “*compelling reason*” why the organisation is undertaking the design work and why participation is required. There needs to be a shared understanding of what the drivers for the design work are and any dissatisfactions with how the organisation currently is. Without this clear intention there may be a lack of engagement in the work and the risk of people working to different goals (e.g., Fürstenberg, Alfes & Kearney, 2021).

Findings suggest there also needs to be an explicit understanding among all participants of the scope and boundaries for the design work so everyone is clear what it should encompass and what it must take into account. Without an understanding of the scope for the work is and what boundaries or constraints exist, there is a danger that effort may be wasted working on aspects of a design that were never intended for inclusion. Equally people may be overly cautious in their thinking, not knowing where they may be overstepping the mark. Having these boundaries set out helps with the feeling of 'Safety' (Edmondson, 1999) and the sense of transparency that everything is out on the table (e.g., Norman, Avolio & Luthans, 2010). As P2 describes it, "*if there are truly constraints that are there and that the leadership group is not comfortable having the design team mess around with, then I think it's important to have those very clear and specified, (...) and the rationale why we are putting these constraints in".*

4.6.4 Research Question Two: What are the factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing?

Table 14: Factors facilitating participative design when ongoing

Factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing	
Main theme	Sub-themes
Consultant applying organisation design expertise	Following a process
	Working with the client effectively
	Being able to work with a participative group effectively
There is commitment to the design work	Time and resources are devoted to completing the work
	Leaders visibly support the participative design process
People feel participation will make a difference	People feel they are involved
	People feel safe enough to participate
	People believe leadership mean it

The second of the study's research questions was about understanding the factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing. The findings would suggest several factors are relevant here as shown in Table 14 above.

There are some areas of implied continuation and overlap between the conditions required at the outset for the participative approach to be viable and what facilitates it when it's underway. In terms of implied continuation, the design consultant needs to keep using

their technical knowledge and leadership need to still be in agreement about the participative approach and what it is intended to achieve. Should these factors become absent, then the exercise has lost its foundations and these will need to be revisited before it can move on. In terms of overlap, the design consultant following a process and working with the client effectively are sub-themes required at the outset of the exercise and also when the participative approach is underway. These themes and sub-themes which are implied to continue and which overlap have already been described above so will not be revisited here.

Sub theme: Being able to work with a participative group effectively

Under the main theme of ***'Consultant applying Organisation Design expertise'***, there is another sub-theme which becomes important when the participative design exercise gets underway. This is the design consultant being able to work with a participative group effectively and guide the group through the steps of the design process. This sub-theme acknowledges the clear difference between 'expert-derived, top-down' organisation design and participative organisation design. This is more than just knowing about the differences in a conceptual sense, but instead having the skills and experience to work with a group of people in real time as they encounter the challenges of designing their own organisation. In the words of P15 "*connecting with all the people in the room and having constant understanding what's going on here, who is maybe disengaged and needs to be included".*

As a participative group can involve from a few people up to a few hundred, managing the contributions and dynamics of this group will be important for the participative approach to work. That organisation leadership may also be part of this participative group means the dynamics may include managing the hierarchical relationships between participants, within an approach where each person's contribution is intended to be equal. Thus participative design work can come with a considerable amount of tension that the consultant needs to be able to work with and leverage when the temptation might be to ease this somehow. Such is exemplified when P9 recounts a poignant experience of a participant group getting upset during a design work stage and the client expressing anxiety over this: "*D comes to me and says what are we going to do this is terrible and I said no, it's not terrible, this is exactly what we want, […]they are owning the process, that's what we want".*

Main Theme: There is commitment to the design work

The second main theme which was identified as important in facilitating the participative approach was the ongoing commitment to the design work once the initial approval to proceed have been given. This commitment was seen to be comprised of two sub-themes – 'Time and resources are devoted to completing the work' and 'Leaders visibly support the participative design process'.

Sub theme: Time and resources are devoted to completing the work

The first sub-theme here was that leaders of the organisation and participants on the design work need to devote the necessary time, effort and resources to ensure the work is completed. P10 described this in terms of a 'pay now or pay later' equation. People can 'pay now' by putting in the necessary time and effort for the design work, working through various options and conflicts to get some agreed final design recommendations. By doing this they may then save time and effort during the implementation and embedding stages of the design as difficulties have already been worked through and people are in agreement as to how things should be. In the 'pay later' approach, people may avoid some difficult decisions and conflict early in the process to arrive at an overtly suitable design solution quickly. However, this risks masking problems that may then appear when you try to make the design work in practice. As P10 describes this "*you will pay for that later when it comes to implementation, because people are not committed to the new organisation".*

Even if the leaders and participants understand and agree to a 'pay now' mentally, there can still be a tendency for people to underestimate how much time and effort is required to redesign an organisation. It is the responsibility of each individual to give the time for the work but to also contribute their thoughts as part of the design discussions. However organisational leaders need to provide the mandate for this to happen and to be accountable for ensuring it happens. This includes committing for the people who have the requisite knowledge and skills to be involved in the design work, no matter their importance for other organisational tasks. Contrast this with the message that is conveyed if it is seen to be 'the people who can be spared' who are on the design team.

In practice, once the design work is underway people may give it a lower priority and so try to squeeze it in between other priorities. This is a problem, as P1 explains: "*Time - you can't do design work in an hour and a half, two hour blocks . . . enough time to build momentum".* People need to appreciate and then put into practice that if there is a compelling reason for the organisation to redesign, this needs to be the main priority and other work should fit around that. This may be a significant challenge that leaders and participants need to come to terms with early in the participative process: how do we redesign the organisation for the future while still meeting the demands of the day-to-day. This managing of the tension between future desires versus current demands isn't just the preserve of organisation design of course and many individuals could identify with it in their daily experience.

In resolving this challenge, leaders and practitioners may be tempted to say it depends on the circumstances; how urgent is the redesign and how important are the current demands. It may be possible to make sacrifices with current demands in the short term to benefit in the long term – 'pay now'. Alternatively, leaders may argue that the redesign work can take place over an extended period so as not to damage current customer or operational needs. Received wisdom from design practitioners however suggests that there needs to be significant blocks of focused activity, in P1's words "*compressed times of moving from one design decision to the next"* in order to make progress. There is also the risk that if a redesign exercise takes too long overall circumstances may make the work irrelevant, as noted by Taylor (1976).

Sub theme: Leaders visibly support the participative design process

The second sub-theme identified under commitment to the design work was that, having already agreed to the participative design approach, leaders must then visibly support it. They need to be showing the organisation, design work participants and external stakeholders that the design is a priority. This may include acting as participants in the work themselves and so directly committing their own time and efforts.

Leaders also need to be advocating for the participative approach, especially when it may be challenged. P2 describes leaders as "*active cheerleaders for the work that's being done. That they are advocates for whatever comes out of the design process with the rest of the organization".* It is important that leaders, having understood and agreed to the participative approach, support how that process needs to play out even and particularly when it appears that it may not be working. This also means the leaders are accepting of the design recommendations even if they may run counter to their own preferences. This is a difficult position for any leader to be in, having the conviction to stick with an approach when it would be easy to become more autocratic. Yet to do so risks not just the current participative approach but any future one, if people feel it will be abandoned at the first sign of problems.

Main Theme: People feel participation will make a difference

The third main theme identified as important in facilitating the participative approach was people in the organisation feeling their participation will make a difference**.** This

picks up on the particular importance of people's perceptions when it comes to a participative process. If people are truly going to contribute to the design of their organisation, then they need to feel they are actually involved in it, they need to feel safe enough to contribute and they need to believe leadership really mean it when they say it is 'participative'.

Sub theme: People feel they are involved

The process is about *participative* organisation design, so people need to feel they are participating. They need to feel they have agency in the process, a feeling that they can control decisions and their consequences (e.g., Bandura, 2001) when it comes to the design of their organisation. As P6 describes this, "*people can see that what they're doing isn't in a vacuum, it's actually impacting stuff*".

People also need to feel that they have been heard by leadership as a part of feeling involved. It may be that outcomes and decisions may not always go the way participants would like; that leaders, depending on what has been agreed in the scope, decide on a different direction. Yet what is important is that participants feel their efforts and recommendations have been acknowledged, if not always accepted. As P7 points out people feel "*that they've been heard, (...)that it's not just a paper exercise*".

Sub theme: People feel safe enough to participate

People in a participative design exercise also need to feel that can contribute, with all this may entail, without suffering repercussions from doing so. They need to feel *safe* and in terms of organisation design work this is going to mean psychologically safe (Edmondson, 1999) rather than physically safe. Relationship networks and trust in leadership form a part of this feeling of psychological safety (Newman, Donohue & Eva, 2017) and as P3 points out, "*there has to be enough of a relationship for this to work or a base of trust for this to work if it's going to be participative*".

A main negative repercussion from an organisation design exercise would of course for someone to feel their job may become redundant, or at least negatively impacted, as a result of the design outcomes. While this may be unavoidable, it may be possible for leaders to offer some protection, or at least clarity, for employees in this event. In doing so it may be that participants can then focus on designing what best suits the organisation's interests rather than their own.

Perceived repercussions though can be less tangible than losing your job or status. There may be a feeling that doing or saying the wrong thing during the design work may have negative consequences. Participative design is based on and requires people who are doing the work to contribute their thoughts and ideas as to how the work should be organised. Psychological safety in this regard may therefore represent perceived permission to contribute these views without feeling these are being judged. P7 talks about the role leaders have in creating this environment: "*They've got to create a safe*

space (…) they gotta create 'this is how we want you to operate' and it's gotta be real, it can't be 'just 'cause I say so', 'cause people will see through that in seconds".

Sub theme: People believe leadership mean it

The last sub-theme making up people feeling participation will make a difference is the belief in participants that their leaders really mean it when they say it is participative. They need to believe the participative work will make a difference to the outcome and not that it is just a façade, with leaders covertly defining what the future organisation will look like. P14 describes an instance of the latter: "*We're like, OK, (…) obviously they already knew that they wanted it to be networked (…) it felt from my perspective it was already determined*".

People also need to feel that when it comes to a defining moment in the participative design work, leaders' actions will match their espoused intentions (e.g., Argyris & Schon, 1974). They need to believe that their leaders will trust and support the recommendations coming from the design team as they set out to do. Not, as in P3's experience, receive the proposals for the design and then say "*Oh no […]I don't agree with that, here's my option and we're gonna go with this*". Participants also need to believe that leaders have declared all criteria and constraints for the design team to work within as part of the scope. What can undermine this belief is where a leader may present a condition the design team could have no knowledge of; as P10 points out a " *leader might actually say right, yes yes, but I want the job for Fred or I want a job for Jim or whatever"* .

4.6.5 Research Question Three: What can undermine the participative approach?

Table 15: Factors which undermine participation

Factors which can undermine participation
• Unvoiced disagreements or concerns among the leadership team which will emerge later • The design work becomes of secondary importance to other organizational priorities • People fear a loss of their role or loss of status and so act in their self-interests to mitigate this • People don't believe the espoused values are the actual values which are in use and so behave according to the actual values • People believe there is an ulterior design model or unstated criteria which will actually take precedence over the recommended design option

The third of the study's research questions was about understanding what can undermine the participative approach. It may of course be the case that what can undermine the participative approach are the opposites, or absences of, the factors which facilitate it. However, it is useful to name and expand on some of the difficulties which can occur which were identified from the findings. These are summarised in Table 15 above.

To begin with, if there are unvoiced disagreements between leaders of an organisation about the merits or intentions of the participative approach then this was seen as likely to emerge at some point and undermine the exercise. Using a metaphor of a physical journey for the design exercise, if the leadership of the organisation aren't explicitly in agreement as to why they are going on the journey and where it is leading to then it is best not to start. Special mention was also made of when leadership may change part way through a

design exercise and differences of opinion can arise where new members of the leadership team were not party to the original decisions. P4 noted the effect this can have when recounting a new head of a department being appointed part way through a redesign exercise *"and this guy violated all of the parameters about what we believed about people".*

Once a design exercise is underway one thing that can undermine the work is where other organisational priorities take precedence. In some cases these may be unavoidable where changes in the organisation's environment require it to respond. In such cases though the purpose and scope of the design work needs to be revisited. In other cases it may be that the organisational leaders lose interest; as P1 notes "*you see* [the design work] *falling down the agenda on the executive meeting and sooner or later it becomes AOB".* Leadership clearly have a strong role to play in this as if their attention is seen to shift then people may focus their efforts instead on whatever their leaders are asking them about (e.g., Silva & Mendis, 2017).

A major factor which may undermine the participative approach is a conflict of interest where participants fear for their own role or status as a result of the design work and so work to protect their own interests rather than the organisational interests. P3 mentioned this occurring: *"you see sort of people go oh yeah, yeah we're gonna take this objectively and you know that actually, they're just gonna ram their their own option through"* That this may occur may be unavoidable but can be mitigated with organisational support as described previously and good facilitation by the design consultant.

Less immediate, but perhaps more insidious, are the consequences people may believe they will suffer to their prospects or social status in the organisation if they say or do the wrong thing in the design work (Edmondson, 1999). This may especially be the case if people believe there is a difference between leaders' espoused values and what they feel is enacted, welcomed and rewarded by leaders (e.g., Argyris & Schon, 1974). People may witness leadership behaviours or perceive a negative reaction to their own behaviours which are incongruent with the intended organisational design principles, suggesting the current cultural norms are still in effect. P5 points this out: *"you can't have a company saying, we want our people to be entrepreneurial and then you tell them what to do every step of the way, right, you get the total contradiction".*

A linked issue which can be a potential problem with the participative approach is when people perceive that, parallel to the overt participative work they are doing, their leadership are engaged in covert design work which will become the organisational model adopted. This can also be expressed in more limited forms. One is where people see that a role is being retained or created, or a person is appointed to a role, even when this conflicts with the organisational design being recommended. An alternative is when participants become aware of a design criteria or constraint which undermines their recommendations, even though this would have been evident from the beginning. In P2's words: *"I've had some leaders say, 'Hey, listen, we have a blank sheet here, you know, no constraints'. And when we really get into it, there are some underlying constraints and that can really damage the process.* Should this occur then this will likely undermine the current and any future participatory approaches.

4.6.6 Research Question Four: What roles do people need to play to make the participative approach successful?

Table 16: Roles of different groups in the participative approach

Senior Management	Organisation Design Consultant(s)	Design Participants
Commissioning the design work Establishing the main objectives and parameters for the design work Advocating for the participative design work Actively support the design work Creating the environment for participation	Possess the expertise for participative design work Working with the client leadership to understand and support a participative approach Managing the process to get to the client's destination Facilitating the participative design work	Engage in the participative design work Declare any personal interests which are affecting their judgement Voice any concerns which are undermining the participative process

The fourth and last of the study's research questions concerned the roles that each party needs to play in the participative design approach to ensure it is successful. These roles are summarised in Table 16 above.

As has already been reported, the findings suggest senior management have the key role in commissioning the design work and setting out the objectives and parameters for it. Though aspects of this will continue throughout the design exercise, once it is underway senior management's role would appear to fall into three foci. The first is advocating for the participative design approach with stakeholders and employees. This includes being the communication output for the design work, managing stakeholders and leading the organisation through the overall exercise. The second focus is providing active support to

the design work and participants. This involves checking in with how the work is going, asking questions, removing any barriers which are encountered and also just participating themselves as a team member when required. The third focus is creating the environment in which participation can succeed. This means holding themselves true to what they have said, helping to create psychological safety for participants, trusting in the process and in the wisdom of the people who are contributing.

An important role which came through for senior management was to clarify with the design consultant and participants who will make the final decisions on the design recommendations. It may be that participants may recommend options on the design outcomes, but senior leadership make the final decisions. It is possible that senior leadership may decide that, as long as the design criteria are met, they will agree to whatever design outcome the participative group advocate. If leadership are also part of the participative design group, then this distinction may be less clear cut. It is important this is clarified however to avoid a misunderstanding undermining the participative process.

If we can again think of undertaking a journey as a metaphor for the design exercise, the organisation design consultant acts as the journey guide. They have the knowledge of the participative design terrain and pathways to follow to get the client to the destination. They know what equipment to take that will be important, such as the strategy and design criteria. They know what things to leave behind, such as previous organisational structures, even if these seem important to the client. They know what choices need to be taken when, even when the client may feel an urgency to decide these earlier as may be

the case with decisions on teams and roles. They know where the firm footing is so that clients can move quickly, such as generating prototypes of new operating models. They also know where to be cautious to avoid the swamps, such as a leader acting in a way which is undermining their espoused values. They can get people to travel effectively together, learning about the environment as they go, ensuring people aren't being left behind; all the while ensuring the leader of the group doesn't feel disempowered. Importantly it is the role of the consultant to remember that in a participative journey it isn't their destination they are leading to, it is the client's. This means that it should be the client who is making the decisions on the design outcomes and not the design consultant. A journey's end where only the consultant is happy does not seem to make for a successful design exercise.

For the design participants, which may also include client leadership, their role can be seen under three main areas. The first is to engage in the design work. This means contributing to discussions, collaborating with others and taking ownership of any decisions that are jointly made by the group. The second is to declare any personal interests which may affect their contributions or judgements during the design work as they may undermine the decision interests of the organisation. The third responsibility is for participants to voice any concerns which they feel may be undermining the participative process. This can be to point out any actions where they feel leaders are acting in a way which is against the principles of participation or where other participants are acting in their own interests.

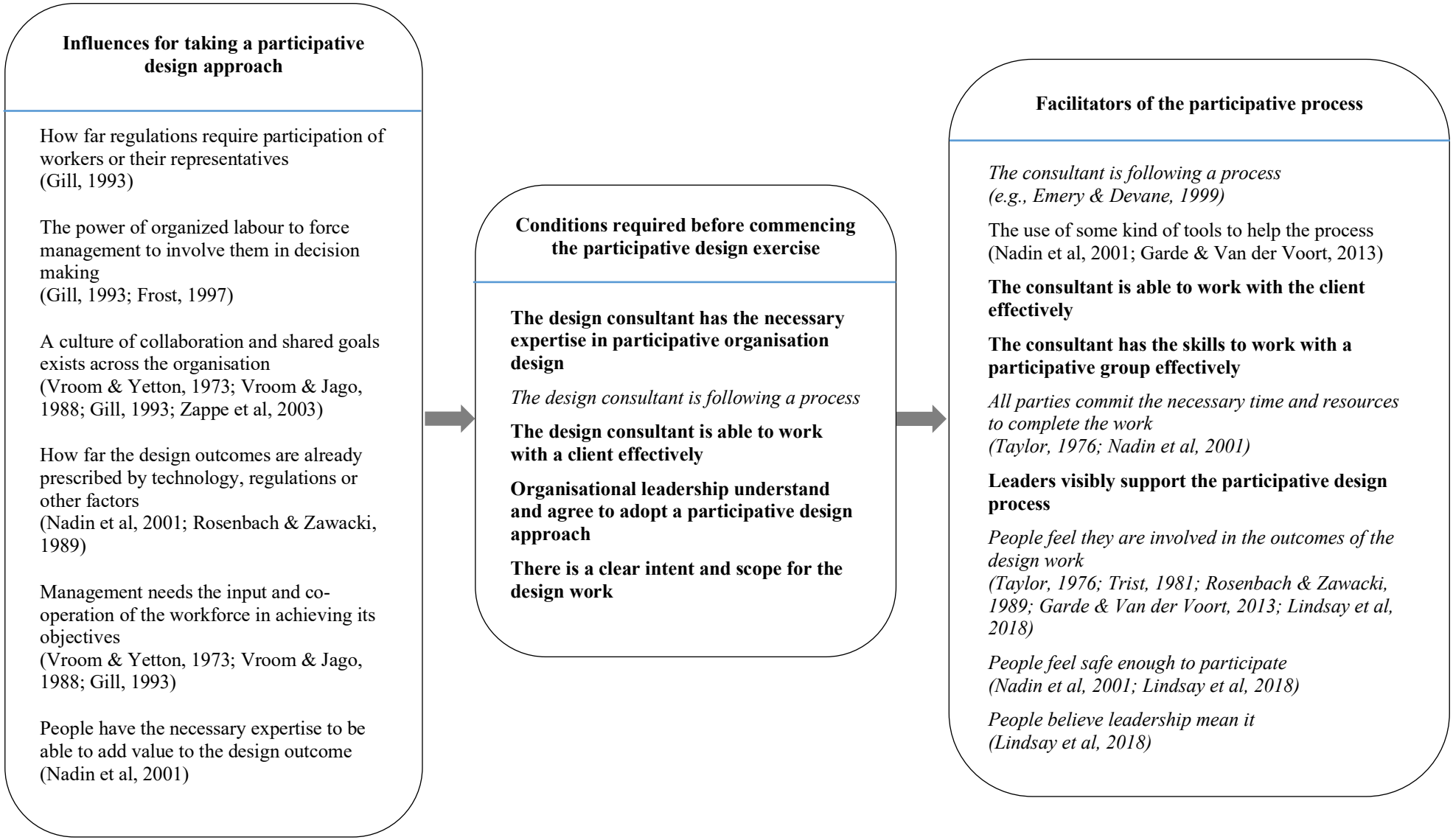
4.6.7 Links to literature

How do these findings and answers to the study's research questions fit with and contribute to existing literature?

Figure 4 provides an overall framework for participative design, suggesting what might influence taking a participative approach, the conditions required before commencing a participative design exercise and the factors which facilitate it when it is underway. In this framework an influencer is seen as something which may affect the leadership's decision whether to pursue the participative approach. A condition is viewed as something which needs to be present to ensure the approach's success. People having the necessary expertise to contribute may for instance influence whether leadership adopt a participative stance. The design consultant having the necessary expertise in participative organisation design must though be present if the approach is to have a chance of success.

The factors in bold on figure 4 were identified from this empirical study and are additional to what is known from current literature in this area. Factors in italics were identified from this empirical study and support and elaborate on what is already known from current literature.

Figure 5: A framework of the influences, conditions and facilitators of the participative design approach



4.6.7.1 Conditions required for participative design to be viable

The findings from this empirical study have added to our understanding of the participative design field by suggesting certain conditions which need to be met for the approach to be considered viable. The design consultant possessing the necessary knowledge of participative design and their being able to work with a client effectively are both absent from the current literature as important factors and are therefore additional contributions to our knowledge. The design consultant using a process and tools to help facilitate the participative approach supports and elaborates on points noted by others such as Emery & Devane, (1999) and Nadin et al, (2001).

That the organisational leadership agree to follow a participative approach and that there is a clear intent and scope for it, are mostly absent from the current literature as important factors and are also therefore additional contributions to our knowledge. The importance of leadership agreement does concur with Kotter's (1996) proposal that the overall direction of an organisational change, of which an organisational redesign would be an example, should be determined by senior management. Leadership agreement is also implied in the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of situational leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) in that if leaders have gone through a decision making process and determined a participative approach is suitable according to the model, then it is implied that they are also in agreement to follow this. The agreement of leadership can also be implied from Gill's (1993) reference to a factor affecting the participative approach as the management's style and their attitude to participation.

The requirement for a clear intent and scope for the design work does partially appear in Cherns' (1976) second principle of the Socio-Technical approach, in that leadership should provide people with the minimum critical specification for an organisational design to meet. Reference to a minimum critical specification also appears in Weisbord's (1985) lessons about self-managing work teams and Emery's (1995) recommended process of participative design. That an organisational problem is clearly defined and well structured also appears as a decision point in the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of situational leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988). How much of a participative approach this then leads to though depends on other decision points further on, such as how committed employees would be to a decision made by the leader.

There are a number of factors which appear in current literature as possible pre-requisites for the participative approach and yet don't feature as such in this empirical study. We need to look at each of these to assess their implications.

Ability of people to contribute

The first factor which may be a possible condition and showed promising evidence in the systematic literature review in Chapter 3, is whether people have the ability to contribute and make a difference to the final design (e.g., Nadin et al, 2001). This is also a decision point under the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of situational leadership, questioning whether subordinates have sufficient information to be able to make a decision (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988).

It may be that people's ability to contribute could be encompassed within this empirical study's suggestion that leadership understanding and agreeing to the participative approach is a necessary precondition. In this case if leadership didn't feel their people have the ability to contribute participatively then they probably wouldn't agree to this approach.

This aside, it is conceptualised in the framework (Figure 4) that the ability of people to contribute in terms of capability is an influencer of whether to take the participative approach rather than as a condition which must be present for it to be viable. It may affect leadership's decision to proceed with a participative approach but is not essential, as it may be that participants could acquire the necessary expertise as the design project is progressing.

Scope for design options

A second factor identified in the systematic review as having promising evidence as a condition for the participative approach is that there needs to be some scope for the participants to come up with design options (e.g., Rosenbach & Zawacki, 1989). If the design options are limited, perhaps because of technology requiring work to be done in a certain way, then it would suggest the participative approach may add little incremental value. Participation is also not be recommended under the Vroom, Yetton and Jago model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) if the organisational leadership are able to make the design decisions themselves and are not reliant on subordinates' agreement to move ahead.

Having some scope for design options isn't in conflict with the identified condition from this empirical study of having a clear intent and scope. Having a clear intent and scope may include that the outcomes should not already be determined and that there is room for the participative design work to have an effect. From the framework in Figure 4, having scope for the participative approach to have an effect on the outcomes is seen as an influencer for whether to take the participative approach. Assuming this has been considered, then having scope for design options is not seen as a necessarily pre-condition for the participative approach: Having an agreed scope for the project though would be.

Participation required

A third factor which may be important for the participative design approach to proceed is whether participation may actually be required even if other conditions suggest it isn't viable. We can see from Gill's (1993) work that existing regulations may mandate participation rights for workers; that leadership may be dependent on the skills and co-operation of the workforce to achieve its objectives; or that workers may be able to force management to involve them. That employees may be able to force participation was also identified in the systematic review in Chapter 3 (Frost, 1997), although the evidence for this being a factor determining participation was unclear.

That participation may be a requirement is not necessarily in conflict with the findings from this empirical study. It is possible that participation being required forms part of the organisational leadership understanding and agreeing to such an approach. However, the question is what happens if they don't understand or agree but legislation or worker power forces participation anyway? From the framework in Figure 4, the requirement for

participation from different directions is seen as an influencer for the approach, but not a condition required for its success. So if leadership are required to follow a participative approach but don't understand or agree with it, the findings from this empirical study suggest it would not be successful.

Having a collaborative culture

A factor identified from the systematic review was whether having a collaborative culture in the organisation was a necessary prerequisite for the participative design approach (Zappe et al, 2003). This is also a factor in the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of situational leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988), where they identify employees sharing the same organisational goals as the leadership as contributing to following the participative approach. From this empirical study though it would seem this isn't a key condition for the participative approach to proceed, though it may be an influencer for it.

Importance of technical quality

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of situational leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) would also suggest some further possible factors which may be necessary prerequisites for the participative approach to be viable. One of these is how important the technical quality of the outcome is. Another is the likelihood of conflict among subordinates while working on the design options. However, how much these suggest a participative approach depends on further decisions, so they aren't of themselves necessary prerequisites. This empirical study's findings suggest that neither the importance of the technical outcome or the likelihood of conflict among participants are influencers for the participative approach or necessary conditions for it.

Urgency not important

Burnes (2017) identifies two further conditions which may influence the viability of the participative approach. The first is that urgency is not important in the design work and so there is time for participation to take place. The second is that the design work and subsequent organisational changes are more concerned with the social aspects of the organisation than its technical aspects. These factors are not present in the identified conditions highlighted from this empirical study, suggesting they are not essential pre-requisites for the participative approach. The study's findings suggest time may or may not be a priority and the participative approach can still be valid. They also suggest the design work may be about the social or the technical side of the organisation, or a combination of both and the participative approach may still be valid. It may be that factors such as urgency of the design outcomes and the nature of the design work are questions a design consultant raises with leadership early in the process and these then form part of the scope rather than a condition for participation.

This discussion in the context of existing literature suggests there may be further conditions or considerations which need to be taken into account when determining the viability of the participative approach. What this empirical study has done though is highlighting that certain conditions do need to be met before the participative approach can proceed.

4.6.7.2 Factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing

In terms of the factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing, the findings from this study have already noted how the importance of the design consultant following a process fits with previous literature such as Emery and Devane, (1999) and Nadin et al, (2001). It has also been noted the additional contribution to literature this study has made in recognising the importance of the organisation design consultant being able to work with a client effectively. We can now add to this an additional contribution to literature of the findings suggesting the design consultant being able to work with a participative group effectively is an important factor in facilitating the participative approach.

That all parties commit the necessary time and resources to complete the design work has been touched on in previous literature; in the sense that people being absent from discussions may sway the outcomes of those discussions (Nadin et al, 2001). It also adds to the promising evidence from the systematic review of the importance of people being able to contribute as influencing the participative approach, in this case by being given the time to do so (Taylor, 1976). However, it has not been mentioned previously in literature as a factor in itself, that people do actually need to prioritise and complete the design work if the participative approach is to be successful.

For leaders to be visibly supporting the participative approach, whether or not they are also active participants, fits with some of the previous literature. One of Cherns' (1976) principles of the socio-technical approach was that management actions should be congruent with the espoused philosophy. Therefore if leadership are deciding they want

to adopt a participative approach they need to demonstrate this with behaviours which support it in practice. This also partly fits with one Gill's (1993) factors influencing participation; that of management's style and attitude to participation in the organisation. If management have a positive attitude to participation generally then it suggests they would support this in their behaviours.

Visible leadership support also adds to the promising evidence from the systematic review that participants' perceptions of their involvement in the design outcomes affects the participative approach (e.g., Lindsay et al, 2018). It could be argued that if leadership aren't seen to be visibly supporting the participative approach, then this may affect participants' perceptions whether their contributions will make a difference to the final outcomes. However, again the factor of leaders explicitly supporting the participative approach would appear to be an additional contribution to previous literature in this area.

People feeling they are involved in the outcomes of the design work, fits with Trist et al's work into the socio-technical systems approach and the importance of how people worked and cooperated as a contributor to productivity (e.g., Trist, 1981). It also fits with Weisbord's (1985) reflections on the efficacy of self-managing work groups and Emery and Thorsrud's (1969) six critical requirements of work; such as people needing to feel they have some 'elbow room' to determine their own work and that their contribution is respected. This factor also adds to the promising evidence identified from the systematic review of the importance of people's perception of their actual involvement in design outcomes affecting the participative approach (e.g., Lindsay et al, 2018).

People feeling safe enough to participate, as a factor in facilitating the participative approach, fits with Edmondson's (1999) work on psychological safety. It also has a bearing on Nadin et al's (2001) reflection on people's sensitivity regarding the impact of the design work on theirs' and other's roles. However, the factor identified in this study focuses on psychological safety, rather than how a design affects someone's role. So it may be that, if people feel psychologically safe, then they may be able to separate out and attend to the interests of the organisational design above their own interests.

People believing leadership mean it supports one of Emery and Thorsrud's (1969) six critical human requirements for work; notably that people need to feel their contribution is respected. It also fits with Chern's (1976) principle that management actions need to be congruent with their espoused philosophy. It also partly fits with the finding from the systematic review regarding the importance of people's perception that their participation affected the final design outcomes (e.g., Lindsay et al, 2018). Here though, the focus is on whether people believe leadership are living up to the whole ethos of participation. This includes transparency, equality of contribution, acceptance of recommendations and decisions which are in line with the espoused values.

From the systematic review there was promising evidence that the ability of people to contribute was a factor affecting the participative approach (e.g., Nadin et al, 2001). Yet this doesn't appear among the factors identified by this empirical study as facilitative of the process. As already noted, it may be that the ability to contribute in terms of capacity is an aspect of people committing the necessary time and resources for the design work. The ability to contribute in terms of capability is a variable that needs to be considered

when leadership are deciding whether to follow the participative approach. In this case it becomes an influencer for the participative approach rather than an ongoing facilitator of it.

4.6.7.3 Factors undermining the participative approach

Regarding the factors which may undermine the participative approach, disagreement among the leadership team is not mentioned in the existing literature. That the design work should become a lesser priority as it progresses is partly mentioned when Taylor (1976) talks about people having moved on in their careers and how this may have affected the implementation of the recommendations. Nadin et al (2001) talked about the absences of people from workshops affecting the discussions; though not that this was necessarily the design work itself becoming less of a priority. The contribution of this empirical study then is in identifying that if leadership are focused on something else then they may explicitly or implicitly stop people working on the design efforts.

That people may fear for their job role or status is a factor mentioned by Nadin et al (2001) and Lindsay et al (2018) when they talk about people's reactions to the design outcomes, if not their reactions to the participative process itself. The discrepancy between participants' perceptions of the espoused values by leadership, versus the actual values in use, has been little explored in the participative design literature. It does form one of Cherns' (1976) principles that the design process and management actions should be congruent with the espoused objectives and philosophy of the organisation. Finally references are limited in the existing literature to participants' belief that leadership may

be surreptitiously working to a different design agenda as a factor undermining the participative approach. It was noted by Lindsay et al (2018) how participants felt the design outcomes had already been decided upon by management and that their input was rarely used.

The contribution of this study then has been to highlight factors which may actively undermine the participative design approach and can therefore be pre-empted or identified when they are occurring.

4.6.7.4 Roles people take during the participative design process

Reference to the roles different parties take during the participative design process and the importance of these for its success, has been little explored in the existing organisation design literature beyond passing descriptions. However we know that the clarity of roles people take is important in other organisational contexts, such as for critical care situations (Brault, Kilpatrick, D'Amour, Contandriopoulos, Chouinard, Dubois, Perroux & Beaulieu, 2014) as well as for work satisfaction and reduced turnover (Hassan, 2013) The contribution of this study therefore has been in highlighting the importance of role clarity in the context of participative organisation design.

4.7 Summary

This study has extended our current knowledge of participative organisation design by aggregating the collective expertise of organisation design practitioners on what helps with a participative organisation design exercise. Until this point, we have had literature on what participative design is and advocating for its approach but not accumulated actual consultant experience of what helps it. In doing so it has shone a light on voices that up until this point have been largely neglected. It has contributed to the field through highlighting the conditions which need to present for a participative design approach to be viable; the factors which may help and hinder the participative process when underway and identified roles that parties need to fulfil for the approach to be successful.

4.8 Strengths and Limitations of this study

There are three key strengths of this study. First, this study has brought a unique perspective by investigating participative organisation design from the viewpoint of the practitioners who facilitate such exercises. Second, the qualitative methodology allowed a depth of understanding about practitioners' experience; offering insights into the implementation and relational aspects of organisational redesign which a quantitative approach may have lacked. Third, the participants were experienced practitioners in the field and therefore the findings benefit from their accumulated expertise covering decades of practice. This includes a large collection of different participative organisational exercises and many thousands of participants who were guided through the exercises. Through a thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) this has allowed several themes to

be developed for the first time which address the question of what factors affect the success of the participative design approach and then consider these in the context of current literature.

There are some limitations of this study. One is its reliance on practitioners as the source of its data. Although some of these participants are highly academically qualified as experts in their field, as practitioners they are likely to come from a very positive and advocative perspective on the practice of participative organisation design. While they may be able to reflect on what helps and doesn't help with participative design, they may not be completely unbiased about the field as it is what they base their professional practice on. It may also be a reflection of their values in wanting to involve people in designing working practices that affect them. The positive design of the study and the questions asked of participants may have supported this bias. It was seeking to understand how participative design can work best, rather than whether it works at all or works any better than non-participative design methods. The study is also taking practitioners' post-hoc perceptions of what helps a participative design exercise, rather than longitudinally following an exercise and questioning what is affecting it contemporaneously. While this is a recognised limitation of the study design and further research would be advocated, the design did suit the research focus for this study.

Another limitation of the study is the composition of the participants. 14 of the 15 participants were from the United States or the United Kingdom. While in the researcher's experience this is reflective of much of the academic and grey literature published in the organisation design field, this may itself be a bias. The researcher's perspective is rooted

in being from the United Kingdom, having been educated within a system heavily influenced by U.K./U.S. academic and professional literature and having conducted the participant interviews in the English language. 12 of the 15 participants were also male and the mean average age of all participants was 60 years old. This is close to the researcher's own demographic profile. So while most of the participants were unknown to the researcher, it is very possible that there was a bias to the sampling with the researcher using initial contacts and then contacts of contacts to generate the population sample.

The results must be viewed through this perspective therefore and it may not be a true reflection of the entire organisation design field. Linked to this is that, although collectively the participants had experience of operating across many different parts of the world, it is not possible to directly know the perceptions of organisation design practitioners operating outside of the U.K and U.S. It is very possible that countries exhibiting more collectivist cultures may have a very different perspective on participative design than those such as the U.S. and U.K., who tend to be more individualistic in their outlook (Hofstede, 2001). It is possible then that expertise is self-defined by those who are deemed to be the experts in a field; which is biased in a way recognised as a Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich and Democratic system (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010) and also predominantly male.

4.9 Implications for research

This study contributes to our academic understanding of the participative design field in two ways. The first is in providing a framework, presented in Table 12, for what may facilitate the participative approach to organisation design and which hasn't been evident before. The second is by contextualising this framework within the previous research as shown in Figure 4. This way we can see what is currently known about the conditions which may influence taking a participative design approach; the conditions required to be in place before commencing a participative design exercise and the facilitators of the participative process once it is underway. Figure 4 thus serves as an overall framework for understanding the field and further research within it.

In terms of this study, future research is needed which looks at participative organisation design from outside a U.S./U.K. perspective. We could then see whether and how the participative approach can work in other cultures and if so, if there are other factors which help and hinder this. It would also be good to understand the perspectives of younger and female actors involved in participative design to see whether this generates different themes on what helps the process.

Further research could also look to test the framework of themes developed in this study on a wider sample of organisation design practitioners to see whether it is still valid or needs developing. It would also be useful to examine the framework in actual use in a participative organisational design exercise as a way of researching the themes longitudinally. Cross-cultural, cross-demographic and longitudinal research would help

to validate and build on this framework. Further research could also examine the perceptions of participants and senior leaders as they undertake a participative design exercise, comparing their experiences and then examining the developed framework in the light of this.

4.10 Implications for practice

In terms of practice, the outcomes of this study will be of most help to the organisation design community by furthering knowledge of what helps and hinders a participative organisation design exercise. The framework developed in Table 12 can be used by organisation design practitioners when guiding organisation leaders and participants through a participative design exercise. To further aid practitioners engaged in this work, a checklist has been developed (Table 17) which sets out the influences which may affect whether to take a participative design approach, the conditions which should be in place for the exercise to be considered viable and the key facilitators which will help the exercise succeed once it is underway. The checklist has been designed as areas for a practitioner – and organisational management – to consider with the participative approach and it is appreciated there may be some nuances within these rather than a 'yes/no' decision which a checklist can imply. However, adopting a scoring mechanism or scale for each of these areas has been avoided as the tempting extension of this would be that a certain score would mean a participative exercise can proceed. This would make quantitative something which is intended to be qualitative: It is the discussion the checklist generates which is important. The outcomes from this, if the decision is to proceed, can form the basis for preparing organisations for the participative approach and

more widely as training and facilitation packs for the development of organisation design consultants working in the participative design space.

The study outcomes are also of use to senior leaders within organisations, helping them understand what is required for participative organisation design to be both a viable approach to take and for it to be successful when used. Understanding their role as senior leaders within this process will also be particularly useful. This would certainly help the money and resources that are spent on the design of organisations to be more effectively employed.

The study outcomes are also useful for practitioners within the organisation development and human resource fields who are involved in a participative design exercise so they are aware of the factors which can help it deliver its objectives. The outcomes can also be used in developing training sessions for organisation development and human resource practitioners wanting to deepen their knowledge of participative design.

Table 17: Checklist for participative design practice

Checklist for participative design practice
Factors to consider participation as a viable approach
☐ Do national or organisational regulations require worker participation in design decisions?
☐ Does the workforce have the power to force participation in design decisions?
☐ Does the organisational culture – current and/or desired – support the idea of collaboration on organisational design?

- [ ] Does the workforce share the same broad goals for the organisation as management?
- [ ] Does management need the input and cooperation of the workforce to achieve its objectives?
- [ ] Do factors like technology, regulations and competitive forces allow room for participation to make a difference to the design outcomes or are they pre-determined because of this?
- [ ] Do people have the necessary expertise to be able to value to the design outcomes?

Conditions required before commencing the participative design exercise

- [ ] The design consultant has the necessary expertise in participative organisation design
- [ ] There is a process to guide the consultant and organisation through the steps of the participative approach
- [ ] Organisational leadership understand and agree to adopt a participative design approach and all that entails (e.g., transparency and ownership)
- [ ] There is a clear intent and scope for the design work
    - Agreed organisational strategy
    - Reason for the design work
    - Outcomes and design criteria are clear
    - Scope and boundaries are clear
- [ ] Are there any pre-conceived solutions, design criteria or constraints in leaders' minds which are not being made transparent?

Facilitators of the participative process

Organisation Design expertise

- [ ] The consultant is following a process which will guide the client to their destination
- [ ] There are tools which help the clients navigate key decision points in the process

- ☐ The design consultant can work with the leadership clients effectively
- ☐ The design consultant has the skills to work with a participative group effectively

Commitment of time and effort

- ☐ All parties will commit the time and resources to complete the work
    - o The people with the expertise and influence will be freed up to contribute
    - o People's day jobs will be covered while they work on the design
- ☐ Leaders are visibly supporting the design work and it remains the number 1 organisational priority or it is stopped and reviewed

People believe participation is making a difference

- ☐ People can see a direct line of impact between their design work and how the organisation will operate
- ☐ Design recommendations are accepted by leadership or reasons for this made clear and built into the future design work
- ☐ People feel safe enough to work on the organisation design without worrying about losing their role or losing their status
- ☐ People can see that actions taken and behaviours rewarded are in line with the espoused design intentions

4.11 Conclusion

In conclusion, this empirical study has examined what helps and hinders participative organisation design from the collective experiences of organisation design practitioners who guide the process. From this it has developed a framework of themes (Table 12) and contextualised this within previous research in the field (Figure 4). This highlights the

importance of the organisation design expertise being applied, the clarity and alignment about the design work, the commitment to do the work and that people believe the participation will make a difference. This will be useful as a framework for further research in the participative design field, as basis for guiding and developing organisation design practitioners and for senior leaders considering and adopting a participative approach within their organisation.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and implications for theory, research and practice

This chapter brings together the findings of this thesis into a coherent whole to summarise the findings, answer the overall research questions and discuss how this has contributed to our knowledge and practice. This chapter also considers the limitations of the thesis and provides some possible future research directions.

5.1 Overall aims and findings of the thesis

The aim of this thesis was to understand what is known about the participatory approach to organisation design and what can help this approach to be effective. Getting a better insight in this area will be of benefit to organisation design practitioners who facilitate the participative approach. It will also be of benefit to senior management within organisations who are contemplating or actively engaged in a participative design exercise along, with human resource professionals who need to support such an exercise.

5.1.1 Findings from study 1 (Chapter 3)

A systematic literature review was conducted to look at what was already known about participative organisation design and what affects the success of the approach. A search was conducted of eight databases covering both peer reviewed and grey literature and which yielded 6,685 papers. Follow the sifting process, thirteen studies were selected for inclusion in the review.

The systematic review suggested there was promising evidence for the participative approach being associated with positive outcomes for the organisation and changes to people's job roles. It was unclear however how much the participative approach played a part in this association beyond the impact of the design changes themselves. There was also promising evidence for certain factors affecting the success of the participative approach. These factors were the use of a process in the design exercise; how people perceived their actual participation in the design outcomes; the limitations imposed on design outcomes by certain constraints and the actual ability for people to contribute. Overall, much of the reviewed literature was assessed to be of moderate or low quality and the research questions were only partly able to be answered. Current literature could not provide a clear picture of what helps the participative process to succeed. A study was therefore designed to address this question.

5.1.2 Findings from study 2 (Chapter 4)

An empirical study was undertaken to examine what helps the participative design approach to succeed when seen through the perceptions and experiences of design consultants who facilitate the exercise within organisations. Fifteen organisation design practitioners with experience of facilitating participative organisation design exercises were recruited and participated in semi-structured interviews using MS Teams.

Using thematic analysis to study the participants' narratives, four main themes and eleven sub-themes were developed which were seen to help the participative design process. The main themes covered the expertise of the design consultants; the clarity and alignment for

the design work; commitment to the design exercise and participants feeling their involvement would make a difference.

5.1.3 Overall findings against the research aims

Table 18 provides a summary of the findings across both studies

Table 18: Summary of findings from study 1 and study 2

	Study 1: Systematic Literature Review	**Study 2: Empirical Study**
Aims of study	To examine what is already known about the participative approach to organisation design and what helps this approach to be successful. Sub-questions: 1. What is known about the effect of using the participative design approach on the people in the team who are participating? 2. What is known about the effect of using the participative design approach for the organisation? 3. What is known about the factors that affect the success of the participative design approach?	To examine what helps the process of participative organisational design when viewed through the lens of the organisation design practitioners who guide the exercise Sub-questions: 1. What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach? 2. What are the factors which facilitate the participative approach when it is ongoing? 3. What can undermine the participative approach? 4. What roles do people need to play to make the participative approach successful?

Method	Systematic literature review of peer reviewed and grey literature covering eight databases and yielding 6,685 papers	Qualitative using semi-structured interviews and thematic analysis within a critical realist approach.
Sample group	Thirteen studies met the inclusion criteria covering different industry sectors in the United States, United Kingdom, The Netherlands, Canada and Australia	Fifteen organisation design practitioners with experience of facilitating participative design exercises in organisations. Eight from the United Kingdom, six from the United States and one from Germany.
Main findings	1. Promising evidence for the association of the participative approach with changes to people's job roles and interactions. 2. Promising evidence for the association of the participative approach with positive outcomes for the organisation 3. Promising evidence for some factors affecting the success of the participative approach. These were using a process; people's perception of their involvement in the outcomes; limitations imposed by constraints on the design and the ability for people to contribute. Much of the reviewed literature was assessed to be of moderate or low quality and the research questions were only partly answered.	1. Conditions which need to be in place for participative approach to be considered viable are: - design consultant has the necessary expertise of participative organisation design - design consultant is following a process - design consultant can work with the client effectively - leadership understand and agree to a participative design approach - there is clear intent and scope for the design work 2. Factors which facilitate the participative approach are: - the consultant is following a process - The consultant is able to work with the client effectively - the consultant has the skills to work with a participative group effectively

		- all parties commit the necessary time and resources to complete the work - leaders visibly support the participative design process - people feel they are involved in the outcomes of the design work - people feel safe enough to participate - people believe leadership mean it 3. Factors which can undermine the participative approach are: - unvoiced disagreements or concerns among the leadership team which will emerge later - the design work becomes of secondary importance to other organizational priorities - people fear a loss of their role or loss of status and so act in their self-interests to mitigate this - people don't believe the espoused values are the actual values which are in use and so behave according to the actual values - people believe there is an ulterior design model or unstated criteria which will actually take precedence over the recommended design option 4. The main roles people need to play are: - senior management commission and establish the

		objectives for the design work, advocate and support the participative approach and create the environment to encourage participation - the design consultant applies their expertise, guides the process and facilitates participation - participants engage in the design work to produce design options or outcomes and voice any conflicts of interest or concerns
Main contributions	Much of the published literature is of a descriptive and advocative nature and assessed to be of moderate or low quality. Studies describe an association of the participative approach with positive outcomes for the organisation. Studies highlight some factors which may affect the participative approach.	Sets out a framework for factors which may influence adopting a participative approach Highlights conditions which need to be present for the participative approach to be considered viable Identifies factors which affect the success of the participative approach Indicates the roles people need to play for the participative approach to be effective Provides recommendations for further research and practical implications that can be considered by organisation design practitioners for facilitation and development to ensure the successful implementation of participatory approaches to org design

5.1.4 Overall support and contributions to literature

Overall, this thesis has been the first to employ a systematic literature review methodology and in doing so has identified that the literature base on participative organisation design is somewhat fragmented and overlapping with the literature on employee participation in organisations generally. It also highlights the largely descriptive nature of the evidence base that advocates for the participative approach with little attempt to evaluate how effective it is as an approach and what may help it to be effective. The research has also somewhat neglected the wealth of experiences and perspectives that practitioners of participative organisation design can bring to the field. This thesis has allowed these voices to be heard. Adopting a reflective thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) perspective has generated rich observations from a highly experienced participant group reflecting multiple experiences. This has then been brought together with the previous literature to develop a a cohesive framework of participative organisation design (Figure 4). This sets out what may influence taking a participative approach to organisation design, what needs to be in place for it to be viable as an approach and then what may affect its success. This thesis has also contributed an understanding of the roles that different people need to play to help the participative approach.

The thesis complements current models used in the field of organisation design, such as Galbraith's (1977) Star Model, by setting out what is important to consider when people participative in design. It also complements approaches used in the field of organisation development, such as Participatory Action Research (Lewin, 1946) and Dialogic

Organisation Development (Bushe & Marshak, 2009), in highlighting factors which are important for participation and encouraging dialogue.

The thesis supports current participative design literature in terms of the importance of having a process to follow and using relevant tools when adopting a participative approach, as advocated by Emery and Devane (1999) and Nadin et al, (2001). It also supports the importance of people feeling they are involved in the outcomes as proposed by Emery and Thorsrud (1969) and Trist (1981).

The thesis has added support to Cherns' (1976) principles of the socio-technical approach to organisation design, such as the importance of management actions being congruent with their espoused philosophy and leadership providing a scope for the design work in terms of a minimum critical specification. It has also potentially added some important principles. The socio-technical approach needs to be viable in the first place. There may be limitations that people can have on the design outcomes through contextual constraints or a lack of knowledge. However, the implications of the design should still be considered in the context of what this means for people's roles and status. Even when an active participation of people is mandated, or at least agreed upon as desired, this needs to be accompanied by the presence of sufficient expertise in the approach and clarity of intent and scope. There may also be an additional principle of the need for people to feel psychologically safe lest this undermines the socio-technical approach.

The thesis has also added support to the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model of leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) in terms of the overall consideration and

agreement to the participative approach by leadership and partly in terms of the clarity of the intent and scope. There may be additional decision points which could be added to this model from the findings of this thesis. These are whether participation is mandated; whether people have the necessary knowledge to contribute to the final decision; whether there is scope for people's contribution to make a difference; whether there is sufficient expertise to manage a participative approach and whether people can feel psychologically safe enough to participate objectively.

The thesis has contributed a number of important factors to the current participative design literature. The design consultant needs to possess the expertise in the field and be able to work effectively with a client. The organisational leadership need to understand and agree to follow a participative approach. There needs to be a clear intent and scope for the design work. Participants need to dedicate time and effort to complete the work and leaders need to be explicitly supporting the work.

5.2 Limitations of the thesis and recommendations for future research

There are three main limitations with this thesis which need to be considered in turn. The first is that the thesis starts from a positivist perspective that organisation design is something which can be understood, planned and enacted as though it were something separate from the constructions of people who themselves make up these organisations. It is also then based on a premise that the participative approach to organisation design is effective and the aim is to uncover what may influence its effectiveness. It may be though that the participative approach is no more effective in designing an organisational model

than a non-participative approach would be. This doesn't negate the findings of the thesis, but it would be a beneficial pre-cursor to discover whether or in what circumstances a participative approach is useful in designing an organisation.

One framework which could be used to investigate whether a participative approach is more effective than a non-participative approach would be the Vroom-Yetton-Jago (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) decision model as applied to organisation design. The different decision points in the model could be applied depending on the organisational design scenario, adopting the leadership approach this then advocates and evaluating the outcomes against various measures of effectiveness. This would not be easy to control for, as with any one organisational scenario there is only one approach you can follow. You don't have the opportunity to explore all possible avenues suggested by the model and assess which is best.

It may be possible to examine a large range of organisational scenarios longitudinally across many organisations and by doing this ensure all possible leadership approaches have been covered multiple times to assess whether their effectiveness supports that advocated by the model. In practice it would be difficult to recruit and follow enough organisations and control for all the variables. It may instead be possible to examine the model in retrospect by interviewing organisational design practitioners, asking them about different design scenarios and different approaches adopted, then checking whether the effectiveness of this approach would have been predicted from the model. This would have its own limits in relying on consultant's memories which may be biased towards successful outcomes whichever approach was adopted. It may also be possible to examine

the Vroom-Yetton-Jago (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) model in a simulated setting, so to some extent being able to control for variables within the group compositions, scenarios and approaches as advocated. This may still be difficult to organise and control for and its application to organisations could be limited.

A second limitation with the thesis is in its focus on findings which have been drawn predominantly from the United States and the United Kingdom. These countries tend to share commonalities such as high gross domestic product economies (International Monetary Fund, 2023); similar profiles and very high rankings on the Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme, 2023) and similar profiles on the Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions (Hofstede Insights, 2023). These findings may not be a reflection therefore of the entire participative design field, or what would be applicable to participative design exercises in other countries and cultures. It could be, for example, that cultures showing less of an individualistic perspective or greater tendency towards power distance between people would have different understandings of participative organisation design. It would therefore be useful to understand the perspectives of participative design from other cultural and demographic perspectives.

A third limitation of the thesis is one of morals for a practitioner and an ethical one for the field of participative design: Do people get to participate in whether to be participative? There is an assumption within this thesis and perhaps within the participative design field that people would want to be involved in designing their own work. They may not. There are considerations given within the framework presented in Figure 4 whether people may be able to force their involvement, or whether they have the

ability to contribute, but there is no consideration given to whether they actually want to contribute and whether we should actually ask them. It is ironic that the subject of the thesis is on people participating in their organisation design and yet their voices don't appear anywhere in it. We are hearing the voices of the practitioner experts and the findings are telling us that organisational leaders decide whether their people are going to be participative, at least explicitly. It may be that people just want to come to work to do a job and that matters of the design of their work and organisation they are happy to leave to the people who have the job titles and pay grades for. In asking people to participate in organisational design work is probably beyond their job requirements and it's unlikely they get renumerated for this extra work. It also puts people into potential uncomfortable situations which we may be assuming they are okay with.

Academically there is valuable research to be done seeking the voices and experiences of actual participants in participative design work. As practitioners we should be aware of these moral and ethical dilemmas when engaging in this work and ensure people are asked whether they want to participate, at the outset and ongoing.

5.3 Contribution to knowledge

This thesis has contributed to our knowledge and perspectives of participative organisation design and the field of occupational psychology in several original ways. The first has been to conduct the first systematic literature review on the subject of participative organisation design in order to understand and document the research in this area. In so doing this has highlighted the largely descriptive and advocative body of

published literature in this area, which has tended to be of moderate or low quality. This has so far limited our understanding of the field from both a research and practice perspective.

The second contribution has been to interview and provide a voice for the organisation design practitioners who guide participative design exercises within organisations and whose perspectives have not systematically been gathered up to this point. This has provide important information which draws from a large number of participative design interventions across many different organisations.

The third original contribution has been to employ Braun and Clarke's (2013) Reflective Thematic Analysis approach to identify a framework of themes which allow us to understand what helps the participative approach to be successful. These themes in turn help us understand what conditions need to be present for the approach to be viable, the factors which influence its success, the factors which can undermine the participative approach and the roles that each party needs to perform in the process for it to be effective.

The fourth contribution has been to coalesce all the information from existing literature with the findings from this thesis into an overall cogent framework for participative organisation design. Along with the conditions required for the participative approach to be considered viable and the factors which influence its ongoing success, this framework includes the inputs which may influence taking the participative design route. This

framework can now be used as a reference point and explored by other researchers in the field.

5.4 Contribution for practice

There are several implications for future practice which emerge from this thesis. The first is in understanding the background literature and evidence base which informs the practice of participative organisation design. While much current literature may be anecdotal and advocative, this thesis has provided some promising evidence for certain factors which may improve the success of the participative approach. Practitioners can therefore be better informed about the foundations for participative design and more confident of certain factors which will improve its effectiveness.

The development of a number of key themes; an overall framework for participative organisation design and a checklist for practice, can also be used by design consultants in their work. This can guide practitioners when initially discussing and contracting for a piece of design work with a client and developing the business case and buy-in for it. It can also help them understand what needs to be in place for participative design to be considered a viable approach and help them understand the factors which help the process when it is ongoing. The framework developed can also be used in both formative and summative evaluation of the participative design approach. Finally, the framework can be used by practitioners and students of participative organisation design to help understand where they may be able to improve their knowledge and practice.

5.5 Summary

Participation is a beneficial approach to take when designing organisations if the circumstances favour it. It can help to engage people in their work and with the organisation's purpose, while providing positive outcomes for the organisation's success. It can be challenging area to research because of the various variables involved. The work in this thesis has set out the situation of current research in the area and included new voices so giving an expanded view of the field. It has presented a model of participative design which is immediately of value to current practice and can serve as a foundation for future research.

Funding

No funding was sought or granted for this research study.

References

** Papers included in the systematic literature review*

Adams, W.C. (2015) Conducting Semi-Structured Interviews. In K.E. Newcomer, H.P. Hatry and J.S. Wholey (eds.), *Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation* (pp.492-505) (4th ed.) Jossey-Bass

Allen I.E. and Olkin I. (1999) Estimating Time to Conduct a Meta-analysis From Number of Citations Retrieved. *JAMA. 282*(7) 634–635. doi:10.1001/jama.282.7.634

Argyris, C. and Schon, D. A. (1974) *Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional Effectiveness*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Arneson, H. and Ekberg, K. (2005) Evaluation of empowerment processes in a workplace health promotion intervention based on learning in Sweden. *Health Promotion International, 20*(4), 351–359.

Aronowitz S., De Smet, A. and McGinty, D (2015) Getting organizational redesign right. *McKinsey Quarterly*, *June 2015*. Retrieved from https://www.mckinsey.com/business-functions/organization/our-insights/getting-organizational-redesign-right#

Aust, B., Rugulies, R., Finken, A. and Jensen, C. (2010) When workplace interventions lead to negative effects: Learning from failures. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health, 38*(3), 106–119.

* Axelrod, D. (1992) Getting Everyone Involved: How one organisation involved its employees, supervisors and managers in redesigning the organisation. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 28* (4)*,* 499-509.

Balogun, J. (2007) The Practice of Organizational Restructuring: From Design to Reality. *European Management Journal, 25*(2), 81-91

Bandura, A. (2001) Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual review of psychology, 52*(1), 1-26.

Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Batt, R. and Applebaum, E. (1995) Worker Participation in Diverse Settings *Paper prepared for the 10th World Congress of the International Industrial Relations Association, Washington, D.C., May 31-June 4*, (1-46)

Becker, B. and Huselid, M. (2009) Strategic Human Resources Management: Where Do We Go From Here?, in A. Wilkinson, N. Bacon, T. Redman, and S. Snell, (eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Human Resource Management*. London: Sage Publishing.

Bessant, J., Caffyn, S. and Gallagher, M. (2001). An evolutionary model of continuous improvement behaviour. *Technovation, 21*(2), 67-77. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4972(00)00023-7

Bhaskar, R., (2008) *A Realist Theory of Science*. London: Routledge.

Bowman, E. H. and Singh, H. (1993). "Corporate restructuring: Reconfiguring the firm." *Strategic Management Journal*, 14(S1), 5-14.

Boxall, P. and Purcell, J. (2010) An HRM Perspective on Employee Participation. In A. Wilkinson, P.J. Gollan, M. Marchington and D. Lewin (eds.) *The Oxford Handbook of Participation in Organizations* (pp. 29-51) Oxford University Press. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199207268.003.0002

Brault, I., Kilpatrick, K., D'Amour, D., Contandriopoulos, D., Chouinard, V., Dubois, C. A., Perroux, M. and Beaulieu, M. D. (2014). Role clarification processes for better integration of nurse practitioners into primary healthcare teams: a multiple-case study. *Nursing Research and Practice, (2014), Article ID 170514, https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/170514*

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2013) *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. London: SAGE.

Braun V. and Clarke, V. (2022) Toward good practice in thematic analysis: Avoiding common problems and be(com)ing a *knowing* researcher. *International Journal of Transgender Health*, (24)1, 1-6, Published online: DOI: 10.1080/26895269.2022.2129597

Briner, R. B., and Denyer, D. (2012) Systematic review and evidence synthesis as a practice and scholarship tool. In D. Rousseau (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Evidence-Based Management: Companies, Classrooms, and Research* (pp.112–129) New York: Oxford University Press. . Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199763986.013.0007

British Psychological Society (2018) Code of Ethics and Conduct. Retrieved from https://www.bps.org.uk/guideline/code-ethics-and-conduct

Brown, O. (2000) Participatory Approaches to Work Systems and Organizational Design. *Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting, (44)*12, 535-538

Burke, M. (2011) Is There a Fly in the "Systematic Review" Ointment? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 4*(1), 36-39.

Burke, W. W. and Litwin, G. H. (1992). A causal model of organizational performance and change. *Journal of Management*, *18*(3), 523–545. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639201800306

Burnes, B. (2000) *Managing Change: A Strategic Approach to Organisational Dynamics.* (3rd Ed.) Pg. 15, Prentice Hall

Burnes, B. (2017) Managing Change (7th Ed). Pearson: Harlow

Bushe, G. R. (2010) *Clear leadership: Sustaining real collaboration and partnership at work* (2nd ed.). Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Bushe, G.R. and Marshak, R.J. (2009) Revisioning Organization Development: Diagnostic and Dialogic Premises and Patterns of Practice. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 45(3), 348-368.

Bushe, G.R. and Marshak, R.J. (2015). *Dialogic Organization Development: The Theory and Practice of Transformational Change*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cabana, S. (1995a) Can people restructure their own work. *Association for Manufacturing Excellence.* Wheeling: Illinois

Cabana, S. (1995b) Participative design works, partially participative doesn't. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 18*(1), 10-19

Calcbench.com blogpost (2023) Rising Restructuring Costs. Retrieved from https://www.calcbench.com/blog/post/725724956905832449/rising-restructuring-costs

Cambridge Dictionary (n.d.). Retrieved from https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/organization

Cassell, C. (2011) Evidence-Based I–O Psychology: What Do We Lose on the Way? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 4*(1), 23-26.

Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (2020) Exceptional costs, exceptional challenges — the CFO's art of driving business resilience among FTSE100 companies. Retrieved from: https://www.cimaglobal.com/Press/Exceptional-costs-exceptional-challenges--the-CFOs-art-of-driving-business-resilience-among-FTSE100-companies/ and https://www.cimaglobal.com/PageFiles/745303742/Exceptional%20costs,%20exceptional%20challenges%20-%20driving%20business%20resilience%20among%20FTSE100%20companies_CIMA.pdf

Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2021) Flexible working arrangements and the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Retrieved from https://www.cipd.co.uk/knowledge/fundamentals/relations/flexible-working/flexible-working-impact-covid

Cherns, A. (1976) Principles of Socio-Technical Design, *Human Relations, 29*(8), 783-792

* Christensen, T. (1993) A High Involvement Redesign. *Quality Progress. 26* (5), 105-108.

Cochrane Database of Systematic reviews (n.d.) Retrieved from https://www.cochranelibrary.com/search

Coch, L. and French, J.R.P. (1948) Overcoming Resistance to Change. *Human Relations*, *1*(4), 512-532. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872674800100408

Cohen, J. (1960) A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *20*(1), 37-46

Cooke, B. and Kothari, U. (Eds.). (2001). *Participation: The new tyranny?* Zed Books.

Cooperrider, D. L. and Srivastva, S. (1987). Appreciative inquiry in organizational life. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, *1*, 129-169.

Cooperrider, D. L. and Whitney, D. (2005). *Appreciative inquiry: A positive revolution in change*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cotton, J. L., Vollrath, D.A., Froggatt, K.L., Lengnick-Hall, M.L. and Jennings, K.R. (1988) Employee Participation: Diverse Forms and Different Outcomes. *Academy of Management Review, 13*(1)*,* 8-22.

Dahlgaard-Park, S. M. and Dahlgaard, J. J. (2007). Excellence - 25 years evolution. *Journal of Management History, 13*(4), 371-393. https://doi.org/10.1108/17511340710819543

Denyer, D. and Tranfield, D. (2009) Producing a systematic review. In D. Buchanan and A. Bryman (eds), *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods* (pp 671– 689) London: Sage.

Diehl, M., and Stroebe, W. (1987). Productivity loss in brainstorming groups: Toward the solution of a riddle. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(3), 497–509. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.53.3.497

Doty, D. H., Glick, W. H., and Huber, G. P. (1993) Fit, Equifinality, and Organizational Effectiveness: A Test of Two Configurational Theories. *The Academy of Management Journal*, *36*(6), 1196–1250. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.2307/256810

Dundon, T. and Wilkinson, A. (2021) Employee Involvement and Participation. In A. Wilkinson., T. Dundon and T. Redman. *Contemporary Human Resource Management: Text and Cases* (pp. 345-362) (6th edn.) Sage.

Dunphy, D. and Stace, D. (1992) *Under New Management: Australian organisations in transition*. Australia: McGraw-Hill

Edmondson, A. (1999) Psychological Safety and Learning Behavior in Work Teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 44*(2), 350–383. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.2307/2666999

Emery, F. (1995) Participative design: effective, flexible and successful, now! *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, *18*(1), 6-10

Emery, M. and Devane, T. (2000) *Participative Design Workshop - Collaborating for Change* (P. Holman, and T. Devane, eds). San Francisco; Berrett-Koehler

Emery, F. E. and Thorsrud, E. (1969) *Form and Content in Industrial Democracy*. Tavistock, London.

European Organisation Design Forum (2023). *In theory*. Retrieved from https://www.eodf.eu

Fals Borda, O. (1987). The application of participatory action-research in Latin America. *International Sociology*, 2(4), 329-347.

Freire, P. (1970). Pedagogy of the oppressed. Herder and Herder.

French, J. R. P., Jr. and Raven, B. (1959) The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in social power* (pp. 150–167). University of Michigan.

Fried, Y. and Ferris, G.R. (1987) The validity of the job characteristics model: A review and meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*(2), 287–322. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1987.tb00605.x

* Frost, A. (1997) The strategic use of cooperation and conflict: the cornerstone of labour's success in workplace restructuring. *International Contributions to Labour Studies*, *7*, 19-36.

Fürstenberg, N. Alfes, K. and Kearney, E. (2021) How and when paradoxical leadership benefits work engagement: The role of goal clarity and work autonomy. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *94*(3) 672-705

Galbraith, J.R. (1974) Organization design; An information processing view. *Interfaces*, *4*(3), 28-36

Galbraith, J.R. (1977) *Organization Design*. Addison-Wesley

Ganster, D.C., Fox, M.L. and Dwyer, D.J. (2001) Explaining employees' health care costs: A prospective examination of stressful job demands, personal control, and physiological reactivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(5), 954–964.

* Garde, J.A. and Van der Voort, M.C. (2013) Co-designing better work organization in healthcare. In V.G. Duffy (ed.) *Advances in Human Aspects of Healthcare* (pp.23-32) Boca Raton: CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group

Gastil, J. (1994) A definition and illustration of democratic leadership. *Human Relations, 47*(8)*,* 953-975 https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679404700805

Gifford, J. and Young, J. (2021) Employee engagement: definitions, measures and outcomes. Discussion report. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. Retrieved from https://www.cipd.co.uk/Images/employee-engagement-discussion-report_tcm18-89598.pdf

Gill, C. (1993) Technological change and participation in work organization: recent results from a European Community survey. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 4*(1) 325-348

Glaser, B. G. and Strauss, A. L. (1967) *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research.* Chicago: Aldine.

Glass G.V. (1976) Primary, secondary, and meta-analysis of research. *Educational Researcher*, *5*(10): 3–8. doi:10.3102/0013189X005010003. S2CID 3185455

Goodman, P.S., Devadas, R. and Hughson, T.L. (1988) Groups and productivity: Analyzing the effectiveness of self-managing teams. In J.P. Campbell, R.J. Campbell and Associates (eds), *Productivity in organizations*, (pp. 295-325). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass & Associates.

Google Scholar (n.d.) Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com

Grant, A.M. and Parker, S.K. (2009) Redesigning work design theories: the rise of relational and proactive perspectives. *The Academy of Management Annals, 3*(1), 317-375.

Green, M., Peters, R and Young, J. (2020) People Profession 2030: a collective view of future trends. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. Retrieved from https://www.cipd.co.uk/knowledge/strategy/hr/people-profession-2030-future-trends#gref

Guest, D. E. (2017). "Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework." *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 22-38.

Hackman, J. R., and Oldham, G. R. (1975) Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*(2), 159–170, Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1037/h0076546.

Hammer, M. and Champy, J. (1993). *Reengineering the Corporation: A Manifesto for Business Revolution*. New York: Harper Business.

Harapko, S. (2023) How COVID-19 impacted supply chains and what comes next. Retrieved from https://www.ey.com/en_gl/supply-chain/how-covid-19-impacted-supply-chains-and-what-comes-next

Harraf, A., Wanasika, I., Tate, K. and Talbott, K. (2015) Organizational Agility. *Journal of Applied Business Research, 31*(2), 675-686. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.19030/jabr.v31i2.9160

Harris, M. and A. Raviv (2002) Organization design. *Management Science*, *48*(7), 852-865.

Hassan, S. (2013). The Importance of Role Clarification in Workgroups: Effects on Perceived Role Clarity, Work Satisfaction, and Turnover Rates. *Public Administration Review*, *73*(5), 716-725, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/puar.12100

Health and Care Professions Council (2016) Standards of conduct, performance and ethics. Retrieved from: https://www.hcpc-uk.org/standards/standards-of-conduct-performance-and-ethics

Heaney, C., Israel, B., Schurman, S., Baker, E., House, J. and Hugentobler, M. (1993) Industrial relations, worksite stress reduction, and employee well-being: A participatory action research investigation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*(5), 495–510.

Henrich, J., Heine, S., and Norenzayan, A. (2010) The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 33*(2-3), 61-83. doi:10.1017/S0140525X0999152X

Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. (2nd edn.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hofstede Insights (accessed 25th August, 2023) https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison-tool?countries=united+kingdom%2Cunited+states

Hong, Q. N. and Pluye, P. (2018) Systematic reviews: A brief historical overview. *Education for Information*, *34*(4), 261-276

Imai, M. (1986). *Kaizen: The key to Japan's competitive success*. McGraw-Hill.

Imai, M. (1997). *Gemba Kaizen: A commonsense, low-cost approach to management*. McGraw-Hill.

International Monetary Fund Website (accessed 25th August, 2023) GDP, current prices Retrieved from https://www.imf.org/external/datamapper/NGDPD@WEO/OEMDC/ADVEC/WEOWORLD

Israel, B. A., Schulz, A. J., Parker, E. A. and Becker, A. B. (1998). Review of community-based research: Assessing partnership approaches to improve public health. *Annual Review of Public Health, 19*(1), 173-202.

Kennedy, M.H. (1999) Fayol's Principles and the Rule of St Benedict; Is there anything new under the sun? *Journal of Management History, 5*(5), 269-276.

Khandwalla, P.N. (1977) *The design of organizations*, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich

Kotter, J.P. (1996) *Leading Change.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Lee, A., Willis, S. and Tian, A. W. (2018) Empowering leadership: A meta-analytic examination of incremental contribution, mediation, and moderation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*(3), 306–325. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2220

Lewin, K. (1946). Action research and minority problems. Journal of Social Issues, 2(4), 34-46.

Likert, R. (1967). *The human organization: Its management and value*. McGraw-Hill.

* Lindsay, C., Findlay, P., McQuarrie, J., Bennie, M., Dunlop Corcoran, E. and Van Der Meer, R. (2018) Collaborative Innovation, New Technologies and Work Redesign. *Public Administration Review*, *78*(2), 251–260.

Lines, R. (2004) Influence of participation in strategy change: Resistance, organizational commitment and change goal achievement. *Journal of Change Management, 4*(3), 193–215.

Marchington, M. and Wilkinson, A. (2008) *Human Resource Management at Work* (4th edn.). London: CIPD.

Marshak, R. J. (2006). *Covert processes at work: Managing the five hidden dimensions of organizational change*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

* McDonald, S., McDermott, D. and Fletcher, A. (1992) A participative approach to organisation restructuring: a case study from the Silver Chain Nursing Association (Inc). *Australian Health Review: A Publication of the Australian Hospital Association*, *15*(1), 44–55.

Melamed, S., Fried, Y. and Froom, P. (2001) The interactive effect of chronic exposure to noise and job complexity on changes in blood pressure and job satisfaction: A longitudinal study of industrial employees. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6*(3), 182–195. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/1076-8998.6.3.182

Merton, R.K and Kendall, P.L (1946) The Focused Interview. *American Journal of Sociology, 51*(6)*,* 541-557 https://doi.org/10.1086/219886

Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tetzlaff, J. and Altman, D.G. (2009) The PRISMA Group Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement. *PLoS Med 6*(7): e1000097. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1000097

Mullen, B., Johnson, C. and Salas, E. (1991) Productivity loss in brainstorming groups: A meta-analytic integration. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, *12*(1) *65*, 3-23

* Nadin, S., Waterson, P. and Parker, S. (2001) Participation in Job Redesign: An Evaluation of the Use of a Sociotechnical Tool and Its Impact. *Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing*, *11*(1), 53–69.

Nayak, M. S. D. P. and Narayan, K. A. (2019) Strengths and weaknesses of online surveys. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences 24*(5), 31-38 Retrieved from https://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol.%2024%20Issue5/Series-5/E2405053138.pdf

Newman, A., Donohue, R. and Eva, N. (2017) Psychological safety: A systematic review of the literature. *Human Resource Management Review*. *27*(3) 521–535.

Nielsen, K., Randall, R. and Albertsen, K. (2007) Participants' appraisals of process issues and the effects of stress management interventions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 28*(6), 793–810.

Nielsen, K. (2013). How can we make organizational interventions work? Employees and line managers as actively crafting interventions. *Human Relations*, *66*(8), 1029-1050.

Norman, S.M., Avolio, B.J. and Luthans, F. (2010) The impact of positivity and transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(3), 350-364

Office for National Statistics (2022). Is hybrid working here to stay? Retrieved from: https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandemployeetypes/articles/ishybridworkingheretostay/2022-05-23

Ohno, T. (1988). *Toyota production system: Beyond large-scale production*. Productivity Press.

Parker, S.K. (2014) Beyond motivation: Job and work design for development health ambidexterity and more. *Annual Review of Psychology, 65*, 661-691. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115208

Parker, S.K. and Wall, T. (1998) *Job and work design: Organizing work to promote wellbeing and effectiveness*. London: Sage.

Pasmore, W. A. (1988). *Designing effective organizations: The sociotechnical systems perspective*. Wiley.

* Perlman, S. L. (1990) Employee-Centered Work Redesign. *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, *69*(11), 64-69.

Petticrew, M. and Roberts, H. (2006) *Systematic Reviews in the Social Sciences: A Practical Guide.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Pindur, W., Rogers, S.E. and Kim, P.S. (1995) The history of management; A global perspective. *Journal of Management History, 1*(1), 59-77

Pluye, P., Hong, Q. N., Bush, P. L. and Vedel, I. (2016) Opening-up the definition of systematic literature review: The plurality of worldviews, methodologies and methods for reviews and syntheses. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, *73*(5), 2-5.

Pot, L., Friedman, D., Rosiello, M., Meyer, T. and Brocca, M. (2022) Organization Design Will Make or Break a Deal. Retrieved from https://www.bcg.com/publications/2022/how-organization-design-process-impacts-deal-success

Rahman, M. A. (1993). *People's self-development: Perspectives on participatory action research*. Zed Books.

Reason, P. and Bradbury, H. (Eds.). (2001). *Handbook of action research: Participative inquiry and practice*. SAGE Publications.

* Reichert, S.T. and Smeltzer, C. (1999) Work redesign and implementation: Staff perspectives. *Orthopaedic Nursing*, *18*(1), 53-57.

Robertson, I. T., Cooper, C. L., Sarkar, M. and Curran, T. (2015) Resilience training in the workplace from 2003 to 2014: A systematic review. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 88*(3), 533-562.

Rojon, C., McDowall, A. and Saunders, M. N. K. (2011) On the experience of conducting a systematic review in industrial, work, and organizational psychology: Yes, it is worthwhile. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 10*(3), 133–138.

* Rosenbach, W. and Zawacki, R. (1989) Participative Work Redesign: A Field Study in the Public Sector. *Public Administration Quarterly*, *13*(1*),* 112-122

Schmidt, F. L. and Hunter, J. E. (1998) The validity and utility of selection methods in personnel psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*(2), 262–274. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.124.2.262

Schweitz, R., Granata, E., Storjohann, G. and Grady, W. (1997) Could participative design be the answer for us? *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, *20*(1)*,* 34-42

Sengul, M. (2018) Organization design and competitive strategy: an application to the case of divisionalization. In *Organization Design. Advances in Strategic Management, Volume 40,* 207-228. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1108/S0742-332220180000040007

Sengul, M. (2019) Organization design as a competitive choice: an application to the study of innovation. *Journal of Organization Design 8* (1)(Article 22). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1186/s41469-019-0063-8

Sharma, P.N. and Kirkman, B.L. (2015) Leveraging leaders: A literature review and future lines of inquiry for empowering leadership research. *Group & Organization Management, 40(2), 193-237.* *https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601115574906*

Shore, L. M., Cleveland, J. N. and Sanchez, D. (2018). "Inclusive workplaces: A review and model." *Human Resource Management Review*, 28(2), 176-189.

Silva, S. and Mendis, K (2017) Relationship Between Transformational, Transaction and Laissez-faire Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment. *European Journal of Business and Management, 9*(7), 13-21

Simon, H.A. (1969) *The sciences of the artificial*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Smith, J.A. (1996) Beyond the divide between cognition and discourse: using interpretative phenomenological analysis in health psychology. *Psychology and Health*, *11*(2): 261–271 DOI:10.1080/08870449608400256

Snape, D., Meads, C., Bagnall, A-M., Tregaskis, O., Mansfield, L. and MacLennan, S. (2017) *A guide to our evidence review methods.* London: What works wellbeing centre. Retrieved from

https://whatworkswellbeing.files.wordpress.com/2017/04/wwcw-methods-guide-mar-2017.pdf

Stanford, N. (2015) *The Economist Guide to Organisation Design (2nd Ed.) (*Pg. 2). London: Profile Books.

Stanford, N. (n.d.) Community Organising. Retrieved from: https://naomistanford.com/2015/08/03/community-organising/

Storey, J. (1992) *Developments in the Management of Human Resources*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Taylor, F. W. (1911) *The Principles of Scientific Management*. New York: Harper.

* Taylor, J. (1976) Employee Participation in Socio-Technical Work System Design: A White-Collar Example. *Presented at 36th Annual Meeting Academy of Management Kansas City, August 1,* 1-14, Center for Quality of Working Life. Institute of Industrial Relations

* Townsend, M. B. (1990) A participative approach to administrative reorganization. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, *20*(2), 11–14.

Trist, E. L. (1981) The evolution of socio-technical systems: A conceptual framework and action research program. *Occasional paper No. 2*. Ontario, Canada: Ontario Quality of Working Life Centre.

United Nations Development Programme (accessed 25th August, 2023) Human Development Insights. Retrieved from https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/country-insights#/ranks

Visscher, K. and Fisscher, O.A.M. (2012) Towards a new generation of organizational design. In P. C. de Weerd-Nederhof, K. Visscher, and J. M. Visser-Groeneveld (Eds.), *Innovation, Social Responsibility, Creativity, Ethics, and Olaf Fisscher* (pp. 15-28). University of Twente.

Vroom, V.H. (1964) *Work and motivation.* Wiley and Sons, New York.

Vroom, V. H. and Yetton, P. W. (1973) *Leadership and Decision-Making*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Vroom, V. H. and Jago, A. G. (1988) *The new leadership: Managing participation in organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Wall, T.D., Wood, S.J. and Leach, D.J. (2004) Empowerment and Performance. In C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *Vol. 19,* 1 – 46, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd

Walton, R. (1985) From Control to Commitment in the Workplace. *Harvard Business Review*, March–April: 77–84.

Waterman, R. H., Peters, T. J. and Phillips, J. R. (1980). Structure is not organization. *Business Horizons*, *23*(3), 14-26.

Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in Organizations.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Weisbord, M.R. (1985) Participative Work Design: A Personal Odyssey *Organizational Dynamics 13*(4), 5-20

Weisbord, M.R. and Janoff, S. (1996) Future search: Finding common ground in organizations and communities. *Systems Practice 9*, 71–84. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02173419

Wilkinson, A., Dundon, T., Donaghey, J. and Freeman, R. (2020) Employee voice: Bridging new terrains and disciplinary boundaries. In A. Wilkinson, J. Donaghey, T. Dundon and R. Freeman (eds.), *Handbook of Research on Employee Voice* (2nd edn.). (pp. 2-18) Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Wilkinson, A., Dundon, T. and Marchington, M. (2013) Employee involvement and voice. In S. Bach and M. Edwards (eds). *Managing Human Resources*. (pp. 268-288) Oxford: Blackwell.

Wilkinson, A., Gollan, P.J., Marchington, M. and Lewin, D. (2010) Conceptualizing Employee Participation in Organizations**.** In A. Wilkinson, P.J. Gollan, M. Marchington and D. Lewin (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of Participation in Organizations,* (pp. 3-26) Oxford University Press

World Health Organization (2020) WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the media briefing on COVID-19 - 11 March 2020. Retrieved from: https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-media-briefing-on-covid-19---11-march-2020

Wright, P. M. and McMahan, G. C. (1992). "Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management." *Journal of Management*, 18(2), 295-320.

* Zappe, J., Hoyt, B. and Veloz, L. (2003) The Road Less Travelled: Staff Driven Re-Org. *Conference Proceedings. SIGUCCS'03, September 21–24*, San Antonio, Texas, USA.

Zumbrun, J. (2016) The Rise of Knowledge Workers Is Accelerating Despite the Threat of Automation. Retrieved from https://www.wsj.com/articles/BL-REB-35617

Appendix 1: Information Sheet for Participants

Examining what helps the process of participative organisation restructuring.

I would like to invite you to participate in this research project, which is part of my Professional Doctorate in Organisational Psychology degree at Birkbeck, University of London. This project has received ethical approval. To make an informed decision on whether you want to take part in this study, please take a few minutes to read this information sheet.

Who is conducting this research?

The research is conducted by Timothy Gore, an Organizational Psychology Doctorate Student, under the guidance of supervisor Dr Rachel Lewis and Dr Jo Yarker, both from Birkbeck, University of London.

What is the purpose of the study?

The aim of the study is to examine what helps the process of participative organisation restructuring.

Why have I been invited to take part?

I am inviting organisation design practitioners, where they have been involved in facilitating restructuring which has involved affected team members deciding on the process and/or outcomes of the restructure, to take part in this study.

What are the procedures of taking part?

If you decide to take part, you will be asked to take part in a one-to-one semi structured interviews to allow me to gather your experiences and perspectives of participative restructuring. The interview would take approximately one hour and will be asking questions such as:

1. What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?
2. What parts of the design need to be prescribed by senior management and what can team members be involved in?
3. What things most help participative organisational design to succeed?
4. What difficulties are found during participative organisational design and how can these be overcome?
5. What is the role of senior management during participative organisational design?
6. How does the relationship between team members and senior management impact on participative organisational design, and how does the process of participative organisational design impact on the relationship?
7. What is the role of the Organisation Design Consultant during participative organisational design?

The interviews will take place virtually via Skype or MS Teams (https://privacy.microsoft.com/en-gb/privacystatement) or, if possible, in person. The interview will be recorded to allow me to transcribe it and analyse all participants' responses for themes later.

Your information will be kept strictly confidential and will only be used in connection with my Doctoral research project. No individual information will be fed back to anyone else and your participation – and any withdrawal from the study that you might request – will be kept confidential. Upon completion of your participation you will be provided with a debrief or offered the opportunity to have access a summary of the findings, once analysed, by contacting the research team (details below).

What are my participation rights?

Participation in this research guarantees the right to withdraw, to ask questions about how your data will be handled and about the study itself, the right to confidentially and anonymity (unless otherwise agreed), the right to refuse to answer questions, to have tape recorders turned-off (in the case of recorded interviews) and to be given access to a summary of the findings.

What if I want to withdraw my information?

If you wish to withdraw responses or any personal data gathered during the study you may do this without any consequences. You can ask for your data to be removed up until the point of analysis, which will take place on approximately January 2022 onwards. If you would like to withdraw your data please contact the researcher (details below).

What will happen to my responses to the study?

Data collected in this study will be analysed and used for the research student dissertation. Data may also be used for academic publications and no identifying information would be released.

Will my responses and information be kept confidential?

All information will be treated with the strictest confidence throughout the study. All information will be kept in secure folders on a password protected computer, or a secure filing cabinet. Access to such information will only be allowed to the researcher and researcher supervisor. During the marking process, external examiners of my project may also have access.

What are the possible risks to taking part?

There are some risks involved to you in taking part in this research. As stated above, your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence and will not in any way be revealed to anyone else at any time and any form of summary report, either formally or informally, would be at a summary level which will not identify or infer people's identity. Demographic information won't be included in any summary report, only overall themes that came out from the research about employee participation in general. In addition, I won't be reporting any actual comments of people.

As with any discussion involving your experiences in a work context, there is a risk of some of these being negative as well as positive which could cause distress. It would certainly not be the intention for this to happen but if it does we would of course wish to understand the nature of the distress to see if there is anything we can do directly.

There are organisations that you may wish to get in touch with if you do experience any distress:

Mind Infoline
Tel: +44 (0)300 123 3393
Email: info@mind.org.uk
Website: www.mind.org.uk

The Samaritans
Tel: +44 116 123
Email: jo@samaritans.org
Website: www.samaritans.org

If you do think that taking part in this study may cause you undue distress then we would ask you not to take part in this research.

Any further questions?

If you have any questions or require more information about this study before or during your participation, please contact either of:

Timothy Gore (fgore01@mail.bbk.ac.uk)
Research Student

Dr Rachel Lewis and Dr Jo Yarker (joint email address: op-pdop@bbk.ac.uk)
Research Supervisor,
Department of Organizational Psychology,
Birkbeck, University of London,
Clore Management Building,
Malet Street, Bloomsbury,
London.
WC1E 7HX

For information about Birkbeck's data protection policy please visit: http://www.bbk.ac.uk/about-us/policies/privacy#9
If you have concerns about this study, please contact the School's Ethics Officer at: BEI-ethics@bbk.ac.uk.
School Ethics Officer
School of Business, Economics and Informatics
Birkbeck, University of London
London WC1E 7HX
You also have the right to submit a complaint to the Information Commissioner's Office https://ico.org.uk/

Appendix 2: Informed Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM – PLEASE COMPLETE BOTH COPIES AND RETURN THE RESEARCHER'S COPY BACK TO THE RESEARCHER

Examining what helps and hinders the process of participative organisation restructuring.

PARTICIPANT COPY

Please read the following items and tick the appropriate boxes to indicate whether you agree to take part in this study.

- ☐ I have read the information sheet in full, I understand the purpose of this research is to examine what helps and hinders the process of participative organisation restructuring
- ☐ Any questions I had have been answered, and I understand I may ask further questions at any time.
- ☐ I understand what is involved in participating, that it is voluntary, and that I may withdraw without consequences and penalty by January 2022
- ☐ I agree/do not agree to the interview being taped by Timothy Gore
- ☐ I agree/do not agree to the interview being video-taped taped by Timothy Gore
- ☐ I understand that I have the right to ask for the audio/video tape to be turned off at any time during the interview taped.
- ☐ I understand the data will be transcribed word-by-word by Timothy Gore or a secure third party transcription service or software.
- ☐ I understand the results may be used for academic publications, such as dissertation, thesis or journal articles.

Name _____

Signed _____ Dated: _____

RESEARCHER'S COPY

Please read the following items and tick the appropriate boxes to indicate whether you agree to take part in this study.

- ☐ I have read the information sheet in full, I understand the purpose of this research is to examine what helps and hinders the process of participative organisation restructuring
- ☐ Any questions I had have been answered, and I understand I may ask further questions at any time.
- ☐ I understand what is involved in participating, that it is voluntary, and that I may withdraw without consequences and penalty by January 2022
- ☐ I agree/do not agree to the interview being taped by Timothy Gore
- ☐ I agree/do not agree to the interview being video-taped taped by Timothy Gore
- ☐ I understand that I have the right to ask for the audio/video tape to be turned off at any time during the interview taped.
- ☐ I understand the data will be transcribed word-by-word by Timothy Gore or a secure third party transcription service or software.

I understand the results may be used for academic publications, such as dissertation, thesis or journal articles

Name _____

Signed _____ Dated: _____

Appendix 3: Debrief sheet for participants

Examining what helps the process of participative organisation restructuring.

Thank you very much for taking part in this research project, which is exploring what helps the process of participative organisation restructuring as part of my Professional Doctorate in Organizational Psychology at Birkbeck, University of London.

The research aims of my research are to examine:

1. What conditions have to be in place for participative organisational design to be considered as a viable approach?

2. What helps and what hinders the participative approach when it is ongoing?

3. What is the role of senior management during participative organisational design?

4. What is the role of the Organisation Design Consultant during participative organisational design?

The results of this research will provide an important contribution to my dissertation and will be practically useful or theoretically beneficial in that the research would help organisation design practitioners to be better informed and guide management on aspects of organisational restructuring such as when and how best to involve team members.

I would like to thank you and affirm that your data will be treated confidentially and your name/personal details will be anonymised.

If you have any concerns about the way that this study was conducted, please do not hesitate to contact the research supervisor Dr Rachel Lewis and Dr Jo Yarker, Research Supervisors,
at (joint email address: op-pdop@bbk.ac.uk).

If you would like to find out the outcome of this research, please do not hesitate to keep in touch with me and I will send you a summary of the results.

Thank you.

Timothy Gore (fgore01@mail.bbk.ac.uk)
Research Student
For information about Birkbeck's data protection policy please visit: http://www.bbk.ac.uk/about-us/policies/privacy#9

If you have concerns about this study, please contact the School's Ethics Officer at: BEI-ethics@bbk.ac.uk.

School Ethics Officer

School of Business, Economics and Informatics

Birkbeck, University of London

London WC1E 7HX

You also have the right to submit a complaint to the Information Commissioner's Office https://ico.org.uk/