

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY EVALUATING THE INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEE RESPONSE TO
A PLANNED ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE EFFORT**

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I would like to thank the God I believe in for the love and grace that He provided to me during the years to complete this degree. This has been one of my life's greatest challenges that I have had overcome, therefore without Him, I am nothing.

How I love you, Lord

You are my defender

The Lord is my protector;

he is my strong fortress

My God is my protection,

and with him I am safe.

He protects me like a shield;

He defends me and keeps me safe.

I call to the Lord,

and he saves me from my enemies.

Praise the Lord!

Psalm 18: 1-3

**“I CAN DO ALL THINGS THROUGH CHRIST WHICH
STRENGTHENS ME”**

Philippians 4: 13

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DECLARATION

"I declare that (title of the paper)

..... is my original
work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged
as complete references, and has not been submitted for degree purposes previously."

.....

Name

.....

Date

Signature:-

ABSTRACT

This study attempts to investigate one of the most cited reasons for the failure of organisational change efforts: individual resistance to change. It also seeks to determine what personal manifestations need to exist in order for an organisation to adequately establish the extent to which a proposed change effort will yield a successful outcome. This was evaluated through the job constructs of communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust. The research also Management and Change Agent roles within the change process to determine whether this had an impact on the individual change experience at a cognitive and behavioural level. In a South African Motor Manufacturing company data was obtained from 306 respondents. The findings clearly indicate that a positive experience of the job constructs is likely to result in positive individual change which will result in a successful implementation and sustainability of the change initiative.

KEYWORDS

Organisational change, Individual change, participation, procedural justice, trust, communication, job-insecurity, change agent, leadership.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	:	Affirmative Action
ACI	:	African, Coloured and Indian
BEE	:	Black Economic Empowerment
CIP	:	Continuous Improvement Plan
EE	:	Employment Equity
HR	:	Human Resources
IR	:	Industrial Relations
NEPAD	:	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NWS	:	New Working Structures
OD	:	Organisational Development / Organisational Developer
SADC	:	Southern African Development Community
T2	:	Bodyshop
T3	:	Paintshop

1 CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Significant research has been conducted on change management and the process requirements for successful implementation. Numerous studies confirm that industry estimates nearly 40 percent failure rates for some change efforts. Most often, the culprit has been identified as individual resistance to the change effort (Carthwright & Cooper, 1992).

Although extensive change literature acknowledges the importance of the individual transformation, surprisingly little research has been conducted in this area (Mack, Nelson & Quick, 1998; Breu & Benwell 1999; King & Anderson 2002; Williams, Crafford & Fourie 2003; Chawla & Kelloway 2004; Van Tonder 2004). This is particularly true for research on first-order change (Mack et al, 1998). This is certainly the converse for second order change as significant literature exists on this topic (Wilson, 1992; Dawson, 1994; King & Anderson, 2002;; Van Tonder, 2004). The inadequate attention, which has been given to the emotional and cognitive aspects of organisational change on the individual, has as a result left many important questions about the psychological process unanswered (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997). Therefore, the contribution of this research to the existing body of knowledge on this topic could be relatively significant.

A lack of the understanding of the change experienced on the individual level has significant impact on the organisation.

King & Anderson, (2002) state that resistance to change can bring about the following debilitating consequences for the organisation:

- Reduced organisational commitment
- Increased hostility towards the initiators of change
- Increased absenteeism, lateness and even sabotage of production systems
- Strengthening of group norms and in-group pressures resulting in reduced performance and inter-group conflict; and
- Increased inclinations to unionisation and trade union activity

Van Tonder (2004) states that any organisational change programme will be influenced by the structure and context of individual-level change. Stated more explicitly Van Tonder (2004: 8) says “change occurs at the rate that the individual employee is able to deal with and respond to change”. O’Hara & Sayers (1996) suggest that for sustained organisational change to take place, individual internalisation of the change process is a prerequisite. Therefore, organisational change and individual change are inextricably linked. Evidently, individual acceptance of change is paramount to the success of any planned change effort. Mack, Nelson and Quick (1998) indicate that the costs to both the individual and organisation in terms of medical expenses, lost productivity, lowered motivation and morale cannot be disregarded. These costs are in their opinion directly ascribed to the adverse circumstances and stress experienced by individuals during organisational change.

When viewing change and its effects within the South African context, it is appropriate to consider the history of the country which was characterised by sanctions prior to 1994. Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003 affirm that this incorporated an intensified resistance to

apartheid which brought about mass mobilisation. In addition, an emergent socialist orientation and opposition to capitalism occurred since this was used as a foundation for the abuse of Black people under the apartheid Government. In the workplace this meant that deliberate racist attitudes which impeded all forms of Black progression were prevalent. Naturally high levels of mistrust and suspicion existed between employees, unions and managers. Employees went out of their way to demonstrate their dissatisfaction with the status quo by participating in stay-aways, boycotts and protest actions (Robbins, Roodt & Odendaal, 2004).

To examine the individual experience of change the researcher decided to utilise the job constructs of communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust. Given the South African context which was characterised by extreme mistrust in the past, the researcher found it fascinating to explore how these job constructs would impact on the experience of the individual employee undergoing a planned organisational change effort within a 12-year democratised society and workplace.

This research report discusses the individual as a person and the individual experiences of a planned organisational change effort through the discussion of the following aspects:

- Change at a global, regional and local context
- Change models specifically for individual change
- Change and understanding the individual experience of change
- Job constructs influencing change i.e. communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust; and

- The role and impact that change leaders play in the change process on the individual experience of change. The leaders examined were both change agents and managers within the organisation.

The approach to this report that was will be in line with the research conducted by Van Tonder (2004) who indicates that change cannot be managed but rather engaged and influenced.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Change programmes have been implemented in organisations worldwide in response to global external and internal forces driving the organisation. Corporations therefore find themselves having to invest significant funds into facilitating required change initiatives to keep abreast with the changes experienced. However, the most commonly cited reason for the failure of change efforts is individual resistance to change. This therefore highlights the importance of the individual's acceptance of the approaching change at a cognitive level, which would translate into the positive values, attitudes and behaviours necessitated for the successful implementation of a planned organisational change effort.

Given the magnitude at which change is being experienced both globally and locally, it becomes imperative to investigate whether the funds and efforts being channelled into change projects are effective, and whether the final project outcomes are having the desired effect of bringing about individual internalisation and ultimately individual acceptance of the change. Success on the individual level would consequently affect the success rate of the overall project implementation and sustainability.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of the research conducted was therefore to investigate how individual employees had responded to a planned organisational change effort which had taken place within a South African motor manufacturing company. The objective of the research was to establish whether the employees had demonstrated high or low levels of commitment and participation to the change process through the job constructs of trust, communication, participation, procedural justice and job-insecurity. The selected constructs are well established in change literature as inherent requirements for a successful change effort (Caron & Griffeth, 1990; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Therefore the investigation of employee resistance at an attitudinal and behavioural level to change was carried out through the evaluation of these constructs. On investigating employee resistance in change literature, it is evident that the required change which would make an individual receptive to a change effort would need to take place within the schemata of the individual therefore bringing about real intrinsic change, and not merely change at a superficial level. Van Tonder (2004) refers to a schema by as a cognitive arrangement that represents well thought-out knowledge about a particular concept or type of stimulus. They therefore assist people to interpret information in their immediate situations and guide the cognition, analysis and ways of understanding events or objects. This research further explored whether the employees on whom the research was conducted had participated and were committed to the change at a meaningful level.

1.4 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

1.4.1 Individual Change

Change taking place at the micro level in the organisation, necessitating acceptance on the emotional level of the individual; and enabling an adjustment of meaning structures at the cognitive level (Van Tonder, 2004).

1.4.2 First-order Change

Refers to small changes that amend certain diminutive features, looking for an enhancement in the present-day circumstances, but maintaining the general operational structure (Levy, 1986; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; 1990; Goodstein & Burke, 1991; Menzias & Glynn 1993; Blumenthal & Haspeslagh, 1994). In the individual, this consists of a quantitative and rational change of limited scope in one or a few aspects, within and in harmony with existing schemata (Van Tonder, 2004).

1.4.3 Second-order Change

Refers to fundamental transformations, where the organisation completely modifies its essential structure (Levy, 1986; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; 1990; Goodstein & Burke, 1991; Menzias & Glynn 1993; Blumenthal & Haspeslagh, 1994), usually looking for new competitive advantage and impinging on the basic competence of the organisation (Hutt, Walker & Frankwich, 1995). In the individual this is a qualitative and discontinuous change in the structure and form of schemata (or meaning structures), invariably resulting in a new worldview. At the organisational level, it will tend to be multi-

dimensional and multilevel change based on a different logic and observable in most behavioural dimensions (Van Tonder, 2004).

1.4.4 Resistance to Change

A change-specific response that may or may not be part of an encompassing attitude towards change in general and its underlying goal is to prevent or delay the specific change as part of the persons conscious or unconscious self-protection strategy (Van Tonder, 2004). Resistance also provides a degree of stability and predictability to behaviour (Roodt, et al, 2003).

1.5 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are two major types of change that exist. Over the years, change literature has described these change types by many synonyms (Quinn, 1980, 1982; Gersick, 1991; Wilson, 1992; Romanelli & Tushman, 1994; Dawson, 1994; Greenwald, 1996; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; van Tonder, 2004). Table 1. In this table Van Tonder (2004) provides an overview of all the various systems which are have been used for both types of change. For purposes of this study, the terms first-order and second-order change will be used to refer to the main change concepts. Table 2.1 in Chapter 2 provides a detailed overview of what the definitions entail.

The study conducted for this research only focused on evaluating employee responses and experiences of change within a first-order change experience at the individual level.

This approach was adopted to the study for the following reasons:

- Very little research exists on individual change and specifically on the first-order change typology. Thus, the contribution of this research would be significant to the existing body of knowledge
- Significant research currently exists on second-order change therefore the contribution of this research would be diminished; and
- Obtaining access to organisations that were experiencing second-order changes at the time when the study was conducted was challenging in terms of time and resource-constraints.

1.6 RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

Based on a critical review of change literature, as well as the identified constructs of communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust, the following propositions were made for the study:

Communication is critical to the successful execution of organisational change (DiFonzo & Bordia, 1998; Lewis, 1999a; Schweiger & Denisi, 1991). The universal significance of communication throughout a planned change effort has already been empirically confirmed and approved amongst researchers (Lewis, 1999b.). Inadequately managed change communication causes rumours and resistance to change, overstating the detrimental facets of the change. Therefore it follows that:

P1: Successful change would be characterised by high quality communication and early involvement of employees in the change process, which would facilitate trust

Robbins (1999) indicates that trust is built over a long time, is easy to tear down and difficult to redeem. Since a breach in trust gives rise to distrust, preserving trust requires cautious attention from management and particularly within an uncertain environment such as one characterised with a planned change. According to Robbins, (1999) successful managers must develop trusting relationships with those they seek to lead, and hence:

P2: Where employees experienced high levels of trust they would be more open to the change effort and less resistant to the change.

According to the humanistic values of management developed by McGregor in the 1960's people want to participate in the decisions that affect them in the organisation. It is also argued that if they do participate they will be more satisfied, committed and willing to accept change (Lawler, 1986). Therefore:

P3: Where high quality communication between Management and employees existed, low levels of resistance would exist due to the early participation of employees that would facilitate trust in Management

According to Hellgren, Sverke and Isaksson (1999) the expectation of a stressful event accounts for a significant or possibly even a greater cause of anxiety than the actual event. Job-insecurity can influence the well-being, work attitudes and behaviour of the individual and in the long-term it could influence the functioning of the organisation. Consequently:

P4: Where employees perceived there to be high job-insecurity employees would be more negative to the change and more mistrustful of management.

The feeling of job-insecurity is also linked to age. According to Smithson and Lewis, (2000) the strongest feelings of job-insecurity are likely to be experienced by the youngest and oldest members of the workforce. Thus:

P5: High levels of job insecurity will be experienced by the youngest and oldest members of the workforce

Opinions of trust depend on perceptions of equality of allocations in the workplace and also the procedures used to determine such conclusions. Procedural justice has to do with perceptions of the fairness of processes and procedures used (Saunders & Thornhill, 2002). Therefore:

P6: Positive individual views of processes and procedural justice will be linked to higher levels of trust in the organisation and management / supervision

P7: Where employees perceived management to be unfair, there would have been less effective communication and decreased participation and trust.

The need for achieving strategies for managing change is at its highest today given that the rate of change is greater now than at any other period in history. This therefore amplifies the risk of failure since immense tensions within the workforce require continuous attention. The aptitude of leadership to successfully steer employees

through the change process in the business becomes significant to organisational success. It follows:

P8: The role of Management would have an impact on the way in which employees experience change

One of the characteristics of successful change is the leadership displayed by a single impassioned individual with a cause who will ultimately drive the change through the organisation. Hence:

P9: The role of the change agent would have an impact on the manner in which employees experienced the change

The research methodology for this report made use of a triangulation approach, which meant that both quantitative and qualitative data was obtained from a South African motor manufacturing organisation which was used for the study. This company had implemented a change initiative in January 2004 and an evaluation of the individual employee experience of the change effort had not taken place. The quantitative data was obtained by conducting a survey questionnaire. Eight hundred questionnaires were distributed to all hourly employees (Operator positions) within the Bodyshop and Paintshop areas. Qualitative information was obtained from the company using personal semi-structured interviews with the Section Managers and focus group discussions with the Teamleaders within the Body and Paint Shops to establish what their role and impact was on the change process and how they felt about leading the change within the organisation.

1.7 CHAPTER OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

1.7.1 Chapter 2: Organisational Change: A Global and South African Perspective

Chapter two investigates the theory regarding several concepts within the field of change and the individual.

Firstly, the trends within the Change Management field as well as the drivers for change at a global, regional and South African context. The additional complexities of the South African organisation are clearly outlined.

Secondly, this chapter recognises the existence of a plethora of change models. Lewin's classic three-step change model is discussed as the foundation to the summary of the models making specific reference to individual change. Organisational culture is explored as this concept has been acknowledged to play a significant role in how the individual will understand, interpret and respond to events and outcomes within the organisation.

Thirdly, the current theory regarding the role that the change agent plays within the change process, what their competencies should be, and what the agent should attempt to achieve in the process of organisational change.

Fourthly, the role of management within a planned organisational change effort cannot be underestimated. Its importance lies in the key aspect that an individual's response to a planned change effort is largely affected by the role that management plays, which

could either exacerbate or annihilate resistance that could be experienced by the individual employee. This chapter firstly explores what the role of management should be within a change effort. An interesting perspective regarding resistance experienced by management who are expected to be the custodians and implementers of the planned change process is also discussed. Specific recommendations are also made for Managers on how to effectively influence and engage the change process as opposed to managing the process. Specific recommendations with respect to each of the job constructs are therefore given in this light.

1.7.2 Chapter 3: Organisational Change and the Impact on the Human Being

Chapter three is the essence of the entire report as it endeavours to obtain an in-depth appreciation of the employee as a human being within the workplace. This chapter critically reviews literature regarding the psychological contract of employment and how this contract influences the behaviour that an individual will display in the workplace. It evaluates values, attitudes, and behaviour of the individual and how these psychodynamic elements affect the change process in the organisations. Furthermore, the experiences of change on the employee are investigated paying particular attention to employee resistance to change and methods of effectively overcoming resistance. This chapter critically analyses and discusses the job attitudes that are under investigation in the study i.e. communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust.

1.7.3 Chapter 4: Integration

This chapter integrates all the theory that has been discussed in chapters two and three and highlights the most important conclusions concerning the theory.

1.7.4 Chapter 5: Research Methodology

Chapter five details the research methods used to conduct the study and give an indication of why the researcher took on the selected approach to the study. The methodology incorporated the use of a survey questionnaire, interviews with management and focus groups with Teamleaders who participated in the change process within a South African motor manufacturing company.

1.7.5 Chapter 6: Research Results

Chapter six presents the results that the researcher obtained from the study. Challenges experienced by the research whilst carrying out the research are also reflected in this chapter.

1.7.6 Chapter 7: Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter seven reflects a thorough discussion of the results and conclusions that were developed which were paralleled to the theoretical basis found in chapters' two to seven.

Chapter two will discuss the drivers of organisational change in the world, the African continent and South Africa in particular.

2 CHAPTER 2: ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE: A GLOBAL AND SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

Companies are continuously subjected to the forces of change, and the organisation is required to respond to these changes appropriately to be able to have a strategic advantage over their competitors. Chapter two discusses individual change and the forces of change experienced by companies occur within four contexts i.e.: global, regional & sub regional arenas, national and organisational contexts. The numerous models influencing individual change are discussed including the roles of the change agent and management within the change process.

2.1 FIRST ORDER CHANGE

In the delimitations of the study, the researcher indicated that this report would focus specifically on the scrutiny of change and its impact on the individual in the organisation. The study would also focus on the investigation of a first-order change as opposed to a second order change. Table 2.1 provides definitions of the two change concepts and clusters the synonyms that have evolved over time under the respective change typologies.

TABLE 2.1 CLUSTERING OF ALTERNATIVE CHANGE CONCEPTS

CHANGE AND TRANSFORMATION	
First-order (“Change”)	Second-order (“Transformation”)
<p>“A steady state, incremental or step-by-step, sequential change which generally evolves over extended periods of time, does not have a disruptive influence on the system and is generally within the control of the system” (Van Tonder, 1999: 51).</p>	<p>“ A major, disruptive, unpredictable, paradigm-altering and system-wide change which has a very sudden onset and escalates rapidly to a point where it is perceived as being beyond the control of the system” (Van Tonder, 1999: 51)</p>
<p>Similar concepts that cluster under First-order Change:</p> <p style="text-align: center;"> TYPE I Alpha Beta Formal logic Frame-bending Normal Evolutionary Incremental Morphostasis Continuous </p>	<p>Similar concepts that cluster under Second-order Change:</p> <p style="text-align: center;"> TYPE II Gamma Trialectics Frame-breaking Paradigmatic Revolutionary Radical [“deep”] Morphogenesis Discontinuous Chaotic </p>

Source: Adapted from Van Tonder, 2004

The key characteristics of change under each of the main concepts are adeptly summarised by Table 2.2

TABLE 2.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF FIRST- AND SECOND-ORDER CHANGE

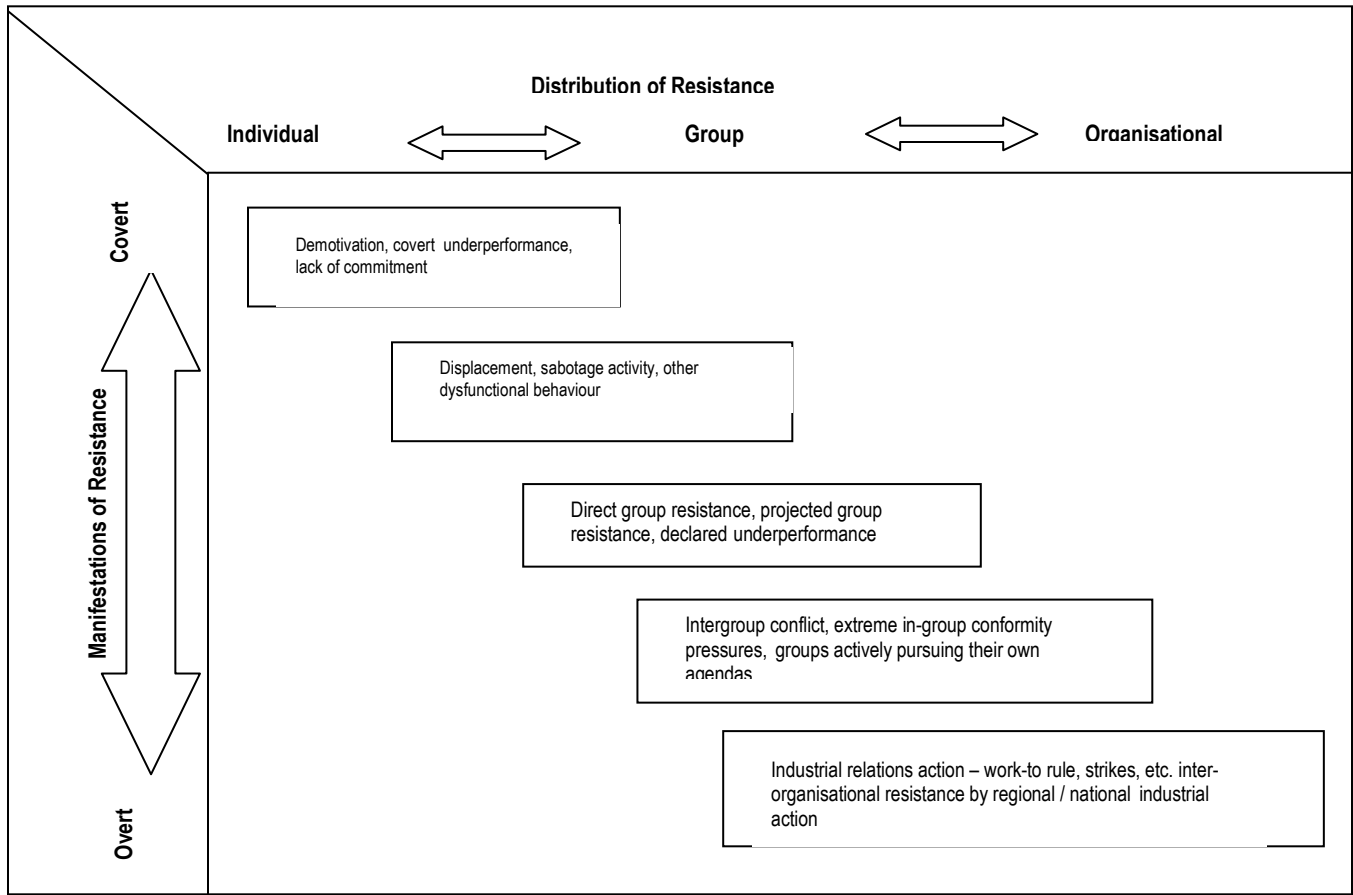
FIRST-ORDER CHANGE	SECOND-ORDER CHANGE
A change in one of a few dimensions, components, or aspects	Multidimensional, multi-component, and multi-aspectual
A change in one of a few levels (individual and group levels)	Multilevel change (individuals, groups, the whole organisation)
Change in one or two behavioural aspects (attitudes, values)	Changes in all behavioural aspects (attitudes, norms. Values, perceptions, beliefs world view, behaviours)
A quantitative change	A qualitative change
A change in context	A change in context
Continuity, improvements, and development in the same direction	Discontinuity, taking a new direction
Incremental changes	Revolutionary jumps
Logical and rational	Seemingly irrational, based on a different logic
Does not change the world view, the paradigm	Results in new work view, new paradigm
Within the old state of being (thinking and acting)	Results in a new state of being (thinking & acting)

Source: Levy & Merry, 1986

This table is based on research, which the authors conducted in the public sector privatisation process in American organisations. Their typologies capture the nature and of the change of the impact that that this would have on the organisations and its members.

As can be seen from Figure 2.1, if resistance is experienced by the individual in the organisation, this can influence the entire organisation.

FIGURE 2.1 MANIFESTATIONS OF RESISTANCE TO CHANGE AT THE INDIVIDUAL, GROUP AND ORGANISATIONAL LEVELS



Source: King & Anderson (2002:211)

Therefore the ability of the organisation to engage effectively with the workforce during an anticipated change is critical to organisational success since the manifestations of resistance to change at the individual, group and organisational level of analysis can

have devastating consequences for the whole organisation. Often the individual employee in the company is oblivious to the significant challenges faced by the organisation who is forced to change based on several external factors.

2.2 FORCES OF CHANGE WITHIN THE GLOBAL ARENA

The signs of worldwide change are evident. Organisations find themselves in the midst of a rapidly changing society that is no longer characterised by the stability of the 1950's and 1960's. The features of the society in the new millennium are characterised by increasing global competition, technological innovation and declining resources (Carnall, 1995). Change is a continual characteristic of organisational life and the ability to manage change is perceived as a core competence of successful organisations (Burns, 2004b). Many authors have reasoned that because organisations are complex systems, to survive they need to function at the edge of chaos and have to react constantly to changes in their surroundings through a process of spontaneous self-organising change (Stickland, 1998; MacIntosh & MacLean, 1999, Hayles, 2000; Macbeth, 2002; Stacey, 2003). However there are important differences in how change is viewed: is it incremental punctuated or continuous; can it be driven from the top down or it is an emergent process (Quinn, 1980, 1982; Gersick, 1991; Wilson, 1992; Dawson, 1994; Romanelli & Tushman, 1994; Greenwald, 1996; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997;; van Tonder, 2004). These differences are the outcome of the changing organisational landscape of the last twenty years, where globalisation, technological innovation and economic fluctuations have lead to a frantic exploration for amplified competitiveness through increasingly extreme forms of change (Cooper & Jackson, 1997; Kanter, Kao & Wiesersema; 1997; Peters 1997; Beer & Nohria, 2000; Johnson & Scholes, 2002; Stacey, 2003). In addition, consumers who are as a consequence of increased and enhanced

global exposure becoming intensely aware of quality and service. Thus, the expectations and demands made by these customers on both service and manufacturing companies are becoming increasingly high. The changing nature of work has also become a force to be reckoned with and has not only resulted in a more information and technology driven environment, but also means that more women are entering the workplace and dual careers in couples are becoming more common. (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2004). Regional trade agreements between countries have also resulted in the concept of international diversity becoming more widespread. Expatriate Managers are often sent out to set up new business operations in other areas, resulting in Managers having to deal with the complexity of operating and managing a workforce within a different business context as well as coping with language barriers, different traditions, principles and work habits. Carrell, Jennings & Heavrin (1997), however affirm that if companies worldwide have established that they will be implementing a planned change effort, they need to become culturally sensitive, learn to take cognisance of the cultures of others and not only demand that employees accept their culture in order to realise success.

2.3 FORCES FOR CHANGE WITHIN THE REGIONAL ARENA

Africa as a continent is experiencing significant challenges on its political, economic, social technological and legal levels and consequently still remains marginalised due to these factors. The greatest challenges for African leadership are that of working towards political and economic stability. Regional trade agreements in Africa currently include the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC), which is perceived as a key agreement. NEPAD is based on the premise that African leaders have an obligation to their countries to

eliminate poverty and to position their countries on a path of individual and collective growth through sustainable growth and development. The SADC agreement incorporates the membership of 13 African countries including Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The purpose of this forum is to achieve improve the standard and quality of lives of all people within the SADC region as well as to support the socially disadvantaged through the regional integration. Overall, the purpose of these agreements is to bring about social, economic and political transformation within Africa, which is fraught with political, economic and social instability. The challenges faced by Africa influence an organisation's ability to compete internationally and thus the establishment of these forums seeks to not only bring about these reforms but also to instil strategies and measures to bring about increased democratisation, and to promote good governance within the continent (Roodt et al. 2004).

The challenges experienced within Africa are numerous beginning with the fact that the continent is ruled in various countries by dictators and is therefore characterised by wars. Approximately 76 million people or 40% of the overall population is scourged by extreme poverty that has resulted in malnutrition, illiteracy, unemployment, diminishing life expectancy and unacceptably low levels of access to fundamental human amenities. HIV/AIDS further complicates the current situation as current statistics indicate that one in every five people is HIV positive in Southern Africa. (Census, 2003; SA Government website). When projecting the effect of this disease on the current average life expectancy of 52 years old, it is expected that HIV and AIDS will decrease life expectancy by approximately 10 years to 42 years of age. It is rather interesting to note that gender inequalities in Africa have greatly contributed to poverty. This became apparent by a survey conducted in all SADC member states between 1997 and 1998.

This highlighted that males were and are still currently favoured over females for labour and for education. The outcome of this is that young girls would not obtain a great deal of education, get married and have children early in their lives and subsequently stay at home looking after children as opposed to finding for formal employment. A study conducted in all SADC countries between 1997 to 1998 indicated that significant gender inequalities still exist. The current male-inclined society would favour males rather than females for disposing of assets in the case of death of a family member (Ramsamy. No date, no page) [online].

2.4 FORCES FOR CHANGE WITHIN THE NATIONAL SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Demographically South Africa is a very rich country resulting in a very diverse workforces in the workplace and cultural diversity is evident in the population as a whole. Based on the Census of 2001 of the approximately 46 million South Africans, (79% are Black Africans, 8.9% Coloured, 2.5% Asian or Indian and 9.6% White (Statistics South Africa, 2003). Black Africans therefore account for more than three-quarters of the total population. In terms of gender, 53% of the population is female and 47% male. South Africa is a country with 11 official languages which are spoken by a percentage of the population as follows: Afrikaans (13.3%), English (8.2%), Ndebele (1.6%), Pedi (9.4%), Sotho (7.9%), Swazi (2.7%), Tsonga (4.4%), Tswana (8.2%), Venda (2.3%), Xhosa (17.6%), Zulu (23.8%) with the unofficial business language for the country being English (No name, 2003) [online].

There are also 31 different cultures in existence. In terms of religious affiliations, South Africa has five different religions including Christians (80%), Muslim (2 %), Hindu (1.5%)

and indigenous beliefs and animist (28.5%) (Statistics South Africa, 2003). The Constitution of South Africa protects all religions, and according to this, no discrimination based on religious affiliation is allowed (South Africa, 1996). The Constitution further prevents any discrimination based on age, sexual orientation and disability. In terms of education levels in the country, 43.5% of the population has no education or only some primary education. African females have the lowest education followed by African males. It is also disturbing to note that 93.8% of the population have no educational qualifications further than school. Of the people aged 20 years and over, more than 20% have received no education, and only 6% have post-school qualifications. Among Africans, 12.1% have passed Grade 12, and only 3% have post-Grade 12 qualifications. At the upper end of the educational scale, 40.7% of Whites have passed Grade 12, and 30% of White males and 24% of White females have post-grade 12 qualifications (Statistics South Africa, 2003).

From an age distribution perspective the traditional pyramid structure which is characteristic to developing countries is starting to fade away. There are fewer children in the 0-4 years category than in the 5-9 and 10-13 years categories (Finnemore, 2000). Furthermore, South Africa has a young and escalating Black population - approximately 58% are between 15-65 years of age and a shrinking White population (Swanepoel, Erasmus, van Wyk and Schenk, 2000)

The Government website and Census data indicate that in 1996, 57% of the population was living in poverty which translates into approximately 19 million South Africans who are living below the poverty line, two thirds of whom were African Blacks. The general income distribution was amongst the most unequal in the world and the White income per capita was almost nine times higher than that of African Blacks. For the first time in

the county's history in 2001, the total income of the Black majority exceeded that of the White minority (Statistics South Africa, 2003). South Africa just like the rest of Africa is experiencing an HIV pandemic with 21 % of the total population being infected and 1 out of 4 pregnant women is HIV positive. The country is experiencing phenomenal crime levels with 1 in 3 women being raped and South Africa having the fifth highest kidnapping rate in the world and the third highest in Africa (Altbeker, 2005) [online]

The implications for the workplace are that understanding and appropriate management of cultural diversity is imperative as this influences individual expectations and assumptions. Booysen (2001) indicates that if cultural differences are managed incorrectly, this could lead to primary sources of misunderstanding, which would surface in the form of conflict, condescension, superiority, disrespect and inflexibility. These misunderstandings would therefore naturally be amplified within the context of a planned change effort.

2.4.1 South African Labour Legislation

After decades of Apartheid legislation and its application in South Africa, since 1995 intense endeavours concerning the correcting of historical inequalities within the workplace have taken place. This resulted in the promulgation of new labour legislation in the form of the Labour Relations Act of 1995 which came into effect in 1996, the Constitution of South Africa of 1996, and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997. Subsequent to that the Employment Equity (EE) Act came into effect in 1999, the Skills Development Act of 1998 and the Skills Development Levies Act in 1999. The purpose of these last two pieces of legislation was to ensure that appropriate Human Resources (HR) processes in the form of recruitment, selection, succession planning

and training & development took place of designated groups (Black people and women) and to ensure that skills gaps were addressed (Booyesen, 2005). As expected, this legislation resulted in Blacks i.e. Africans, Coloured and Indians, women and employees with disabilities becoming more integrated into the workplace. Therefore, issues of affirmative action, empowerment, diversity management and gender equality are rife within the workplace. Although this new legislation resulted in the inclusion of previously disadvantaged groups, it has conversely resulted in the brain drain, where skilled White South Africans became dissatisfied with living in South Africa and immigrated to other parts of the world. Vinassa (2001) states the primary reasons for South Africans leaving to work or study overseas as follows:

- Employment legislation is geared towards Blacks people
- Opportunities to acquire international work experience and to obtain exposure to diverse cultures
- Prospects to enhance marketability with overseas qualifications; and
- Opportunities to earn “hard” currency

Further to this additional legislation followed with the establishment of the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) Commission in 1999 and consequent strategies and policies were developed by Government and industry alike. The Black Economic Empowerment Act was implemented in 2003 and was followed by the Black Empowerment Industry Charters that suggested quotas for Black ownership and management. In 2004, Government published a drafted Code of Practice, which aimed to address the discrepancies and conflict brought about by the various industry charters. This code was also aimed at providing guidelines to various industry players on how to create their BEE schemes (Bouche & Booyesen, 2005; Rautenbach, 2005).

2.5 MODELS OF TRANSITION

Several models of change have been developed over the years. As per the delimitations of this study, this chapter will only review the most significant change models applicable to change models developed for individual transition.

In Appendix 1: Models of “Transition” (individual change), Van Tonder 2004 provides a summary of all the models, which have developed over the years with specific reference to individual change. All the models are based on Lewin’s unfreezing, moving/change and refreezing process. Irrespective of the number of stages that these models include, all of them effectively “expanded and contracted or specified the same generic transition process in greater or lesser detail” (Van Tonder, 2004: 167).

Given Kurt Lewin’s importance within the theory and practice of social on organisation psychology, it is therefore apt to discuss his beliefs that form the basis of his work. Lewin has been referred to as “the intellectual father of contemporary theories of applied behavioural science (Schein, 1992)”. These fundamentals therefore highlight the train of thought for the foundations of the models.

Lewin believed that the key to resolving social conflict was to facilitate Planned change through learning, and so allow individuals to comprehend and reorganise the work around them. A common theme emerging in the majority of his work is the belief that “...the group to which an individual belongs is the ground for his perceptions, his feelings and his actions’ (Allport 1948:vii). Burns (2004a) has revealed that Lewin’s Planned

approach to change encompassed of four elements: Field Theory, Group Dynamics, Action Research and the Three-Step Model of Change.

2.5.1 Field Theory

This is an approach to appreciating group behaviour by plotting out the entirety and intricacy of the field in which the behaviour takes place (Back, 1992). Lewin stated that: ‘one should view the present situation – the status quo-as being maintained by certain conditions or forces” (Lewin 1943a: 172). Lewin (1947) hypothesized that group behaviour is a complicated set of symbolic interactions and forces that influence group structures and individual behaviour. Therefore, individual behaviour is an outcome of the group environment or”field” as he termed it. Subsequently, changes in behaviour result from either small or large changes being experienced in the forces inside the field (Lewin, 1947).

2.5.2 Group Dynamics

Group Dynamics emphasises that group behaviour, as opposed to that of individuals, should be the central focus of change (Bernstein, 1968; Dent & Goldberg, 1999). Lewin (1947) asserts that it is ineffective to focus on changing the behaviour of individuals due to the fact that the individual in isolation is controlled by group pressures to conform. Thus, the focus of change must be that at the group level and should concentrate on aspect such as group norms, roles, interactions and socialization processes to create “disequilibrium” and change (Schein, 1992).

2.5.3 Action Research

Lewin envisaged Action Research as an iterative, bilateral process whereby research leads to action, and action leads to evaluation and further action (Lewin, 1947). Its theoretical foundations are based in psychology that stresses that change can only be successfully achieved by helping individuals to reflect on and gain new insights into the totality of their situation (Smith, 2001) [online]. As Schein (1996:64) comments, it was Lewin's view that "...one cannot understand an organisation without trying to change it...". Indeed, Lewin's view was very much of that the understanding and learning which this process produces for the individuals and groups concerns which then feeds into change behaviour, is more important than any resulting change as such.

Action research draws on both Field Theory to identify the forces that found the group to which the individuals belongs, and Group Dynamics, to understand why group members behave in the way they do when subjected to these forces. This therefore stresses that for change to be effective, it must be a participative and collaborative process which involves all of those concerned (Lewin, 1947; Allport, 1948; French & Bell, 1990; Bargal, Gold & Lewin, 1992; Day, Elliot, Somekh & Winter, 2002).

2.5.4 The Three-Step Model of Change

Lewin believed that a successful change project involved three steps during which the forces maintaining the existing organisational behaviour are moved to bring about new organisational behaviours, values and attitudes. The change is institutionalised by using supporting means including culture, norms, policies and structures (Coetzee, Fourie & Roodt, 2002). The steps are as follows:

2.5.4.1 Step 1: Unfreezing

Lewin believes human behaviour was based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium supported by a complex field of forces. Before old behaviour can be discarded (unlearned) and new behaviour successfully adopted, the equilibrium needs to be destabilised (unfrozen).

2.5.4.2 Step 2: Moving.

Schein (1996) indicates that Unfreezing is not an end in itself; it "...created motivation to learn but does not necessarily control or predict the direction". The Action-Research based learning approach enables groups and individuals to move to a more acceptable set of behaviours.

2.5.4.3 Step 3: Refreezing

This seeks to stabilize the group at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that the new behaviours are relatively safe from regression. The new behaviour must be, to some degree, congruent with the rest of the behaviour, personality and environment of the learning or it will simply lead to a new round of disconfirmation (Schein, 1996). This is why Lewin saw successful change as a group activity, because unless group norms and routines are also transformed, the changes to individual behaviour will not be sustained. In organisational terms, refreezing often requires changes to organisational culture, norms, policies and practices (Cummings and Worley, 2001).

Several change models have been developed and proposed since then to incorporate between five and seven different stages. On briefly evaluating these models one can deduce the following:

- The process of transition can be segmented into phases in various ways
- These models differ not only in terms of the phases through which the individual moves, but also in terms of the levels at which the transition could take place

The concept of organisational culture however plays a significant role in organisational change, as culture has been acknowledged to play an important role in ensuring efforts in organisational change (Ahmed, 1998; DeLisi, 1990; Lorenzo, 1998; Schneider & Brief, 1996; Silvester & Anderson, 1999; Pool, 2000). According to Veldsman (2003) this is the 'glue' that holds the organisation together. Although several definitions of culture exist, organisational culture is seen as "holistic, historically determined and socially constructed". Culture includes values and actions at a range of levels, and reveals itself in a broad range of characteristics of organisational existence (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders, 1990). As such, organisational culture refers to a set of common principles, opinions, assumptions and traditions that shape and direct members' attitudes and behaviour within the corporation (Denison, 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wilson, 2001). Organisational culture is defined by Veldsman (2003:5) as a common but unique way of understanding, interpreting and responding to entities, events and outcomes shared by a set of organisational members. The following themes are therefore important regarding the definition of organisational culture:

- a. A common, but unique way: organisational culture provides a number of people with a parallel but divergent way of viewing themselves and their environment. Culture assists them to appreciate their comparative value, reality and stance on issues. Organisational culture can be said to be to the company what personality is to the individual.

- b. Understanding, interpreting and responding: organisational culture encompasses both pictures (for comprehending and understanding), and maps (ways of reacting with reverence to objects, proceedings and outcomes. Organisational culture bears a strong figurative quality. It signifies other things. The pictures and maps are not the objects themselves but simply depictions of them.

- c. Shared amongst a set of organisational members: organisational culture is a communally built reality created and recreated on a continuing basis by members, which make group achievement possible . Culture resides through its members being both inclusive and exclusive. Culture includes people who have internalised the normal views embraced by the culture, but also excludes those who do not subscribe to those notions. Organisational culture therefore unifies but also separates (Meyerson & Martin, 1987). There is therefore a real likelihood that several cultures may exist within the same organisation.

From this discussion it can therefore be deduced that an organisational culture is the general arrangement of meanings internalised by a group of organisational members which characterises the organisation as a living entity in a distinctive manner. Therefore the description of culture as the “fabric or glue” that keeps the organisation united is quite fitting (Graves. 1986; Schneider, 1988).

As a bond, organisational culture can be typified in terms of following fundamental elements (Kotter & Heskett 1992; Nahavandi and Malekzadeh 1993; Robbins 1996; Schein 1985; Schneider 1990; Williams, Dobson and Walters 1990):

- From established, deep-rooted to immature, emerging;

- From well connected to highly disjointed
- From strongly held, highly internalised to weakly held, externally enforced
- From rigid, stagnant to adaptable, vibrant; and
- From broadly to narrowly shared between organisational members

Each of these dimensions, separately or jointly, differently influences how organisational culture will act as “glue” of the organisation. It will also therefore influence how the individual employee experiences a planned organisational change effort within the organisation.

Organisational culture consists of a number of basic building blocks which influence the manner in which employees anticipate, recognise, interpret and respond to matters. The most regularly accepted building blocks that structure culture on how to describe this are assumptions, beliefs, values, norms and attitudes (Schein, 1985; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2002). These building blocks can be defined as follows:

- *Assumptions*: patently obvious (or taken for granted) statements. Assumptions provide organisational members with a starting point from which entities, proceedings or results are comprehended, deciphered and reacted to.
- *Beliefs*: acknowledged realities about entities, proceedings, results and their interrelationships. Beliefs provide organisational members a fresh worldview.
- *Values*: the comparative value given to entities, proceedings or results. Comparative value can be articulated in terms of significance appeal or correctness. Values shape the substance of the organisation’s beliefs and people’s work ethic.

- *Norms*: established principles of behaviour towards entities, proceedings or results. Norms dictate the modes operandi in the organisation.
- *Attitudes*: learned tendency to react in a uniform manner, be it positive or negative, to specific entities, proceedings or results. Opinions make it possible for organisational members to steer, lead and prioritise their actions.

All these building blocks form the core of organisational cultures. They have no value in and of themselves. The essence is created, improved, supported, guarded and replenished by cultural carriers within the business. These bodies exemplify the cultures of the organisation and bring it to life. They serve as fountain head (or source) and torchbearer of the organisation's culture. For that reason cultural carriers play a dual role in bringing the crux of culture to life: they make and use culture in the processes of improving, supporting, guarding and replenishing organisational culture. The dual effort is enduring and recursive, carriers exploit culture in order to create culture which is again utilised by them (Trice & Beyer; 1993). They are therefore as much a part of the culture as they are "apart" from culture. (Veldsman; 2003) Carriers include managers and leaders within the organisation.

Tierney (1999) found employees' relations with their leaders and colleagues form their opinions to the organisation. How the employees' perceive the change conditions within the business is consistent with those of their colleagues and supervisors. The nature of the relationship between the supervisor and employee is critical for employees' opinion of the change climate.

On a day-to-day basis, researchers suggest that the seven characteristics that will capture organisational culture are as follows (Robbins et al, 2004):

1. *Innovation and risk-taking*: the degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks
2. *Attention to detail*: the degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail.
3. *Outcome orientation*: the degree to which management focuses on results out outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes
4. *People orientation*: the degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effects of outcomes on people within the organisation.
5. *Team orientation*: the degree to which work activities are organised around teams and not individuals
6. *Aggressiveness*: the degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going
7. *Stability*: the degree to which organisational activities emphasise maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth

Robbins et al, 2004 states that in general the workforce of many South African companies are divided along different lines including management level, ethnic grouping, unionisation etc. These companies are managed by a control paradigm of fear and punishment in order to obtain results. South African companies also have strict policies, rules and procedures which stifle creativity and innovation. This results in the companies not being responsive to market trends and customer demands. This control paradigm therefore results in low levels of commitment and performance. These findings of Robbins et al (2004) would then be in line with the outcomes of the research conducted by the World Competitiveness Report of 2006 in which South Africa was rated 44th out of 61 countries globally. This was an improvement from the performance

displayed in 2005 where South Africa was rated 46th out of the 61 countries. Apparently, the more successful companies have already addressed these forces for change in their macro-environment and are currently grappling with changes in their immediate operating environments. The less successful companies are seemingly still struggling with forces in their macro-environments, No name: 2006 [online].

Given the challenges outlined above, the need for individuals in the organisation who are able to lead the change effectively becomes apparent. This role is explored in the next section.

2.6 THE ROLE OF CHANGE AGENTS WITHIN ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Often the function and importance of the change agent within a change process is underestimated. The need for an individual who will drive the change effectively through the organisation is one of the characteristics of a successful change effort.

2.6.1 The Roles of the Change Agent

The change agent within the company has to ensure that organisational development (OD) takes place within the organisation. Depending on the structure of the organisation, some organisations refer to the change department whose core tasks are to deal with change as organisational development, with the change agent being the organisational developer. OD has been defined as a set of behavioural science-based theories, values, strategies and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organisation work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving

organisational performance, through the alteration of organisational members' on-the-job behaviour (King & Anderson, 2002).

Caldwell (2003) mentions that this approach to change has its beginnings in the revolutionary work of Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) and the assortment of traditions of OD research and practice. Based on Lewin's work in conjunction with others, most models of OD focus on the implementation of "planned change" as an incremental or enduring process designed to enhance organisational wellbeing or functioning. The role of the OD in instances is to supply technical specialist or consulting support in the management of the change effort, which may take on several forms. Some situations call for an "advisor" role whilst others may accent the role of the consultant as "educator", "counsellor" or "analyst" (Feltham, 1999). Caldwell (2003) indicates there are however limitations to the role of a change as organisational developer that should be noted as follows:

- The change agent role as organisational developer is more apt to planned change within somewhat stable organisations that have both the resources and time to implement incremental change (Dunphy & Stace, 1993)
- The assumption made with the majority of OD models is that change can be designed in a logical and linear manner (Pettigrew & Whipp, 1993; Van Tonder, 2004)
- The role of OD practitioner as change agent is viewed as more focused on implementation difficulties after senior management has determined the strategic course for change and is restricted to discrete initiatives intended to normalise, institutionalise and stabilise change; and

- The OD practise of often unclear about the scope, mechanisms and outcomes of the project and so the change agent role is rarely subject to measures of “effectiveness”

2.6.2 Selecting the Change Agent

Determining who will act as the change agents within a planned change initiative is a key task within the change process due to the fact that many change efforts have failed as a consequence of the inappropriate individuals being selected as the change agents (Hall, Rosenthal & Wade, 1993). The authors state that two decisions need to be made in this regard:

2.6.2.1 Types of People

Several options, which need to be scrutinised carefully about the type of people required for change agents, are available to the organisation. Alternatives could include the individuals or groups from the line (directly connected to the product, service and customer) or staff organisations. Individual choices may include (1) the individual employee or manager, (2) individual staff member or manager or (3) internal or external consultant. Group options would include:

- Work teams,
- A unit of the organisation (i.e. department)
- Cross-functional teams
- Diagonal slice teams (i.e. this is a team representing various departments and levels of an organisation’s hierarchy: Lawler, 1991) or

- A parallel organisation (i.e. a separate organisation that functions independently and parallel to the hierarchy of the larger organisation: Kanter; 1983).

The criteria for choosing between the alternatives would include an assessment of the following factors (Gelinias & James; 1996):

- Required buy-in
- Time constraints on the initiative
- Potential for impact
- Depth of the initiative
- Organisation vision regarding culture
- Type of change required

2.6.2.2 Category of People

Criteria for choosing specific individuals also include those who (Gelinias & James, 1993; Lawler, 1991):

- Are respected by their peers and opinion leaders
- Have the expertise to assess and solve problems
- Understand the importance of involving key stakeholders and are willing to build their understanding and commitment
- Speak opening and honestly, challenge ideas and think independently
- Are personally skilled or willing to learn to become so; and
- Represent the diversity of the organisation or part of the organisation that is the focus of the initiative. This includes age, gender, race, ethnicity, education, experience and attitude.

Connor, (1998) and Kotter (1996) specify that organisational change professionals have two primary responsibilities i.e. to implement and manage change and to enhance resilience.

2.6.3 Implementing and Managing Change

Change professionals are responsible for implementing and managing change. This stems from the need to ensure that change is supported at the operational level of the organisation. Therefore, employees must support change or it does not become a permanent part of the organisational culture. Organisational change professionals do not implement change. However, they must have the competence to implement the change. By identifying and profiling key factors for change, they lead employees through the necessary steps for increasing change capacity (Connor, 1998; Kotter, 1996).

2.6.4 Enhancing Resilience

Although organisational effectiveness implies continuous change and development, employees, senior managers and executives differ in their ability to adapt to or recover from the change. This is one kind of change. The capacity of these members to absorb change without destroying the firm or individual energies is referred to as resilience. Change professionals are challenged to strengthen employees' adaptability to change, both personally and professionally (Connor, 1998; Kotter, 1996).

LaMarsh (1995) however summarises the primary roles and responsibilities of the change agent as per Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3 PRIMARY ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CHANGE AGENT

Key Responsibility	Targeted Performance
Understand the Change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify and measure the impact of the change on the people, structures, processes and culture of the organisation • Determine the level and type of sponsorship required • Determine the primary and secondary sources of resistance by the target population
Manage the Change	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systematically apply the principles of effective change management • Build organisation and structure into the experienced uncertainty whenever possible • Integrate multiple changes into a common plan and apply sound project management principles to all the required changes
Deal with People	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Listen to the employees • Translate the messages to targets and sponsors in a language that is meaningful to them • Build team strength at the project level, in the senior management group, and among target groups • Use appropriate processes to identify, monitor and track the changes • Develop effective coaching and counselling techniques • Know when to solve problems and how to do it effectively • Know when to delegate and how to manage the delegated

Source: Adapted from LaMarsh, 1995.

The overview provided by Table 2.3. demonstrates that the role of the change agent is therefore fundamental to the success of the planned change initiative.

Change agents can build or destroy how change is applied with the organisation and received by employees. As those leading the change, they have to display technical proficiency and social poise. Theoretically they should be viewed as knowledgeable regarding the procedures being altered, but also how it interrelates with and impinges on other processes within the organisation. This develops their integrity as leaders. Being technically proficient alone however is insufficient. Change agents are required to shift from situation to situation from supportive to directive styles. To be successful, leaders must be able to communicate personal expectations in a non-confrontational and non-threatening manner. Ultimately, a triumphant change agent should exhibit a convincing need and a zealous drive to engage the entire organisation's cooperation (Boehringer & Robert, 1998).

Research indicates that employees need to feel that they are able to trust the change agent, which could be the first real step on the way to accepting the change itself. Agents of change assist to bring about this impression of trust by their attitude and relations with others. They should be viewed by employees as being tactful and politically unbiased. They should ideally have the capacity to have an effect on policy (Boehringer & Robert, 1998).

The content outlined highlights the importance of selecting the appropriate person as the change agent since the roles and responsibilities associated with this function require specific characteristics which influence the ability of the change agent to purposefully engage with the workforce.

Managers also need to engage with employees during a period of change.

2.7 THE ROLE OF MANAGERS WITHIN ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Yukl (2002) states that leading change is one of the most imperative and complex leadership tasks. Some theorists regard this as the nucleus of leadership with other responsibilities being less important. Effective leadership is necessary to rejuvenate an organisation and aid the acclimatisation to a changing environment. The leader will need to strive to achieve this whilst overcoming overwhelming challenges. .

2.7.1 Change Management and Leadership Challenges facing the South African Manager

The South African Manager faces mammoth challenges in the management of their organisations currently as the country strives to shake off the legacies of the past. South Africa as a country experienced intense sanctions from the world community before 1994 due to the apartheid system governing the country at the time. Subsequently the country was excluded from all activities in the international arena, which resulted in severe negative consequences on the economic growth of the country, as well as on the conduct of business and management of organisations. After the first democratic elections in 1994 in which the first democratically elected Government came into being, organisational leaders were instantaneously faced with extraordinary challenges that were brought about by their return to the international playing fields (Lufthans, van Wyk & Walumbwa, 2004). Initially, South African Managers merely had to manage their own

operations within a controlled environment including merely focusing on their own operations without the threat of international companies encroaching on their terrain. The challenge increased to not only running their operations in a highly competitive international market (Gerber et al., 1987), but also additional concerns including managing the post-apartheid organisational culture, grappling with the challenges of newly promulgated labour legislation including affirmative action (AA) and employment equity (EE) and ethnic and language diversity (Lufthans, van Wyk & Walumbwa, 2004).

Denton and Vloegberghs (2003) indicate that although there are positive signs in the country, the historical, political, social and economic matters still present challenges to the country as a whole and to South African leaders in particular. Booyesen (2005: 19) points out that a new interesting tendency is becoming more prevalent within the South African workplace. The so-called "honeymoon phase of integrating the rainbow-nation" is rapidly ending and people are becoming more candid about the change and lack of change that has taken place in the country. In the workplace this also includes the presence of more honest deliberations on racism between the newly appointed African Blacks who were brought into the organisation at the beginning of democracy and Whites who had occupied desired positions all along. Concerns around race and racism are being unearthed and openly discussed. Research conducted by Ngambi, 2002; Booyesen and Ngambi, 2004 and Booyesen 2004a; 2004b refer to this phenomenon as intergroup tension. These writers also indicate that the South African workplace today is typified by blatant, deep-seated tensions and that the Whites are only now realising the extent and depth of the tensions between the previously advantaged and disadvantaged groups.

Due to equity legislation, more Black South Africans are being represented at all levels within the organisation; however the following is still prevalent in organisations in South Africa (Booyesen, 2005):

- Numerical discrepancies between male and female and White and Black managers
- Insignificant representation of females in management training; and
- Ineptness of affirmative action and employment equity in addressing the discrepancies identified brought aligned with Afrocentric and feminine values in management.

Booyesen (2004a) indicates that the implementation of AA and EE legislation has also brought about open discussions about tokenism, reverse discrimination, job-hopping, White-male fears and cultural diversity. What is also more prevalent now which was unheard of in the early stages of the country's democracy is the criticism from the second wave of AA candidates against the first wave of AA candidates i.e. people who were in exile or on Robben island.

From a cultural perspective, the South African organisation is moving towards becoming more culturally diverse with both collective and individualistic cultural values being represented (Mbingi, 2000). However being in a transitional period, the country still faces interesting situations. Booyesen (2005) states that although all is supposed to be equal, the reality is that the Whites still have authority and control in the organisation whilst simultaneously feeling devalued. On the other hand the Blacks are still the lesser group in the workplace with them being scapegoats whilst feeling unrecognised and devalued. In addition, racial, generation and gender differences each with their own dynamics still present challenges which the manager needs to be able to manage effectively.

Gerber et al, (1997) takes the view that South African organisations can be viewed as micro-representatives of the greater social environment that are confronted by “crucible challenges” in creating new workplace in creating new workplace cultures. The task of creating new cultures is the responsibility of Managers which means that they require unique leadership skills. In his opinion, new perspectives need to be developed on the nature, purpose and structures of the organisation and the influence that change, particularly that of human resources, may have on organisational functioning, culture and ultimate effectiveness.

Research conducted by Williams et al, 2003, which aimed to explore individual experiences of constant change within a South African organisation documented the influence that Managers have on an organisational change effort as follows:

- Employees experience a lack of participation in the change process
- Employees are usually unaware of the end result of the change process
- Management is inconsistent and unfair in their practices
- Employees do not trust Management. Difficulty is experienced by employees in determining whether management is being truthful which creates a credibility problem for middle managers when dealing with their subordinates
- Organisational change is not well planned but rather hurried to meet artificial deadlines
- Change is made more complex by Managers than what it needs to be
- Financial results of the business are not shared with the employees which results in reduced employee understanding of the significance of their efforts on the business. Consequently, employee speculation is rife which results in inaccurate conclusions being drawn; and

- Managers often evade their role and responsibility in implementing the changes and hide behind vague statements from unknown shareholders.

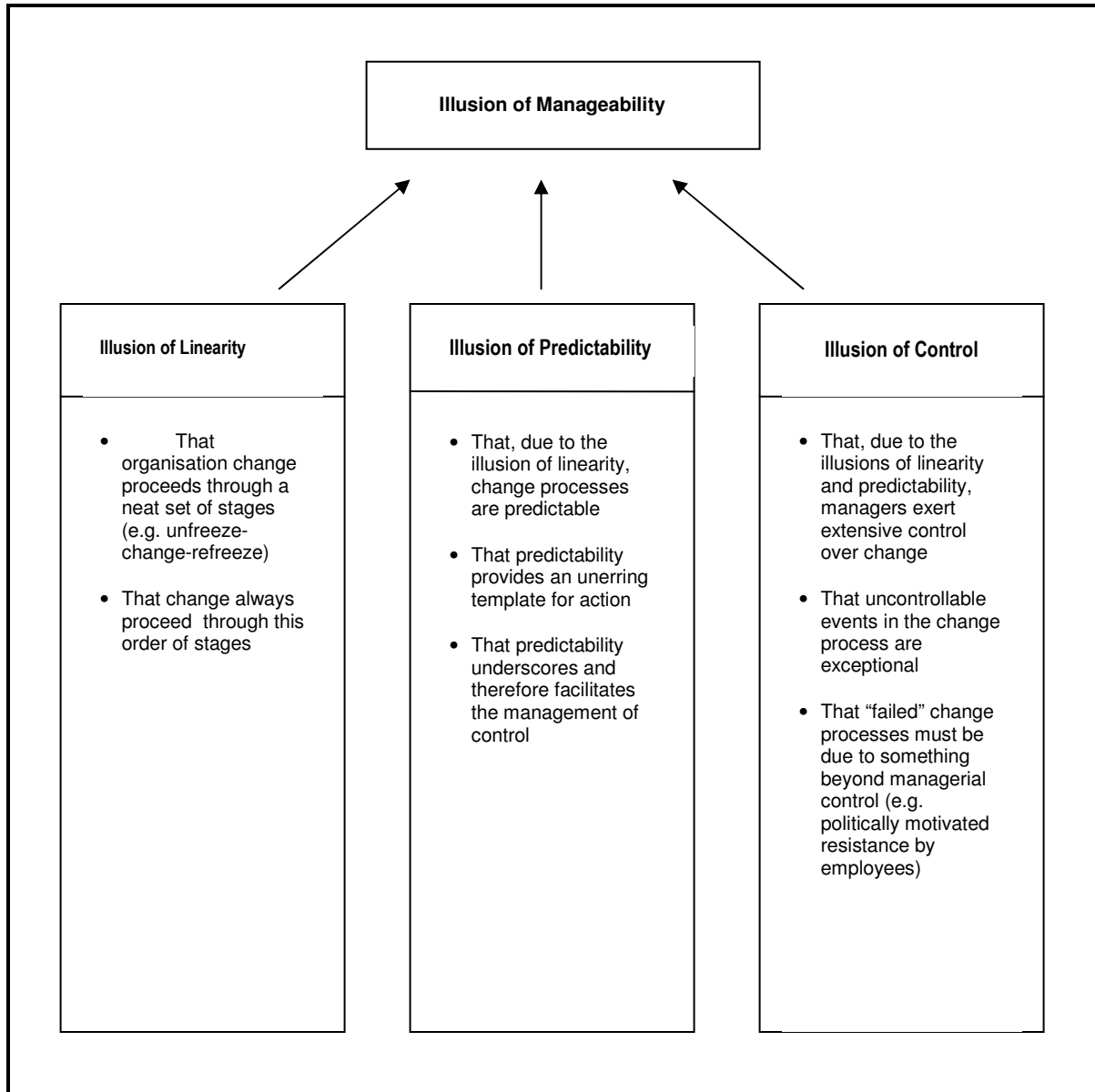
According to Williams et al (2003) these findings have been consistent with literature of change management practices

Booyesen (2005) states that the South African manager needs to become culturally intelligent and mentions that all social groups should build up new norms and regulations by unlearning their old, mental encoding and behaviour patterns and to learn new ones

2.7.2 The Illusion of Manageability

Most change management models predict the change process as a precise set of stages. Less experienced managers may consequently have too much confidence in these oversimplified models and may therefore attempt to implement them as such in practice. King and Anderson (2002) refer to the illusion of manageability as per Figure 2.3.

FIGURE 2.2 THE ILLUSION OF MANAGEABILITY OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE



Source: King & Anderson, 2002

This model argues that this general illusion of manageability is composed of three sets of illusory beliefs: the illusions of linearity, predictability and control.

The illusion of linearity states that less experienced managers may give too much credibility to the overabundance of multistage models and endeavour to see these oversimplified models implemented in 'neat stages' reality. More experienced managers however, will appreciate that there are problems that could be experienced within the change including:

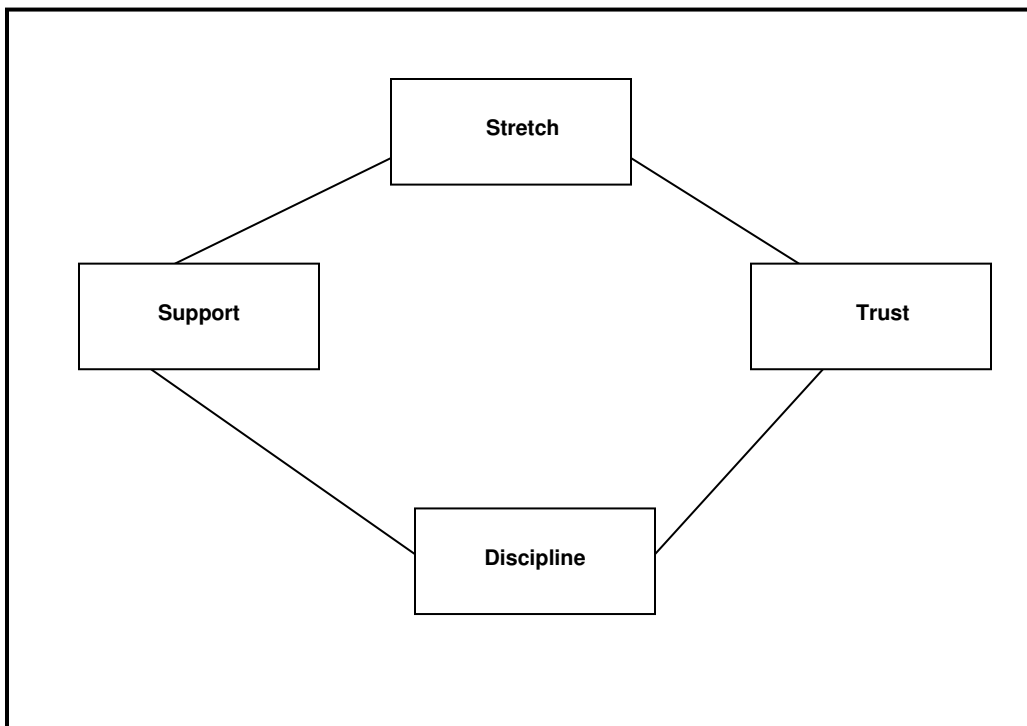
- One step backwards for every step forward (or vice-versa)
- Various processes of change taking place at numerous levels of analysis, all of which could be at very different stages of development
- Multiple pressures for moving in different directions from management, employees, etc.

The illusion of predictability stems from the one of linearity which is the related conviction that change processes are mainly predictable at least to the degree that the next phase of the procedure can be precisely anticipated. Research supports the view that organisation procedures have many unforeseen and unexpected events and that a major distraction in the planned process may need to be handled. In combination with the illusion of linearity and predictability, this could lead unsuspecting managers to overrate their own levels of personal authority and influence over organisational change, which is referred to as the 'illusion of control' (King & Anderson, 2002). The views expressed on the illusion of manageability is also supported by further authors who indicate that change can be influenced, but not directed, controlled, managed or imposed in the absolute sense (Seel, 2000, 2001; Van Tonder, 2004).

2.7.3 Creating a Renewed Behavioural Context

Bartlett and Ghoshal (1995) investigate the reasons for a number of companies being able to remain vibrant even following a massive reengineering project, whilst others fail completely. In their investigation of several companies, they developed a model, which identifies the environmental context that managers in the organisation need to establish which would shape management opinions and actions such that they would be able to invigorate their organisations and alter their individual employee's behaviour. The foundation would need to be created by using four elements as depicted in Figure 2.3.

FIGURE 2.3 MANAGEMENT CONTEXT



Source: Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995

2.7.3.1 Discipline

A management framework formed by discipline does not rely on authority relations or management policies as a course for affecting individual behaviour. Instead self-discipline is incorporated into the course of the organisation's continuing operations and is prevalent in every facet of corporate daily existence. In disciplined corporations, people achieve more than following orders and complying with policies e.g. Phone-calls are returned speedily, people arrive at meetings timeously, employees abstain from questioning decisions in the passageway which were made in the boardroom and most importantly, employees follow through on agreements and commitments. Where this approach is employed, it persuades employees to make every effort to voluntarily achieve and surpass their own commitments.

2.7.3.2 Support

In companies that have effectively entrenched a renewal process, managers have discarded the conventional relationship found between manager and subordinate which is distinguished by official reporting structures, and have alternatively followed a slant of having a relations characterised by coaching, assisting and leading. In self-renewing companies a background of support is likely to become a persuasive concept since it is developed on layers of individual behaviour and cultural norms which form its basis, as opposed to being superimposed through systems and reporting relations.

2.7.3.3 Trust

Self-revitalising companies have prevented the promotion of cool, distant relationships by establishing trust in their management context. This attribute encourages people to believe in each other's opinions and depend on each other's commitment. This trait is most certainly evident in transparent, open management processes that provide employees with a sense of equity and involvement.

2.7.3.4 Stretch

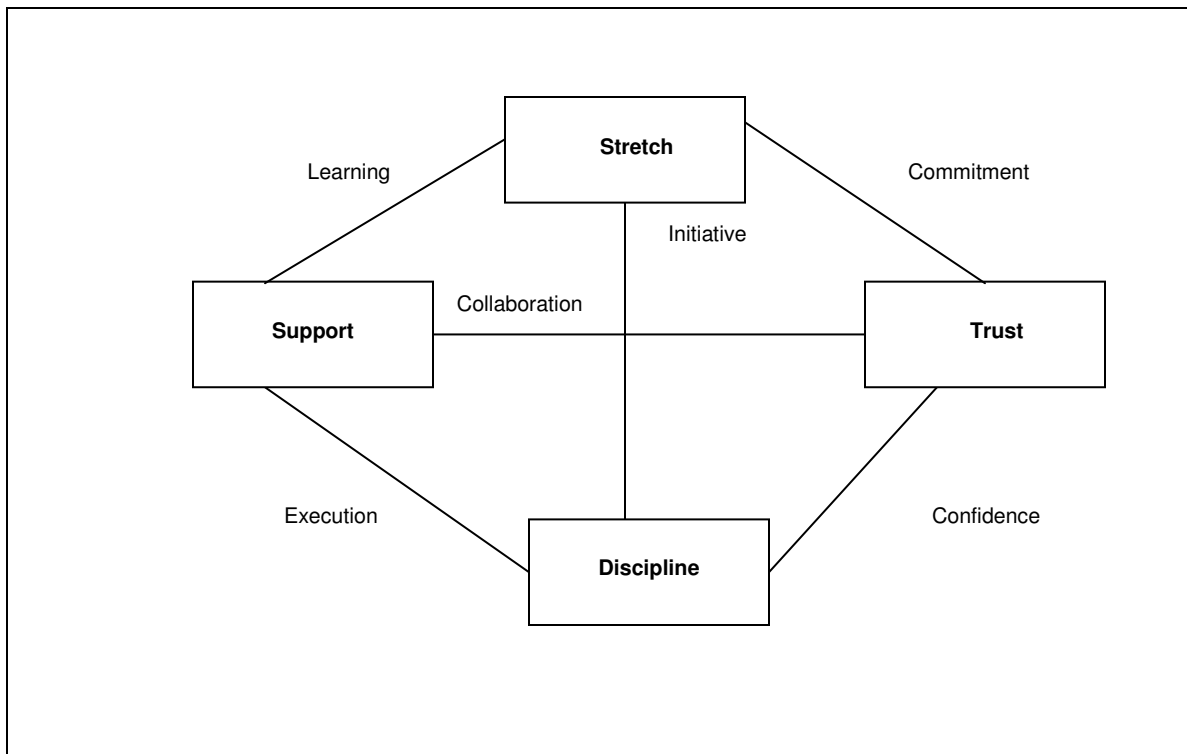
In self-renewing companies, top management takes great efforts to substitute an internal environment that hinder viewpoints and prohibits behaviour with one that encourages employees to endeavour for more, rather than less, ambitious objectives. Thus, stretch is the uninhibited, energizing component of managerial context that lifts individual ambitions and encourages people to elevate their expectations of themselves and others. When people feel stretched in a company, they are perpetually encouraged to view themselves and the organisation in terms of its potential and not in terms of its precedent or present-day restrictions.

2.7.4 Framing New Individual Behaviours

According to Ghoshal and Bartlett (1995) once this managerial context has been created from the four underpinning characteristics, people learn to function in an environment that is on the one hand very disciplined and challenging yet on the other, trusting and secure. The corresponding yet opposing forces permit the organisation to cultivate the energy and route to direct its dynamic renewal process. Therefore, at the end, the

strength of the behavioural context can be found in the effect the behaviour of individual organisational members. This can be seen in Figure 2.4.

FIGURE 2.4 MANAGEMENT CONTEXT AND INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR



Source: Bartlett & Ghoshal (1995)

The aptitude and enthusiasm of people to take initiative is rooted to the pressure between stretch and discipline, as stretch is the source of energy and discipline transforms the energy into concrete and time-bound action.

The fusion of trust and support stimulates cooperation and collaboration. Trust makes cooperation sought after; support allows individuals to switch that desire into action.

Beyond initiative and cooperation, other behaviours are also necessary including, openness to learning, the courage of confidence, the motivation to commit, and the capacity to execute.

In redefining the behavioural context around the dimensions of discipline, support, trust and stretch, top management is reframing the organisation's morals and expectations as well as redefining the quality of the relationship between the company and its employees. Therefore the outdated view that the organisation pressures the individual to be consistent with firmly defined corporate norms is being substituted with what the authors refer to as the "individualised corporation". In an extreme turnaround the company must change and find methods to make use of each employee's rare knowledge and individual capabilities to the full.

The impact of change on the role of managers is significant since managers are both the object and agency of change (Storey, 1992:214). They have to consent to a descent in the overall conventional managerial role whilst simultaneously put into practice their new facilitating and empowering role (Goffee & Scase, 1992). To adequately bring about change, new competencies are required of management incorporating a set of interpersonal skills including: listening, communicating, team-building, facilitating, negotiating and conflict resolution. Senge (2001:2) also suggests that the attitudes of change leadership within "learning organisations" are concerned with "the capacity to sustain change that brings forth new realities". The challenge of leading change is also heightened by the very real possibilities that managers may have their own fears and may themselves be resisting the change that they are required to lead. Often a negative perception regarding management resistance is taken and the reasons for resistance and could easily be dismissed as being reasons of fear or self-interest. On the other

hand, there could be positive aspects to management resistance (Perren & Megginson, 1996: 27):

1. *“Resistance could prevent folly”* – managers resisting change could frequently have a more in-depth understanding of the organisational consequences than others directing the change.
2. *“Blindness to the value of resistance isolates leaders”* – change leaders could find themselves leading change without any followers. Taking note of resisters concerns are steps towards genuine and meaningful change.
3. *“Skilled resistance saves skins”* – resistance provides the organisational developer with a possibility to assist resisters at becoming accomplished or even refined at resisting the change. It will also give them an opportunity to save careers which may have been ruined, as well as to empower managers to contest poorly designed change projects.

Overall the requirements for leading change either as a change agent and even more so as management are numerous. In a study conducted by Woodward and Hendry (2004) on leading and coping with change, employees were asked to stipulate the manners in which those leading change could on occasions create problems or make it difficult for employees to absorb or adjust to the change. The crucial areas which employees saw as obstacles to absorbing and coping with change were grouped into six categories:

1. *Communicating* (not being kept informed, receiving conflicting messages, wanting to understand but not being given explanations)
2. *The change process itself* (when change was seen as occurring too slowly or too quickly, when leaders were perceived as having unrealistic expectations, or when the change was managed with incorrect sequencing);

3. *Relationship* (including circumstances when change leaders seemed distant and isolated from employees, did not display productive attitudes and behaviour or behaved in an dictatorial way)
4. *Consultation* (when employees did not feel they updated or consulted and when staff requests and ideas were ignored)
5. *Skills and experience* (when change leaders were viewed as deficient in the necessary skills, abilities and experience); and
6. *Reason for change* (when there seemed to be no participation or enthusiasm for change with top or senior management)

Chapter three entails the scrutiny of the innermost aspects of the individual during a change situation.

3 CHAPTER 3: JOB CONSTRUCTS AND THE IMPACT OF CHANGE ON THE HUMAN BEING

Chapter 3, the heart of the literature review provides a review of the human aspect within the organisational context. This incorporates a discussion of the individual in terms of the psychological contract, values, attitudes, beliefs, a psychodynamic view of the individual and the effect that the change experience has on the individual. Issues of racism and beliefs between races within the South African context are also examined with respect to individual behaviour. This chapter also delves into the aspect of resistance towards change and ways of overcoming resistance by assisting them through a personal transition.

3.1 UNDERSTANDING THE INDIVIDUAL

All individuals within the workplace are different even though their general external appearance may be very much the same. The internal differences that exist include values, attitudes, personality and perceptions. These various differences cause people to choose various behaviours or decisions when faced with the same situations (Carrel et al. 1997). Since minor actions can have a considerable and unpredictable results, individual human activity assumes great importance (Kiel, 1994).

The individual's ability to respond to changes in the workplace is affected by several factors. One of the most important yet most ignored issues by employers relates to the psychological contract of employment.

3.1.1 The Psychological Contract

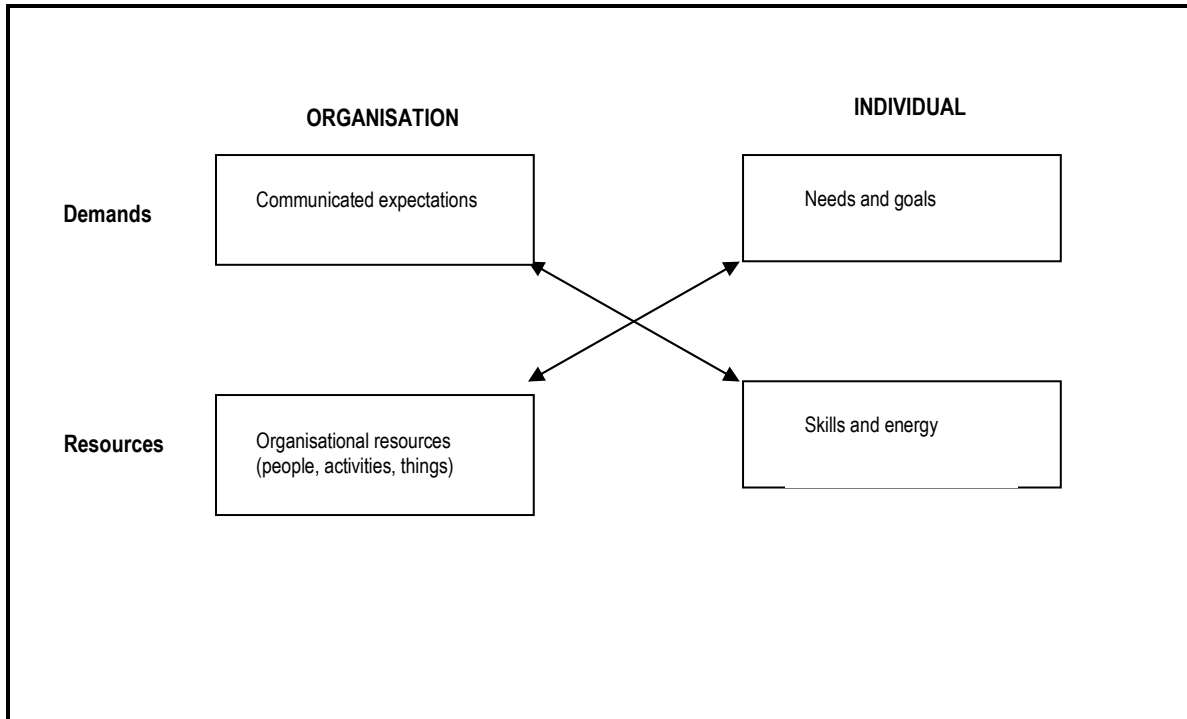
The human being enters the workplace with needs and expectations from the organisation. These expectations are not only expressed in the formal contract of employment but also the psychological contract of employment.

Volpe (1999a) defines the psychological contract, as “A psychological contract comprises of that which is not written on paper and formally agreed to between an employer and an employee. It is a set of expectations, (which we carry around in our heads) of ourselves, of others, and of the context within which we find ourselves”. This incorporates the beliefs, principles, hopes and ambitions for the employer and employee (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). This is therefore a set of mutual responsibilities and implied promises perceived by the employee (Robinson, 1996; Rousseau, 1990). This contract is the one that defines our potential for growth and development within a given environment (Volpe, 1999a).

Volpe (1999a) further states that two types of contracts exist i.e. the old and new psychological contracts. The old psychological contract is what dominates organisations currently and is characterised by: no sense of self-trust, entitlement, career ladder, good employee, autocracy, exclusivity, independence and power. Volpe (1999b) advocates that today’s organisations need to move towards the characteristics of the New Psychological Contract. This contract is characterised by concepts such as self-sufficiency self-responsibility, and mutual viability. This contract also aligns itself with the global business pull towards autonomy and accountability.

Porter (1975:109) defined the psychological contact has been defined as the “dynamics of organisation-individual interactions” and he conceptualises this relationship as represented in Figure 3.1 as follows:

FIGURE 3.1 THE DYNAMICS OF ORGANISATION-INDIVIDUAL INTERACTION



Source: Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975

As indicated by the arrows in Figure 3.1, the different needs of the individual and the organisation represents the tapping of shared resources. Therefore, the communicated expectations of the organisation make demands on the ability and energy of the individuals, while the contentment of the individuals' needs relies on certain resources within the organisation. Thus, the success of the working relationship between the organisation and the individual can only be developed and maintained if both parties respond to the mutual expectations and needs. Schein (1980:11) makes the following remarks about the importance of the psychological contract:

“By way of conclusion, I would like to underline the importance of the psychological contract as a major variable of analysis. It is my central hypothesis that whether a person is working effectively, whether he generates commitment, loyalty, and enthusiasm for the organisation and its goals, and whether he obtains satisfaction from his work, depends to a large measure on two conditions: (1) the degree to which his own expectations of what the organisation will provide him and what he owes the organisation match what the organisation's are of what it will give and get; (2) assuming there is an agreement on expectations, what actually is to be exchanged – money in exchange for time at work' social-need satisfaction and security in exchange for work and loyalty; opportunities for self-actualization and challenging work in exchange for high productivity, quality work and creative effort in the service of organisational goals; or various combinations of these and other things. Ultimately the relationship between the individual and organisation is interactive, unfolding through mutual bargaining to establish a workable psychological contract. We cannot understand the psychological dynamics if we look only to the individuals motivations or only to organisation conditions and practices. The two interact in a complex fashion”.

The psychological contract is a dynamic and changes in the course of time. These changes take place in accordance with changed needs of both the individual employee and the organisation. As a consequence of the unwritten nature of the psychological contract, this contract has a dynamic character that requires constant renegotiation. An employee's behaviour within an organisation may be regarded as the function of his or her perception of the content of the psychological contract entered into with the organisation (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk: 1987). Once an employee feels that this psychological contract has been broken between themselves and the organisation, differences in behaviour are likely to occur.

As a result of prevalent organisational changes including downsizing, global competition and restructuring, many researchers have anticipated that the traditional guarantee of lifetime employment in exchange for hard work is no longer applicable and as a result employees feel betrayed (Bardwick, 1991, Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson, 1996). Research indicates that when employees feel this sense of betrayal, and that employers have reneged on their promises, employees are more likely to display lower citizenship behaviour, reduced organisational commitment and decreased job satisfaction (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson, 1996).

Historically many employees expected a job for life: organisations encouraged this anticipation by providing supplementary rewards e.g. low mortgages. Hence in return for this secured employment, the company expected devotion and dedication to the company and the job. Therefore older employees in the organisation always had the understanding that hard work, security and reciprocity are linked. While proof that older members of the workforce feel that the psychological contract as they comprehend it has

been dishonoured exists, less research exists on the feelings of younger workers (Smithson & Lewis, 2000).

Literature on the psychological contract of employment refers to both breach of contract as well as contract violation. Morrison & Robinson, 1997:230 refer to a perceived breach as “the cognition that one’s organisation has failed to meet one or more obligations within one’s psychological contract.” This breach is therefore the recognition of seeming unfulfilled commitments, and may therefore be viewed as a short-term occurrence which could result in employees moving back to their “stable” psychological contract position. Psychological contract violation however refers to the “emotional and affective state” that may follow from the belief that one’s organisation has been unable to sufficiently maintain the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson; 1997: 230). Psychological contract violation has therefore been defined as a failure of the organisation to fulfill one or more obligations of an individual’s psychological contract (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). This refers to more than just the failure of meeting expectations, but it highlights the issue of the “promise” and it is more personalised (Rousseau, 1990). Psychological contract violation has been expressed as being all-encompassing as a wide range of emotional reaction can be experienced by the individual. This brings about responses of disappointment, frustration and distress. More radical emotional responses include anger, resentment, bitterness and indignation (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Pate & Malone, 2000). Violation can also result in behavioural effects including lower citizenship, diminished commitment, satisfaction and trust while cynicism intensifies (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Pate, Martin & Staines, 2000). This argument of violation becomes more interesting especially when viewing violation for minority employees which is particularly pertinent to the South African context. Although the majority of the South African population is Black, they were for

many years treated like minority employees and therefore display the characteristics of minority employees. In several organisations in South Africa, employees of colour are still in the minority in terms of the demographic representation of the employees in the company which therefore makes minority employee literature very relevant. According to Thomas (1991), minority US employees are no longer willing to leave their ethnic, gender and identifies at the door as they come in to work every day. Minority employees have changed their expectations in terms of what they are willing to provide the business and what it is that they believe they will obtain in return (Chrobot-Mason, 2003). Given the South African situation regarding equity-enhancing legislation which is requiring the increased meaningful representation and participation of African Black, Coloured and Indian (ACI) employees within the workplace, the challenge for Managers in South African organisations is to know what unique expectations their ACI employees have and to what extent their expectations are being met.

Research conducted on minority employees show that for minority employees, the psychological contract included aspects of “fitting in” and by behaving and looking like everyone else as much as possible (Cox, 1994). The results of unmet promises results in organisational cynicism which is defined by Dean, Brandes & Dharwadkar, 1998 as a negative attitude towards one’s employing organisation, with regards to the following three aspects:

1. Belief that the organisation lacks integrity
2. Negative influence toward the organisation and
3. Inclination to taking on disapproving and unfavourable behaviours toward the organisation that are uniform with those beliefs.

Andersson (1996) further contends that cynicism is a broad concept and also includes feelings of hopelessness, disillusionment and distrust towards others. Morrison & Robinson (1997) argue that the negative feelings associated with cynicism due to a contract violation are felt at a deep instinctive level. They further follow that in the case of minority employees where sensitivity around racial and diversity matters already exist, minority employees who have experienced a contract violation feel acutely let down and ill-treated, which is also associated to the history of prejudice in the workplace. Obstacles for minority employees are still present in the workplace in the form of a lack of developmental prospects (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990), a small number of role models who are the same race (Dreher & Cox, 1996) and a lack of contribution into principal decisions (Elsass & Graves, 1997).

Bartlett & Ghoshal (1995) suggest that after an organisational change has occurred, managers should work towards rejuvenating the organisation and that would occur through the establishing of a behavioural context which would be based on four principles i.e. discipline, support, trust and stretch. To create this behavioural context, managers will be required to alter individual member's behaviours and actions. This would endeavour to transform the organisation to one constructed on a foundation of people who are enthusiastic to take personal initiative, to collaborate with other team members, who possess self-assurance and dedication to the company and who are able to accomplish comparatively routine tasks with the same aptitude as they are keen to learn new abilities.

3.1.2 Values, Attitudes and Behaviour

The understanding of values, attitudes and behaviours are vital for understanding the individual employee. For individual change to take place effectively, modification would need to take place at these three levels within the individual. A person's values and attitudes would influence the behaviour displayed by the individual, which would either be that of resistance or acceptance of the change initiative.

3.1.2.1 Values

Values are significant in understanding individual behaviour since they lay the foundation for the understanding of attitudes, as well as influencing perceptions. Carrel et al, (1997) suggests that a person's values develop from the cultural setting in which the individual lives i.e. parents, friends, teachers and other external reference groups. Values are formed during early life and are therefore reasonably steady and long lasting. However due to the fact that external influences from the environment can affect individuals, values for individuals would therefore vary.

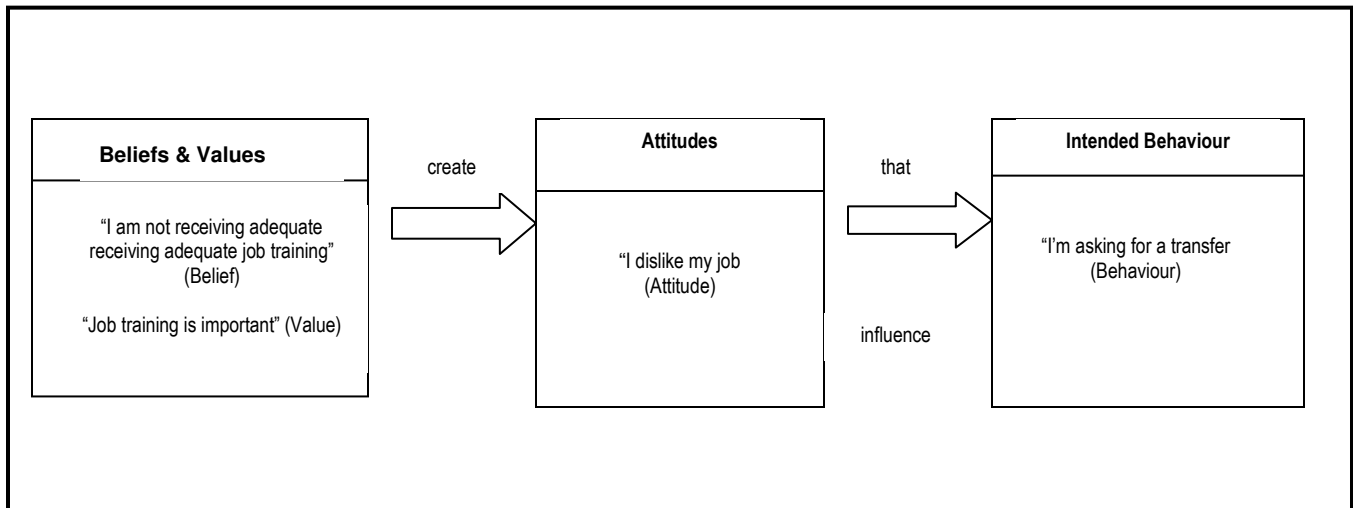
3.1.2.2 Attitudes

Within an organisational setting, attitudes play a significant role in determining performance-based behaviour such as organisational commitment, absenteeism, turnover and the quantity and quality of work output. Attitudes can therefore be defined as a predisposition to respond to objects, people or events in either a positive or a negative way (Carrel et al 1997). Robbins (1999) defines attitudes as evaluative statements or judgments concerning objects, people or event. Robbins (1999) points

out that attitudes can be very daunting to change once they have been established. Resistance to change from within could be the reason for this phenomenon (Dawson, 1994). Dawson further states that this resistance to organisational change may be an outcome of several factors including considerable change in job, decline in financial wellbeing, psychological threats, disturbance of social arrangements and dropping of status. Robbins (1999) points out that there are three components to attitudes i.e. cognitive, affective and behavioural components. The cognitive component is the opinion or belief segment of the attitude. This response is an opinion relating to the usefulness and necessity and about knowledge required to handle the change (Rashid, Sambasivan & Rahman; 2003). Affective refers to the emotional or feeling segment which will be expressed as a like or dislike for the attitude object. The behavioural tendency concerns way in which a person will behave towards an attitude object (Rashid, Sambasivan & Rahman; 2003).

Research indicates that attitudes are based on important beliefs and values. As displayed in Figure 3.2., beliefs and values precede attitudes that influence behaviour.

FIGURE 3.2 HOW ATTITUDES AFFECT BEHAVIOUR



Source: Carrel et al 1997

A typical characteristic of South African organisations in the past was stereotyping and prejudice. According to Lee & Schmidt (1999) in their research about the dynamics and factors involved in interaction situations between Blacks and Whites, there are many assumptions that Blacks and Whites make about each other's behaviour that hinders authentic relations. These attitudes are reflected in Table 3.1

TABLE 3.1 ATTITUDES DISPLAYED BY BLACK AND WHITE SOUTH AFRICANS ABOUT EACH OTHER

White Attitudes	Black Attitudes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Colour is unimportant in interpersonal relations • Blacks will always welcome and appreciate inclusion in White society • Open recognition of colour may embarrass Blacks • Blacks are trying to use Whites • Blacks can be stereotyped • White society is superior to Black society • “Liberal” Whites are free of racism • All Blacks are alike in their attitudes and behaviour • Blacks are oversensitive • Blacks must be controlled 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All Whites are alike • There are no “soul brothers” among Whites • Whites are trying to use Blacks • Whites are united in their attitude towards Blacks • All Whites are racists • Whites are not really trying to understand the situation of Blacks • Silence is a sign of hostility • Whites cannot and will not change except by force • The only way to gain attention is through confrontation • All Whites are deceptive • All Whites will let you down at “crunch” time

These attitudes between Whites and Blacks have therefore resulted in behaviours which block authentic relations between the groups as per Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2 BEHAVIOURS WHICH BLOCK AUTHENTIC RELATIONS BETWEEN BLACKS AND WHITES

White Behaviour	Black Behaviour
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interruptions • Condescending behaviour • Offering help where not needed or wanted • Showing annoyance at Black behaviour that differs from their own • Talking about rather than talking to Blacks who are present • Verbal focus on Black behaviour rather than White behaviour • Insisting on playing games according to White rules • Expressions of too-easy acceptance and friendship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confrontation too early and too harshly • Rejection of honest expressions of acceptance and friendship • Pushing Whites into such a defensive posture that learning and re-examination is impossible • “In-group” joking, laughing at Whites in Black culture language • Giving answers Blacks think Whites want to hear • Failure to keep commitment and then offering no explanation

Source: Lee & Schmidt, 1999.

When comparing these two tables it is evident that the behaviours displayed are a direct result of the assumptions and attitudes held by the different groups about each other.

According to some South African writers, the high levels of conflict in their opinions still exist within South African organisations due to the failure of South African companies to incorporate Black (African) values into corporate cultures. The concept of Ubuntu is a common concept within African management literature and is a value which can be

translated into “humaneness”. This concept says that “a person is only a person because of other people” (Robbins et al. 2004: 68). Mbingi (1993) affirms that to reduce the level of conflict experienced within South African organisations, the following four principles of Ubuntu need to be incorporated into the organisation:

- *Morality*: the conviction that no institution can accomplish its utmost aptitude without meeting its moral base
- *Interdependence*: based on the viewpoint that wealth formation can be realised by allowing interdependence
- *The “Spirit of Man”* – this allows individuals absolute respect and dignity, as people are the generators and sponsors of prosperity and
- *Totality*: this recognises the requirement to value each input made by each member of the organisation

To date there has been no empirical evidence to support the inclusion of these values into South African corporate culture (Robbins et al, 2004)

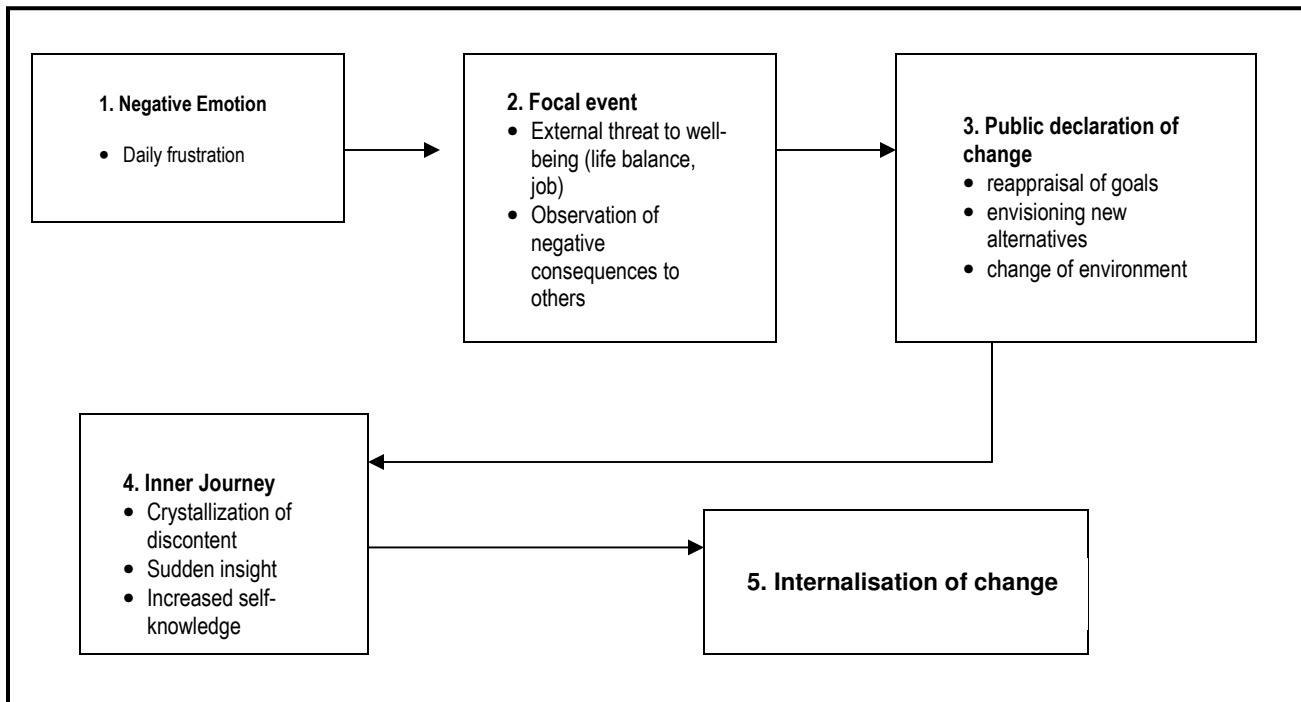
3.1.3 A Psychodynamic Perspective of Individual Change

This view of the human being evaluates the activity of and the interrelation between the different parts of an individual’s personality or psyche.

3.1.3.1 The Prerequisites for Change

Kets de Vries & Balazas (1998) developed a process based on their research detailing the individual change process as per Figure 3.3

FIGURE 3.3 THE INDIVIDUAL CHANGE PROCESS



Source: Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1998

According to Kets de Vries & Balazs (1998), numerous prerequisites for personal change can be listed i.e. the role of negative emotion, the focal event and the public declaration of intent. Each of these prerequisites plays an important role in facilitating the process of transformation. The identified steps are preliminary steps of an inner journey that contributes to the internalisation of change. According to the authors there is a certain sequence to the process of personal change.

3.1.3.2 Step 1: Negative Emotion

Kets de Vries & Balazas (1998) indicate that the human tendency is to resist change. Consequently to cause a person's resistance to start weakening, a strong inducement is required. This stimulus needs to come in the form of pain or anguish which is therefore the catalyst for change.

3.1.3.3 Step 2: The Focal Event

Accepting the need for change is normally not sufficient for individuals taking an active step towards changing their situation. People often need a push in the form of something that can be explained as a "focal event". This entails a significant occurrence that initiates the change. This focal event could be viewed as a kind of 'screen memory' where an event, which may seem inconsequential at first is in fact an indicator of an entire range of events that are symbolic of the experienced problem. Therefore even though it is objectively experienced as trivial, it is personally experienced as significant since it identifies attention to a difficulty that has existed for a prolonged period. It is at this point in the process where the individual in question becomes ready to take action. The individual has obtained the inner strength to make a change thus resistance to change has been weakened. At this point the individual now sees new possibilities, renewed emotional energy is brought about as the person feels that they have been freed from the heavy burden that was weighing them down. They are now ready to embark towards a more positive future (Kets de Vries & Balazas, 1998).

3.1.3.4 Step 3: The Public Declaration of Intent

Kets de Vries & Balazas (1998) in their research conducted interviews with people who had undergone significant personal change. They stated that a good indicator of a high degree of commitment to a change initiative is a public articulation of one's intention to change. Communicating openly to others what one intends to do suggest a certain acceptance of the problem, and denotes that the person is prepared to defend their new perspective. By publicly announcing their intentions, people gives themselves an ultimatum necessitating that they go thorough with the change and their intentions or lose face.

3.1.3.5 Step 4: Inner Journey

Personal declarations provide a platform for a reassessment of goals, the envisioning of new alternatives making for an inner journey, characterised by a crystallization of dissatisfaction, new approaches and heightened self-knowledge.

3.1.3.6 Step 5: Internalisation of Change

The mind-set of the person has change. The new way of perceiving things has been internalised.

3.2 PRIMARY FACTORS FACILITATING CHANGE

Studies of successful personal change efforts indicate that the two factors influencing the outcome are firstly, a social support system to ease the process of change and

secondly, the personality type of the individuals involved (Kets de Vries & Balazas; 1998).

3.2.1 Social Support

People who feel a sense of isolation and who feel alone in their pains to change behaviour patterns have a challenging time changing. Without assistance from the environment, they find their unwillingness to change more difficult to overcome (Kets de Vries & Balazas; 1998). The authors' state that this is almost certainly the most key factor in assisting an individual to conquer change barriers. People expected to change will therefore seek out support from their environment i.e. family, friends, colleagues. These are essentially people who can offer encouragement, guidance and an opportunity to share interests. Therefore incorporating social support structures into a change process is pivotal during a change process. This would need to be driven from the top.

3.2.2 Locus of Control

Some people have a more internal locus of control whilst others have a more external one. Locus of control is defined by Robbins (1999) as the degree to which people believe that they are in control of their own fate. People with an internal locus of control believe that they are in control of what happens to them. Kets de Vries & Balazas, (1998) term such people as those with a "hardy personality". Hardy personalities observe the change as a constructive challenge, which will advance their personal development. They also have the affective, cognitive and behavioural skills that make them better survivors in stressful situations. Therefore, people with an internal locus of

control will take charge of and carry through major personal change with more ease and self-confidence.

People with an external locus of control believe that what happens to them is controlled by outside forces such as luck or chance (Robbins, 1999). Externals unlike their internal counterparts are more likely to see change as a threat. Due to the fact that they feel that they have no control over the change process, they take on a rather submissive posture towards change. Being incapable of taking steps towards a change of their own choosing, they have an outlook that makes them more prone to various depressive reactions (Kets de Vries & Balazas; 1998).

3.3 THE EXPERIENCE AND IMPACT OF CHANGE ON THE INDIVIDUAL

When considering the fact that the organisations undergo change, the subjective matter of how the human factor within the organisation make sense of change is often ignored and understated. In fact, the critical role of individual employees in successfully bringing about the change has virtually gone unnoticed (Huston, 1992; Levine, 1997; Breu & Benwell, 1999). Change literature indicates that where individual resistance is experienced, a transition would need to be made to bring about successful change.

3.3.1 Individual Resistance to Change

Individual and organisational resistances to change has been documented extensively in change literature (Booyesen & Beaty, 1997; Carrell et al., 1997; Robbins, 1999; Cohen, Fink, Gadon & Willits, 2001; Van Tonder 2004). Resistance has typically been

understood as a basic reason for conflict that is unfavourable and detrimental to organisational health (Waddell & Sohal, 1998). Several authors have also cited resistance as the cause for failure of many change initiatives (Strebel, 1994; Maurer, 1996b, Waddell & Sohal, 1998; Chawla & Kelloway, 2004). Resistance to change can bring about costs and delays into the change process that are difficult to foresee but which have to be taken into account (Ansoff, 1990).

Various authors state that there are a number of perspectives that exist on resistance.

The four main perspectives on resistance are as follows:

- Resistance as an unavoidable and natural behavioural response to the perceived threat of change; going from the known to the unknown (Myers & Robbins, 1991; Steinburg, 1992; Coghlan, 1993; Bovey & Hede, 2001; Atkinson, 2005)
- Resistance as a politically motivated and co-ordinated campaign of insurrection and class struggle (King & Anderson, 2002)
- Resistance as a constructive counter-balance to ill-founded organisational change (Maurer, 1996b; Waddell & Sohal, 1998)
- Resistance as the manifestation of difficulties in restructuring cognitive schemas, codes of action or organisation cultures in the midst of change (Bovey & Hede, 2001)

Arguments do exist that individuals may resist change simply because it represents a move into the unknown. However, in the perspective where employees view resistance as unavoidable the individual employees are assumed to “resist first and ask questions later”. Although there may be a tendency to view resistance negatively, resistance can also be said to provide a level of stability to behaviour. If there were not some

resistance organisational behaviour would take on aspects of chaotic randomness (Robbins et al, 2004).

Several studies as summarised by Robbins 1999; Carrell et al, 1997; Booyesen & Beaty 1997; Cohen et al, 2001; Yukl, 2002; van Tonder 2004 lists reasons for individual resistance to change as follows:

- ***Fear of the Unknown:*** This is probably the biggest reason for individual resistance. Individuals may have the notion that job-security would be placed under threat or may be doubtful about their own personal ability to meet any new job requirements that may come about as a result of the change. Other employees simply dislike ambiguity.
- ***Habit:*** Individuals may be comfortable in doing things the old way. Change may require them to change their ways and learn new methods of performing their tasks. Booyesen & Beaty (1997) indicates that within the South African context organisations are forced to change habits of the past to accommodate different cultures and habits in organisations.
- ***Self-Interest:*** Individuals may believe that they will lose power, status or influence during change.
- ***Economic Factors:*** Change may be perceived by some individuals to threaten one's job or lower one's income. This may be particular true in companies where pay is closely tied to performance and the individuals may doubt their own

abilities to potentially perform new tasks. Within the South African context this fear may be particularly heightened with White males are threatened by affirmative action (Booyesen & Beaty, 1997).

- **Security:** Individuals who have high security needs may oppose change because their feelings of safety are threatened.
- **Differing Perceptions:** Change may be viewed as being positive for some individuals and negative for others.
- **General Mistrust:** Individuals may comprehend the reasons for change, but not have trust in the motives of those promoting the change.
- **Social Disruptions:** Individuals fearing that change will disrupt existing traditions. In addition, others opposing the change may mock those individuals who accept the change.
- **Selective Perceptions:** Perceptions shape the world we live in. some individuals may be unable to adapt to change because the change goes against their perceptions. They therefore process information on the change selectively as it challenges the world that they have created for themselves.

Although resistance is often considered as a negative phenomenon, several writers indicate that resistance is generally not a negative notion since change is not intrinsically

favourable for organisations (Rumelt, 1995; Maurer, 1996b; Waddell & Sohal, 1998; Atkinson, 2005). A summary of the advantages of resistance are as follows:

- Resistance to change can attract attention to facets of the change that are ill conceived, poorly enacted or simply detrimental to the provided efficiency of the organisation (Waddell & Sohal, 1998).
- Resistance contributes to an influx of energy in the change process. Usually the workplace is characterised by lethargy or submissiveness when implementing change. However, when resistance is encountered, there is a requirement to investigate the problems that exist more intimately and to take into account more intensely the proposed changes (Waddell & Sohal, 1998).
- This spurt of energy as a consequence to the resistance may also result in many creative ideas in the search for alternative methods and outcomes (Maurer, 1996a; Waddell & Sohal, 1998).
- Resistance has also been regarded as a source of information being valuable in learning how to build a more successful change process (Goldstein, 1988; Waddell & Sohal, 1998; Piderit, 2000).

In view of the combination of these aspects of resistance, a convincing case for re-evaluating the classical understanding of resistance comes about. Equally, these arguments call into question the belief that a change effort that is met with modest resistance should inevitably be regarded as a “good change (Waddell & Sohal, 1998). The importance of resistance to the change management field therefore needs to be considered critically to assist organisations accomplish the advantages of change. Successfully managing resistance is a major challenge for change initiators and is

arguably of greater importance than any other aspect of the change process (O'Connor, 1993).

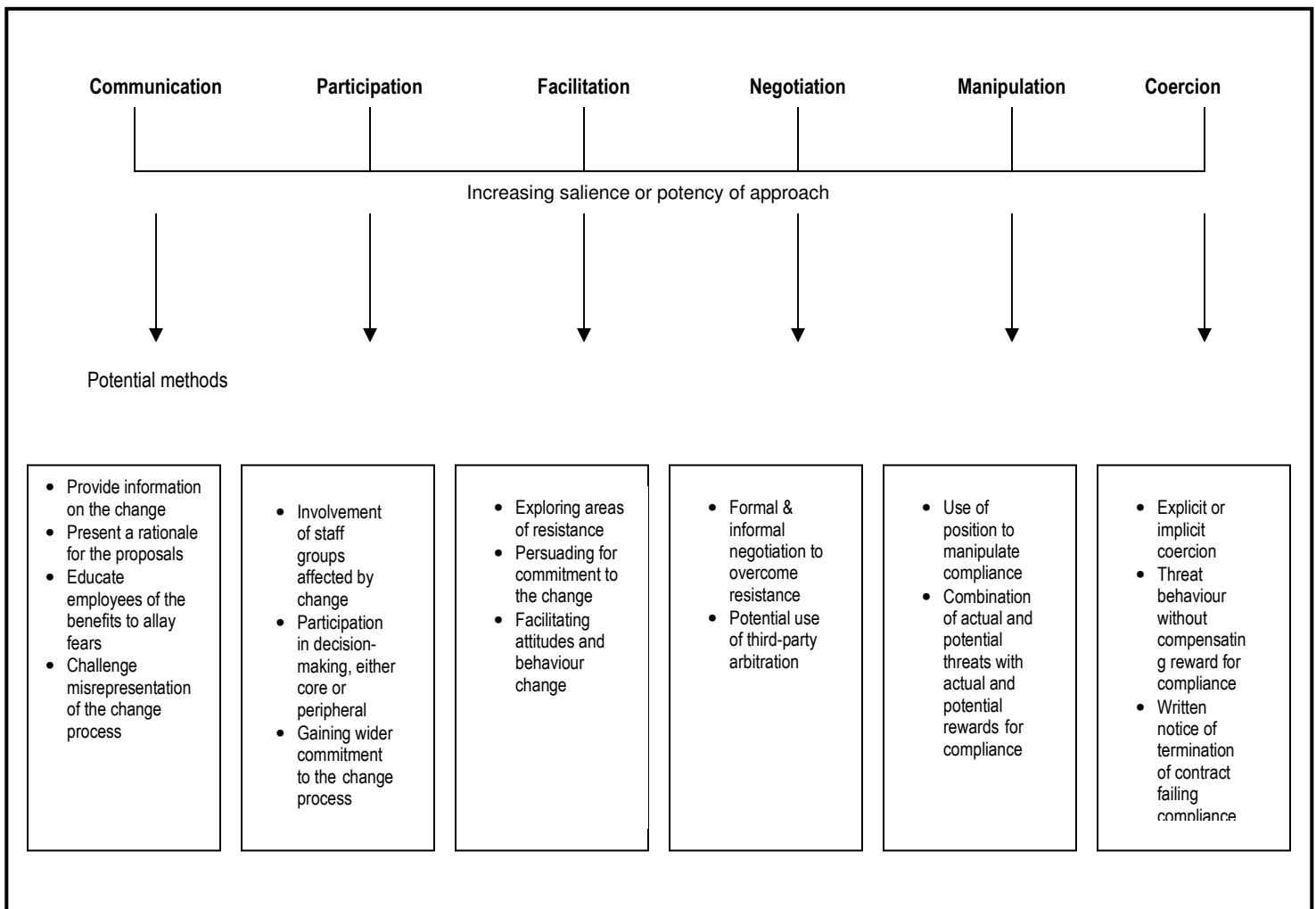
Atkinson (2005) indicates that resistance should be viewed as default reaction to any planned change effort, and should not be viewed as a threat but rather welcomed as a healthy response. This view is supported by further authors (Maurer, 1996a; Perren & Megginson, 1996; Waddell & Sohal, 1998).

The contrasting argument however, questions whether the irrational, counter-productive perception, which is often given to characterise resistance is fair and just. This opposing view articulates that change does not only signify threat, mourning decay or even death, but often represents opportunities for celebration, growth and healing (Van Tonder, 2004).

3.3.2 Overcoming Resistance

The nature of resistance is that mainly resistance is not encountered actively and openly. Its existence is often exhibited covertly, even passively. If resistance were presented in a very up-front manner, it would be easier to handle logically, in a similar way that one would handle objections. However, resistance is usually demonstrated in various and unforeseen ways (Atkinson, 2005). The classical approach to overcoming resistance was developed by Kotter & Schlesinger as depicted in Figure 3.4.

FIGURE 3.4 KOTTER & SCHLESINGER'S APPROACH FOR OVERCOMING RESISTANCE TO CHANGE



Source: King & Anderson (2002)

This symbolises possibly a conclusion of how to triumph over resistance as well as relating the array of strategies accessible to managers in this regard, as well as how to utilise each method in specific conditions. The six strategies recognised by Kotter and Schlesinger- communication, participation, facilitation, negotiation, manipulation and coercion – positioned on a continuum representing the mounting salient or effectiveness of each strategy (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). The techniques further to the right on the

continuum are maintained to be more influential interventions, although the authors emphasise the role of managerial choice in selecting a suitable strategy or mix thereof. If using only less disruptive techniques to the left of the continuum, communication and participation for instance can conquer the resistance; the authors indicate that this should be the favoured attitude. This model is beneficial to the degree that it highlights that managerial strategy should be dependent upon levels of resistance and the reserves of power at the request of those initiating the change. See Appendix 2. which provides further details regarding this approach stating precisely when to use which approach.

According to Atkinson (2005), the effective change maker would take on a position of coach or facilitator and would depend on a barrage of persuasive strategies and techniques to overcome resistance. These strategies should not be directed at 'winning the war', or the dispute, but to assist others, learners and participants to reframe matters to see further than their somewhat pessimistic perspective. The coach would therefore avail opportunities for perceiving the possibilities for those participating in the change.

An overpowering proposition in management literature is that participative methods are the best means of remedying resistance. The fundamental argument behind participative management techniques is that through a delicately managed process of two way communication, information sharing and consultation, employees are inclined to become more dedicated to the change effort, rather than simply remaining compliant (Kotter, Schlesinger & Sathe, 1986; Makin, Cooper & Cox, 1989; White & Bednar, 1991; Waddell & Sohal, 1998).

Transparency for the workforce is critical to defeating uncertainties. When driving the change, employees need to know what specific changes will be taking place and how these will influence work and staff members. Even if management is uncertain of the full extent of the changes over time, or do not have all the answers, they should be honest in communicating this to the workforce. This incorporates also being candid if any “bad news” needs to be delivered. This means communicating how long the change will take, the likely consequences, the disparity between current functioning and future expectations and the activities that the organisation will be undertaking to assist staff at all levels mount the learning curve. At all times, management needs to be truthful in articulating the reality of the circumstances (Atkinson, 2005).

3.4 PERSONAL TRANSITION

In order to accept the experience of change at the individual level, personal transition will be considered as a framework for viewing the change and will be used as a synonym for individual or personal change.

3.4.1 Individual Transition

Breu & Benwell (1999) state that regardless of the size or nature of organisational change, there will be direct implications for individual’s psychological, perceptual and behavioural disposition. Transition theory therefore seeks to understand how individuals respond to environmental change. “Transition” therefore refers to personal change that is very specific as this change takes pace at the human level.

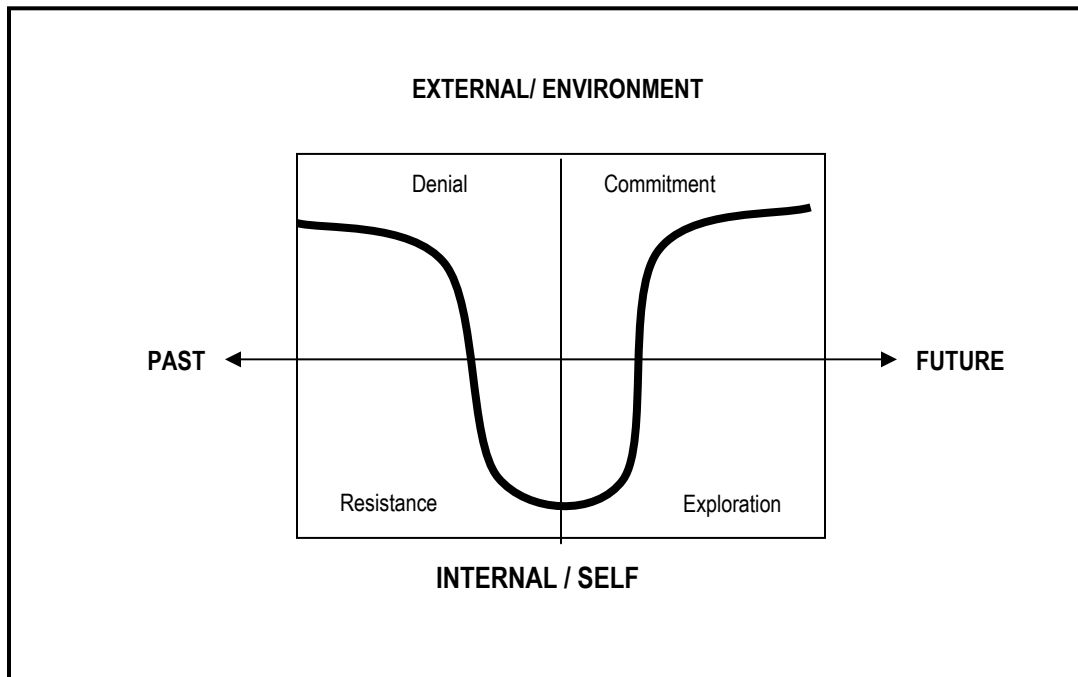
The transition process can be observed as a steady and progressive process that is characterised by a three-stage process (Van Tonder, 2004):

- Letting go of the old situation –therefore dealing with endings
- Entering a neutral zone / in-between stage – this is normally one which is characterised by ambiguity, disorder, a stage without a clear outlook of the future
- New beginnings which require adopting new ways of thinking, new behaviours and therefore movement towards a new future

Scott & Jaffe (1989) specify there are four transition stages that an individual will experience. These are categorised into the main groups of danger and opportunity. Danger is subdivided into denial and resistance and opportunity is subdivided into exploration and commitment.

Most people go through these four stages in every transition. The rate at which individuals go through this stage would differ according to the individual concerned. Effective management would assist each of the employees move through these stages as per Figure 3.5.

FIGURE 3.5 THE PERSONAL TRANSITION GRID



Source: Scott & Jaffee: 1989: 35

The change process should therefore be thought of as one that descends into a valley and then climbs back out. The transition leads from the way things were done in the past towards the future. Scott & Jaffe (1989) state that during a change transition people focus on the past and deny the change. They then go through a phase of preoccupation where they are wondering how they will be affected by the change, which is where resistance normally occurs. As they enter the exploration and commitment stages, they start to look towards the future and the opportunities that this could bring about.

3.4.1.1 Stage One: Denial

During this stage of transition, the individual employee would normally experience numbness as people try to absorb the information and the implications that the change could potentially mean for them. Individuals normally work as usual and productivity would continue uninterrupted. Nothing would be affected at this stage. This stage could however be prolonged if employees are not encouraged to register their reactions or if management expects them to adopt the new ways of doing things directly. Denial is detrimental as it impedes the natural progression of leaving, from a state of loss (i.e. the old way of doing things) towards forward movement.

Behaviours that employees could display during this stage would be that of apathy and numbness. They may have an attitude that the prospective changes could soon be over (Scott & Jaffe, 1989). These behaviours indicate a form of resistance where as the individual is reluctant to give up a former state to move on into the future state.

3.4.1.2 Stage Two: Resistance

Resistance occurs when people have moved through the numbness of denial and being to experience self-doubt' anger, depression, anxiety, depression, fear or uncertainty because of the change. In some types of organisations, change can be likened to a death experience. During this stage, people focus on the impact that the change has had on them personally. Productivity dips drastically and the workforce is often upset and negative. Managers will normally hear a lot of grumbling from the employees. There is a proliferation of accidents, sickness and work-related absences. This is normally the

stage where management requests training programmes on change management as assistance to the problem.

While it may be difficult for the company to allow negative feeling to be openly aired, it is precisely what helps to minimise resistance. Allowing people to express their feelings and share their experiences makes this stage pass more quickly. During this stage organisations can make effective use of organisational rituals (e.g. parties, awards, luncheons etc) to encourage people to say what they think. People need a way of saying goodbye to the old and beginning to welcome the new.

Eventually everyone reaches a low point and begins to move up to the other side of the change curve. This shift, clearly felt but different for everyone indicates that things are getting better. Employees suddenly notice a renewed interest in work and feel a return of creativity. This is a signal that stage two is passing (Scott & Jaffe, 1989).

3.4.1.3 The Final Stages - Exploration and Commitment

During this phase, there is an explosion of energy as people turn their thoughts to the future and towards the external environment once again. This stage could also be described as one of 'chaos'. As people try to comprehend new responsibilities, work out new ways of relating to one another; learn more about their future prospects. Much ambiguity could exist during this stage, including stress amongst employees who need a lot of external guidance. During exploration people tend to draw on their internal creative energy to work out ways of capitalizing on the future. This stage can be experienced as thrilling and exhilarating. It can create powerful bonds in work units.

During the commitment stage employees are ready to commit themselves to a plan. They are willing to redefine their objectives and draw up plans to make them work. They are prepared to learn new ways of working together, and take on renegotiated roles and expectations (Scott & Jaffe, 1989).

When looking at the diagram it can be seen that as individuals engage in the process of change, there is a shift in time orientation from out of the past, into the present and on to the future. Concomitant with this shift in time orientation is another reorientation from old and into new. Associated with this it may also be anticipated that there will be a phase of unlearning and a phase of relearning.

Although most people are used to referring to the term “grieving” to those who are left after a person dies, the notion of grieving can be relevant to numerous change conditions. Grieving incorporates a key phase of challenge and transition and is rooted in a type of resistance to change, from an unwillingness to relinquish previous people, methods of operations and expectations. In essence, grieving depicts the intellectual and emotional work that is requisite to make real the reality of the loss. This can be referred to as “realization”. It must be noted that grieving is a route of progression and not a state. It can further be said that grief is a session of clinical pictures which merge into and substitute each other. This would incorporate a process in which one normally experiences as numbness and an attempt to search for and recover what has been lost. In the shock stage temporary disbelief and numbness is felt which normally incorporates depersonalization (“I am not real”) or derealization (“the world around me is not real”), inadequacy (bewilderment, reduced attentiveness and memory lapses), denial, melancholy, remorse, apprehension, antagonism (experienced as annoyance towards those who cannot comprehend), bitterness and resentment (towards those who still

have), rage (towards those who could have a greater influence), resolve and acceptance (taking leave, “life must go on”) and reintegration (taking up a new life).

3.5 JOB – ATTITUDE CONSTRUCTS INFLUENCING CHANGE

AT THE INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

This section provides a review of the constructs of, communication, job-insecurity participation, procedural justice and trust. These constructs have been identified in change literature as being pivotal to determining the individual’s openness to a change experience (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004).

3.5.1 Communication

Uncertainty about the future is found to be a characteristic of organisational change (Williams et al., 2003). Extensive studies outlining the principles of successful change management firmly suggest the significance of communication during a change management process (Vielhaber, 1983; Coetzee, Fourie & Roodt, 2002; Goodman & Truss, 2004). Communication can be defined as the transition of information (data in a coherent form) from one person or group to another with the aim of establishing a common understanding among the parties of each communication (Plunkett & Attner, 1998).

Communication is therefore recognised to be a vital ingredient to the success of change programmes (Lewin, 1951; Goodstein & Warner-Burke, 1991; Kotter, 1996). Specifically, at the individual level, suitable communication has been recognised as a considerable factor in assisting employees in understanding both the need for change as

well as the personal effects of the proposed change. These have been regarded as especially important prerequisites for achieving change programme objectives, as they may help to induce “readiness for change’ at a personal level (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Baloun & Hope-Haily, 2003). Based on the fact that the organisation’s operations depend on the actions of its members the organisation can only experience successful change when employees’ behaviour changes (Elving, 2005). Furthermore, communication can be used to reduce resistance, minimise uncertainty and gain involvement and commitment as the change unfolds, which may result in improved morale and retention rates (Klein, 1996). In attempting to understand communication, an evaluation of the fundamentals of communication becomes necessary.

The transference of meaning (communication) is the process whereby a sender transfers a message, by means of a specific method, to a receiver who needs to receive the message, understand it and respond to it in a purposeful manner. Feedback in this context is a mechanism used to ensure that the receiver understands the purpose of the message before acting (Coetzee et al.). Feedback turns the receiver into a sender of information and vice-versa. This serves the purpose of refining the message until a common understanding is achieved (Shockley-Zalabak, 1991). Feedback therefore ensures the effectiveness of communications (Goodman & Truss, 2004).

Within organisational change, communication can be seen as the process through which managers give direction and sustain dynamism. Precision about a vision for the future can only come from the top, and communication is needed to communicate the vision to all in the organisation. This would however require the need to take the features that could either inhibit or facilitate the effectiveness of communications into account (Coetzee, Fourie & Roodt, 2002).

According to Tosi, Rizzo & Carroll (1996) these features manifest themselves in individual, organisational or message characteristics as per Table 3.3 (Tosi et al., 1996).

TABLE 3.3 ASPECTS AFFECTING COMMUNICATION EFFECTIVENESS

INDIVIDUAL ASPECTS	Individual Differences	Factors such as personality, age, gender, race, ethnicity, education and experience.
	Selective Perception	Receives selective see and hear based on their needs, motivation, experience and background. Receivers also project interests and expectations into communication as they decode them.
	Emotions	How the receiver feels at the time of receipt of a message will influence interpretation, e.g. happy, depressed or angry.
	Actions	Non-verbal communication that either supports or contradicts verbal or written communication.
ORGANISATIONAL ASPECTS	Organisational complexity	Relates to the organisational structure, hierarchy, span of control, reward systems etc. that impact on the flow of communication, and which can lead to aspects such as filtering or manipulation of information.
MESSAGE ASPECTS	Content, mode and quality of message	Refers to the actual information being transferred between sender and receiver and includes variables such as the medium or the clarity of the message.

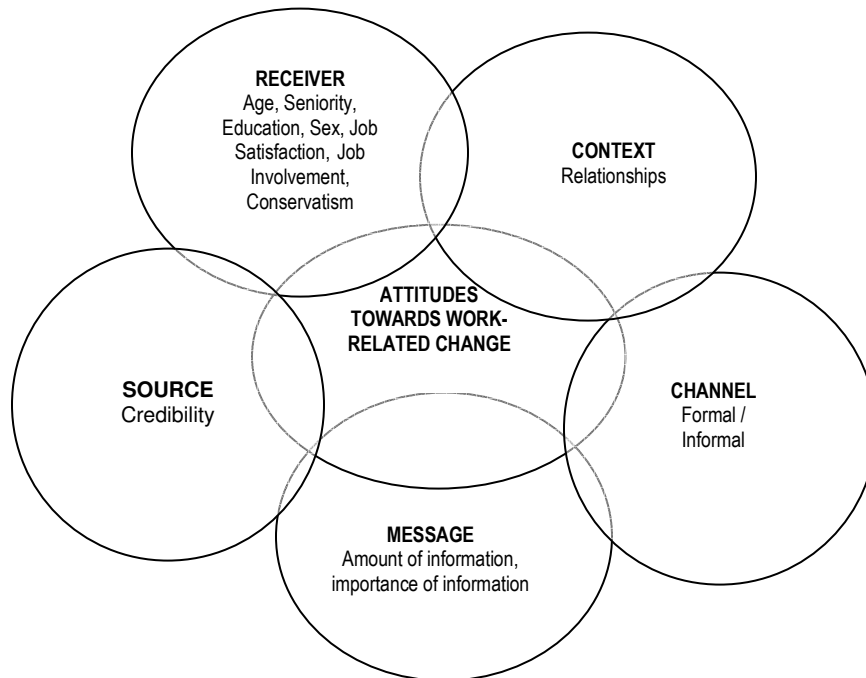
Source: Coetzee, Fourie & Roodt, 2002

The rationale for identifying these aspects which may affect the communication process is vital as this could prevent the change communicators from unknowingly falling prey to these aspects, which would result in difficulties intrinsic when attempting to communicate

complex technical, value-laden and organisational change issues. Effective communication is therefore imperative since ineffective communication could alter the intended message as well as the sender's objectives. Consequently, ineffective communication would lead to the desired organisational objectives not being attained (Coetzee et al., 2002).

Vielhaber (1983) developed a model based on the isolated elements of the communication (i.e. source, message, channel, receiver, context) and change as per Figure 3.6, which examines the relationship between the identified variables and the communication change process.

FIGURE 3.6 MODEL OF SELECTED COMMUNICATION VARIABLES RELATED TOWARDS WORK-RELATED CHANGE



Source: Vielhaber, 1983

3.5.1.1 Source Variables

Andersen & Clevenger (1963) indicated that the credibility of the source is related to the impact of the message. This is further confirmed by additional authors (Shockley-Zalabak, 1991; Galpin, 1996). The source and the receiver therefore encode and decode the messages sent to each other, and the comprehension of which is influenced by both parties communicative competence which comprises of knowledge, sensitivity, skills and values of communicators (Shockley-Zalabak, 1991).

3.5.1.2 Message Variables

Studies conducted by Lashbrook, Snaveluy & Sullivan (1977) found that for the source to have high credibility, a relationship exists between the quantities of information relayed and the subsequent attitude change. When highly credible sources send messages with either too little or too much information there is little change in attitudes. Message variables are referred to as “the content of communication” by Goodman & Truss (2004), who argues that this concerns what information is conveyed to employees before, during and after the change initiative as well as what information is sought from employees. Kitchen & Daly (2002) have identified three types of information that affect employees during change: firstly, what employees must know, including job-specific information; secondly, what employees should know, including desirable information about the organisation and finally, what employees could know, including relatively unimportant office gossip. Klein (1996) has argued that employees will want to know as much information as possible in order to minimise uncertainty.

3.5.1.3 Channel Variables

This refers to the medium used to transmit the message between the source and the receiver (Shockley-Zalabak, 1991). Little research exists regarding the relationship between formal and informal channels (“the grapevine”) of communication and change attitudes (Vielhaber, 1983). However research conducted by Peters & Waterman (1982) points out that companies who utilise both channels of communication excel in their promotion of new ideas.

Crampton, Hodge and Mishra (1998) indicate that the grapevine is a major informal medium within most organisations. General agreement between researchers point out that the grapevine functions in a beneficial manner in the organisation (Baskin & Aronoff, 1989). This is for the reason that 70 percent of all organisational communication occurs at the grapevine level. Early research into the grapevine conducted by Allport & Postman (1947) identified two conditions controlling the prevalence of the grapevine. Firstly the importance of the communication subject to the speaker and listener and secondly the ambiguousness of the situation association with communication. Studies indicate that employees rely on the grapevine when they feel threatened, insecure, are under stress, when there is a pending change, and when employees feel that communication from management is limited (Brownell, 1990). This therefore highlights the importance of using the grapevine since change conditions are generally good breeding grounds for all the feelings described which bring about discomfort. Furthermore, significant research indicates that most information transmitted via the grapevine is accurate. Estimates of accuracy range from 75 to 90 percent (Simmons, 1986; Baron & Greenberg, 1990; Brownell, 1990; Kitchen & Daly 2002).

Concerning media usage, a number of options are available for communicating during change a change process, including verbal, written and electronic means (Klein 1996). Balogun & Hope-Hailey (2003) argue that the choice of media should fit the significance and complexity of the message as well as the stage in the change process.

3.5.1.4 Receiver Variables

A significant number of variables from the receiver are linked to attitudes toward change. Some of the elements found in literature include demographic information such as

personality, age, sex, race, ethnicity seniority and level of education (Vielhaber, 1983; Tosi et al. 1996). As with the source, this will result in the receiver decoding the message, which would be influenced by the receiver's communicative competence that includes knowledge, sensitivity, skills and values of communicators (Shockley-Zalabak, 1991).

3.5.1.5 Context Variables

The context of the communication process that can include factors such as relationships between co-workers, superiors and subordinates, and the company and its employees may also be related to change attitudes (Vielhaber, 1983). Shockley-Zalabak (1991) indicates that the context is the environment will determine communication interaction. He further states that context also incorporates the elements relating to time, place, roles, relationships and the status of participants.

Coetzee et al., 2002 mentions that the determinants of successful change management interventions in terms of communication need to include the following:

- Need for top-down and bottom-up communication
- Devoted communication endorsing change
- Official communication by means of training and handling specific issues
- External communication towards the user and client community

It can therefore be integrated that communication is vital for the successful facilitation of a planned change process. It is however, the responsibility of Management and the change Agent to ensure that communication is done correctly to ensure maximum effectiveness.

3.5.2 Goals of Communication

According to Francis (1989) organisational communication usually has two objectives. The first aim of organisational communication should be to advise the employees of their responsibilities, inform them of the procedures and other matters in the organisation. This also work toward avoiding resistance to change, or in the event that low levels of resistance already be present, communication will make advances in reducing the intensity of resistance. It is advised that this information should deal with the basis of the change, and the concerns that employees may have in the beginning. The second goal should be as a mechanism to bring about a notion of community both preceding and subsequent to the change (De Ridder, 2003). Organisational communication can be regarded as a major forerunner of the self-classification process, which assists in describing the distinctiveness of a group and to create a cooperative spirit (De Ridder, 2003). An alternative factor which could affect views of being part of a community within the organisation is trust between management and employees. The foremost viewpoint in literature (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) is that trust results in distinctive outcomes with issues including more optimistic attitudes, increased levels of collaboration and superior levels of accomplishment (Jones & George, 1998; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1998).

3.6 JOB INSECURITY

Job insecurity has become almost tantamount with the anxiety stimulated by change (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004). The consequences of job insecurity can be fatally debilitating to the organisation. Threats to work flows, work roles, organisational structure and power relationships characteristically result in an escalation in withdrawal behaviours (e.g. reduced commitments, engaging in negative work behaviours, higher

turnover intentions) and threaten organisational stability while engendering mistrust and inhibiting communication (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Job insecurity refers to a “sense of powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984: 438). Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van Vuuren (1991) describe job insecurity as a discrepancy between the security employees would like their jobs to provide and the level they perceive to exist. Job insecurity has three elements. Firstly due to the biased nature of job insecurity the same change experience is felt differently by various employees. Job insecurity also clearly insinuates ambiguity about the future, for the individual employee there is uncertainty about whether they will be made redundant. Finally misgivings about the continuation of the job as such are pivotal to the concept of job insecurity (de Witte, 1999).

Although job insecurity is a common feature of organisational life in the developed economies in the world, its effects on individual employees and on organisational outcomes continue to generate controversy (Jalajas & Bommer, 1999; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). Some researchers (Galup, Saunders, Nelson & Cerveney, 1997) have stated that job insecurity results in amplified work effort and work involvement, whereas others have found that job insecurity creates stress and diminishes performance.

As noted by several authors (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Hartley, Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1991) job insecurity has been measured in an ad-hoc manner in the past that has resulted in numerous abstract clarifications being made over the years. Firstly, job insecurity by definition reflects a deep-seated and uncontrolled change with reference to the continuity and security within the employing organisation (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt,

1984). Secondly, job insecurity is a prejudiced occurrence founded on the individual's assessment of uncertainties in the immediate work setting, which means that the feeling of job insecurity may vary between individuals even if they are exposed to the same impartial situation (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984; Hartley et al., 1991). The third issue is one relates to the fact that the loss of valued job features is an important yet often overlooked aspect of job insecurity (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984).

Consistent with stress research, the expectation of a stressful event corresponds to an equally significant, or possibly even greater, source of concern than the actual event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Research proposes that job insecurity may have as harmful consequences as job loss itself (Latack & Dozier, 1986). However job insecurity could be expected to have an influence not only on the welfare of individuals, but also on their work attitudes and behaviour, and ultimately, on the vitality of the organisation. As Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt (1984: 438) expressed it, "workers react to job insecurity, and their reactions have consequences for organisational effectiveness".

Dekker & Schaufeli (1995) notes that job insecurity is an internalised perception. It surfaces as a result of damaged employment arrangements as well as alterations to existing individual employment conditions in organisations experiencing structural and strategic changes (Ashford et al., 1989). A number of studies have recognised that beliefs of uncertain employment circumstances to be correlated with reduced levels of work attitudes such as job satisfaction (Ashford et al. 1989; Davy, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996). In a similar view, like any stressor, a seemingly insecure situation regarding one's future role in the organisation seems to make employees less prone to remain with the organisation (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Brockner, 1988; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995).

Greenhalgh (1982) established that suitably managed perceptions of job insecurity throughout organisational change could lead to improved organisational effectiveness of employees (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984). He concluded that employees who felt insecure in their jobs are encouraged to work harder since (a) security is usually accompanied by complacency and (b) employees under threat need to work harder to secure their positions and maintain access to contingent rewards. This research was supported by Galup et al. (1997) who noted a link between job insecurity and increased work commitment and effort.

According to a study conducted by Smithson & Lewis (2000) in the United Kingdom, job insecurity is increasing in workforce and the anxiety has been recognised to be age related. According to their results, the greatest feelings of job insecurity are held by the youngest and oldest employees of a workforce (Smithson & Lewis, 2000).

Perceived job insecurity is coupled with diminished trust in employers and unwilling fulfillment of employer demands (Smithson & Lewis, 2000). As mentioned previously, Bartlett & Goshal, (1995) indicate that management needs to create trust in their management context as this will have a direct influence on individual behaviour. The tension between the aspects of stretch and trust is what will bring about commitment in an employee. Therefore the current study examines the role of subjective perceptions of job insecurity in enhancing trust, change acceptance and commitment.

3.7 PARTICIPATION

Change Management literature collectively affirms that employee involvement during change is critical for success (Chawla & Kelloway, 2003). If employees are encouraged to participate and their input is consistently and genuinely enlisted, an increase in commitment and performance and reduced resistance to change is likely to be experienced (Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

Participation is a deliberate and intentional attempt by individuals at a higher level in an organisation to provide observable additional role or role-expanding prospects for individuals or groups at a lower level in the organisation to have a greater voice in one or more areas of organisational functioning (Glew, O'Leary-Kelly & Van Fleet, 1995).

3.7.1 Outcomes of Participation

Participation in the place of work has been presumed to guide to a number of positive outcomes (Lines, 2004). These results are either attitudinal or behavioural and have been conceptualised at individual, group and organisational levels. Although employee satisfaction and productivity are the most commonly used outcome variables in investigations on participation, several other aspects have also received attention. Amongst the attitudinal outcomes that have received the most interest are job satisfaction, organisational commitment, involvement, fairness perceptions, motivation expectancies and emotional distress (Spector, 1986). Behavioural outcome variables utilised in participation research incorporate absenteeism, industrial conflict, turnover and grievances and organisational innovativeness (Lines, 2004).

Research conducted on participation indicated that participation has a moderate effect on attitudinal outcome variables such as job satisfaction and commitment (Cotton, Vollrath, Fogatt, Lengnick-Hall & Jennings, 1988; Wagner, 1994). Participation has also been found to have diverse forms, and the suitability of a specified form depends on which outcomes are required as well the context in which participation is to be executed (Miller & Monge, 1986; Cotton et al., 1988).

Four elements have been developed to depict the dissimilar theoretically significant features between the forms of participation. Cotton et al., (1998) use three properties to develop a categorization schema that mirrors the abstract distinction of various forms of participation: degree of formalization; direct versus indirect (i.e. representative or 'vicarious') participation (Strauss & Rosestein, 1970); and the breadth and depth of employee access to decision – making processes and issues. A fourth dimension that has also received attention is the degree of influence (Lines, 2004).

3.7.2 Arguments against Participation

Over the past fifty years or so, several opinions for and against participation have been made. The arguments have been made as follows:

3.7.2.1 Participation is Ineffective

Locke and his associates are amongst the strongest opponents of participation (Locke, Schweiger & Latham, 1986). These writers view participation in restricted, instrumental terms defining participation as a managerial technique that involves joint decision-making and productivity and satisfaction are identified as the principal outcome variables

for establishing the effects of participation. These authors specify that empirical research fail to support the assertion that participation leads to higher productivity. Their analysis of fifty participation studies illustrates that participative and authoritative decision-making have no consistent relationship in productivity (Chisholm & Vansia, 1993).

3.7.2.2 Meaningful Participation is a Myth

This argument suggests that power arrangements and maintenance of power are key features of organisations. The decision-makers and managers seek to preserve the organisationally defined power and authority allocated to them through the formal structure. This view implies that managers really fear a loss of power and legitimate influence. Under such circumstances, the argument contends that attaining more than superficial employee participation is unrealistic (Chisholm & Vansia, 1993).

3.7.2.3 Participation is Hazardous to Employee Welfare

According to this line of reasoning, employees stand to lose in several ways when organisations implement participatory practices. One potential threat stems from the possibility that employees become seduced by participation and begin to believe that their interests are identical to organisational interests. Such thinking leads employees to assume that the organisation will take care of them (Chisholm & Vansia, 1993). Peer group pressure creates another danger to employee welfare. Job and workplace changes that go together with participatory practices invariably result in relationship changes in the informal social system. Their peers often see employees who volunteer to become involved in participatory approaches as deviants. Pressure from peer group members can become extreme, and the “early adopters” may be viewed as “tools of

management". In addition to this employees may become permanently alienated from their peers. Those who pioneer in the new approaches may not only be "traitors" temporarily but may find themselves excluded from their informal work groups if and when they decide to disengage from the experiment (Baloff & Doherty, 1989).

3.7.2.4 *Participation is Wrong*

Traditional organisation and management theory places prominence on the division of tasks among supervisors/ managers and employees. One stated purpose of scientific management for example, is to remove all thinking, planning, and decision-making tasks from the operator and place them in supervisor/managers and specialised staff groups (Taylor, 1991). Employees are purely to follow management instructions about carrying out their job tasks per the managerially determined "best method" (Chisholm & Vansia, 1993).

3.7.3 Preparing People to Participate in Change

Participation can result in reduced resistance through its influence on all three conditions of the Expectancy theory. This theory envisages that resistance will result if any of the following circumstances are valid: (Hope & Pate, 1988):

- The individual has expectations that the link between a change in behaviour and performance is uncertain
- That the relationship between performance and outcome is uncertain; and
- The outcomes have negative value to the individual.

Lines (2004), states that participative processes offer management an opportunity for explaining and portraying the arguments in favour of a planned change. During this process, intentions for change and the requirement for change can be made openly, counter-arguments can be offered by subordinates, discussed and included into the content and process of change. Participation can also allow subordinates direct influence on the content of change, schedules of sub-process and how to manage politically complex matters.

In her insightfully analysis, Neumann (1989) scrutinises situational factors that influence choices individuals make concerning their level of involvement, and therefore proposes three “clusters” of deterrents to participation:

1. **Structural deterrents**, including organisational design, work design and human resources management policies (e.g. the “real” decisions are retained for those at the top)
2. **Relationship deterrents**, including how participation is managed, the dynamics of hierarchy and the individual’s stance towards the organisation (e.g. rank and status continue to be more important than knowledge or competence), and
3. **Societal**, including primary and secondary socialization experiences, ideology and policies (e.g. deeply held values of not demonstrating disloyalty are confronted by participation).

Neumann (1989) notes that a combination of these factors can lead to a situation that is over-determined against participation by the majority of people, even though the purpose of those designing participative programmes is just the reverse. The solution according to the author is not to “blame the victim,” but to instead study the system of participation

that has been created to observe if management in reality wants to “walk their talk” concerning employee involvement.

Kanter (1983) concurs with the notion that inauthentic participation is incredibly likely to transpire when leaders establish participation programmes to be “nice to people”. She notes that such efforts are easily recognised by the fact that they are assumed in conjunction with currently faddish programmes and that their expected results are vague. As with participative acts themselves, the readiness of the organisation to support authentic participation varies along a continuum. Pasmore & Fagans (1992) propose that the levels of this continuum consist of, from lowest to highest:

- **Control** – closed to any influence from the bottom up
- **Commitment** – open to influence that does not challenge the fundamental nature of the system or distribution of power within it
- **Alignment** – a negotiated state that has appreciation for the interests and values of both those in power and those at lower levels
- **Co-creation** – an authentic invitation to generate a system that is new to both those conventionally in power and those traditionally at lower levels; and
- **Transcendence** – openness to exploring the relationship of the organisation to its environment, its underlying purpose and even its existence.

Chisholm & Vansina (1993) indicate that there are at least four requirements that have to be met to develop true participation. The writers further state that meeting these requirements would assist in reducing many of the challenges that exists in developing greater participation. These are as follows:

- Management must take accountability for ensuring that the change process is initiated and sustained over time
- Structures and processes must be developed to build participation increasingly into the organisation through the assurance of legitimate power to make important decisions
- Minimal design conditions
- Constant monitoring of the change process must take place to assure that organisational members have a change to influence the development of the evolving participative system in ways that appear pertinent.

It can therefore be integrated that participation is key to employee acceptance of the change process, particularly if employees have been involved from early stages.

Gilley, Dean and Bierema (2001) assert that learning is vital for participating in methodical, continuous change. They also propose that organisations that have learned how to learn will master the challenge of change and as a result, they emphasize three equally bolstering characteristics of a learning organisation.

Firstly, the capacity for rapid innovation and organisational elasticity must be present and so conventional organisational structures that emphasise hierarchical authority, centralised rule and rigid limitations must give way to organisational design that depend on work teams, decentralised decision-making, and informal systems that bridge prescribed limitations. Secondly the learning organisation ought to have a learning culture that underlines learning about the organisations components and the relations among them. Thirdly the learning organisation will learn from diversity, not merely to

manage or appreciate it. The organisation will encapsulate the ground-breaking potential of all members.

3.8 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

Much contemporary writing on organisations highlights the significance of core values to the organisation (Clawson, 1999; Collins & Porras, 1997). According to Collins and Porras (1997), core values are an organisation's essential and enduring guiding principles. The principle of justice involves the fair treatment of each person (Beugré, 1998; Greenberg, 1990; Carroll & Buchholtz, 2003). Rawls identified justice as the "first virtue of social organisations" (Rawls, 1971:3).

Due to the fact that organisational change involves changes in policies, procedures and resource allocations, issues of justice or fairness (the two concepts will be used interchangeably) are salient during times of change and therefore inherent in change programmes. In the field of organisational justice, three types of justice exist i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Distributive justice refers to the redistribution of resources. Procedural justice is important due to its relevance in the process of change and interactional justice refers to the importance of leadership in change (Cobb, Folger & Wooten, 1995b).

It is imperative to understand fairness perceptions as they lead to significant consequences such as employee behaviour and attitudes. The topic of procedural justice is particularly pertinent to the South African context as the concept of apartheid was in its very fundamentals unjust in its principles and execution. These issues of injustice therefore still characterise the South African organisations with Black

employees who do not trust Whites and who assume that any actions taken by White employees should be regarded with suspicion as they would inherently be characterised by elements of unfairness.

Justice research indicates that organisations and leaders who are perceived as being fair obtain loyalty, commitment and trust from their employees (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Cobb & Frey, 1991). The manner in which people are treated during a change process can have a substantial influence on employees' resistance to change (Cobb, Wooten & Folger, 1995a). Organisational justice research further indicates that when employees view themselves as being treated justly, the required attitudes and behaviours for successful change are developed – even under the circumstances of difficulty & loss (Brockner, 1988; Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Martin & Bies, 1991; Cobb et al., 1995a).

Procedural Justice refers to the fairness of decisions underlying the outcome distribution (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1976; Lind & Tyler 1988; Robbins, 1999; Carroll & Buchholtz, 2003). There are two types of procedural justice i.e. objective and subjective. Objective procedural justice refers to actual or factual justice (Lind & Tyler, 1988) whereas subjective procedural justice refers to perceptions of objective procedures or to the capacity of an objective procedure to enhance fairness judgments (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). Subjective procedural justice perceptions can further be understood by considering the cognitive, affective and behavioural components of the justice experienced (Konovsky, 2000). The cognitive component of subjective procedural justice refers to the calculations made by a perceiver regarding the objective fairness of a decision. The affective component of procedural judgment consists of positive or negative emotional reactions to the actual objective events (Tyler, 1994). Procedurally

fair treatment has therefore been demonstrated to result in increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and “organisational citizenship behaviours” (Moorman, 1991; Konovsky, 2000). Conversely when employees view themselves as being treated unjustly, employees may experience feelings of anger, outrage and a desire for revenge (Folger 1993 as cited in Folger & Skarlicki, 1999). This desire for revenge is also heightened by the fact that individuals tend to make overly personalistic attributions of behaviour by other members especially for those who occupy more senior status roles or positions of power (Folger & Skarlicki, 1999). Hence, procedurally unfair treatment has been found to develop “organisational retaliatory behaviours” (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Leventhal (1976) and Leventhal, Karuza & Fry (1980) identified six procedural justice rules:

- i. The procedure should be consistent with no variations to ensure fairness
- ii. The procedure should be unbiased in its development and implementation, without considering the vested interests of the decision-maker
- iii. The procedure should be accurate with full and verifiable information used by that decision-maker
- iv. The procedure should be correctable, with an appeal mechanism providing for the correction of inconsistent, biased or inaccurate decisions
- v. The procedure should be representative and should ensure that the opinions of all the groups affected by the decision have been taken into account
- vi. The procedure should be ethical and should conform to prevailing standards of moral and ethical behaviour within the organisation

According to the authors, a procedurally fair decision should incorporate all these characteristics.

One of the most fundamental issues to change technologies is the use of participation to help employees confront change issues; to help set the course of the change programme and to help solve the problems that arise during change. It is therefore interesting to note that the use of participation in change efforts incorporates a principle underlying one of the most substantial findings from studies of procedural justice: procedure should give workers “voice” – the opportunity to express their views and have their interests made known (Beugré, 2002). Organisational justice authors review three issues central to the procedural side of voice that would play a central role in change efforts. The first is the use of voice in the reconstruction of the policies and procedures that form the ground rules of the organisation (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Folger, Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1992). The second would be to use the voice in systems of recourse to challenge change programme components and outcomes. The final issue is who is to have voice within the change effort (Cobb et al, 1995b). Cobb et al, 1995b points out that using voice in the reconstruction of ground rules allows employees to create and implement policies and procedures supportive of the change effort and perceived as fair even when dealing with adversity. Voice in recourse helps develop new channels of communication to address the strategic issues behind the grievances employees bring forwards and provides a process model for employees on how best to confront and resolve those change issues that cause conflict.

The converse and more recent research conducted on voice show that there may be limits to the positive effects of voice. Van den Bos, Bermunt & Wilke (1997) reported that participants who expected no voice, yet received it had lower perceptions of procedural

justice. Hunton, Hall & Price (1998) found that increases in voice did not lead to corresponding increases in fairness perceptions. Furthermore, Price, Hall, Hunton, van den Bos, Lovett & Tippett (1999) suggested that the incremental value of voice is related to the expectations that subjects has regarding voice.

3.8.1 Relationship between Trust and Procedural Justice

It is interesting to note that a relationship exists between procedural justice and the construct of trust. Trust is a multi-dimensional construct and includes factors such as an expectation that another party will act benevolently, belief that one cannot control or force the other party to fulfill this expectation and dependence on the other party (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1988). One important source of trust is procedural fairness (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). In organisations, Managers have the considerable impact of building trust (Whitener et al, 1988). Fair treatment by management can create feelings of trust by removing fears of exploitation. Fair treatment also demonstrates respect for the rights and dignity of employees leading to the development of trust (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). This emergent trust is then the mechanism that propels further positive reciprocation, resulting in the stabilisation of relationships (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

3.8.2 Additional Fairness Enhancing Perceptions

Shapiro, Buttner & Barry (1994) found that the specificity of an explanation was the most important in increasing fairness perceptions. They also found that information communicated verbally rather than in writing was more effective in enhancing fairness perceptions. Shapiro (1991) and Bobocel, Agar, Meyer and Irving (1998) found that fairness perceptions were enhanced when explanations shifted responsibility to an

external cause. Shapiro (1991) and Brockner, De Witt, Grover & Reed (1990) identified several moderators of the explanation-fairness perception relationship including the uncertainty of the decision, importance of the decision, the severity of the decision and the adequacy of the explanation.

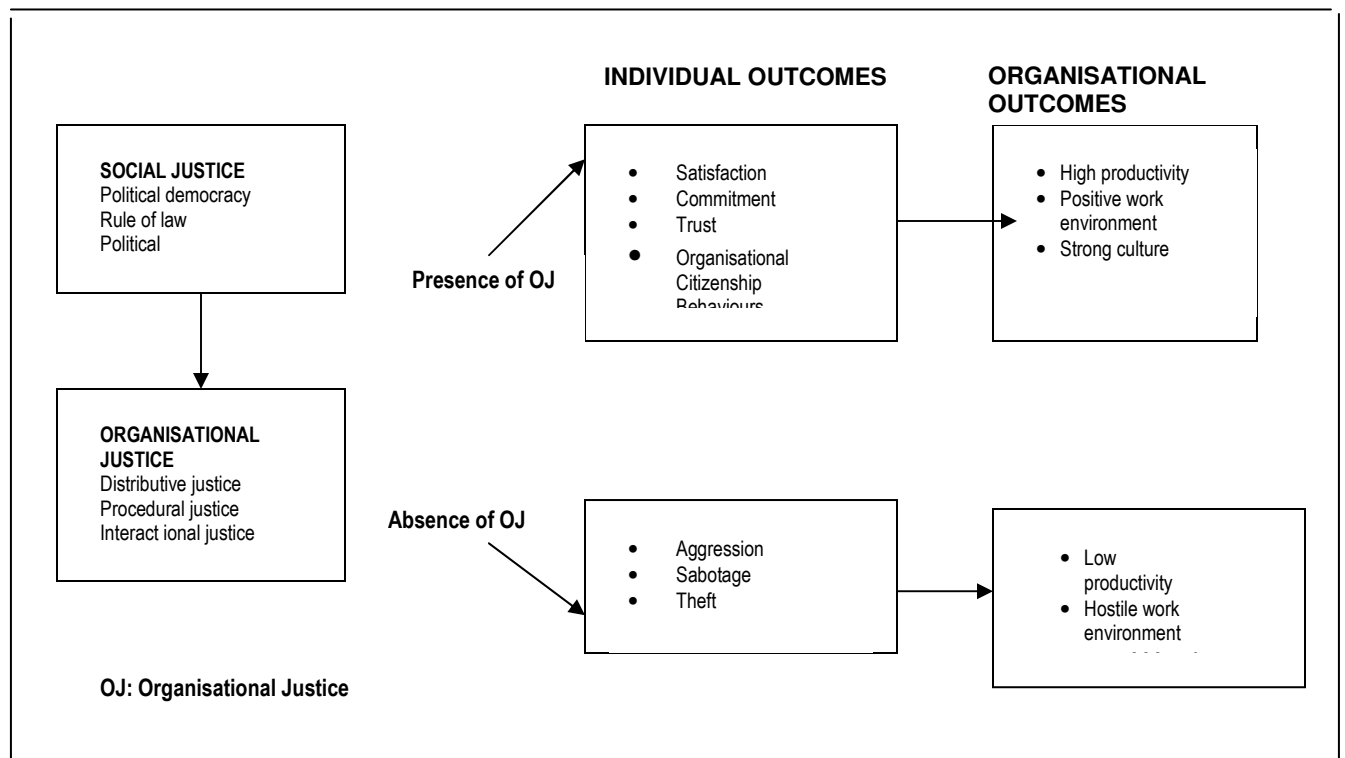
Another important consideration in gauging whether fairness perceptions will be enhanced is an individual's scope of justice (Brockner, 1990). Scope of justice refers to the group of people an individual believes deserve fair treatment. This group is therefore also described as the individual's social identity group. Mollica, Gray, Trevino & De Witt (1999) established that when people perceive that members of their identity group experience unjust outcomes, they judge them as unfair even though they were observer rather than victims of the injustice. Thus, direct experience of the justice may not be a prerequisite for stimulation perceptions of fairness. They may also depend largely on one's scope of justice.

3.8.3 Organisational Justice from an African Perspective

Beugré (2002) provides insight into organisational justice from an African perspective. He argues that the social and political changes that have taken place on the African continent have been dramatic over the past decade. These changes ranged from the end of the apartheid regime in South Africa (domination by a White minority) to pluralistic presidential and parliament elections in most African countries. Beugré (1998) argues that such social and political changes are likely to result in a spillover into the workplace in the form of a quest by employees for more justice and freedom. According to Beugré (1998) the social environment in which employees work shape

their work behaviour. He therefore developed The Spillover Model as per Figure 3.7. which postulates that there is a relationship between social and organisational justice.

FIGURE 3.7 THE SPILLOVER MODEL



Source: Beugré (1998)

This model argues that social justice will lead to organisational justice. The model further contends that if African managers were to react positively to the pursuit for social justice by enhancing social justice, the subsequent result would be positive at both the individual and organisational levels. At the individual level, employees would exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours such as organisational commitment; trust in management and the organisation, organisational citizenship behaviour, satisfaction and reduced turnover. These positive attitudes and behaviours would lead to a higher

organisational performance. Conversely, if management were not to respond to the quest for social justice, the resulting individual behaviours would be high counterproductive behaviours such as reduced commitment and effort, sabotage and workplace aggression. The organisational outcome would undoubtedly be lower productivity.

3.9 TRUST

Extensive research exists on trust and the critical role that this plays within an organisational change effort (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004). Several definitions of trust exist i.e.

- The readiness of a party to be exposed to the deeds of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a specific action significant to the trustor, irrespective of the capability to supervise or control that other party (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1993)
- The degree of confidence the members of a team has in the goodwill of their leader, specifically the extent to which they believe that the leader is honest, sincere, and unbiased in taking their positions into account (Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza, 1995)
- Feature of high-performance teams where affiliates believe in the integrity, character, and ability of each other (Robbins, 1996)
- Confidence that those on whom we depend will meet our expectations of them (Shaw, 1997)
- Trust is centred around three facets (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1988):

- One party displays a hope or belief that the other party will behave compassionately.
- Second, one cannot rule or compel the other part to execute this expectation - i.e. trust requires that one be willing to be vulnerable and take the risk that the other party may not realise that expectation
- Third, trust involves a some level of reliance on the other party so that the result of one individual are subject to the actions of another

These definitions show that trust is a dynamic phenomenon that depends on the interplay of various factors. Trust is extremely significant within the South African context especially when considering the influence of culture, work ethics, language, politics, dress codes, time management, basic values and all other biases affecting relationships (Martins, 2002). Robbins, 1996 identifies five dimensions that underlie the concept of trust:

- ***Integrity*** : honesty and truthfulness
- ***Competence*** : technical and interpersonal knowledge and skills
- ***Consistency*** : reliability, predictability, and good judgments in handling situations
- ***Loyalty*** : willingness to protect and save face for a person
- ***Openness*** : wiliness to share ideas and information freely

Trust is the central issue in all human relationships both inside and outside the organisational environment (Cohen, et al, 2001) and therefore refers to various aspects in a relationship:

- Confidence that one has in the other's abilities and competencies

- Believing other's judgments
- Believing in the extent of how much the other is willing to be helpful
- Certainty of the other's concern to your welfare rather than harming you
- Confidence in the ability to deliver on commitments that were made

Trust is of vital importance for organisational success. Distrust in a team that needs to work together is one of the main causes of collaborative failures. Employees are only willing to share knowledge and expertise when they trust and respect others in the organisation. Trust can therefore also be viewed as a conduit that facilitates the flow of information in organisations and hence contributes to the success and survival of the organisation.

Managerial behaviour has a major impact on the progression of trust in relationships between managers and employees. Managerial trustworthy behaviour can be depicted as preferred actions and exchanges executed by managers that are required through not sufficient to bring about employees' trust in them. Managers who engage in this sort of behaviour will enhance the possibility that employees will reciprocate and trust them (Whitener et al. 1988). These writers state that there are five categories of behaviours that will influence an employee's perception of trustworthiness:

1. Behavioural consistency
2. Behavioural integrity
3. Sharing and delegation of control
4. Communication (e.g. accuracy, explanations and openness) and
5. Demonstrations of concern

Although the concepts of trust and openness to change are not synonymous they both presume an inherent faith in management and both include a willingness to accept risky ventures. Where trust considers the intention of the parties in question, openness look at the legitimacy and basis of the specific change (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004).

When trust is violated the relationship between team members are affected and will in one way or the other influence work performance. The effect on this relationship may be of a temporary or permanent nature, depending on how this violation has affected the individual's self-concept.

The cost of distrust is a concern as Rossouw & Bews (2001) indicates that where trust has been violated and employees feel betrayed, they will look for opportunities to take revenge.

This chapter examined intrinsic issues in the human being as well as attempted to understand what the requirements are for bringing about change on a very deep and personal level of the individual. The job constructs on which the research propositions were based were also discussed in detail.

4 CHAPTER 4: INTEGRATION

This chapter combines all the theory that was captured in the preceding chapters and succinctly captures the most important conclusions realised.

The problem statement for the research was to evaluate what individual employee perceptions had been towards a planned organisational change initiative using the constructs of communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust. This study was also limited to only investigating first-order change, which would be change that would be incremental in nature, aimed at changing the values and attitudes of the employees within a South African motor manufacturing company.

The importance of evaluating the impact of change initiatives on employees as individuals cannot be overemphasised, since many companies implement change ventures without considering how the individual will respond to the initiative. Yet one of the most commonly cited reason for failure of these efforts is individual resistance to change. It is widely recognised that to have real and meaningful change within an organisations, change needs to occur at the personal level. This means that change needs to occur within the individual's mental structures. Only once this has happened can organisational change occur. The individual unit within the organisation is the building block of the entire organisation, and therefore change or resistance experienced at this individual level will result in either the success or failure of the change project.

4.1 CHANGE: GLOBAL, REGIONAL AND SOUTH AFRICAN EXPERIENCES

The world and organisations function in an environment of continuous turbulence. On a global level change there are so many drivers of change and these can include changing customer demands, technology, diversity and the changing nature of work. As a continent, the African continent is the poorest continent economically in the world, and is also the poorest in the world. Africa faces significant challenges including the challenges of poverty, unemployment and HIV and AIDS, with the highest number of infections in the world. Additional challenges include the fact that Africa is mostly governed by dictators and that high levels of corruption exist within the continent, amenities are hard to come by and economically most African countries are in debt and have receding economies. The South African President Thabo Mbeki has urged Africa to bring about an African Renaissance in the next 100 years which should amongst other issues see Africa rejuvenated on a social and economic level. Consequently this has resulted in regional agreements being formed with South Africa spearheading regional agreements such as NEPAD and participation in the SADC region countries coalition. South Africa as a country in itself has been characterised with numerous problems including Gerber, et al, 1987; Booyesen, 2002; 2005):

- The nature of national and international competition and changing markets
- Uncertainties related to recessionary and inflationary circumstances and the organisation's ability to adjust in time
- High technology changes, particularly in communication and computer technology and their educational implications. This technology also leads to unemployment and ambiguity

- Changes in production and service due to changes in the workforce (skilled, unskilled, professional and managerial);
- The productivity and cost-effectiveness implications of worker skills and worker effectiveness and the continued viability of the concern
- Brain drain leading to skill depletion
- The HIV and AIDS pandemic
- Oversupply of unskilled labour in the country
- High levels of unemployment; and
- Political, economic and social changes

Aspects of these global and regional dynamics are further increased within the South African context which is a country that is emerging from significant political turmoil. The political changes have brought about a new dispensation since 1994. This has resulted in intense endeavours to correct historical imbalances in the workplace through its legislative framework. Change is not necessarily perceived as being a positive feature for all who experience it, and this has undeniably been the case in South Africa. The political changes have resulted in the brain drain where skilled White South Africans left the country, as they felt that they were not being adequately accommodated within the workplace. According to Booyesen, 2002:27 the following changes are also affecting South African organisations:

- Change in workforce demographics which requires the effective management of cultural diversity
- Repercussion of Affirmative actions are rippling through organisations in terms of:
 - Black expectations

- White fears
- Salary disparities
- Job-hopping; and
- Low productivity versus high unit costs.

Research conducted by Veldsman and Roodt from RAUS's Centre for Work Performance in 2002 found that South African companies perceive the following forces for change as most important:

- Socio-political transformation
- Different client service delivery mechanism,
- Changing regulations / legislation agreements
- Technological innovation and
- Changing customer expectations and demands

In addition the increasing gap between the "haves" and "have-nots" concerning income levels, education and opportunity (Veldsman & Roodt, 2002).

All these factors have an impact on the organisation and the challenge for the companies is to respond appropriately to the environment in a strategic manner in order to overcome the challenges faced.

When viewing change management theory related to models, several models and theories have been developed over the years.

4.2 CHANGE MODELS

The transition of the individual has been depicted in several models as indicated in Appendix 1, all of which have foundations in Lewin's three-step change model of unfreezing, moving and refreezing. It is interesting to note however that Lewin states that although individual transition is imperative, the group functioning is of particular significance because it is the group context that will determine whether the individual remains changed or not. Therefore the individual and their functioning should to be viewed holistically, and that is within the framework of the organisational context. Although many variables need to be taken into account when evaluating the individual and the impact of change on the individual, one needs to keep in mind that all the individual aspects need to be evaluated within the context of organisational issues and functioning. This includes aspects such as organisational culture since the organisation's character, culture-patterns, tendencies, relationships, and characteristic way of doing things influence how individuals will behave in a given situation. (Chawla & Kelloway, 2004).

Apart from the soft, intangible issues like culture, the impact management and the change agent within the change situation will also play a huge role in how the individual experiences change.

4.3 INFLUENCERS OF THE CHANGE EXPERIENCE: CHANGE AGENTS AND MANAGEMENT

Extensive literature exists on management and what their roles should be in the change process. In this document, the researcher aligns herself with the view that managers cannot “manage” change in the traditional sense, hence the reference to the illusion of manageability. Managers can only influence or engage change purposefully.

Management’s role and responsibilities within a change effort are phenomenal and leading people through a change process can often be regarded as one of management’s greatest responsibilities. Given the traditional managerial role, King and Anderson (2000) warn Managers against the illusion of manageability. This illusion points towards the notion that there are false impressions regarding change and how it unfolds in an organisation. The authors’ term this as the illusion of linearity, thereby stating that change does not unfold in neat little steps and cannot be handled on a systematic, step-by-step basis. King and Anderson (2000) also mention the illusion of predictability which states that based on the existence of the illusion of linearity; one could incorrectly assume that they are in a position to expect what is going to happen next, and to “manage” this constancy using a planned list of action. The illusion of control presumes that because the change is assumed to be linear and predictable, management is therefore in a position to take full control of the situation.

Employees go through several notions before they decide to either accept or resist change. Transition research clearly reveals cognitive and affective dimensions to individual change and raises the importance of not only attending to both when

preparing an organisation for change, but also during and after the change. This research also indicates that the custodians of social science knowledge and practices within the organisation e.g. Human Resources, Organisational Developer, Change Management Practitioners etc. need to ensure that the leadership and management echelons within the organisation are comprehensively educated on understanding the change process and in particular its impact on the individual employee (Van Tonder, 2004).

Chapter 3 mentioned that the individual will go through four stages of personal transition in an attempt to reach commitment during a change process. Personal transition of the employee looks at the various emotional stages that the employee goes through from the past into the future, and is visually shaped like a bell curve where the employee enters the phase of denial, resistance commitment and then exploration. Scott & Jaffe (1989), provide strategies for management on how to deal with the employee who is going through the four stages of personal transition. However what is paramount for management in understanding the human being is the realisation that management needs to become more humane in their approach to employees experiencing transition. Only then will they successfully facilitate individual transition.

This could mean that the employee will accept the change or that they can resist the change for several reasons.

After employees have been through the change, management needs to create a renewed behavioural context as outlined by Bartlett & Ghosahal (1995) through the aspects of stretch, discipline, trust and support. With these characteristics in place,

management is well suited to bring out the best in the workforce and through this context, the sustainability of change initiatives can be ensured.

The change agent is the one member of the organisation who needs to ensure that the change is being implemented appropriately throughout the organisation. There are certain behaviours, roles and responsibilities that go hand in hand with being a change agent which include implementing and managing the change and enhancing resilience, which is brought about by understanding and executing the change and dealing with people.

4.4 THE HUMAN BEING WITHIN THE CHANGE CONTEXT

In an attempt to understand the human being and how change affects individuals, it makes sense to first try to understand the individual within the working environment. The employee comes to the organisation via a contract of employment. However what organisations and management often choose to ignore is the fact that employees are not only appointed on a formal contract of employment but also by a psychological contract. This contract is the unwritten expectations from the employee regarding their employment situation, and breach or violation of this contract can have severe consequences. These include reduced organisational commitment, turnover intentions and lower citizenship. These effects of contract violation are even more deeply felt by minority employees. This brings about the challenge that Management should know what their employees expectations are in terms of the psychological contract and manage employee expectations appropriately. When investigating the individual on a deeper level in terms of their psyche it follows that a number of events need to take place to facilitate the internalisation of the change process within the individual i.e. firstly

the negative emotions of the change are experienced which bring about a great deal of frustration. The process is initiated by a focal event in the form of the individual experiencing a significant event. The individual is then confronted with the problem (i.e. the pending change), which brings about a decision to take action. It is at this vital stage where the individual sees opportunities which may not have been apparent to the individual before the experience of the focal event. The next event that which is pivotal to bring about internalised change in the individual which becomes apparent in the public declaration of intent. In this declaration the employee publicly announces their intention to change. This personal challenge that the individual places on themselves brings about the crystallisation of the intent to change thereby ultimately resulting in internalised change taking place.

Individual values and attitudes also play a big role in how change is experienced due to the fact that values lead to attitudes which results in the behaviour displayed by the individual. South Africa is currently being advised by researchers to incorporate African values into the workplace as it is believed that values encapsulated by concepts such as Ubuntu will bring about a more harmonious working environment with reduced levels of conflict. All employees will feel more included into the organisation which is challenging to achieve given South Africa's extreme diversity. As much as the proponents of Ubuntu suggest that these values will make the organisation more humane. Robbins et al, 2004 indicates that there is no empirical evidence to support this notion.

Resistance to change is cited as one of the most common reasons why change initiatives fail within companies. Various perspectives on resistance exist, with resistance being viewed as a natural outcome of a change initiative, as an outcome of individuals having difficulties processing the concept of change on a schematic level,

and even as a positive outcome to change efforts which have not necessarily been thought through appropriately. Often resistance is viewed by most as a negative outcome of a planned change initiative. Several reasons for resistance exist including selective perception, fears of the unknown, mistrust, habit, self-interest, economic factors, perceptions and social disruption. Countering resistance can be dealt with in numerous ways ranging from participatory to coercive approaches. However management literature proposes that participative methods are usually the most effective in curing resistance.

The purpose of the study was to evaluate whether employee focused change would bring about greater commitment and participation towards planned change through the evaluation of job attitude constructs.

4.5 JOB CONSTRUCTS

On investigating the job attitudes of communication, job insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust it is apparent that all the constructs are inextricably linked to each other.

4.5.1 Communication

All the constructs are of great importance to the South African workplace where issues of redress are paramount. This clearly impacts on the constructs of communication where as a result of the diversity within the workplace, communication and its effectiveness are paramount. Again, due to the historical political landscape, ensuring

that all employees are involved ensures trust and the achievement of the desired change on an individual level.

Communication which one would imagine is one of the most obvious issues that would be taken care of within a change initiative is often not done sufficiently within the change experience. If the initiative is communicated appropriately to employees, the probability of acceptance and sustained change is more probable than when the communication experienced by the employee has been insufficient.

4.5.2 Job insecurity

This job attitude can have debilitating effects on the workplace is managed inappropriately. This includes:

- Stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)
- Decreased work and job satisfaction (Ashford et al. 1989; Davy, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997; Rosenblatt & Ruvio, 1996)
- Increased turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Brockner, 1988; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995); and
- Unwillingness by the employee to fulfill their employer demands and decreased trust (Smithson & Lewis, 2000).

4.5.3 Participation

Participation is allowing employees to be involved from the early stages of the change in the process. Change literature indicates that this is one of the key factors required for overcoming resistance (Chawla and Kelloway, 2003) and employees are likely to

become more involved and dedicated (Kotter, Schlesinger & Sathe, 1986; Makin, Cooper & Cox, 1989; White & Bednar, 1991; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). Kanter (1983) also indicates that management needs to ensure that they are genuine and authentic in obtaining employee commitment, as doing it for show will result in people seeing through this, and the impact on the change will be minimal. In fact the consequences could be even more detrimental to change credibility of the initiative.

4.5.4 Procedural Justice

It can be integrated that procedural justice is of particular importance especially within the African and South African context. Procedural justice requires that fair processes be applied in how the change process unravels. As Beugré (1998) states that issues of justice have moved from a political arena into the workplace. Due to the fact that change is often perceived by individuals as threatening, careful implementation is required to overcome mistrust associated with vulnerability, loss of security and wellbeing. Perceptions about the processes through which change has been implemented, the outcomes and treatment of those affected appear likely to influence whether employees are feeling trusting or mistrustful. This naturally leads to either resistance or acceptance of change (Saunders & Thornhill, 2002).

4.5.5 Trust

Herriot, Hirsch and Reilley (1998) indicate that there are four signs of trust which are apparent in organisational change:

- Assurance that prospects of the change effort will be beneficial, i.e. that commitments will be met

- A conviction about not being misled e.g. Managers will be truthful and will not be selective with the facts or deliberately mislead their employees
- An inclination to become exposed basing the trust in the capabilities of those managing the change process to take on this responsibility; and
- Trust is based on the conviction that people are benign and will not harm employees, and will take care of their interests during the change process

This chapter integrated the most important outcomes of the literature discussed in the preceding chapters.

Chapter 5 discusses the research methodology utilised for the study.

5 CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter explains the detailed methodology that was used to conduct the research within the company. It incorporates a description of the organisation, explanations of the measurement process by which data was obtained, including the methods that were used to process the data and finally concludes with a discussion on the validity and reliability of the methods to be used. The limitations of the research are also discussed,

5.1 THE ORGANISATION

The organisation selected for the research was a multinational motor manufacturing company in South Africa. This company is involved in the production and distribution of motor vehicles throughout the world.

Frederick (1998) argues that companies who tenaciously engage in a path of continuous innovation succeed as they function at the edge of chaos, and due to the fact that they infuse so much uniqueness and change into their standard operations, they continually risk falling over the edge.

5.1.1 Choice of the Organisation

This company was selected for the research as it could be described as one that operates “on the edge of chaos”. This particular company is regarded as an industry leader for new innovations and technologies within their products as they follow a differentiation strategy. Differentiation means that the company strives to distinguish itself from its competitors and a key element of their strategy is focused around

technology. For the organisation, this implies that the company undergoes continuous change in order to keep their product and service provided to their companies unique. The inherent component of this strategy is therefore centred on innovation, which needs to be reflected within every structure of the organisation. Given the uncertainty and change that inadvertently comes with the aspect of innovation, this company was therefore the ideal entity on which to conduct the study.

5.1.2 Characteristics of the Organisation

This multinational company has a presence in more than 160 countries throughout the world. Within their South African operation, the organisation has a staff compliment of approximately three thousand (3000) people comprising of approximately two thousand five hundred (2 500) employees based at the production plant and five hundred (500) employees at head office.

Elements of this company's strategy and culture is based on developing premium products , the development of new ideas, concepts, visions and innovations to ensure the future sustainability of the organisation.

The company had a newly established Change Management Department within the Human Resources (HR) Division that had been established in 2003. This department was established to specifically implement and facilitate organisational changes that would be taking place within the Plant.

5.1.3 The Specific Area under Research

The Change Management Department had a number of change initiative projects running within the company. The project which was selected for purposes of this research was called the New Working Structures (NWS). This project had been initiated in 2004 and at the time of conducting the research had been running for approximately eighteen (18) months within the company. This project was directed by the Change Management Team (within HR) and the Organisational Developers (within the four main areas of the plant) for each of the core areas i.e. Paint, Body-in-White, Assembly and Logistics Shops. The core functions for the various core areas are as follows:

5.1.3.1 Body-in-White Shop

This area is more commonly referred to as the Bodyshop. This is the first part of the production process. The shell of the vehicle is put together in this area which includes a combination of high-tech automated robotic equipment and a team of dedicated specialist associates, committed to ensuring that the body shells leaving the department are of the highest quality. The Body-in-White is divided into over 100 welding stations, each performing its own function in the process of completing the body shell. Each individual pressed part for the manufacture of the body is clamped and welded in either manual or robotic stations to exact specifications. Once the hang on parts have been attached, the section's finished product, the "body-in-white" moves on to the Paint Shop.

5.1.3.2 Paintshop

Paint technology is a crucial factor in creating the optimum visual impression. Applying the paint properly is acknowledged as one of the most difficult processes in modern car

production. The paint shop consists of two major process areas: preparation and application with a third stage at final acceptance. The vehicle body shell goes through approximately 20 processes before the final coat is applied.

5.1.3.3 Assembly Shop

This is the biggest production area of the manufacturing plant comprising of approximately 1200 employees. In this area, all the components are added to the painted body shell. After all the parts have been added and the vehicle is completed, the engine is started for the first time on the final acceptance line.

5.1.3.4 Logistics Shop

This area is a support function to the other three shops and functions as follows:

- Coordinating and managing the Production Program
- Planning material requirements for the production of cars based on the above
- Effective management of warehouse inventory and logistical costs
- Planning, coordinating and controlling warehouse operational activities
- Strategic planning and management of logistical activities
- Continuous improvement of logistical processes

For purposes of this research two areas were selected on which to conduct the research i.e. Bodyshop (T2) and Paintshop (T3). These two areas comprised of 500 staff members in each area and were therefore chosen so that a comparative analysis could be conducted on the two areas. These two areas were also the most accessible

to access at the time of the research as the Plant was experiencing overall production pressures with the development and launching of a new vehicle.

The NWS change process was one that had been initiated from the company's mother plant in Germany to all their plants worldwide to ensure that the organisation secured its areas of strength and addressed areas of weakness within the production areas. This means that the NWS was a production-specific change initiative and the same process was being implemented world-wide within the group to optimise the performance of the production staff on the shop floor. Essentially the core concept necessitated that production personnel on the shop floor would start taking ownership of production-related problems and on the line, and come up with solutions to rectify problems experienced. This would lead to a situation when shop floor operators are owners for their own areas and processes. Relevant changes had been made to customise the project to local South African conditions in terms of marketing tools, strategy etc.

During the time when data was being collected for the project is important to note that the industrial relations (IR) environment was under significant strain. The IR environment had in fact since October 2005 been unstable where workers went on demonstration strikes to display their dissatisfaction with management. The employees' dissatisfaction had arisen from the fact that overall there was a requirement for the plant to increase their volume production and as a result a need for employees to work overtime arose. Employees refused to work overtime on four consecutive days and actually walked off the production line before the end of the scheduled shift. Management's recourse was to discipline all 104 employees who had walked off the line. The union intervened and negotiated the sentence with management which resulted in a blanket ruling; the employees involved would receive a final written warning which would

be valid for a period of 18 months. However during this period, the company established that several employees had contravened the company fleet policy and had through this contravention enriched themselves financially. As a consequence several employees were now facing the possibility of being dismissed and it is against this backdrop that the research was conducted. The first four individuals in the company had already been terminated for breach of contract and company policy and these were employees who had long service with the company i.e. 20 to 35 years. Naturally this resulted in greater mistrust in management and in a generally negative atmosphere in the organisation. Essentially this meant that during the data collection period, the plant was generally characterised by uncertainty, and high levels mistrust between employees and management which will need to be taken into account when viewing and interpreting the results.

5.1.4 The New Working Structures (NWS) Project

This project mission was to:

“Create and implement structures and tools to facilitate change in attitudes and behaviours in support of the Plant vision” – Org X (2004)

The company was on the verge of releasing a new core product and therefore the plant needed a new vision to bring about a new era during the product life cycle of the new vehicle. The results and progress would therefore greatly depend on the active and increasing involvement of the entire workforce within the daily operations of the Plant.

The platform for this involvement was rooted on People Leadership and the creation of Letsema¹ Teams in the production cores.

The objectives of Letsema were to improve the way the employees worked and to:

- Create a working structure on the shopfloor that was based on self-steered teams being the owners of the process
- Create a culture of flexibility and performance orientation
- Create a culture of responsibility, involvement and empowerment
- Create an understanding which empowers associates to act based on business needs, targets and processes
- Create a culture of trust, confidence and a can-do attitude
- Provide a framework for two-way communication between shop floor and management and encourage effective networking
- Increase quality and productivity

5.1.4.1 Team Structure

The teams consisted of a pre-determined number of associates and an elected Group Speaker (Voice). Support for the team comes from the Team Leader, Work Group and Organisational Developer.

The team members would conduct their required activities in formal scheduled time and line stoppages in the form of workshops.

¹ Tswana word meaning groups of people working towards a common goal

5.1.4.2 Characteristics of the Letsema Teams

- Team size of 4-15 members;
- Shared common objectives;
- Communicated through their Group Speakers;
- Convened regular team meetings;
- Teams were partially autonomous (production related issues); and
- Teams were formed around logical groups.

5.1.4.3 Letsema Roles and Responsibilities

Within the Letsema teams, the roles needed to be identified for the team members, Group Speakers, Team Leaders, Section Managers, Workings Groups and the Union. The expected roles and responsibilities of the various stakeholders can be summarised as follows:

FIGURE 5.1 ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE LETSEMA STAKEHOLDERS

Team Members

- Agree on team goals, plan and implement agreed actions
- Establish and implement Continuous Improvement Plan (CIP) ideas
- Exchange information between sections and areas
- Develop and maintain a positive team culture
- Arrange and achieve tasks within the team (taking ownership)
- Maintain order, cleanliness and adhere to the agreed standards
- Organise and implement Group Speaker elections
- Mutual support
- Active participation at team discussions; and
- Support the Group Speaker with the accomplishments of group tasks

Group Speaker

The role of the Group Speaker included:

- Being the “voice of the team”
- Organising facilitating and documenting team discussion being a representative in all production –related team discussions
- Encouraging and boosting a positive team spirit and environment
- Sharing team information with al relevant stakeholders
- Working hand-in-hand with Team Leaders on all team production related issues; and
- Obtaining agreement with other teams / shifts (when required)

The role of the Group Speakers did not include:

- HR / personnel and/or management responsibility
- Disciplinary authority or responsibility
- Did not replace the Union Representatives; and
- This would also not represent new organisational/ function levels

Section Managers

- Actively promote and drive the philosophy of NWS
- Motivate, coach and mentor Team Leaders to use Letsema Teams
- Visual leadership by attending and motivating at team discussions
- Actively driving the new vision through the NWS
- Liaising with maintenance, logistic, production engineer
- Training e.g. subject matter experts
- Document team progress and feedback to Core Manager
- Coach and mentor Team Leader to track progress and ensure communication takes place
- Supply comprehensive information to the Team Leader and Letsema Team on issues such as production, targets and strategies
- Ensure that necessary resources are in place to support and enhance all group activities; and
- Create opportunities for team members to present team progress and activities to management

Working Groups (all supporting persons outside Letsema Team area)

- Support all activities generated and initiated in the Letsema Teams
- Encourage and support implementation of CIP Ideas

- Feedback to Team Leaders on any problems or difficulties experienced

Union

- Support and encourage tem members in the working of Letsema Teams and the philosophy of NWS
- Provide NWS Team with constant feedback on how the process is experienced by the people

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

5.2.1 Degree of Research Question Crystallisation

A formal study was conducted at the organisation, which intended to establish answers to the following research question:

What had employee reactions been to the planned organisational change effort which had taken place in the company? Did employees demonstrate high or low levels of commitment and participation to the change process?

This research also set out to test the following propositions:

P1: Successful change would be characterised by high quality communication and early involvement of employees in the change process, which would facilitate trust

P2: Where employees experienced high levels of trust they would be more open to the change effort and less resistant to the change.

P3: Where high quality communication between Management and employees existed, low levels of resistance would exist due to the early participation of employees that would facilitate trust in Management

P4: Where employees perceived there to be high job-insecurity employees would be more negative to the change and more mistrustful of management.

P5: High levels of job insecurity will be experienced by the youngest and oldest members of the workforce

P6: Positive individual views of processes and procedural justice will be linked to higher levels of trust in the organisation and management / supervision

P7: Where employees perceived management to be unfair, there would have been less effective communication and decreased participation and trust.

P8: The role of Management would have an impact on the way in which employees experience change

P9: The role of the change agent would have an impact on the manner in which employees experienced the change

5.2.2 Methods of Data Collection

The researcher decided to use a triangulation approach for the collection of data which meant that both quantitative and qualitative data was obtained. In collecting the data an interrogation / communication process was used suggesting that the researcher questioned the respondents to collect their information via either personal or impersonal means. The quantitative information was obtained via a survey questionnaire which the respondents received from their Teamleaders, completed and returned to their Teamleaders. Personal interviews were conducted with the Section Managers and a focus group was conducted with the Teamleaders by the researcher to establish what their roles and experiences were of the change initiative.

5.2.3 Researcher Control of Variables

This study took on an *ex post facto design* meaning that the researcher had absolutely no control over the variables and was therefore in no way able to manipulate them. Hence; the researcher could only report what happened at the organisation. The advantage of this design was that it reduced the possibility of incorporating researcher bias.

5.2.4 Purpose of the Study

The study was descriptive in nature since it attempted to determine what employee reactions had been to the Letsema Change Project. The employee reactions were examined via the job-related constructs of trust, communication, participation, procedural justice and job insecurity. The roles of management and the change agent were also

investigated to establish whether they had an impact on how the change effort was experienced by the employees in the company.

5.2.5 Time Dimension

The study was cross-sectional in nature and represented a snapshot of the areas under investigation at the time of research.

5.2.6 Topical Scope

The study was statistical in nature as 800 survey questionnaires were administered to the respondents as part of the data collection process. The study was therefore designed for breadth where the intention was to obtain the population's characteristics by drawing conclusions from the sample's characteristics. The researcher also made an attempt to obtain depth by interviewing the Section Managers and having a focus group discussion with the Teamleaders to establish what their experiences were as the change leaders.

5.2.7 The Research Environment

The research took place under field conditions which means that the research took place in the actual environmental conditions.

5.3 SAMPLING DESIGN

5.3.1 Target Population

The population for this study comprised of two thousand (2000) employees who were involved in the change process as well as their Managers. These were employees from all the production areas within the company i.e. Logistics, Body, Paint and Assembly Shops.

5.3.2 Sample

In conducting the research, the researcher aimed for a large sample in an attempt to reduce sample bias. According to Lowenthal (1996:31), the larger the sample size, the more likely that bias is removed. The second reason for a large sample size reason was to improve statistical power, as statistically significant differences or associations are related to sample size (Lowenthal, 1996).

5.3.2.1 Stratified sample

A stratified sample was used since the manufacturing plant is subdivided into the body, paint, logistics, and assembly shops. The sample for the study comprised of eight hundred (800) employees who only included the employees from the Body and Paint Shops. The qualitative data was obtained from all the Section Managers and Teamleaders in these areas as well which comprised of a total of 18 participants (8 Managers and 10 Teamleaders). The Managers were interviewed by the researcher, and a combined focus group discussion comprising of Teamleaders from each section was done.

The other two production areas i.e. Assembly and Logistic Shops were unable to participate in the study due to the fact that they were experiencing considerable production challenges at the time of the research, and consequently the researcher was not allowed to have access to the desired participants in those areas.

5.4 DATA COLLECTION

The quantitative data was collected using a survey questionnaire whilst the qualitative information was collected using personal interviews and the focus group discussion.

5.4.1 Survey Questionnaire

Quantitative research was conducted in the Plant by means of a survey questionnaire. The advantages for using surveys are as follows (Gillham, 2000; Cooper & Schindler, 2003):

- This method allows contact with people who would be otherwise be inaccessible which makes this a speedy data collection method
- It is an inexpensive method of collecting data in time and money and one can have expanded geographic coverage without an increase in costs
- Minimal staff is required to obtain the data
- It allows respondents time to think about the questions before answering therefore there is a reduced pressure for an immediate answer
- Respondents can complete the questionnaire when it is appropriate for them
- Analysis of the responses to closed questions is relatively simple
- Respondents' anonymity; and
- Lack of interviewer bias

The disadvantages for using surveys are as follows (Gillham, 2000; Cooper & Schindler, 2003):

- One may have a low response rate on some survey questions
- Problem of motivating respondents
- The questionnaire acquires information by solely asking questions,
- There is no interviewer involvement available for probing or explaining questions
- The survey cannot be lengthy and complex and there is a need for brevity and relatively simple and easy to understand questions
- Often respondents returning the survey represent extremes of the population therefore resulting in skewed responses
- Some respondents may experience anxiety
- Challenges of data quality in terms of completeness and precision
- Misunderstandings cannot be corrected
- Not possible to verify seriousness or sincerity of answers; and
- Lack of control over order and context of answering questions

The researcher developed a structured questionnaire around the five identified constructs of trust, communication, participation, procedural justice and job-insecurity. This questionnaire was the primary source of data collection for the study.

5.4.1.1 Method of Distribution

The questionnaires for both core areas were distributed to the respondents by the Teamleaders during their morning pep talks which take place daily before the start of production. Pep-talk discussions are a key means for communication within each team,

where the Teamleader provides his subordinates with all production-related or pertinent information for the facilitation of smooth operations for the day are discussed. These discussions usually last for 20 minutes before production commences. .

The Teamleaders for both T2 and T3 provided a detailed explanation for the reason of the questionnaire as well as details on how the questionnaire was to be completed. All participants were informed that the study was an investigation of their attitudes and reactions towards the Letsema Project. They were asked to complete the questionnaire and assured that their responses would remain anonymous. Individuals who choose not to participate in the survey were asked to indicate that on the form; in addition, they were requested to disclose their reason/s for their non-response. This question was meant to determine whether the survey non-response was actually a means of resistance in itself. Due to the production pressures that the company was experiencing at the time, the employees were requested by most Teamleaders to complete the questionnaire during the course of the day and to hand it back at the end of their shift. Others were asked to complete it at home and return it back to the Teamleader.

All the employees who participated in the survey questionnaire were literate. The company only employs individuals with a Matric / Grade 12 for Operator positions within the company. Naturally, this has not been the company policy since the company started so older employees who have been in the company more than 20 years may not necessarily be as literate as Grade 12, but they would definitely have basic literacy. In the past the company run programmes for Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) to ensure that employees who were illiterate were given the relevant training to become literate. Generally speaking, the Operators in this company are also experienced at filling in questionnaires as numerous surveys are conducted within the company for

various reasons, including an annual Employee Satisfaction Survey. This meant that the individuals should not have had trouble in understanding and interpreting the questions in the questionnaire.

A pilot of the questionnaire was performed on seven operators. This indicated that the questionnaire would take an average time of 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire, and re-phrasing of certain questions was done as an outcome to the feedback that was received. These refinements lead to the final questionnaire which was distributed as per Appendix 1.

5.4.2 Interviews

The qualitative research data for this study was conducted by using semi-structured personal interviews. These were conducted with all the Section Managers in the core areas to determine the following:

- Whether they were seeing the desired change as anticipated by the project
- What they believe their role had been in the leading the change
- Whether they felt that they were sufficiently equipped to lead the change effectively in the company; and
- Suggested improvements / recommendations

The advantages for using personal interviews are as follows (Cooper & Schindler, 2003)

- Usually experience good co-operation from respondents; and
- Interviewer can answer questions about the survey, probe for answers, use follow-up questions and gather information by observation

The disadvantages for using personal interviews are as follows (Cooper & Schindler, 2003)

- High costs in terms of time and money
- Good interview skills are required to obtain the most fruitful information
- Longer period in the field collecting data
- Follow-up is labour intensive and sometimes not possible; and
- Not all respondents are available or accessible for interviewing

According to Kvale (1996) conversations are a basic mode of human interaction. Interviews are therefore planned conversations around mutual points of interest. He further states that qualitative research interviews attempt to understand the world from the subjects' point of view and through this method unfold the meaning of people's experience. The objective of the planned interviews with Management was to determine their experiences of the change process hence the use of this method.

A pilot was performed on the interview schedule with two Managers from the Assembly Shop. After the pilot the necessary changes were made to the schedule with the final being used as reflected in Appendix 2.

5.4.3 Focus Group Discussion

A focus group discussion was held with Teamleaders from both areas. The purpose was to obtain a group view from all the Teamleaders of their experiences in leading the change in the plant. The same interview schedule that was used for the interviews with management was used for the discussion.

The primary advantage of this method is that fact that the researcher is able to establish the key issues of a topic quickly and economically. These are also flexible and provide the researcher with an opportunity to observe group responses in an open-ended group situation (Cooper & Schlindler, 2003). Focus groups are therefore a method for obtaining information from many respondents at once. People involved in focus group feel more comfortable to share their views, as they feel “supported” by the fact that they are within a group and won’t be singled out.

The limitations with this method is that there is limited sampling accuracy and therefore the results obtained in focus group discussions cannot be considered on their own and are best used in conjunction with a qualitative analysis method (Cooper & Schlindler, 2003; Morgan, 1997a).

5.5 RESEARCH PROBLEM

As stated previously, the research problem that was being investigated by the study was:

What had employee reactions been to the planned organisational change effort which had taken place in the company? Did employees demonstrate high or low levels of commitment and participation to the change process?

5.6 RESEARCH PROPOSITIONS

As stated previously the research propositions for the study were as follows:

P1: Successful change would be characterised by high quality communication and early involvement of employees in the change process, which would facilitate trust

P2: Where employees experienced high levels of trust they would be more open to the change effort and less resistant to the change

P3: Where high quality communication between Management and employees existed, low levels of resistance would exist due to the early participation of employees that would facilitate trust in Management

P4: Where employees perceived there to be high job-insecurity employees would be more negative to the change and more mistrustful of management

P5: High levels of job insecurity will be experienced by the youngest and oldest members of the workforce

P6: Positive individual views of processes and procedural justice will be linked to higher levels of trust in the organisation and management / supervision

P7: Where employees perceived management to be unfair, there would have been less effective communication and decreased participation and trust

P8: The role of Management would have an impact on the way in which employees experience change

P9: The role of the change agent would have an impact on the manner in which employees experienced the change

5.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

5.7.1 Survey Questionnaire

The survey package contained questions to establish the demographics of the respondents. It also included questions on the five constructs as well as questions pertaining to the role and therefore the influence of Manager and Change Agent in the change experience. The demographics section which formed the first section of the questionnaire determined age, gender and race of the respondents. It also established whether the respondents were willing to fill in the questionnaire. If they were unwilling, the questionnaire asked the respondent to indicate the reason for their unwillingness. As stated previously, this was done to establish whether the survey non-response is actually a means of resistance in itself.

The second section consisted of 64 questions. This section evaluated the constructs of trust, job insecurity, communication, participation, procedural justice and manager & change agent influence as follows:

TABLE 5.1 JOB CONSTRUCTS MEASURED PER QUESTION

Job Construct Measured	Question Number
Trust	1,7,13, 19,25,29,37,43,49
Job Insecurity	2,8,14,20,26,32,38,44,50
Communication	3,9,15,21,27,33,39,45,51,55
Participation	4,10,16,22,28,34,40,46,52,56,59,62,64
Procedural Justice	5,11,17,23,30,35,41,47,53,57,60
Manager & Change Agent Influence	6,12,18,24,31,36,42,48,54,58,61,63

All the constructs were rated on a five-point Likert Scale, which is a pencil-and-paper attitude scale. This scale asks the subject to respond on a continuum as follows (Papalia & Olds, 1987):

- 1 = Strongly agree
- 2 = Agree
- 3 = Unsure
- 4 = Disagree
- 5 = Strongly disagree

The reason why this summated scaling method was used is that a Likert scale assists the researcher to be able to compare one person's score with a distribution of scores from a well-defined sample group. This method is also a good method for rating attitudinal responses as well as that it is quick and easy to construct. This is a very

reliable method which also provides a greater volume of data than many other scales (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

The Likert Scaling Method was chosen as a measuring instrument for the following reasons (Oppenheim, 1992: 196)

- Utilises internal consistency method of item selection.
- This method can be used for any number of items
- Likert scales tend to perform very well in terms of a reliable, rough ordering of people with regard to a particular attitude
- A Likert scale can be constructed with relative ease
- Provides a more precise information about the respondents degree of agreement or disagreement, which is preferred to rather an agree or disagree statement; and
- This method relates to the attitude in question therefore enabling more subtle and deeper details of an attitude to be explored

It is due to these reasons that this particular method is the most popular method used in conducting social research. The drawbacks however for this method are as follows (Oppenheim, 1992):

- The lack of reproducibility (in a technical sense) meaning that the total score can be obtained in numerous ways therefore implying that this score has little meaning or that two or more initial scores may have totally different meanings. This then means that the patterns of the responses are what become more interesting than the actual total score.

- A second objection is that the scale offers no metric or interval measure and this it lacks a neutral point. This means that one has no idea as to the scores in the middle, whether these range from mildly positive to mildly negative. Scores in the middle however do not exist as these could result in lukewarm responses, which could indicate a lack of knowledge or a lack of attitude in the responses leading to many uncertain responses to the presence of both strongly positive and strongly negative responses which would more or less balance each other out. This would make the neutral point both difficult to locate and even more difficult to interpret.

In analysing the quantitative data, SPSS for Windows was used. Typical statistical techniques for the data analysis included calculations of frequency distributions, means, standard deviations, t-tests, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) methods. The Statistics Department of the University of South Africa provided assistance in this regard.

5.7.2 Interviews and Focus Group Discussion

The results of the interviews and focus group discussion were recorded and summarised for the groups.

5.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF METHODS

5.8.1 Survey Questionnaire

The researcher developed the questionnaire that was utilised for the research. On this basis, only construct validity could be ensured with the instrument, as the questions used in the questionnaire were grounded in change theory. This means that that the

factors that were being measured related to factors that were predicted by the theory underlying the development of the test.

Content validity was ensured in the study as an independent judge agreed that the items that the researcher was trying to measure were correct and the doubtful items were discarded.

As indicated previously, a pilot was conducted on seven operators, and after it had been revised, the final version was sent out to the respondents.

5.8.2 Interviews

The validity and reliability of the semi-structured interviews was assured by using the following process:

- A preliminary interview schedule was developed
- Pilot interviews took place with two Managers from the Assembly Shop to establish whether all the issues are adequately addressed in the interview schedule; and
- Amendments were made to the interview guide after the pilot study

5.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research report has its strengths and limitations. One of its major strengths is that the research was conducted in the field which allowed the researcher to understand the degree of acceptance of the change initiative. Qualitative data assisted the researcher in understanding the demographics of the organisation, the levels of acceptance or in

the respective areas, and the types of experiences individuals had in terms of the constructs of communication, job insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust.

As indicated previously in the report, significant pressures that were being experienced in the plant at the time when the study was conducted which included the plant running behind schedule in terms of producing the required volume, quality problems and a hostile industrial relations environment. These problems were being experienced at the verge of a new vehicle launch so the repercussions on the entire organisation were enormous. These production pressures affected the study negatively in terms of:

- Areas that could be accessed for the study: i.e. Logistics and Assembly Shops could not participate in the study at all since the greatest pressure was encountered in these two areas. Based on this, the results obtained cannot be generalised for the entire organisation and would only be applicable to the areas researched.
- In planning the research design, it had been anticipated that the quantitative component of the research was going to be conducted first, with the qualitative aspect being implemented after the results of the survey questionnaire had already been obtained. The purpose for this structure was to ensure that phenomena which became apparent in the data results could be probed further with Management, Teamleaders and Organisational Developers in the interview and focus group discussions. Consequently, both the qualitative and quantitative aspects had to be carried out simultaneously.

- Only one combined group Teamleader focus group discussion could be conducted when the initial design and arrangement had been that two focus group discussions per area were going to take place. The organisational developers were also unable to avail themselves for interviews. This may have provided richer data in terms of their dual experiences i.e. that of being both recipients and leaders of change
- Hostile relations with the Union representatives influenced the climate in particular in the Bodyshop as four employees had already been dismissed at the time of conducting the study with several other enquiries' pending. Should these disciplinary enquiries not been taking place at the time, a larger proportion of employees may have responded (as a large number had thrown the questionnaires into the dustbin without reading the content!) and their perceptions may have been different to what was expressed. Therefore, when receiving the results back from Body Shop, only two of the three areas had responded to the survey; and
- Due to time-constraints, content analysis was not used to analyse the results obtained from the interviews and focus group discussions. This means that the qualitative information could be said to have researcher bias.

6 CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 RESEARCH REPORTING

In reporting the research results, the attitudes of the employees who experienced the change effort in terms of the five identified constructs are reflected. The research data also sheds light on errors which may have occurred during the research process.

Due to the large amount of quantitative data, this data is represented in the typical forms of statistical graphics including pie charts and bar charts, tabulations and plots. The data was also inverted so that the high score on the scale would always refer to the positive. The qualitative data obtained via the semi-structured interviews and focus groups is incorporated into the document as text elaborating on the responses received.

6.1.1 Quantitative Data Results

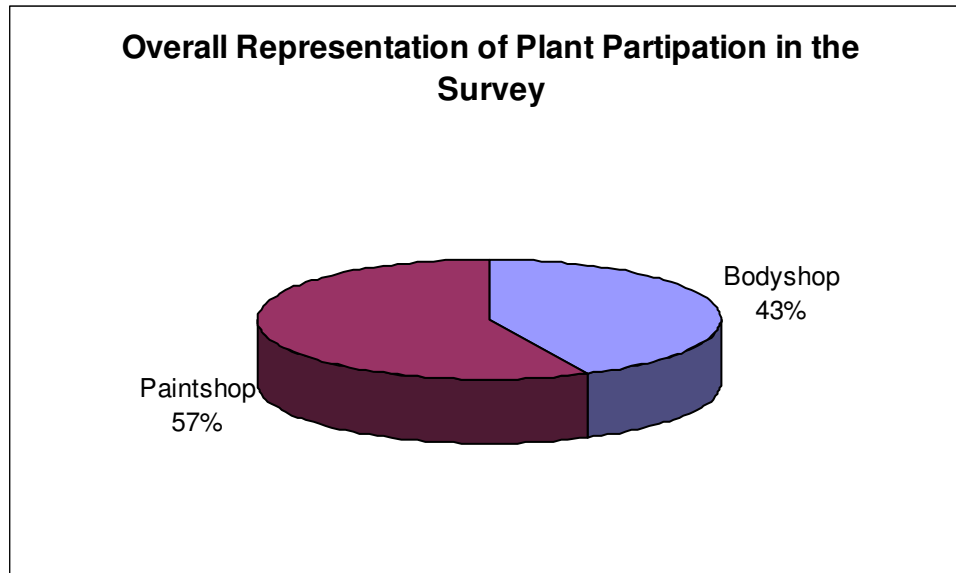
The quantitative data received was analysed using SPSS for Windows software and is reported as frequency distributions, descriptives, T-Tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

6.1.2 Frequency Distributions

A total of 306 questionnaires were received back from the company in which the research was conducted. Of the 306 questionnaires received, four individuals refused to complete the questionnaire altogether. Therefore in the reported results of the quantitative data makes reference to the remaining 302 questionnaires. This a return

rate of 38% as 800 questionnaires were distributed within the organisation, 400 in each area as per Figure 6.1.

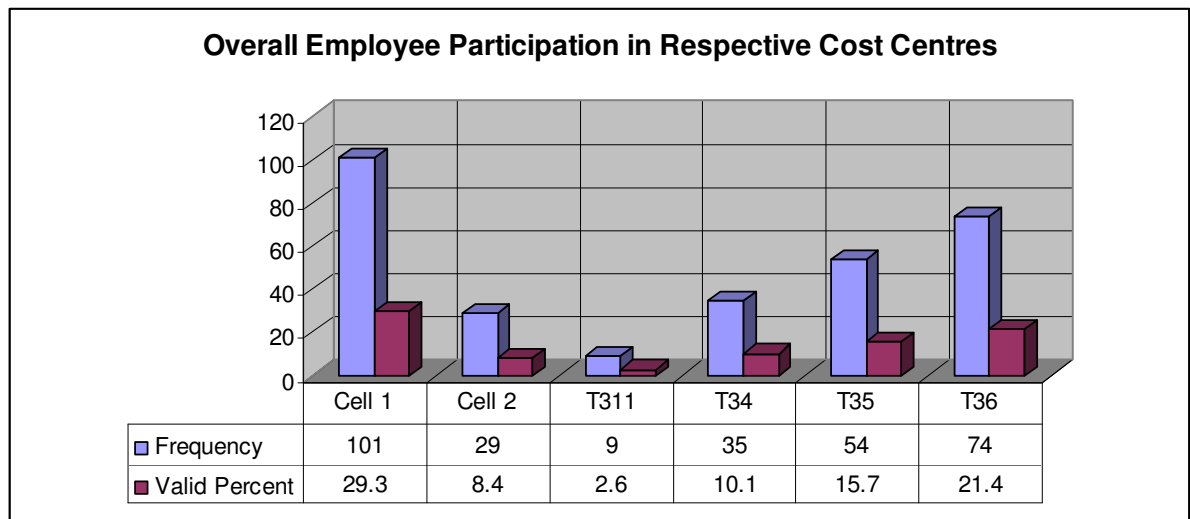
FIGURE 6.1 OVERALL REPRESENTATION OF PLANT PARTICIPATION IN THE SURVEY



In T2 (Bodyshop) 43% of the employees participated in the survey and within T3 (Paintshop) 57% took part.

Figure 6.2. provides an overall picture of the participation of the cost centres within the respective core areas.

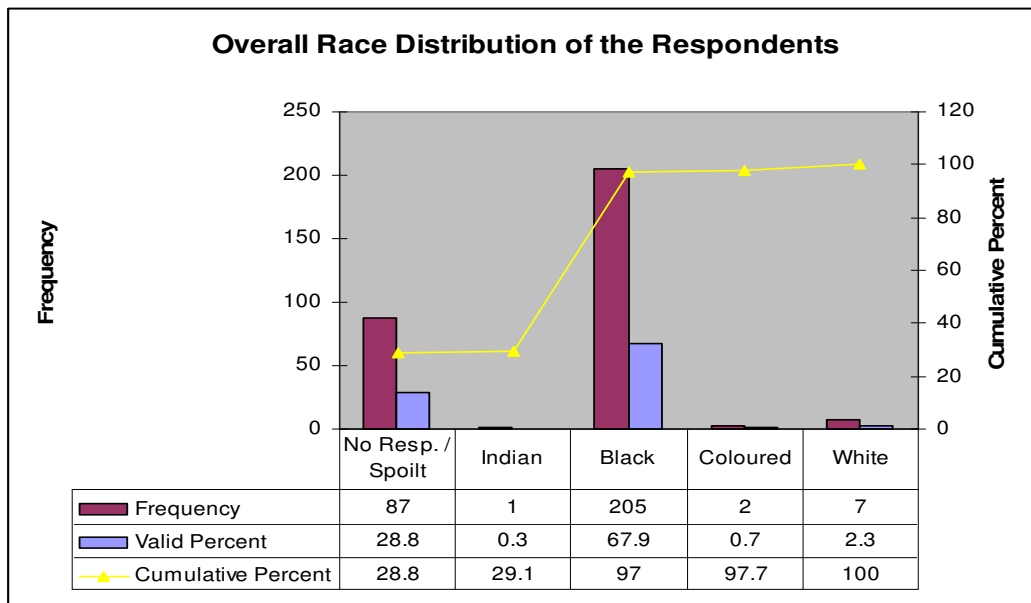
FIGURE 6.2 OVERALL EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN RESPECTIVE COST CENTRES



Cells 1 and 2 are the areas within the Bodyshop (T2). T311, T34, T35 and T36 refer to cost centres within the Paintshop (T3).

The race breakdown for the respondents was as per Figure 6.3.

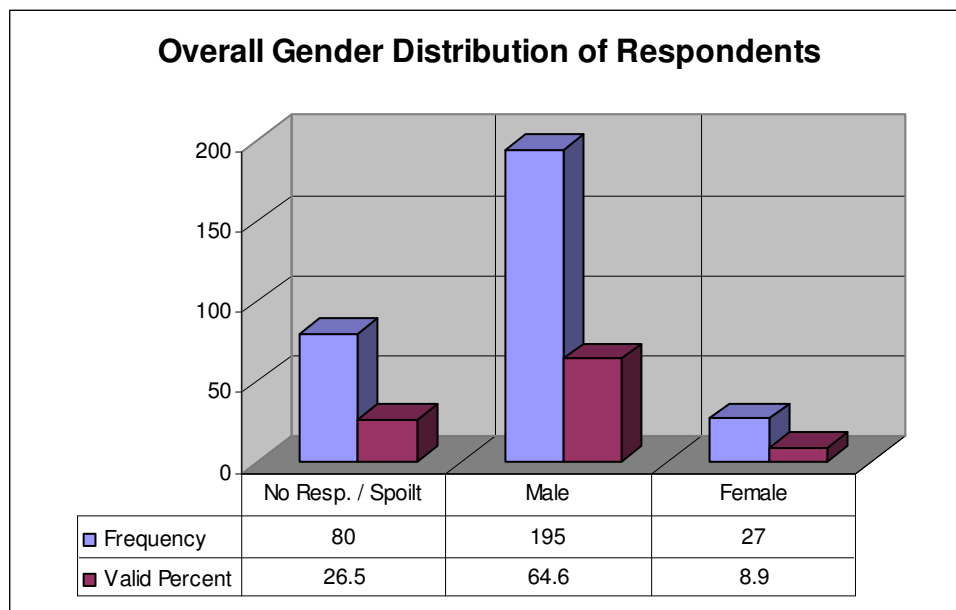
FIGURE 6.3 OVERALL RACE DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS



On viewing the race distribution it is clear that the respondents were predominately Black (67.9%). The other races were clearly in the minority with Whites at 2.3%, Coloureds at 0.7% and Indians at 0.3%.

The gender breakdown for the respondents was as per Figure 6.4.

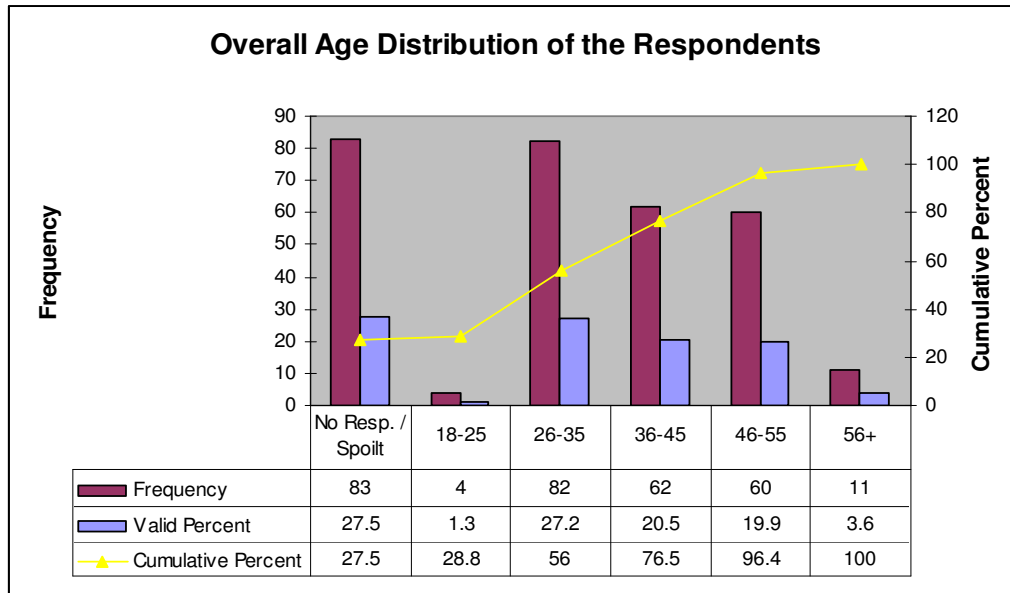
FIGURE 6.4 OVERALL GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS



Most of the respondents were males (64.6) with a much smaller portion being female (8.9%).

The age distribution for the participants was as per Figure 6.5.

FIGURE 6.5 OVERALL AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

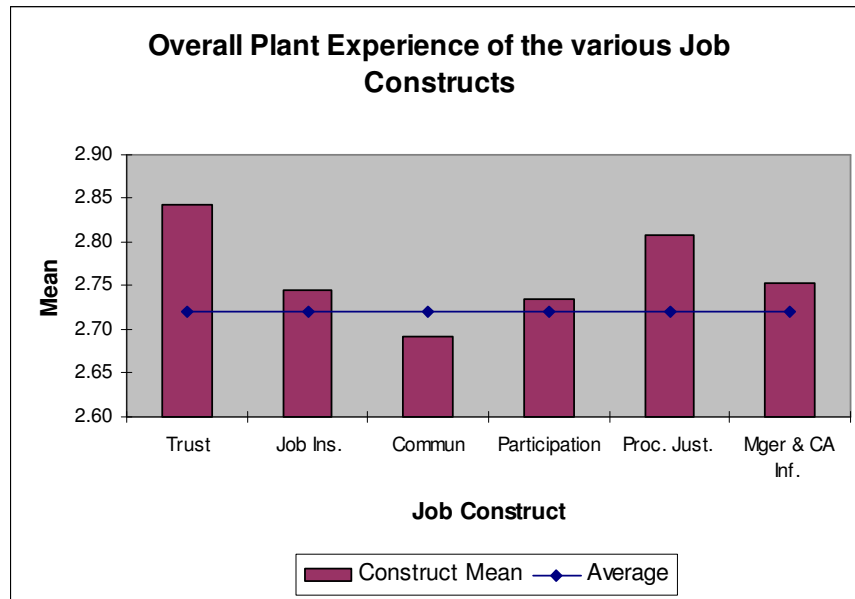


The majority of the respondents fell between the 26-35 (27.2%) year age group followed by the 36-45 year olds and then by the 46-55 year olds. The smallest groups were the oldest employees of 56 years and above (3.6%) and 1.3 % being the 18-25 year olds.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE DATA

Overall the plant performance on the various constructs was as per Figure 6.6

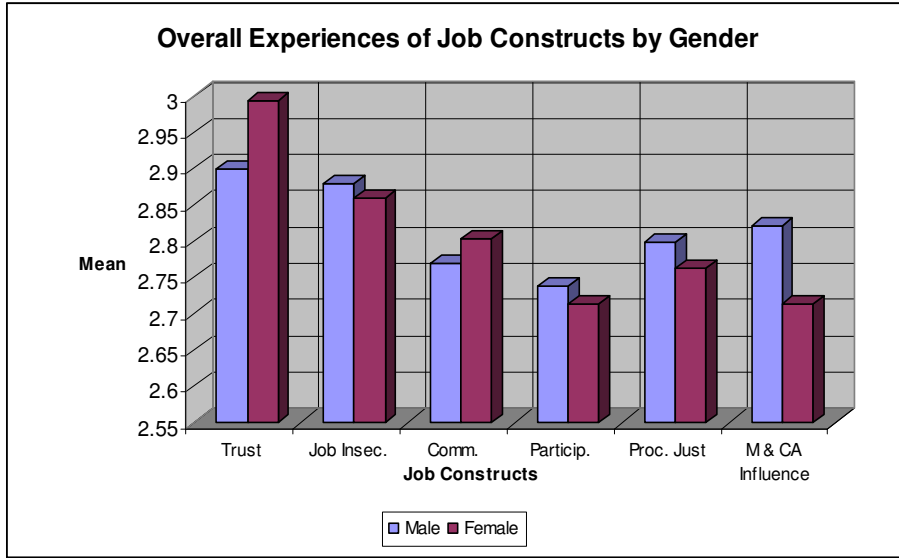
FIGURE 6.6 OVERALL PLANT PERFORMANCE ON THE VARIOUS JOB CONSTRUCTS



The average mean score for the plant was 2.72

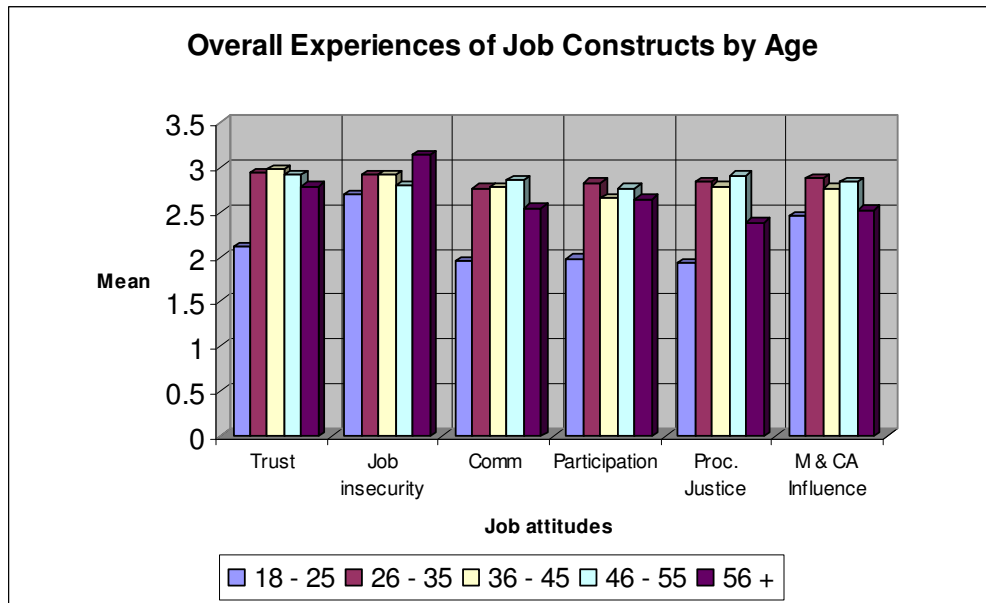
When the overall results are broken down by gender the following results as per Figure 6.7 are apparent.

FIGURE 6.7 OVERALL EXPERIENCES OF JOB CONSTRUCTS BY GENDER



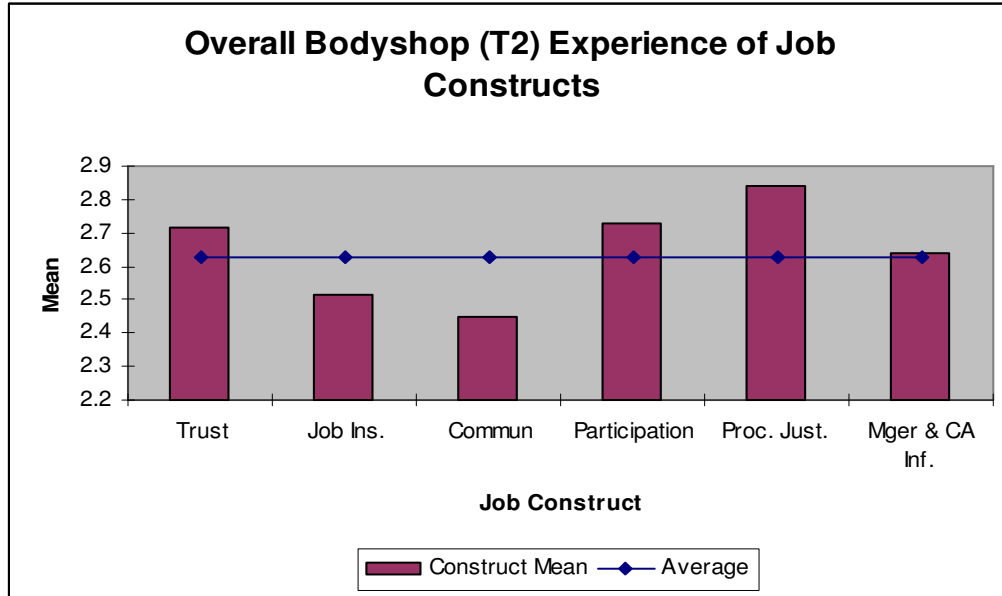
The overall performance on the job constructs according to age group of respondents was investigated and the results reflected as per Figure 6.8.

FIGURE 6.8 OVERALL EXPERIENCES OF JOB CONSTRUCTS BY AGE



The overall Bodyshop performance on the job constructs were as per Figure 6.9.

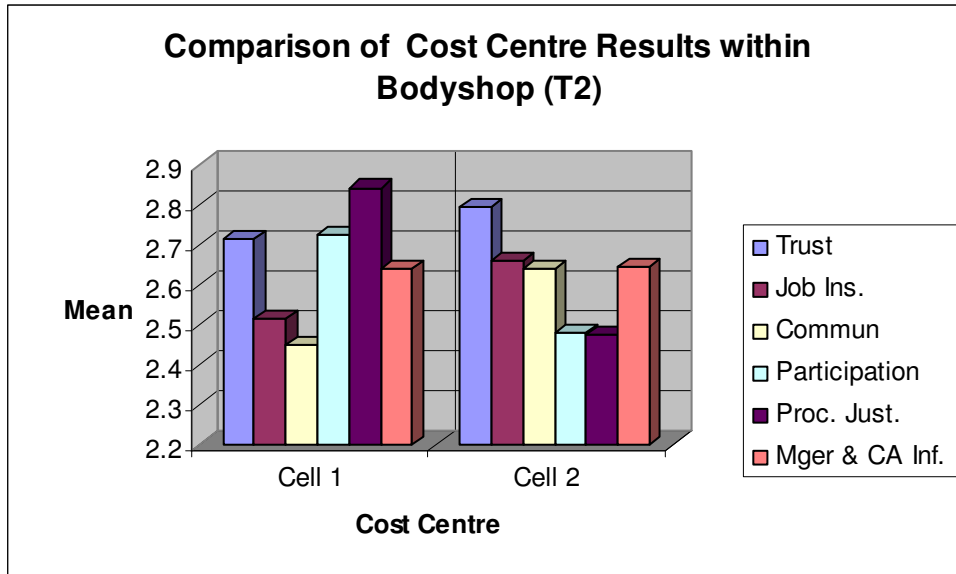
FIGURE 6.9 OVERALL BODYSHOP (T2) EXPERIENCE OF JOB CONSTRUCTS



The overall mean average for Bodyshop was a score of 2.63

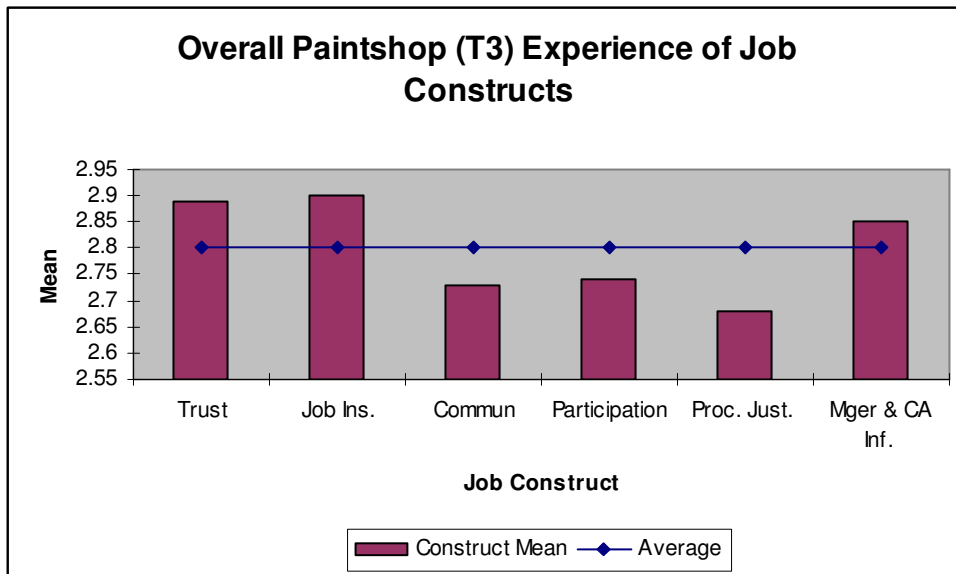
Within the cost centres in Bodyshop the results were recorded as per Figure 6.10.

FIGURE 6.10 COMPARISON OF COST CENTRE RESULTS WITHIN BODYSHOP (T2)



The overall results for the Paintshop were recorded as per Figure 6.11.

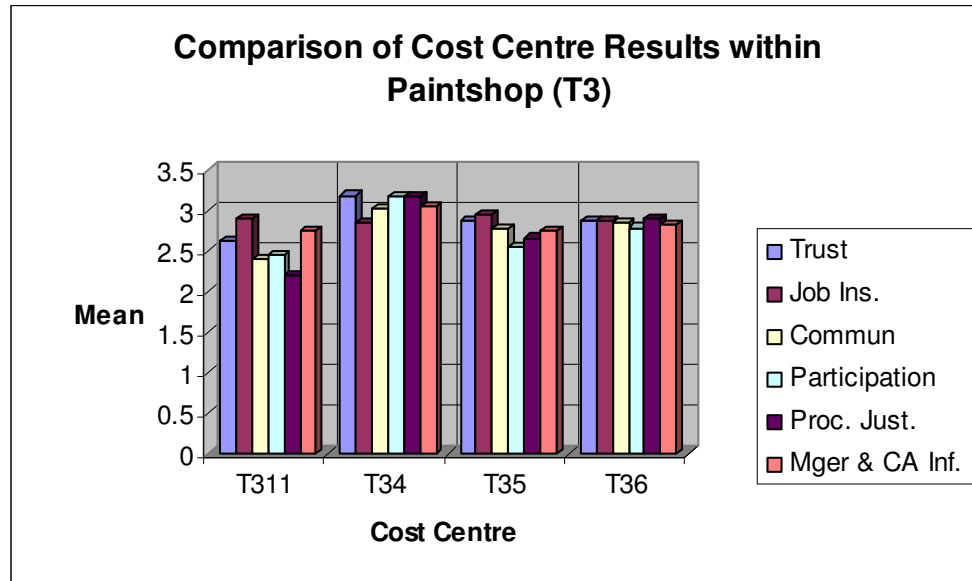
FIGURE 6.11 OVERALL PAINTSHOP (T3) EXPERIENCE OF JOB CONSTRUCTS



The average mean score for the Paintshop was 2.8

Within the cost centres in Paintshop the results were recorded as per Figure 6.11.

FIGURE 6.12 COMPARISON OF COST CENTRE RESULTS WITHIN PAINTSHOP



6.2.1 T-Tests

T-Tests for the group results were conducted to compare the mean scores of two groups and would give an indication of whether there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for the two groups. T-Tests can only be used to compare two variables (Pallant, 2001; Cooper & Schindler, 2002; Kerr, Hall & Kozub, 2002; Field, 2003). Where there were more than two variables, the ANOVA was used.

A t-test was conducted to compare the job constructs based on gender. Of the 302 respondents a total of 222 (74%) indicated their gender on the questionnaire. The results were as per Table 6.1.

TABLE 6.1 T-TEST RESULTS FOR DIFFERENCES IN GENDER

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Trust	Equal variances assumed	1.869	.173	.624	220	.533	-.09461	.15165	-.39349	.20427
	Equal variances not assumed			.691	36.114	.494	-.09461	.13697	-.37237	.18315
Job Insecurity	Equal variances assumed	3.353	.068	.153	220	.879	.01876	.12287	-.22338	.26091
	Equal variances not assumed			.125	30.375	.901	.01876	.15013	-.28768	.32521
Communication	Equal variances assumed	.795	.374	.213	220	.831	-.03496	.16374	-.35765	.28774
	Equal variances not assumed			.186	31.184	.854	-.03496	.18820	-.41870	.34879
Participation	Equal variances assumed	1.460	.228	.152	220	.879	.02615	.17215	-.31313	.36542
	Equal variances not assumed			.136	31.566	.893	.02615	.19284	-.36687	.41916
Procedural justice	Equal variances assumed	.044	.834	.181	220	.857	.03620	.20010	-.35816	.43055
	Equal variances not assumed			.182	33.769	.856	.03620	.19863	-.36756	.43996
Manager and change agent influence	Equal variances assumed	1.213	.272	.762	220	.447	.10813	.14194	-.17160	.38787
	Equal variances not assumed			.670	31.336	.508	.10813	.16145	-.22101	.43727

The t-test for the differences between results in the Bodyshop were reflected as per Table 6.2.

TABLE 6.2 T-TEST RESULTS FOR DIFFERENCES IN BODYSHOP

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Trust	Equal variances assumed	3.061	.083	-.524	128	.601	-.08296	.15821	-.39600	.23008
	Equal variances not assumed			-.592	55.489	.556	-.08296	.14007	-.36362	.19769
Job Insecurity	Equal variances assumed	9.215	.003	-.808	128	.420	-.14305	.17698	-.49324	.20714
	Equal variances not assumed			-.945	59.379	.349	-.14305	.15141	-.44597	.15987
Communication	Equal variances assumed	.080	.778	1.428	128	.156	-.18733	.13122	-.44696	.07231
	Equal variances not assumed			1.432	45.544	.159	-.18733	.13081	-.45071	.07605
Participation	Equal variances assumed	.103	.749	1.644	128	.103	.24524	.14915	-.04988	.54037
	Equal variances not assumed			1.626	44.631	.111	.24524	.15082	-.05860	.54908
Procedural justice	Equal variances assumed	2.535	.114	1.768	128	.079	.36654	.20735	-.04374	.77681
	Equal variances not assumed			2.268	73.210	.026	.36654	.16162	.04444	.68864
Manager and change agent influence	Equal variances assumed	.995	.320	-.032	128	.975	-.00454	.14286	-.28721	.27813
	Equal variances not assumed			-.034	50.626	.973	-.00454	.13312	-.27183	.26276

6.2.2 ANOVA

One-way between groups ANOVA's were used to compare the discrepancies in scores both between and within the different groups. The ANOVA was used where the comparisons were for more than two groups (Pallant, 2001; Cooper & Schindler, 2002; Kerr, Hall & Kozub, 2002; Field, 2003). This was applicable for comparisons for the differences across age groups and for the cost centres in the Paintshop (T3)

The ANOVA for the group descriptives of age were reported as per Table 6.3.

TABLE 6.3 ANOVA RESULTS FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AGE GROUPS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Trust	Between Groups	3.038	4	.760	1.437	.223
	Within Groups	113.086	214	.528		
	Total	116.124	218			
Job Insecurity	Between Groups	1.407	4	.352	1.100	.357
	Within Groups	68.411	214	.320		
	Total	69.818	218			
Communication	Between Groups	3.708	4	.927	1.531	.194
	Within Groups	129.605	214	.606		
	Total	133.314	218			
Participation	Between Groups	3.440	4	.860	1.248	.291
	Within Groups	147.431	214	.689		
	Total	150.871	218			
Procedural justice	Between Groups	5.691	4	1.423	1.541	.191
	Within Groups	197.558	214	.923		
	Total	203.250	218			
Manager and change agent influence	Between Groups	1.932	4	.483	1.034	.391
	Within Groups	99.952	214	.467		
	Total	101.884	218			

The results for the ANOVA in the Paintshop were reported as per Table 6.4.

TABLE 6.4 ANOVA RESULTS FOR DIFFERENCES IN THE PAINTSHOP

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Trust	Between Groups	3.612	3	1.204	2.237	.086
	Within Groups	90.410	168	.538		
	Total	94.022	171			
Job Insecurity	Between Groups	.245	3	.082	.275	.844
	Within Groups	49.901	168	.297		
	Total	50.146	171			
Communication	Between Groups	3.003	3	1.001	1.468	.225
	Within Groups	114.529	168	.682		
	Total	117.532	171			
Participation	Between Groups	9.229	3	3.076	4.439	.005
	Within Groups	116.424	168	.693		
	Total	125.653	171			
Procedural justice	Between Groups	9.720	3	3.240	3.972	.009
	Within Groups	137.045	168	.816		
	Total	146.765	171			
Manager and change agent influence	Between Groups	2.070	3	.690	1.436	.234
	Within Groups	80.693	168	.480		
	Total	82.763	171			

6.2.2.1 Refusal Rates

With regards to refusal rates, this was reflected as per table 6.5.

TABLE 6.5 SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE NON-RESPONSES OR SPOILT ANSWERS

Description	Non-Response Rate
Race	29%
Gender	27%
Age	28%

6.2.2.2 Non-Response on Questionnaire

As indicated previously, of the total number of completed questionnaire four individuals refused to complete the questionnaire altogether. The questionnaire provided the respondent with this option but asked for a reason why they would not want to complete the form.

The four employees who refused to complete the questionnaire were only from the Paintshop (T3) and all of them were from one particular area i.e. the Sealer Line in T311. The reasons stated for this are as follows:

- Respondent A: " I do not see the work of Letsema"
- Respondent B: "Nothing so far has been done to improve the state of my employment. I feel I've been overworked and underpaid and underlooked for my participation and over-working long hours without a thank-you"
- Respondent C: "You should have introduced yourself to use first and give us a clear understanding"
- Respondent A: "I am not interested"

All the respondents were African males and their ages were as follows:

- Respondent A: Between 26 – 35 years old
- Respondents B & C: Between 36 – 45 year old
- Respondent D: Between 45 -55 years old

There were also no results at all for Cell 3 from Bodyshop. The questionnaires were distributed to everyone in Bodyshop, however no completed forms were received from this area.

6.3 QUALITATIVE DATA RESULTS

The qualitative results were obtained through structured interviews of the Section Managers within the Body and Paint Shops. All the Managers who were responsible for production related areas were interviewed since the Letsema initiative was specifically aimed at bringing about a change to the way in which work was done in the production areas.

6.3.1 Bodyshop Interviews

When reviewing the information obtained via the interviews of Section Managers, the following responses were obtained from the Bodyshop (T2):

Q1. The understanding of what the project set out to achieve appeared to be the same. The objective the project was to create small empowered work teams who would be able to influence their immediate surroundings. These teams were therefore supposed to

take ownership and responsibility for their own areas by being able to solve their own production problems as well as to achieve business goals.

Q2. All the Managers seemed to feel that Letsema had a positive impact on them individually as they now had an actual forum where they could interact more closely with their staff members and would therefore allow them to achieve their goals of being able to reduce absenteeism, scrap reduction and improve quality. As much as this was positive they felt that this gave the managers more work to do as they now had additional administrative tasks to perform around Letsema e.g. attend to and arrange additional meetings etc.

Q3. The Bodyshop (T2) employees initially experienced Letsema as a negative entity as this was viewed by most as a management tool. Managers also indicated that there is a high level of mistrust in the Bodyshop and the employees which was also being capitalised on by the union, and the employees did not seem to trust the purpose or intentions of the project.

Q4. There were different views on involvement since some Managers were new to the team and had already found Letsema running in their areas. In these cases, the Managers would need to take over and continue the project. Others had to be involved from the outset.

Q5. The Managers seem to feel that the project was well supported by top management and their support had been shown by the significant amounts of money that had been spent on the process i.e. allowing time off during working hours for meetings and workshops, erecting visual performance boards where team members would be able to

plot their progress etc. All the meetings that were in place regarding Letsema were well attended by Management. They all however seemed to indicate that management had expected a greater outcome than what currently existed.

Q6. Individually all the Managers indicated that they were 100 % committed to the change initiative.

Q6. Managers felt that they were equipped to lead the change as several workshops had been conducted by the change management team. They did however feel that they would have liked more tools to help convince people to see the benefits of the change in the short-term as the results of this new way of working would have a long-term impact. They felt unequipped to deal with the question “what’s in it for me right now?” adequately. Therefore obtaining the required commitment immediately which would translate into the correct values, attitudes and behaviours being displayed was challenging.

Q7. Negative feelings and attitudes were brought about by the change. Putting the Group Speakers into place was a challenge as some people elected Shop stewards into these positions as they expected the Group Speaker to handle issues outside the scope of their function including human resources and industrial relations issues, when they were only supposed to be discussing production-related problems. Other Group Speakers who were elected soon resigned after being elected as they were being intimidated by their team members as “management-puppets”. In addition they were despondent about the “additional work” that they were now going to have to perform by trying to solve production-related problems. They also felt that they would be doing this without getting additional remuneration for this new function.

Q8. The negative feelings that they received from the employees were not addressed by management or anyone else for that matter. They seemed to acknowledge the negative feelings but no actions to address them were mentioned.

Q9. The level of participation by the workforce was mediocre. Letsema made time during production time for people to have meetings. Employees attended the meetings because they had to, but the outcomes of the meetings were poor in terms of the suggestions etc. Essentially employees were not showing initiative or ownership and in Management's opinion, Letsema was therefore not working as well as it should have been.

Q10. Letsema has only partially achieved what it was set out to do as employees still rely on supervisory instructions when they are supposed to be making their own decisions about issues affecting their work. The sustainability of the project is also questionable as the independence of teams has not been fully established. Managers seemed to agree that there were definitely very good success stories in the plant however they seemed to attribute their success to the fact that those teams were already displaying a high level of maturity and were working independently before Letsema came about, and that Letsema then formalised what was already existing informally.

6.3.2 Paintshop Interviews

The four interviews with Paintshop (T3) Managers are summarised as follows:

Q1. The Managers had a common understanding of the purpose of the project which was that small working teams were created and that employees needed to take responsibility and make production-related decisions for their own working areas.

Q2. Three of the four Managers felt that Letsema had a positive impact on them and their teams. They felt that a concrete tool was brought about by which to measure the Teamleader's performance and leadership skills. They also indicated that they had weekly Letsema meetings which were run by the Teamleaders, and on a monthly basis, the Managers would attend the meetings so that they could be aware of their aware of their concerns, and so that they could show their staff that they supported the process and that Management regarded Letsema very seriously. The fourth Manager indicated that impact that Letsema had on him was the challenging since he had to pass on the information to the team so as to empower them, and had to ensure that they understood the objectives of the project.

Q3. The Managers acknowledged that Letsema worked well in some areas and not so successful in other areas. Where it worked well the effect on the workforce was positive and it increased team spirit and productivity. The Group Speakers felt they were being given a chance to develop themselves further in the company and to highlight production issues. During winter some of the employees who had to work outside of the Paintshop raised concerns about the cold weather, and jackets were arranged for them. In the areas where Letsema was not so successful, employees felt that the project was there to

divide them as a group since the Group Speakers now felt that they were more important than the other Operators. Consequently any information that they received from the Group Speakers they regarded with suspicion since they felt that the Group Speakers were now puppets for management. They wanted to use Letsema to further HR issues (e.g. salary increases, disciplinary issues) and did not want this forum merely for production issues. These areas had a lower morale and were much less productive than the other areas which were more positive.

Q4. The Managers indicated that during the project role out workshops had been arranged by the Change Management Department to explain the concept to the workforce. The role of Management during this period was to attend the workshops and to promote Letsema and be seen to be supporting the project. They also indicated that people came to them individually on several occasions requiring clarity on the roles and responsibilities of the different stakeholders. As Managers they also then followed up vigorously on the project by monitoring their Teamleaders.

Q5. Management's commitment to the change was a mixed picture. Some Managers made Letsema a priority while others regarded it as just another one of their duties. Those who were positive wanted to see people making their own decisions.

Q6. Managers indicated that they supported Letsema fully, and that they implemented the suggestions brought by the employees. They indicated that they believed that it would work because the employees had to make their own decisions, and people want to be part of a decision-making process. They believed that it would be excellent for the workforce.

Q7. The T-3 Managers indicated that they definitely felt very equipped to lead the change since workshops were conducted for all who were to be affected by the change. They also felt that they had significant support from the Organisational Developer in their area who guided them through the process. They indicated that where it didn't work, there were no Group Speakers who had been appointed from the team.

Q8. According to the Managers the feelings and attitudes brought about by the change were mixed. For those who viewed the change positively, proposals about how to change the daily operations were being received from employees. In the areas where negativity was experienced, the Group Speakers stepped down from their positions due to the pressure being experienced. They did not like being viewed as management tools and as a result did not receive the required support from the team. This resulted in those areas not participating in the initiatives within the Plant e.g. those areas would have no team appointed Health and Safety Inspector. Where participation problems were experienced these were brought to the attention of the Union.

Q9. These feelings were addressed by being discussed with the relevant employees in team meetings including the Manager for the area, Teamleader and Organisational Developer. This was also discussed with the union who understood the problem encountered by the company and would try to address the problems with the teams.

Q10. Overall the Managers felt that the level of participation was approximately 70%. In the areas where Letsema was working, the meetings are characterised by 100% participation and those groups are working very well together. The remaining 30% where there is no participation are in the Managers opinions either areas where there is

low participation; areas which were not functioning well even before Letsema came into being or a combination of the two aspects.

Q11. When investigating whether the project had achieved what it had set out to do, the overall opinion is affirmative. However the Managers felt that the employees could not be left to alone to the point where for instance they start the production lines at the beginning of a shift without supervision from their Teamleaders and Managers, which would be the ultimate level of achievement.

When questioning what could have been done differently, the Managers indicated that approach and how the project role-out was handled was good. They felt that during the role-out communication and the flow of information between the Teamleaders and Group speakers was not good and that there should have been greater emphasis on role-clarification in the communication of the role-out. This was one of the fundamental problems experienced which was underlying throughout the process.

6.3.3 Focus Group Discussion

As indicated previously significant production pressures were being experienced by the company at the time the research was conducted. Initially four focus group discussions were intended, two within each area. In practice only one focus group was possible. This was a joint discussion with representatives from both areas and comprised of 10 Teamleaders in total.

Q1. The understanding of what the project intended to achieve was common and uniform with all the Teamleaders. They indicated that the purpose was for the

employees to take ownership of what they did on the line by working independently in teams to be come more effective. This was aimed at improving communication channels with the appointment of Group Speakers and to enhance team commitment. The final outcome would be to have more goal-driven employees who were able to sort out most of their own production-related problems.

Q2. The effect that this had on the Teamleaders was both positive and negative. The positive aspects were that they were getting more autonomous teams in their respective plants and of course it was easier to communicate pertinent production-related issues to a few Group speakers than to communicating the information to an entire team. The negative aspects were the fact that....

Q3. The effect that Letsema had on the workforce was that they preferred the Teamleaders to their Group Speakers even through they had appointed them into those positions. They didn't understand the roles of the Group Speaker versus the Teamleader. Some employees thought that the Group Speakers were there to replace the Union Representatives, others felt that they were trying to use this position for promotional purposes to become Teamleaders. Therefore they did not relay all the information that they needed to provide the Group Speaker with regarding production issues.

Q4. Their involvement in the project was to assist in the role-out by ensuring that the elections in the respective areas took place for the Group Speakers and that they explained and clarified questions as and when they received them. They also attended workshops to assist them in dealing with employees regarding the project.

Q5. The Teamleaders felt that overall Management's commitment to Letsema was good. The Paintshop felt that they were the best in terms of the Letsema implementation and this was mainly based on the Manager and Organisational Developer's role in supporting the project.

Q6. The Teamleaders who were positive felt that it made their lives easier as Teamleaders since people were able to take control of daily production issues. They felt that at first they had to put in a lot of hard work to get it working but that they were reaping the benefits of Letsema. The more negative Teamleaders indicated that it was more work, since they had to have additional duties to perform in terms of Letsema and their performance was measured on Letsema. They indicated that there was also no consistency in their measurement against this criteria, since this depended entirely on the Manager and how important they viewed Letsema to be. Therefore some Teamleaders were measured on Letsema and others were not.

Q7. The Teamleaders felt equipped to lead the change since they had attended the workshops and information sessions held for Teamleaders.

Q8. The feelings and attitudes brought about to the workforce were initially negative, uncertain and suspicious feelings and attitudes from the employees. Bodyshop had the situation where they felt the younger employees would not participate and the Paintshop experienced the reverse. They had problems with older employees and felt that their resistance was based on ignorance. They felt that they could not force them to change if they didn't want to.

Q9. Both groups of Teamleaders indicated that they dealt with the problems experienced on an individual level and encouraged people to participate so that they could get the required information. The level of participation was estimated at between 70%- 80% for both areas.

Q10. The Teamleaders believed that the project had not fully achieved what it had set out to achieve with regards to working independently and decision-making. They also felt that all the continuous improvement processes that had come out from the team had not been implemented. Negative employees who did not want to participate continuously asked "what's in it for me?" They didn't want to generate any solutions to problems without being compensated for their ideas.

Q11. Recommendations from the two groups is that the Group Speakers should rotate, as the longer they keep the Group Speakers in these positions, the more they feel that they should be paid for additional duties that they are performing. Difficult areas should get additional support

This chapter reported the results obtained from the survey questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussion.

7 CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 7 discusses the results reported in Chapter 6 and makes conclusions and recommendations based on the outcomes of the entire report.

7.1 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

7.1.1 Quantitative Results

The data was collected by the researcher and the data analysis was done using SPSS for Windows software.

In interpreting the mean scores the necessary items where changed so that a high score on a scale is always positive – e.g. if there was a high score for job-insecurity, it would be interpreted that the areas experienced a high level of job security etc.

7.1.1.1 Frequency Distributions

When looking at Figure 6.1 which represented the overall participation of the plant (includes both areas) in the research it is apparent that Paintshop (T3) had a higher participation rate of 57% whereas the Bodyshop (T2) only had a 43% participation. As mentioned previously, Bodyshop employees were particularly negative at the time of conducting the survey due to the dismissal of four long-servicing employees of the company. There were also several other disciplinary enquiries pending for mass

misconduct. During a critical production period the employees had been requested by the company to work overtime. Several of the employees refused by walking off the line at the normal knock-off time. Numerous employees from this area spoke to the HR Consultant and indicated that they had thrown several blank questionnaires into the dustbin since they did not trust management and did not want to communicate with management at all.

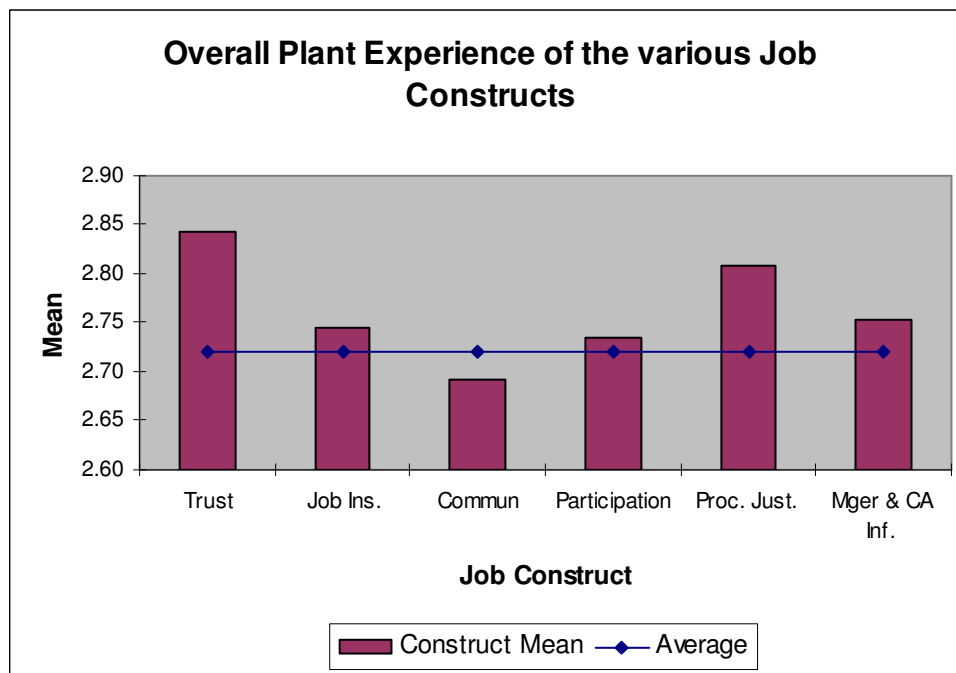
When viewing Figure 6.2. which depicts the breakdown of the respondents and the cost centres where they were from, the cost centre which had the highest level of participation was from Cell 1 in the Bodyshop where 29.3% of the employees had participated in the research. The lowest level of participation came from T311 in the Paintshop where 2.6% of the employees participated.

7.1.1.2 Demographics of Respondents

In terms of race (figure 6.3), the majority of the respondents were Black (68%). The remaining race groups were White (2.3%), coloured (0.7%) and Indian (0.3%). As can be expected of production environments, the gender distribution (figure 6.4) indicates that 65% of the respondents were male and 9% were female. With respect to age (figure 6.5), the highest participators came from the 26-35 (27.2%) year age group, followed by the 36-45 (20.5%), 46-55 (19.9%), and the 56+(3.6%) year age group. The lowest number of respondents had come from the 18-25 (1.3%) year age group.

On viewing the descriptive data the overall data is represented by Figure 6.6 below.

FIGURE 7.1 OVERALL PLANT EXPERIENCES OF THE VARIOUS JOB CONSTRUCTS



It is apparent that individuals in the plant overall experienced high levels of trust, job insecurity, participation, procedural justice and manager and change agent influence. With regards to communication, the response was below-average.

When these overall results are broken down into demographics the following is deduced:

- **Gender** (figure 6.7): Females experienced much higher levels of trust than male employees. Males felt more insecure by the change than females. Females also had experiences that were more positive on the communication process. Males scored higher on the constructs of job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and manager and change agent influence.

- **Age Groups** (figure 6.8): Overall positive levels of trust, communication, participation, procedural justice and manager and change agent levels existed. In the same breath, high levels of job insecurity also existed. It is interesting to notice that the 18-25 year age group consistently indicated significantly lower results on the constructs, meaning that they were more negative to the change than the rest of the age groups. This is most likely to be aligned to the research conducted by Smithson & Lewis (2000) which indicated that the youngest employees in the workforce are likely to display higher levels of job –insecurity which would be linked to high levels of mistrust. With the particular company used for the research a large number of young fixed-term contractors are appointed throughout the year used so that the company is able to maintain a flexible workforce and can meet production demands. This can be done by either appointing or releasing temporary workers. The overall more negative result towards the change could be attributed to the fact that the younger employees would like to be appointed on a permanent basis, and may have low levels of trust because some have had their contracts renewed in the past without them being appointed permanently onto the workforce.

On looking at the Bodyshop results (Figure 6.9) it is clear that the employees scored highly on trust, participation, procedural just and manager and change agent influence. They experienced low job-insecurity which is surprising given the volatile industrial relations environment at the time. They also experienced communication to be below-average.

The only conclusion the researcher can come to regarding the Bodyshop results is that the respondents who participated in the research were the more positive individuals in

the plant. They, like their other colleagues could have thrown away the questionnaire which is a very strong indication that there was a high level of resistance. Whether the resistance was specifically aimed towards the change project is debatable. However, in the opinion of the researcher, the overall results of the project would have been more favourable had the industrial relations and overall plant environment been more stable at the time that the research was conducted.

When viewing the results for Paintshop, the results are quite different to those of Bodyshop. The employees in Paintshop were very positive to the change. When viewing figure 6.11 and comparing them to the overall results of Bodyshop in figure 6.10, one could be misled into believing that the results for Bodyshop were more positive than that for Paintshop. The overall mean score for Paintshop was 2.8 versus Bodyshop which scored 2.6. However given the average mean score for Paintshop, the employees in this area experienced high levels of trust, job insecurity and manager and change agent influence. They were found to have experienced below-average results on communication, participation and procedural justice.

7.1.1.3 T-Tests

When looking at the significance levels (sig.2-tailed) in the results for the t-tests for differences between gender (table 6.1), all the scores are above 0.005. This means that equal variances are assumed and that the assumption for equal variances has not been violated. Therefore there is no significant difference between the two areas with regards to gender.

The t-test for the differences in the Bodyshop (figure 6.2) shows that the significance levels are all somewhat above 0.005 excluding the significance value for procedural justice which scores 0.79. This means that although the result is greater than 0.005 the results are significant at a 10% level and not at a 5% level.

7.1.1.4 ANOVA

The ANOVA analysis was conducted where there were more than two variables that needed to be compared. Therefore, the ANOVA was conducted for the comparison of differences between age groups and the cost centres within the Paintshop.

When analysing the ANOVA data, the between group scores indicate how the group means vary amongst themselves and the within-groups scores are based on how much the observations vary within each of the groups. When looking at the ANOVA results for differences between age groups (table 6.3) the significance scores are all higher than 0.005 which means that no significant differences between the age groups exists.

Table 6.4 which looks at the differences in the Paintshop brings the attention of participation and procedural justice to the fore which had scores of 0.005 and 0.009 respectively. This tells one that there were significant differences in the experiences for those two constructs in the Paintshop. A post-hoc analysis was not done to establish where these differences occurred, however on viewing the means for these two constructs in those two areas T34 had a much higher mean than T311, T35 and T36. Therefore, it is likely that the differences occurred in this area.

7.1.1.5 Non-Response to the Questionnaire

As indicated initially, 306 employees returned the questionnaires, four of whom had refused to complete the questionnaire altogether. This option was made available to the respondents in an effort to establish whether there was resistance to the change overall. These four employees were only from the Paintshop (T3) and all from one particular area i.e. the Sealer Line. The reasons stated for this are as follows (quoted at verbatim):

- Respondent A: " I do not see the work of Letsema"
- Respondent B: "Nothing so far has been done to improve the state of my employment. I feel I've been overworked and underpaid and underlooked for my participation and over-working long hours without a thank-you"
- Respondent C: "You should have introduced yourself to us first and give us a clear understanding"
- Respondent A: "I am not interested"

All the respondents were African males and their ages were as follows:

- Respondent A: Between 26 – 35 years old
- Respondents B & C: Between 36 – 45 year old
- Respondent D: Between 45 -55 years old

It can be deduced that there was resistance however this was not at a high level. The difference between the manners in which resistance was expressed between the two areas is that the Bodyshop employees threw the questionnaires into the dustbin and the Paintshop employees used the procedure provided to them to indicate discomfort with completing the questionnaire.

When examining the graphs, one is astonished by the high level of non-responses or spoilt questions. These were summarised as per Table 6.5. The researcher's interpretation is the employees probably felt uncomfortable with answering these questions and left out the answers on that basis. It is also interesting to note that this occurred mainly with the demographic questions.

7.2 DISCUSSION OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA

In looking at the results obtained from Paint and Body Shops, there were certainly differences that the researcher picked up regarding body language, underlying cues in the interviews. Both areas clearly understood the purpose and need for the change and did their best to implement the project as required by the company. The different dynamics were as follows:

7.2.1 Bodyshop

The union certainly played a huge role in how the change was experienced as well as their industrial relations climate. Although the union had been part of the initial planning sessions of the project and they had been consulted on the pending changes, when the project was implemented and Group Speakers needed to be elected, they made the Group Speakers feel uncomfortable and accused management of finding underhanded tactics to replace them. The researcher also sensed that the negative and counterproductive behaviour of the union members caused great frustration for the Managers and that little trust existed between management and the union. Managers in the Body Shop had really bought into the process but felt that they were going against the tide by bringing about the change, and indicated that the workforce could not

comprehend the true value of the project since they all wanted to know how they could benefit immediately from the change and the discomfort that it had brought them. They could not see the long term view.

7.2.2 Paintshop

The union activity in Paintshop was very positive in fact Paintshop made no mention at all of negativity or counterproductive behaviour from the union. The management team at the Paintshop is regarded highly within the plant and are viewed as being the most proactive management teams in the plant. On speaking to the Managers the researcher noted that they had definitely bought into the change. There researcher was concerned about the attitude of one manager who happened to be the only Black manager in the team, who felt that he could not influence the people at all. "It is up to them to decide if they want to change or not. I cannot force them." What was alarming was the fact that he did not seem to realise the importance of his own role as a manager and that his attitude towards the project would impact on his workforce. The results for his area also reflected this notion since his area was the poorest performing area, and the problems experienced with the implementation of Letsema were mostly in this area.

7.3 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the overall findings the following conclusions can be made with regards to the propositions proposed at the inception of the study:

P1: Successful change would be characterised by high quality communication and early involvement of employees in the change process, which would facilitate trust

Based on the results for this survey, this proposition is accepted. Even though the construct of communication had the lowest score overall, the mean score for this construct was 2.69 compared to participation and trust, which were 2.73 and 2.84 respectively. This means that the communication was still experienced as being adequate. Therefore based on the good communication and early participation, the respondents demonstrated a high level of trust in the organisation.

P2: Where employees experienced high levels of trust they would be more open to the change effort and less resistant to the change.

This proposition is accepted. Even through the company was experiencing tremendous pressure at the time the study was conducted; the overall results of the change effort appear to have been positive. This is despite the fact that in the Bodyshop several questionnaires were thrown away and dismissals were taking place. It can therefore be assumed that the results would have been even more positive had the research been conducted at another time when the environmental factors would be more stable.

P3: Where high quality communication between Management and employees existed, low levels of resistance would exist due to the early participation of employees that would facilitate trust in Management

This proposition is accepted. The high quality communication resulted in above average scores for participation and trust.

P4: Where employees perceived there to be high job-insecurity employees would be more negative to the change and more mistrustful of management.

This proposition is rejected since the employees in the company had a high level of job-insecurity and were yet demonstrated very high levels of trust in the organisation. The assumption that could be made is that perhaps the employees generally trusted management but were uncertain of what the implications of the Letsema project would be.

P5: High levels of job insecurity will be experienced by the youngest and oldest members of the workforce

This proposition is accepted. A high level of procedural justice was linked to high levels of trust in the organisation.

P6: Positive individual views of processes and procedural justice will be linked to higher levels of trust in the organisation and management or supervision

This proposition is accepted. Employees in the 56+ category demonstrated the highest level of job-insecurity overall. The youngest employees showed the highest level of job security overall.

P7: Where employees perceived management to be unfair, there would have been less effective communication and decreased participation and trust.

This proposition is accepted since the employees' perceived management to be fair which was aligned with effective communication, increased participation and high levels of trust

P8: The role of Management would have an impact on the way in which employees experience change

This proposition is accepted. The role of management definitely affected the change experience by the individual.

P9: The role of the change agent would have an impact on the manner in which employees experienced the change

This proposition is accepted. The role of the change agent influenced the change experience by the individual.

Additional findings were that when viewing the constructs by age younger employees, the youngest employees in the company were the most resistant to the change overall since they achieved the lowest scores for all the constructs except for job insecurity. The expectation would have been that the older employees would have been less positive.

It can be concluded that the change initiative was successful overall. Although the timing of the research was not ideal due to the constraints that the plant was facing, the researcher was able to obtain a clear indication of the feelings regarding the experience

of change from the areas researched. Resistance was clearly evident with people who refused to complete and return the questionnaire.

The results for the research can not be generalised to the entire organisation or to the population at large since only two of the four areas were investigated and this only constituted 40% of the population. The results can be generalised for the two areas reviewed and it could generally be stated that the initiative was experienced as being positive in those two areas.

The study findings on the construct of communication, job-insecurity, participation, procedural justice and trust suggest that employee-focused change management initiatives can help organisations through a planned change effort and can sustain the required individual behaviours for the organisation.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Overall recommendations made for the study were for mechanisms on how to deal with resistance, specific guidelines for the job constructs and the job attitudes. A behavioural guide for changing leadership behaviour is also indicated.

7.4.1 Dealing with resistance

Pardo del Va & Fuentes (2003) provide Managers with the following guidelines for managing resistance:

Managers should pay special attention to certain topics. First, to reduce resistance caused by deep-rooted values, manager should consider how much organisational culture fits with change objectives and what could be done to improve these before the change process begins. This cultural consideration would also help to bring employees management interests closer and to avoid organisational silence.

Another aspect which needs to be considered is training. This would be a good tool to surpass communication difficulties and thus avoid resistance caused by communication barriers, as well as to help reduce the gap between the present situation and the capabilities required for the change process.

7.4.2 Management Strategies for each stage of the Personal Transition Model

Scott & Jaffe (1989) state that Managers have an intrinsic role to play within the scope of change. The writers developed the model for personal transition as per Figure 3.5. Subsequently they developed the following recommendations for each stage of the model as follows:

7.4.2.1 Management Response to Denial (Stage 1)

Scott & Jaffe (1989) indicates that the Manager is likely to see withdrawal in staff, 'business as usual' attitudes with the person's attention focused on the past. During this stage there is normally activity to commence with the changes within the organisation but not much is accomplished at this point. Management should therefore confront individuals with information and they should be informed that the change will be taking

place. An explanation detailing what to expect and suggestions regarding the actions they can take to adjust to the change are necessary. The manager should give staff time to let the occurrence sink in, and then arrange a planning session to start discussing issues in more detail.

7.4.2.2 Management Response to Resistance (Stage 2)

In this stage management is likely to see anger, blame, anxiety, depression and even a downing of tools. Scott & Jaffe (1989) say that at this stage people are asking themselves “what’s the difference? Does this company not care anymore?” Management’s response in this instance should be to listen, acknowledge feelings, respond empathetically and encourage support. They should not try to talk people out of their feelings, or tell them to change or pull themselves together. Accepting the individual’s their response will allow the individual to continue telling the manager how they are feeling. This is important, as it will assist the manager to respond appropriately to some of their concerns.

7.4.2.3 Management Response to Exploration (Stage 3)

Management may recognise this phase with employees demonstrating over preparation, confusion, chaos and energy. During this phase people are more rejuvenated and have an attitude of “let’s try and see what this is all about?” An abundance of energy and new ideas but a lack of coherence characterises this phase. Management should therefore concentrate on the priorities within the change and provide any necessary training. Short-term goals should be set and brainstorming and planning sessions should be conducted to bring about the required structure within the uncertainty. Follow-up

projects should also be scheduled to reinforce the brainstorming and planning sessions (Scott & Jaffe, 1989).

7.4.2.4 Management Response to Commitment (Stage 4)

During the final phase employees work together. There is cooperation and enhanced co-ordination. Employees are asking themselves “how can we work on this?” Those individuals who are committed to the change are looking for the next challenge. Management should therefore set long-term goals at this juncture. Emphasis and priority should be given to team building. It is also recommended that management acknowledge and reward those responding positively to the change.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS TO MANAGERS REGARDING THE INFLUENCING OF JOB-ATTITUDES DURING THE CHANGE PROCESS

Literature on the job-attitudes of communication, procedural justice and trust within the change context provides recommendations that managers need to be taken into cognisance when handling these elements within the change process.

7.5.1 Communication

Scott & Jaffe (1989) provides the following guidelines for Managers regarding communication during an organisational change effort:

7.5.1.1 Address Staff in Person

Contrary to popular managerial behaviours, a memo or newsletter is typically not the most effective way of informing people about important changes. Written announcements do not allow people to express their feelings directly. They also run the risk of being perceived as a way of avoiding dealing with people's responses. Staff members should rather be addressed in person and memo's and newsletter are good as a follow-up after a meeting because people who are in denial may have difficulty in "hearing" the information that disturbs their security.

7.5.1.2 Tell People the Truth

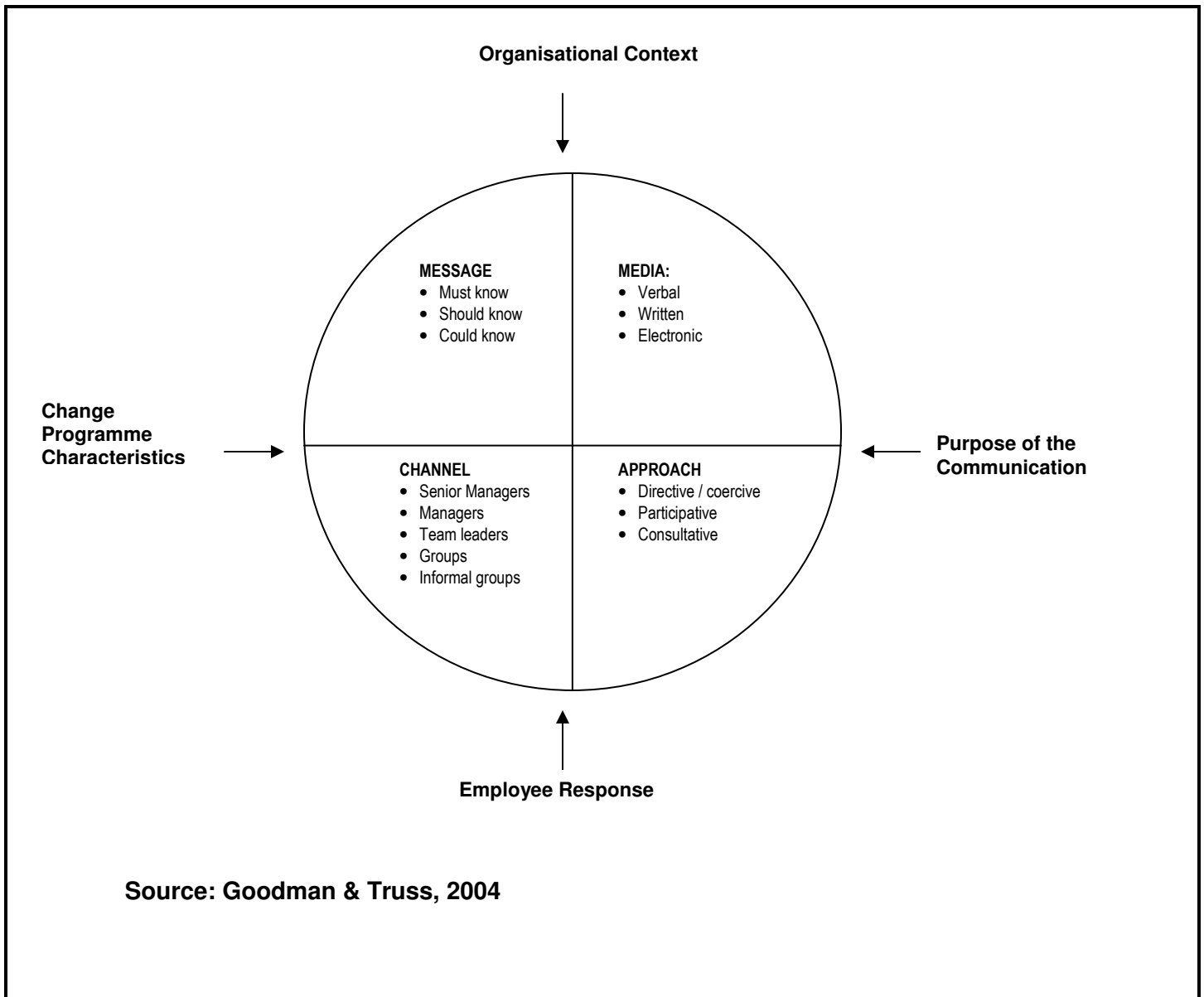
The more informed people are, the less anxious they will be. Unanswered questions are fuel for “gossipmongers”. If management does not have all the answers to some of the questions posed, they should be honest enough to say so. A believable leader does not know everything especially in times of change. Questions should be encouraged and the manager should try to obtain missing information. It is also recommended that management rather arrange another meeting when there is something additional to report. Information should be shared as soon it becomes available.

7.5.1.3 Express your Feelings

Managers should not be tempted to exclude information about their feelings. People want to know the management reactions. They will feel acknowledged, understood, and be much more open if their managers express their own feelings. When appropriate the manager can tell them how the change affects them personally. Self-disclose from a leader is a very powerful strategy because the manager will often reflect what their subordinates are thinking.

Goodman & Truss (2004) developed a model based on a study they conducted for use by management in the communication of change as per Figure 7.2.

FIGURE 7.2 THE CHANGE COMMUNICATION WHEEL



This wheel is divided into the four quadrants of message, media, channel and approach. According to the researchers, these areas are the four aspects of communication that should be used by managers to make active decisions regarding the best approach to take on during a change process. This “best approach” is reliant on four elements that fall outside of the wheel i.e. the organisational context, the change programme characteristics, the purpose of the communication and employee response.

In this case, organisational context reflects the fact that what is appropriate in one context may not necessarily be the situation within another context (Balogun & Hope-Haily, 2003). One therefore needs to take this into cognisance within the change programme communication design. The characteristics of the change programme itself would have a substantial impact on the communication choices (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Employee responses should affect the design of the communication strategy as the change develops allowing the approach to flex according to employee needs. According to Klein (1996), the purpose of the communication is a key factor, which will keep changing over the period of the change programme. Potential communication purposes could include the following, to:

- Obtain individual buy-in
- Obtain commitment to the change
- Minimise resistance
- Reduce personal anxiety
- Ensure clarity of objectives
- Share information / vision
- Challenge the status quo
- Obtain clarity; and
- Minimise uncertainty

On analysing the wheel itself, the first quadrant is the message. Kitchen & Daly (2002) distinguish between what employees must know, should know and could know. According to them, change managers need to be unambiguous about categorising information into the correct groups when determining priorities. Media includes written,

verbal and electronic meas. This media needs to be considered together with the channel that is chosen which Klein (1996) argues as being of utmost importance. Research conducted by Goodman & Truss (2004) revealed that employees preferred face-to-face verbal communication for the main change message. Lastly, the approach needs to be considered holistically. This can vary from highly coercive to highly consultative (Balogun & Hope-Haily, 2003). Essentially the challenge for those designing the change communication strategies, which would normally include management, needs to find an effective match between all four quadrants of the wheel (Goodman & Truss 2004).

Leaders' communication practices affect followers' trust in the leader. Frequent communication both before and after a change initiative to employees increases acquired employees' perception of the new management's trustworthiness (Nikandrou, Papalexandris & Bourantas, 2000). From a social exchange perspective, frequent exchange builds trust between leaders and followers (Kollock, 1994).

7.5.2 Job-Insecurity

Although job-insecurity is an inescapable result of organisational changes organisations should take measures to avoid the most harmful effects of job insecurity. This can be done by for instance providing precise and correct information through their communication strategy, arrange for alternative employment and training employees on how to cope with the stress brought about by the insecurity (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997)

7.5.3 Procedural Justice

Folger & Skarlicki, 1999 propose the following practical solutions for Managers with respect to justice in the organisation:

- Management training needs to be provided on how to increase perceptions of justice in a change process can reduce employee resistance to change
- Managers should not oversell only the optimistic effects that are likely to be brought about by the change and understate the negative effects. A complete and genuine account for all the possibilities that may occur reduces employees' uncertainty about the prospective change and their capacity to deal with it. This is consistent with research indicating that even when people are unhappy with the prospective result, their dissatisfaction is reduced when they understand the process
- Planned change activities should be guided by information about:
 - Organisational features that could be changed
 - Proposed results of those changes
 - Fundamental means by which those changes are to be achieved; and
 - Contingencies on which successful change depends

Procedural justice is a significant predictor of trust in a supervisor (Flaherty and Pappas, 2000; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994).

7.5.4 Participation

Managers need to recognize that OD interventions have the potential make the principal difference to both human development and the company's bottom line performance. It is

true that companies organisations who fail to comprehend the substance of participation will never realise their full potential (Pasmore & Fagans, 2001).

7.5.5 Trust

When organisations are examined as multifaceted systems, management and change take on a different dimension. Many researchers show that even though it may be valuable to view organisations as non-linear systems, to do so will require a fundamental change in the role of management (Sullivan, 1999; Tetenbaum, 1998; Stacey; Griffin & Shaw, 2002). They further indicate that self-organising ideology explicitly rejects cause and effect and top-down command-and-control styles of management. Brodbeck (2002) endorses that the assurance by management that order and authority are crucial to achieve their objectives needs to be amended. Morgan (1997b) contends that complexity will require that managers re-evaluate the character of hierarchy and control, learn the skill of managing and changing contexts, sanction self-organising measures, and gain knowledge of how to use miniature changes to produce significant effects. For Tetenbaum (1998), the move to self-organisation will call for managers to subvert their organisation and develop the skill of managing order and disorder concurrently. Managers will need to encourage experimentation and differing views, even agree to rule-breaking, and accept that "...people need the freedom to own their own power, think innovatively, and operate in new patterns' (Bechtold, 1997: 198).

Leaders generate and sustain trust (Bennis 2002) through the behaviour of the leader. For example trust seems to be determined primarily by the behaviour of the leaders communicative and supportive behaviours. Behavioural integrity, the perceived degree of congruence between espoused and enacted values is critical for the development of employees' trust in Managers (Joseph & Winston, 2004). Behaviour is thus the medium

or assessment and action on perception of overall trust in leaders. Trust violations such as in contact breaches decrease trust in employees resulting in lower employee contributions to the organisation (Braun, 1997)

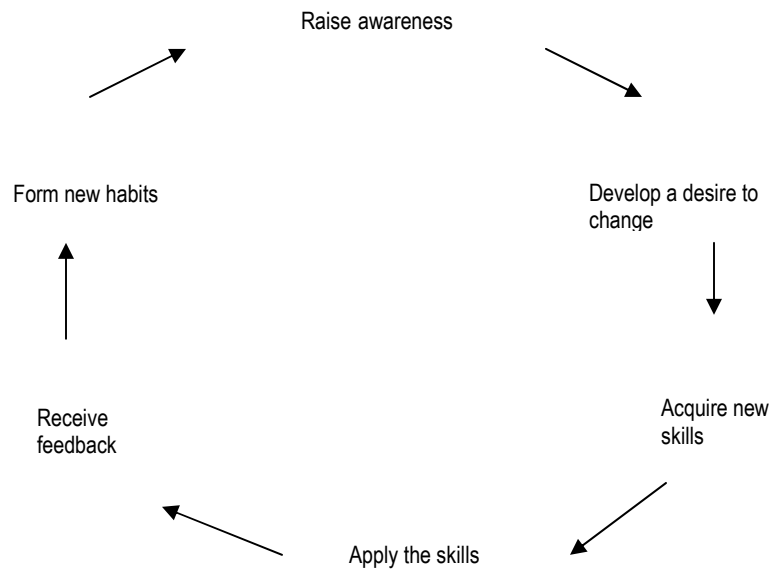
7.5.6 Leadership: Developing the Key Attributes for Leading Change:

To bring about change, one firstly has to ensure that the Leaders, who are normally Managers, have the correct behaviours to lead the change effectively.

7.5.6.1 Behavioural Change for Leaders

For managers to become effective change leaders, they need to take the required steps to acquire and reinforce the attributes needed. Figure 7.3. presents a model for behavioural change that enables managers to cultivate the qualities of change leaders as developed by Galpin, 1996:75.

FIGURE 7.3 A BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE MODEL



Source: Galpin, 1996

According to Galpin (1996), Managers must first *raise awareness* that is to recognise that he or she can advance a specific behaviour or acquired skill within themselves requisite for the change. Managers must then *develop the desire to change* which can be brought about by several factors e.g. feedback from employees expressing the need for change, introspection about the impact of one's current behaviour on colleagues / subordinates, measurement etc. The third step is *acquiring new skills* towards behaviour change. This means that the Managers may desire to bring about change but may possibly not know how to accomplish this. To this end, the Manager needs to have the opportunity to not only learn the new skills but also to *apply the new skills* that they have learned or improved. The learning of new skills is only the foundation for behavioural change whereas the practice of the chosen skills helps managers to assess and enhance the skills. As they continue to practice, Managers need *feedback* from their colleagues and or subordinates, which will result in the *forming of new habits*.

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9 APPENDICES

9.1 APPENDIX 1: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant

- You were recently part of the Letsema Project
- We would like to know how you personally experienced the Letsema Project
- Please complete this short questionnaire
- Please note there are no wrong or right answers
- This questionnaire is only evaluating how you feel towards the statement
- Should you not wish to complete this questionnaire, please state the reason why this is the case
- Your reply will be treated as confidential

9.1.1.1 INSTRUCTIONS

There are 64 questions for you to complete. There are two sections to the questionnaire. In Section 1 please complete your personal information.

In Section 2 please state how you feel about the Letsema Project in your core area by placing a tick (✓) on the appropriate response. The scale refers to the following:

- 1 = Strongly agree
- 2 = Agree
- 3 = Unsure
- 4 = Disagree
- 5 = Strongly disagree

SECTION 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION (BIOGRAPHICAL DATA)

Name (optional): _____

What is your age range? (Please tick the relevant box for the following answers)

Between 18 – 25	
Between 26 – 35	
Between 36 – 45	
Between 46 - 55	
56 years+	

Gender:

Male Female

What is your race?

African	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	

Are you prepared to fill in this questionnaire:

Yes No

If your answer is no, what is the reason for you not participating in the survey?

PLEASE PROCEED TO THE NEXT PAGE FOR SECTION 2.

**PLEASE RETURN THE COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY TO YOUR
TEAMLEADER.**

SECTION 2: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Unsure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
No.		1	2	3	4	5
1	Management treats me with respect	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am well informed about changes and decisions in my core	1	2	3	4	5
4	I can influence the decisions that affect my work	1	2	3	4	5
5	If I laid a complaint about Letsema, the company would follow policies so that it could make fair decisions	1	2	3	4	5
6	My Manager played a positive role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
7	Management follows through on its commitments	1	2	3	4	5
8	There is a risk that I will have to leave my job in the year to come	1	2	3	4	5
9	The communication process about Letsema was good	1	2	3	4	5
10	I can influence my Teamleader's decisions	1	2	3	4	5
11	The company is always fair	1	2	3	4	5
12	My Teamleader played a positive role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
13	Employees in the company trust Management	1	2	3	4	5
14	My future career opportunities in this company are positive	1	2	3	4	5
15	Management has been open about Letsema from the beginning	1	2	3	4	5
16	I can influence my Manager's decisions	1	2	3	4	5
17	My Manager is a fair leader	1	2	3	4	5
18	My Group Speaker played a positive role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
19	I trust my Teamleader	1	2	3	4	5

20	I can be sure of my present job as long as I do good work	1	2	3	4	5
21	I believe that my Teamleader has told me everything he knows about Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
22	I can influence my Group Speaker's decisions	1	2	3	4	5
23	My Teamleader is a fair leader	1	2	3	4	5
24	The Organisational Developer for my core played a positive role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
25	The company is quite happy to gain advantage by deceiving the workers	1	2	3	4	5
26	I can prevent negative things from affecting my work situation	1	2	3	4	5
27	I understand what Letsema is all about	1	2	3	4	5
28	My Teamleader accepts my ideas and suggestions	1	2	3	4	5
29	I am reluctant to consider changing the way I now do my work	1	2	3	4	5
30	My Group Speaker is a fair leader	1	2	3	4	5
31	My Manager played a negative role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
32	I believe the company will use my skills in the future	1	2	3	4	5
33	I believe that my Group Speaker has told me everything s/he knows about Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
34	My Group Speaker accepts my ideas and suggestions	1	2	3	4	5
35	The Organisational Developer for my core is a fair leader	1	2	3	4	5
36	My Teamleader played a negative role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
37	I trust my Section Manager	1	2	3	4	5
38	I dislike having any uncertainty about my future	1	2	3	4	5
39	I believe that the Organisational Developer for my core has told me everything s/he knows about Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
40	My Manager accepts my ideas and suggestions	1	2	3	4	5
41	My Group Speaker was chosen using fair methods	1	2	3	4	5
42	My Group Speaker played a negative role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5

43	I trust the Organisational Developer for my core	1	2	3	4	5
44	Letsema is a reason why I will have to leave my job	1	2	3	4	5
45	Some of the information about Letsema I heard about as a rumour from my team members or friends and not from the company	1	2	3	4	5
46	I am free to decide how to do my own job	1	2	3	4	5
47	My Teamleader respects the rights and dignity of workers	1	2	3	4	5
48	The Organisational Developer for my core played a negative role in my attitude to Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
49	I trust my Group Speaker	1	2	3	4	5
50	My future career opportunities in this company are negative	1	2	3	4	5
51	The communication process about Letsema could have been better	1	2	3	4	5
52	I am satisfied with the opportunities for participating in decision-making in my core	1	2	3	4	5
53	My Group Speaker respects the rights and dignity of workers	1	2	3	4	5
54	I believe that the change to Letsema has been good for the workers	1	2	3	4	5
55	I do not understand everything about Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
56	If I am unhappy with something, the company will listen to me	1	2	3	4	5
57	The Organisational Developer for my core respects the rights and dignity of workers	1	2	3	4	5
58	I believe that the change to Letsema has been good for the company	1	2	3	4	5
59	My Group Speaker represents my views to management	1	2	3	4	5
60	My Manager respects the rights and dignity of workers	1	2	3	4	5
61	I am committed to doing things the way Letsema wants me to	1	2	3	4	5
62	I have been part of the Letsema process from the very beginning	1	2	3	4	5
63	I wish we could go back to have things the way they were before Letsema	1	2	3	4	5
64	My Teamleader represents my views to management	1	2	3	4	5

9.2 APPENDIX 2: MANAGEMENT INTERVIEW GUIDE & FOCUS
GROUP SCHEDULE

1. What did the Letsema Project intend to achieve?

2. What effect did Letsema have on you?

3. What effect did Letsema have on the workforce?

4. What was your involvement in the project?

5. What is middle management's commitment to the change?

6. What was your commitment to the change?

7. What feelings and attitudes were brought about by the change?

8. How were these feelings addressed? By whom?

9. What was the level of participation of the workforce?

10. Has the project achieved what it was set out to do? Why?

11. Do you have any recommendations for the project?
