

The Impact of Organisational Change: A study of the Gauteng Provincial Department of

Infrastructure Development.

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DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHT

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Tendai Nyasha

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ABSTRACT

Key words: change, change management, resistance to change, split, motivation, satisfaction, involvement, employees, management, psychological contracts.

This study examines organisational change within the Gauteng Department of Infrastructure Development (DID) “the Department”, focusing on the strategies that should have been implemented in order to reduce the resistance to change and minimise the negative impact change brought to the employees. The study also focuses on employee satisfaction and the impact of change on the psychological contracts from a broad perspective of employees within the organisation.

The split of Department of Public Transport, Roads and Works (DPTRW) into Department of Infrastructure Development (DID) and Department of Road and Transport (DRT) resulted in a plethora of organisational changes impacting upon the organisation. The DPTRW was the leading roads and infrastructure developer in Gauteng. The DPTRW was faced with service delivery difficulties, which culminated in its split to two distinct Departments; DID and DRT.

The formation of DID came with the new political management and management style which was more aggressively focused on challenging the stereotype and the stigma associated with the DPTRW. These change requirements impacted adversely upon the manner in which DID was run, and eventually led to employee discontentment and uncertainty.

Structural changes became a requirement leading to the retrenchment of some National Youth Service (NYS) interns. A matching and placing exercise was undertaken. In November 2010, DID undertook an employee headcount and re-aligned its management structures.

Further retrenchments and shuffling are currently under-way with associated management restructuring which included dissolving of certain key positions and sections. Sections dissolved were Emoyeni, Kopanong and Impopoma. As a result, a problem of sub cultural integration arose.

Structural adjustments led to extreme uncertainty and fear of job losses amongst employees, more especially on the retrenchment surviving interns under the NYS scheme. The future of the NYS scheme retrenchment survivors is still uncertain, with the management not committing to absorbing the NYS interns into permanent job positions. Employees were embittered by the retrenchment of NYS while the Department went on an aggressive recruitment drive of foreign professionals.

This study therefore examines the change management strategies that could have been employed at the start of the split and evaluates the current state of employee satisfaction and the impact on the psychological contract. This dissertation was based on the research undertaken in the social world; and was theoretical in nature using quantitative research paradigms as basis.

GLOSSARY OF ACRONYMS

BBBEE:	Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment
DBSA:	Development Bank of South Africa
DID:	Department of Infrastructure Development
DPSA:	Department of public Services and Administration
DPTRW:	Department of Public Transport, Roads and Works
DRT:	Department of Roads Transport
EPWP:	Expanded Public Works Program
HOD:	Head of Department
ICT:	Information and Communication Technology
IDT:	Independent Development Trust
MDG:	Millennium Development Goals
MEC:	Member of Executive council
MMS:	Middle Management Services
NMS:	None Management Services
NYS:	National Youth Service
OD:	Organisational Design
SMS:	Senior Management Services

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CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM IN CONTEXT

1.1 BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

The 2009 national elections have come and gone, but birthed a new era of change with the split of Gauteng Department of Public Transport Roads and Works (DPTRW), to two distinct Departments; (1) Roads and Transport (DRT) and (2) Infrastructure Development (DID) as a response to the growing need to restore public confidence in the capability of the DPTRW to deliver its mandate. The split also aimed at de-stigmatising the DPTRW and also creating sizeable and manageable specialist departments rather than the robust DPTRW.

The Department of Infrastructure Development is the implementing agent for all Gauteng Provincial Government Departments' infrastructure. The mandate of the Department of Infrastructure is to provide and maintain the public infrastructure of Gauteng Province (DID, 2011). The Department aims to promote development of the less developed parts of the province and redress economic disparities through creation of decent jobs (DID, 2011). It also expands infrastructure facilities to keep abreast of the growing demand for infrastructure and serve socio-economic ends. The Department is also responsible for Provincial implementation and co-ordination of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in a manner that enhances skills development and optimises decent employment (DID, 2011).

The priorities for the Department (DID) include amongst others: Creating decent work and building a growing, inclusive economy and promoting quality education and skill development with a main goal of "making a better life for all" through provision and maintenance of infrastructure for example schools, hospital, clinics and frail-care facilities amongst others.

The basic organisational structure of DID as of May 2010 comprise of the Head of Department (HOD) at the pinnacle and four branches directly underneath namely; Corporate Services, Office of Chief Financial Officer, Property Management, Infrastructure Development and the Expanded Public Works Program (DID, 2010). A schematic organisational structure of DID is shown in appendix A.

1.2 PROBLEM IN CONTEXT

The ever-increasing political pressure forced DID to make changes to the organisational structure and systems to which the staff members were unaccustomed to. This management change resulted in much uncertainty, dissatisfaction and resistance. The idea of matching and placing skills to positions was met with fierce resistance. Morale amongst staff members was at a low and faith in management extremely poor. In addition, job suspensions and

management restructuring were also envisaged. The objective of the people changes was to purge incompetence and corruption in order to become more competitive and effective in delivering infrastructure.

With the continued changes impacting on psychological and cultural issues with very little structural changes in progress within eighteen months of the split, employees continued to be under tremendous pressure, often impacting productivity and moral.

Centralised control and top-down management continue to be the order of the day. DID is strongly oriented towards control, and the leadership is highly authoritarian, centralised and rule-bound in its operation. Minimal decentralisation of authority continues to frustrate expedient service delivery.

DID is characterised in particular by the development of a vertical, top-down management structure. Democratic practices are discouraged, both internally and in interaction with the public. There is little or no incentive for creativity, innovation and responsiveness to the needs of citizens and clients.

1.3 PROBLEM REVIEW

Prescriptive Department policies that are top-down in nature have failed in the past and continue to do so. Genuine, long lasting and successful change initiative requires, that change processes be employee centred and management led. The demise of DPTRW was due to lack of service delivery. DID had to undergo re-structuring in order to execute its mandate efficiently.

The restructuring in DID was designed to address challenges relating to:

- Lack of service delivery: The systems of service provision that developed under DPTRW were less public focused and more concerned with the application of rules and procedures than with the development of a culture and ethos of service.
- Centralised control and top-down management: Because the public service was strongly oriented towards control, it became highly authoritarian, centralised and rule-bound in its operation. Operational efficiency was compromised.
- Lack of accountability and transparency: Accountability within the service was only limited to bureaucratic accountability. Employees were held accountable for adherence to rules and procedures rather than for efficiency, effectiveness and productivity. Wider accountability of the service to the public was even less evident.
- Absence of effective management information: No fully deployed management information systems were installed to promote information sharing and efficient

monitoring and revision of public sector programmes. One important consequence of this was that there were few reliable statistics on the staffing and composition of employees.

- Low productivity: Productivity was relatively low, particularly if judged in terms of the ability to deliver services that meet the needs of the people and the set targets. Low productivity results in part from the shortage of appropriate education and training opportunities for the majority of staff. In this case, it also resulted from a disproportionate number of staff members involved in essentially duplicative administrative functions, whereas serious understaffing frequently occurred at the level of essential service provision.
- Poorly paid and de-motivated staff members: Whereas pay levels for managers (predominantly not commensurately educated), remain relatively high, those for the lower echelons are still disproportionately low. Linked to this were a lack of adequately defined career paths and an under-provision of related training opportunities, especially for disadvantaged groups. These factors have had a de-motivating effect on many staff members and have contributed to low morale and productivity.
- Professional ethos and work ethics: Many of the problems outlined above have served to inhibit the development of professional work ethics and commitment amongst employees. Although some employees showed impressive dedication and capacity under the most unfavourable conditions, in many parts of the service, inefficiency, mismanagement and corruption were widespread.
- Fear of change: Change is very often a complex and controversial process, almost invariably accompanied by anxiety and resistance in some quarters. Employees were clearly worried about their future, especially in the light of the retrenchment of NYS interns. This situation has had a serious and negative impact on morale, and was compounded by the delays in formalising new staffing structures.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Against the background to the research problem elaborated above, the research problem statement for this dissertation reads as follows:

“Staff of the Department of Infrastructure Development was adversely impacted as a result of ineffective change management strategies”.

1.5 INVESTIGATIVE QUESTIONS

The following investigative questions were researched in support of the research question:

- Did the change initiative at the Department of Infrastructure Development follow a structured sequence of events to effect change?
- What were the primary objectives of the change initiative?
- What were the typical issues which surfaced and impacted employee satisfaction adversely?

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The key research objectives of this study are to:

- Determine the forces of change in the Department;
- Identify strategies to reduce and manage resistance;
- Identify the challenges faced by the Department;
- Identify the impact of the split on employees;
- Determine employee satisfaction at all levels in the Department.

1.7 IMPORTANCE/ BENEFITS OF THE STUDY

This research endeavours to identify appropriate change management strategies for change initiatives to be undertaken within the Department in the future, which could provide management of the organisation with methods to mitigate adverse change effects. The research provided a broad understanding of the impact of ineffective change management strategies and impact on employee satisfaction.

1.8 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

The research assumptions pertaining to this dissertation are as follows:

- Anonymity of research participants has been upheld. Wherever possible, anonymisation by pseudonyms has been maintained in order to protect and increase the security and integrity of data processing (Grinyer, 2002). Grinyer (2002) argues that keeping participants anonymous is based on the assumption that the research participants not only deserve the protection of anonymity, but that they actively desire it.
- The randomly drawn sample is indicative of the population. In other words, the participants are a representative subset of the research population and thus any findings can be generalised or extrapolated to the target population with confidence (Grinyer, 2002).
- The responses to the questionnaires will be truthful and honest

1.9 RESEARCH CONSTRAINTS

1.9.1 Limitations

The responses to the questionnaire from the random sample may not necessarily reflect the opinion or beliefs of the majority of staff.

1.9.2 Delimitations

The scope of the study was limited to staff members of the Department of Infrastructure Development, excluding those in the Department of Roads and Transport. The sample was drawn from employees at the head office only excluding regional offices.

1.10 OUTLINE OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

This dissertation has been structured in such a way as to ensure adherence to the following concepts:

The concepts presented in this document flow logically from one part to the next; in order to maximise reader comprehension of the various topics presented. Given the diverse nature of the respective literature reviews, the order of presentation was such that the reader is equipped with a deeper understanding of each review presented (Watkins, 2006).

For the reasons listed above, the individual chapters of this dissertation have been grouped together in four separate parts namely:

- Part 1: Consists of the abstract and scope of the research. The research problem, research question and investigative questions were addressed. In addition, a high level background of DID was provided to place the change dynamics into perspective. These aspects are covered in Chapters 1 and 2.
- Part 2: Contains the literature review on change management strategies, contained in Chapter 3. This part unravels the complexities of change management.
- Part 3: This part forms the crux of the research and within the scope of Chapters 4 and 5; a detailed analysis of the key elements from Part 2 were juxtaposed into a specific approach to solve the research problem. The research survey, analysis and interpretation of results were also addressed.
- Part 4: This part consists of Chapter 6, which contains the recommendations, conclusions of the research and identified areas for further research.

1.10.1 Chapters and content analysis

The chapter and content analysis pertaining to this dissertation, reads as follows:

- Chapter 1 – Background and problem in context: In this chapter, a high level background was provided on the scope, background and context of the research. The research process was explained and the research design and methodology elaborated upon. The research constraints were listed and a high level overview was provided on the chapter and content analysis of the dissertation. The chapter was concluded by a list of the primary research objectives.
- Chapter 2 – Theoretical considerations: In this chapter an overview on the research environment pertaining to DID was provided. The internal and external environments were analysed in detail.
- Chapter 3 – Literature review: In this chapter the literature on change strategies, dynamics, management and implementation of planned change was reviewed and analysed in detail. Psychological contracts related matters were explored as a basis for setting a background for questionnaires.
- Chapter 4 – Research methodology: In this chapter, the research methodology, the development of the measurement instruments, the collection and coding of the data and the statistical techniques used to gather, process and analyse the data are outlined.
- Chapter 5 – Results and discussion: The results are presented, analysed and interpreted in this chapter.
- Chapter 6 – Conclusions and recommendations: This chapter presents the concluding remarks and recommendations on the research topic.

1.11 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

This research endeavours to identify appropriate change management strategies to be undertaken within DID in future; which could provide management of the DID with methods to mitigate adverse change effects. The research provided a broad understanding of the impact of ineffective change management strategies on employee satisfaction and the psychological contacts.

1.12 CONCLUSION

The objective of Chapter 1 was to provide background information on DID, which was born out of the split of DPTRW. The chapter provides insight to the research process, and addresses the research problem, research question, assumptions and constraints. This chapter provides an overview of the dissertation including chapter content analyses of the chapters. Chapter 1 prepares a scene for chapter 2.

The objective of Chapter 2 is to provide a holistic perspective of DID by addressing the change dynamics within the DID by exploring the internal and external environments.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In today's environment, adapting to change is compulsory for an organisation to survive and stay competitive (Susanto, 2008). Although planned change is intended to make the organisation more effective and efficient, resistance from members of the organisation is expected as they foresee potential threats that can affect their future (Susanto, 2008). Infrastructure development has become a global priority with the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) deadline coming closer and faster by the day (Ayee, 2005). Pressure on DID increases with the increased mortality by the HIV and AIDS pandemic while public unrest due to dwindling economic climate worsens the Department's position (DID, 2009).

Scanning the macro and micro environment identifies the potential threats, opportunities, weakness and strengths (Susanto, 2008). The threats imminent to DID are the Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA) and the Independent Development Trust (IDT) which pose a great threat to the existence of DID as potential substitutes to the provider of DID's mandate. The relative power of communities "customers" together with the dynamic political environment, determine the strategic direction of the Department. The world of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) keep the Department on the back foot to be in line with global trends and to be compatible with the external environment. Managing a delicate balance between mechanisation and Expanded Public Works (EPWP) remains a stumbling block towards speedy infrastructure delivery.

The internal environment of DID consists of diverse cultures and fragmented capabilities intertwined with heavily departmentalised rigid bureaucratic systems (Nyasha, 2010). These systems impede the cohesive drive of the DID. Intensive policies are meant to create uniform cultures but their antagonistic and inconsistent manner destroy the much needed alignment (Nyasha, 2010).

This chapter therefore unfolded the underlying complexities in the internal and external environment that triggered the need for change in DID.

2.2 THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

The framework and analysis of the external environment is based on Porter's Five Forces Model as shown in the figure below (Porter, 1980).

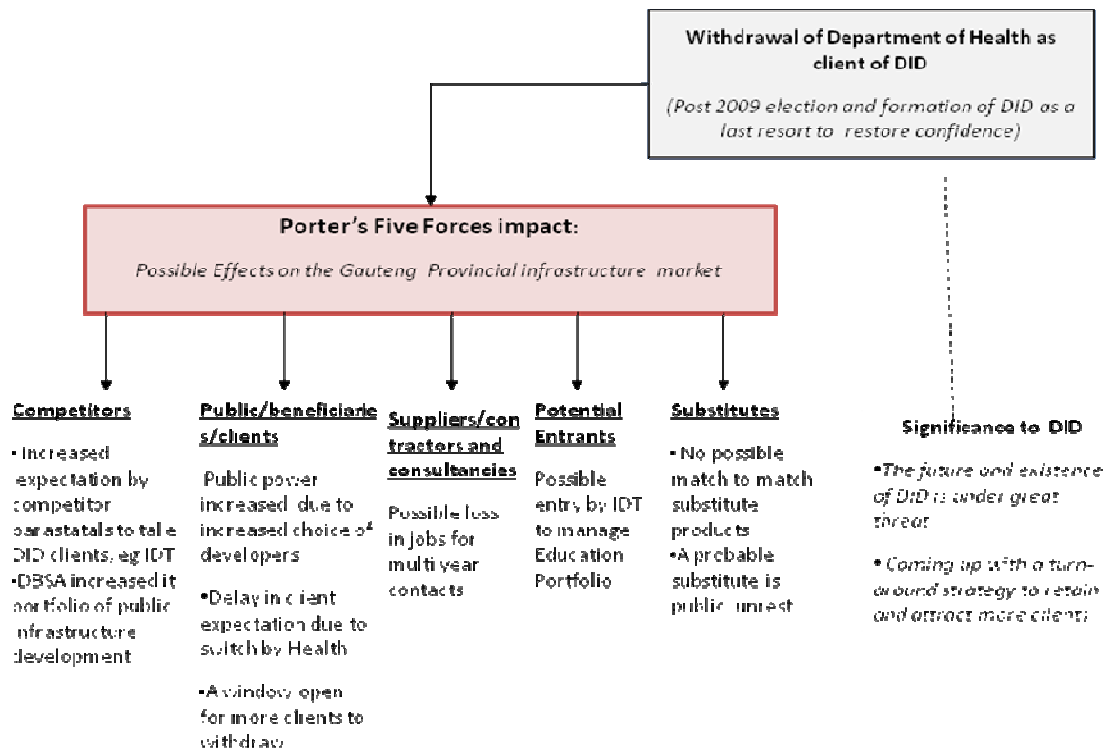


Figure 1: Porter's five Forces analysis for DID: Porter (1980)

2.2.1 Supplier power

The mandate of the Department is to offer a unique product which is monopolistic in nature. Currently DID is the only leading government infrastructure developer affording it greater power against its suppliers. Because of this favourable position, the Department is able to bargain for the cheapest service without necessarily compromising on quality. This offers an opportunity for the Department to consolidate its competitive position more-so when the industry is dry of jobs (projects). Suppliers are likely to settle for as little as the Department can offer.

Suppliers to the Department are contractors, consultancies, wholesalers and retailers (DPTRW, 2009). Mostly, procurement of such services is on tender basis. The relatively strong power position of DID is compromised by inconsistent and corrupt awarding of tenders by the officials (DID, 2010). The Open Society Foundation for South Africa (2007) supports this idea by adding that South Africa's procurement systems are also based on laws that comply with international best standards, including in relation to the tendering process, yet in practice there is a dearth of public information around procurement, and much work is needed to increase transparency and prevent corruption in advance.

2.2.2 Buyer power

In public service delivery, buyers are beneficiaries, the public, tax-payers end users and client departments (DPTRW, 2009). Mostly, these “buyers” do not necessarily pay to acquire such service but instead, the service is essentially funded by tax payers. The bargaining power of these beneficiaries is based on the understanding that it is a legislative requirement and basic human right to get these services (DID, 2010).

It is complicated to understand the drift of power of “buyers” in public services. The Batho Pele (People first) principles transfer all the negotiating powers to public (DPTRW, 2009) and (DID, 2010). This explains why the mandate of the Department is people focused and is framed around identifying public/taxpayer needs. Usually, the public enforces its power by means of protesting as a means of demanding for services (White Paper, 1995).

If a business has just a few powerful buyers, they are often able to dictate terms (Porter, 1980). In contrast, the “buyers” in this instance are many and powerful and they dictate the terms. The increased pressure on the demand for infrastructure and service delivery, characterised by the decline in the global economic environment, leaves DID dealing with endless protests for jobs, healthcare and education.

2.2.3 Competitive rivalry

The key driver is the number and capability of competitors in the market. Many competitors, offering undifferentiated products and services, reduce market attractiveness (Susanto, 2008). For public infrastructure delivery, players are few or close to none. Hence product differentiation is not an attractive ploy. Why differentiate products when the public is desperate for the bare minimum basic service?

The Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA), the Independent Development Trust (IDT) and some clients departments have shown interest in implementing public infrastructure (Nyasha, 2010). The rising threat of DBSA and IDT will render DID obsolete to the extent of threatening its existence.

2.2.4 Threat of substitution

Where close substitute products exist in a market, it increases the likelihood of customers switching to alternatives in response to price increases (Porter, 1908). This reduces both the power of suppliers and the attractiveness of the market (Porter, 1980). Unfortunately, no direct substitutes exist for infrastructure that may be attractive to the public. DID has no control of the market or put in a different way, the market is controlling DID. This is

supported by DID (2010) which states that DID is still the only public infrastructure developer in Gauteng.

2.2.5 Threat of new entry

Porter (1980), states that profitable markets attract new entrants, which further erodes profitability. In contrary, public services are framed on addressing needs, not profitability. The existing barriers to entry in carrying a mandate to develop infrastructure for the government are impossible to break unless the government itself deliberately determines to open a competitor department to execute this mandate. DID`s position is consolidated in this regard with no probability of threats in the short to medium term (DID, 2010).

2.2.6 PEST analysis

PEST analysis is a scan of the external macro-environment in which an organisation exists. It is a useful tool for understanding the political, economic, socio-cultural and technological environment that an organisation operates in (Downey, 2007). Figure 2 below shows a schematic analysis of the Department using PEST framework.

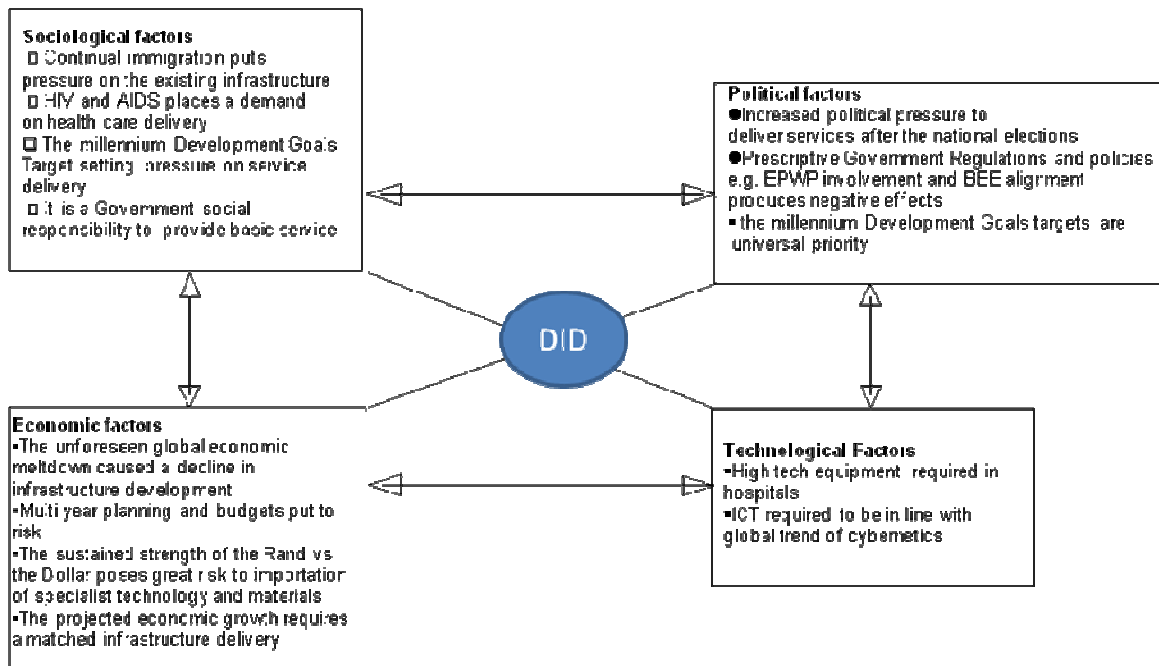


Figure 2: Analysis of DID using PEST model: Downey (2007)

2.2.7 Political factors

The political factors affecting DID include government regulations such as employment laws, environmental regulations and tax policy (DID, 2010). Other political factors are trade restrictions and political stability (Porter, 1980).

Policies and regulations prescribed by the government such as EPWP require involvement of local labour (DID, 2010). Such a policy compromises the quality and timely delivery of services but creates job opportunities (DID, 2010).

While economic redistribution is highly applauded, the Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) support compromises the procurement of the best service providers (Chahoud, 2011). Not many BBBEE compliant contractors are capable of executing high value works in time, budget and quality.

2.2.8 Economic factors

These affect the cost of capital and purchasing power of an organisation (Porter, 1980). Economic factors include economic growth, interest rates, inflation and currency exchange rates (Porter, 1980). The current stability of the economy augurs well with the sustained development of infrastructure. Multi-year budgeting and planning is made possible by the suppressed inflation (DID, 2010).

2.2.9 Social factors

There is an ever increasing demand for primary health care and educational needs in the province. The Open Society Foundation for South Africa (2007) attributes the primary cause of the declining health status of the nation to the high prevalence of HIV/AIDS and its accompanying opportunistic infections like tuberculosis.

The social factors continue to threaten DID with the declining in education pass rate year to year (Open Society Foundation, 2007). More schools are required in the province by 2015. The universal millennium development goals (MDG) require poverty and illiteracy to be halved by 2015 (Ayee, 2005). The “one goal” campaign supported by the soccer world cup puts a demand on the provincial governance to prioritise education at all cost (Ayee, 2005). These noble social challenges are putting pressure on the Department’s existence.

2.2.10 Technological factors

These influence barriers to entry, make or buy decisions and investment in innovation, such as automation, investment incentives and the rate of technological change (Porter, 1980). The government infrastructure development mandate is highly controlled by government and

designed around creating decent jobs for the people (DID, 2010). High technology is not a serious requirement but human capital is encouraged (DID, 2010) and (DPTRW, 2009). Sophisticated technological needs are demanded in hospitals and ICT installations.

Departmental information is increasingly becoming accessible to stakeholders due to ICT developments. Infrastructure delivery is improving with increased mechanisation. A conflict has resulted between the need for speedy delivery through increased mechanisation and employment creation through labour intensive approaches (Nyasha, 2010).

2.2.11 Summary of analysis

Potential and capable competitors in the form of government parastatals such as IDT and DBSA in the field of infrastructure development exist (Nyasha, 2010). These competitors pose a great threat because of the apparent power beneficiaries (communities) have in presenting their needs through protests (White Paper, 1995).

Pre-election promises and the political climate exerts pressure on DID to deliver service (DPSA, 2008). In order to prolong their stay in office, the political heads have to deliver their election manifesto within a defined period. The Department has to manage projects through a careful, contrasting and sensitive mix of political objectives (EPWP and BBBEE) and astute project management acumen (Nyasha, 2010).

The ever rising threat of the HIV and AIDS pandemic requires the Department to meet its service delivery objective in a swift manner (Open Society Foundation, 2007). Education remains the least achieving department with a continued decline in pass rate year to year while global commitments such as the “one goal’s” MDG put pressure on the delivery of services (White Paper, 1995).

2.3 THE INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

The internal environment of DID contains internal resources, capabilities and core competencies (Segal-Horn, 2004). This section of the report, unlike the external perspective above, conducts an internal analysis aimed at figuring out shortcomings in resources, capabilities, and core competencies in the Department (Downey, 2007). This enables the Department to devise suitable strategies for closing the gaps in the aforesaid internal components.

The analysis is guided by the framework around organisational architecture defined as: “a collectively agreed and communicated document that, in light of the strategic competencies needed to fulfil stakeholder needs, defines and details the major building blocks of the

organisation” (Lee, Venter & Bates, 2004: 13-22). Table 1 below shows the detailed internal analysis of DID.

INTERNAL PARAMETER	NATURE/DESCRIPTION	SWOT ANALYSIS
CULTURE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The “Batho Pele” (People first) principles are the main cultural drivers. The principles are integrity, honesty, professionalism, transparency, accountability, collective responsibility, compassion, innovation and value addition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> These principles offer strength and focus towards the Department’s mandate by prescribing the acceptable code of conduct The other strength is that these principles define public employees as “servants to public” – thus, people’s needs are first priority The downside is that they are prescriptive and of a corporate culture in nature- employees tend to resist them
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The new idiosyncratic lexicons for DID “Doing It Diligently” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This instills a sense of attentiveness and hard work - leads to effective, dedicated and efficient service delivery
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The “Kuyasheshwa” slogan by the DID MEC adopted by the Department 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Its strength is in giving a sense of speed and urgency in implementing infrastructure projects – thus reducing the backlog quickly The weakness to this is that projects may be executed hurriedly without much planning and thought put to them – missing the need and value for money
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Open plan office layout 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Its strength is in that it allows for more open interaction amongst employees, removing segregation caused by individual offices that cause a sense of privacy and individualism The demerit to this arrangement is uncontrolled noise levels and disturbances-minimal privacy-less productivity
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Multi-culture-national/tribal cultures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Different nationalities employed as contract workers – national cultural clashes. The strong tribal cultures exist, leading to tribal cultural clashes.
STRUC TURE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Highly bureaucratic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minimal flexibility - rigid protocols - power obsession in offices - poor turn-around times leading to bogged and demoralised employees

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Heavily departmentalised/divisions/sections 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> These are highly segmented – no flexibility – leading to redundancy- duplication of resources and replication of activities – not cost effective Drawback is coordination across sections particularly when a complex problem requires input from the entire organisation (Louw & Venter, 2006) Unhealthy levels of competition for resources across divisions – DID mandate compromised due to divisional priorities – poor delivery Progress in one division depend entirely on the completion of the work component in another – project management follow after planning and procurement – momentum continuity destroyed – delayed delivery of services
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Span of control Authority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Each director/head of a division has at least 15 employees under his/her control – less effective, less personal contact – low productivity Authority lies with the accounting officer (HOD)-no directors can make decisions – frustration creeps – slow turnarounds on critical matters – delayed delivery Less delegation of authority - no job enrichment – managers less strategic since they are micro managing – less innovative and creativity – learning impeded Minimal delegation - Not keeping with the spirit of the Labour Relations Act, which requires that DID be a more reflective microcosms of the broader socio-economic and political reality – politically incorrect
SYSTEMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reward and value based systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Financial or tangible rewards - yearly bonuses are available but minimal and subject to employer manipulation - minimal commitment and loyalty of employees – DID mandate and strategy compromised Non-financial incentives - techniques of job enrichment, ownership and job enlargement fail due to minimal delegation leading to frustration Generally, rewards are not contingent to attainment of DID objectives – considered as a right – equitability not recognised – no reason for putting extra effort Unfair promotions based on who one knows (including political appointments) – demoralising capable employees – incompetent staff end up in influential posts – ill decision making processes hamper progress
POLICES, CONTROL PROCESS AND PROCEDURES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> BBBEE procurement and alignment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Generally, policies are prescriptive in nature and are intended to guide and create uniformity in behaviour - human nature resists prescriptive guidelines – resistance There are enormous but vague policies and procedures - consistency in operations not created – no common culture BBBEE policies and guidelines are cast in stone – application of common sense is deterred – incompetent suppliers appointed

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approvals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Submissions processes are paperwork intensive requiring many signatories - work rate is determined by the pace of feedback - man-hours wasted waiting for decisions • Too many policies and procedures - create a bureaucratic quagmire, simply because they block innovation and stifle ingenuity.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • At least six signatories required to approve a payment to suppliers- no value addition in the chain – payments to suppliers late –leads to interest on late payments claims –fruitless expenditure plus low/poor services rendered • Erratic funding by clients - pressure to spend to meet user's expectations. • Obsession is to spend money – not value for money or value engineering – poor financial controls – poor/ over spending • Financial controls are based on cash-flow projections and expenditure – projects performance measured by comparing expenditure and projections – not a best measure – overlooks quality and time aspect
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performance management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appraisals are done quarterly but no remedies follow - deficiencies in employee performance not remedied – no learning – performance not improved
RESOURCES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tangible • Human resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some project managers provided with work cell phones while government cars are available for use when necessary – communication and coordination improved • DID currently staffed with expatriate engineers – increased operational costs in terms of salaries – increased confidence by clients in DID capabilities
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Innovation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrying out basic and industrial research to advance new knowledge and test the profitability of new ideas – hiring specialists, costly • Creating an environment conducive to innovation and research and development (R & D) activity, with emphasis on a culture of risk taking and rewarding innovation, as well as the creation and allocation of resources to dedicated research teams – increased costs – but creating sustainable competitive advantage based on capabilities
TECHNOLOGY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Office technologies, though obsolete, facilitate the day-to-day running through network linked computers - communication made easier and quicker • Base level of technology, common to all players in the industry - no key and pace technologies that provide the necessary competitive advantage – current technologies are replicable

INTERNAL STAKEHOLDER	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees • Leadership • Labour Unions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No job autonomy as well as skills and knowledge –poor job designs - no empowerment – no learning – under performance and no improved performance • Not able to make decision, they act as post offices – delivering information up and down the hierarchy – management is redundant and misplaced • Managerial/transactional leadership – no futuristic planning – problems are not foreseen and avoided • Heavily unionised – strong and powerful unions – disruption of work and service delivery – costly (money, time, lives e.t.c) • Interests of employees safely guarded – better employment conditions – job satisfaction
KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, COMPETENCES, JOB DESIGN AND CAPABILITIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Core competencies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rigid approach to work – high degrees of specialisation and atypical work structures, as well as a focus on lower wages – no competitive advantage • 98% of work/services are outsourced to professional organisations (DID, 2010) – this leads to additional capabilities – better delivery, but compromised learning and skills development • Structured development training programs offered to staff – skills imparted – improved performance

Table 1: The internal analysis of DID (Lee, Venter & Bates, 2004)

2.4 CONCLUSION

Power and structural arrangements play a pivotal role in determining DID's competitive position. The bureaucratic arrangement allows for minimal efficiency in execution of DID's mandate. Structural rigidity hampers innovation, empowerment and creativity. Centralised top-down control with minimal delegation of authority to lower managerial levels defines the power position of DID (White Paper, 1995).

A myriad of comprehensive policies and procedures are believed to exist, but are not fully communicated to all levels in the Department. Policies are meant to standardise corporate behaviour and create coherent and conducive cultural behaviours. Antagonistic corporate policies become restrictive to expedient innovative ways of working (Nyasha, 2010). Procedures and approvals are burdensome and reduce the whole bureaucratic arrangement into a mess of paperwork intensive, non coherent, slow moving, directionless mass going nowhere, slowly but surely (Nyasha, 2010).

On paper, the Department has the best suited corporate cultural perspectives. However, the highly applauded "Batho Pele" principles and the new mottos fail to steer the organisation

into a strategic competitive direction because there is no corresponding cultural ethos at operational levels. This sharp contrast is testimony of the continued clash between political heads and employees on perceived deliverables, values, ethos, beliefs, mannerisms, behaviourisms, idiosyncrasies, norms and standards.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Identifying the need for organisation-wide change and leading organisations through change is widely recognised as one of the most critical and challenging responsibilities of organisational leadership. Kotter (1996: 3) states that, “by any objective measure, the amount of significant, often traumatic change in organisations has grown tremendously over the past two decades. Although most people predict that most of the re-engineering, re-strategising, mergers, downsizing, quality efforts, and cultural renewal projects will soon disappear, I think it is highly unlikely. Powerful macroeconomic forces are at work here, and these forces may grow even stronger over the next few decades. As a result, more organisations will be pushed to reduce costs, improve quality of products and services, locate new opportunities for growth, and increasing productivity”.

This chapter unravels the complexity of the management of change by analysing models of change management and theories. Issues relating to the psychological contract were also analysed as a basis for accessing the impact of organisational change to employees.

3.2 ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE DEFINED

Scholars of organisational change have described and defined change in several ways. In a study by Van de Ven and Poole (1995: 71), organisational change was expressed as “an empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organisational entity. The entity may be an individual’s job, a work group, an organisational strategy, a program, a product, or the overall organisation”.

Ford and Ford (1995: 543) described change as “the difference(s) between two (or more) successive conditions, states, or moments of time”. Change has also been defined as an event that is frozen, unfrozen, and refrozen (Lewin, 1951).

However, change can be planned or emergent (Lanning, 2001). Robbins (1998: 629) defines planned change as; “...change activities that are intentional and goal oriented”, and change as; “...making things different”. According to French and Bell (1999: 2) “change means the new state of things is different from the old state of things”. Organisational change thus means the new state of things in the organisation is different from the old state of things in the organisation. Based on these definitions, change in organisations can take on numerous configurations and dimensions. These varying definitions of organisational change allow for readily identification of change in organisations.

3.3 THE FORCES OF CHANGE

3.3.1 Why organisations change

Organisations have to transform (Lanning, 2001). They cannot survive if they are static (Kotter, 1996). What causes organisations to change is usually not one special factor, but a convoluted web of forces of change (Lanning, 2001). Longenecker and Pringle (1984), states that organisations are open systems. This means that they interact with their respective environments and are subject to constraints imposed by those environments (Longenecker & Pringle, 1984). Burnes (2004: 264) states that the “open system school sees organisations as composed of a number of interconnected sub-systems”. It follows that any change to one part of the system will have an impact on other parts of the system, and in turn, on the overall performance (Scott, 1987).

Burnes (2004) states that the open system school of thought does not just see organisations as systems in isolation, however, they are open in two respects: Firstly, they are open to, and interact with, their external environment. Secondly, they are open internally; the various subsystems interact with each other. Therefore, internal changes in one area affect other areas, and in turn have an impact on the external environment, and vice versa (Buckley, 1989). Burnes (2004) further explores two more schools of thought that influence change, namely; the “individual perspective school” and the “group dynamics school”.

Organisations transform as a response to external and internal pressures (Burnes, 2004). Internal factors are those factors that affect the organisation`s performance from within its boundaries (Kotter, 1996). These factors are within the organisation`s control. External factors are those factors that are outside the control of the organisation (Kotter, 1996). Pettinger (2002) argues that change is excited by change catalysts that are responsible for organisations to question the wider situation. Lanning (2001) identifies external factors to include regulators, competitors, customers, and technology whereas internal pressure may come from obsolete services and products, new market opportunities, new strategic directions, low performance, low satisfaction, new mission, new leadership, conflict and an increasingly diverse workforce.

Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (1999) argue that the external forces of change not only emanate from the business environment, but also from the general environment. External factors from the general environment are social, cultural, demographic, political, economic and technological (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1999).

Bhengu (2007) states that change can be structural in nature. Changes in strategy, size, technology, environment or power can be the source of structural change (Bhengu, 2007). Some determinants of structural change, according to Robbins (1990: 588) are: “change in objectives, purchase of new equipment, scarcity of labour, implementation of a sophisticated information-processing system, government regulations, the economy, unionisation, mergers and acquisitions, actions of competitors, decline in employee morale, increase in turnover, internal and external turnover and decline in profits”.

Sturges (2007) identifies external influences of change as globalisation, new technologies, power of markets, financial deregulation, changing political landscape and women in power. Robust organisational change is primarily triggered by external pressure rather than internal desire to change (Lanning, 2001).

No business can ignore the need to change as it evolves in the context of more rapidly changing environment while its existence is also dependent on the performance or existence of other businesses (Sturges, 2007). An organisation can either instigate or submit to change, but either way, it must change (Burnes, 2004). The transformation or revolution of the business environment is beyond the control of individual business entities (Pendleburg, Grouard & Meston, 1998).

3.3.2 How organisations change

Transformation in organisations can be stressful, but depending on the kind of change, this stress can be managed (Kotter, 1996). Change that is sudden or drastic is more likely to cause stress or resistance, whereas gradual and programmed change is easier to manage (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1999).

Recently, emphasis has been placed on the continuing process of change rather than a sequence of “step” changes required for organisations to be successful (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). Peters (1987) commented that change should be treated as a norm rather than a series of once-off exercises. Organisational transformation can be continuous or radical in nature (Lanning, 2001). The continuous perspective can be deliberate, controlled or managed (Lanning, 2001).

3.4 PLANNED CHANGE MODELS AND APPROACHES

Choosing an approach for bringing about change in organisations is partly a matter of matching the scale, speed and direction of the proposed changes, along with other contextual factors, to the situation at hand (Mabey, 2007). Mabey (2007) further states, that

change models are framed around the four overarching approaches namely; goal attainment, contingency, stakeholder and the multiple accountability models.

Mabey (2007) further adds that without an overall framework, attempts to manage change in a desired direction can result in unsatisfactory outcomes such as; nothing happening, a cosmetic change being introduced, but the underlying situation remaining unchanged or soon reverting to what it was before, and unanticipated negative consequences outweighing the benefits. The planned change model according to Mabey (2007) that takes the best and removes the worst of the four approaches is the six step model.

3.4.1 Goal attainment model

Mabey (2007) argues that the goal attainment model assumes that, given a particular problem or set of problems, a solution can be found from sound data and careful analysis, and that this solution are self evident to all and pursued energetically by all concerned.

3.4.2 Contingency model

According to Mabey (2007), this model rejects a single approach and searches for change strategies that best fit the context and circumstances at hand. The success of the proposed changes depends on the closeness of this fit to the contextual sensitivity of the implementation. Usually underpinning this model is a systems view of organisations, whereby a set of given inputs is transformed by the enterprise into a series of products and services called outputs (Mabey, 2007).

3.4.3 Stakeholder model

This model seeks to address and reconcile, by adopting facilitative techniques, the competing values and conflicting agendas of stakeholders.

3.4.4 Multiple accountability model

The multiple accountability model, according to Mabey (2007), presumes that stakeholder differences cannot be reconciled but aspects of accountability are required and brought into focus rather than remaining intractable problems. Multiple accountability arises because of the expectation that, somehow, or other, the organisation is accountable for its actions to more than one interest group or to all of them (Mabey, 2007).

3.4.5 Organisation development, planned change and phase models

3.4.5.1 Organisational Development

The theory of organisational change often falls under the term “organisation development” (OD) (Lanning, 2001). Organisation development is a conceptual, organisation-wide effort to

increase an organisation's effectiveness and viability (Burnes, 2004). Bennis and Tichy (2009) referred to OD as a response to change, a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values, and structure of an organisation so that it can better adapt to new technologies, markets, challenges, and the dizzying rate of change itself. This approach is described by Cummings and Huse (1989: 555) as the “application of behavioural science knowledge in a long range of effort to improve an organisation`s ability to cope with changes in its external environment and increase its internal problem solving capabilities”.

Organisational development is a unique organisational improvement strategy that emerged in the late 1950s and early 1960s (Lewin, 1958). It evolved into an integrated framework of theories and practises capable of solving or helping to solve most of the important problems confronting the human side of organisations (Burnes, 2004). OD is about people and organisations and people in organisations and how they function (Lewin, 1958). Burnes (2004) adds that it is also about planned change; that is, getting individuals, teams and organisations to function better.

OD has its origins in scientific management and was made popular by Lewin (1946). Based on the human relations perspective, French and Bell (1983: 15), state that the approach is a “long range effort to improve an organisation`s problem solving and renewal process – with the assistance of change agent or catalyst and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science”.

Bennis and Tichy (2009: 58) corroborated French and Bell (1983) by stating that OD is neither "anything done to better an organisation" nor is it "the training function of the organisation; it is a particular kind of change process designed to bring about a particular kind of end result". OD can involve interventions in the organisation's "processes," using behavioural science knowledge, organisational reflection, system improvement, planning and self-analysis (French & Bell, 1983).

In summary, French and Bell (1983) discussed the following features of OD:

- The goal is to improve the organisation`s health and effectiveness
- The focus on change effort is on the whole system (such as a division or organisation)
- Change is introduced systematically as planned intervention
- Top-down strategies are applied, that is, change starts at the top of the organisation and is gradually implemented downwards throughout the organisation
- Employees at all organisational levels must be committed to the change
- Change is made slowly, allowing for the continual assessment of change strategies

- Specialist change agents usually guide the change programmes
- The organisational development strategy is interdisciplinary
- The approach can be used for `healthy` and `unhealthy` organisations.

As a systematic approach to managing change process successfully, the process involves: “identifying the need for change, selecting the intervention technique, gaining top management support, planning the change process, overcoming resistance to change and evaluating the change process” (Linstead, Fulop & Lilley, 2009: 641)

There have been many criticisms of OD, and French and Bell (1983) identified and discussed some of them. A good summary appears in Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009). The main problem with this approach is that as an explicitly normative approach, it assumes that there is one best way to manage change that increases organisational effectiveness and simultaneously achieve the well being of employees. (Palmer *et al.*, 2009)

Planned change involves common sense, hard work applied painstakingly diligently over time, a systematic goal oriented approach, and valid knowledge about organisational dynamics and how to change these dynamics (Burnes, 2004).

Planned change is a deliberately designed movement occurring from one organisational state to another that has a commitment to producing a specified outcome (Linstead *et al.*, 2009). Most planned organisational change is triggered by the need to respond to new challenges or opportunities presented by the external environment, or in anticipation of the need to cope with potential future problems (Burnes, 2004). Management of change involves the modification of behaviour of individuals within the organisation and improving the ability of the organisation to cope with changes in its environment (Linstead *et al.*, 2009).

Lanning (2001) states that deliberate change is planned change. It can be fast or slow, it may affect many elements of the organisation or only a few (French & Bell, 1999). Planned change represents the intention to systematically and stepwise improve the operational effectiveness of the organisation (French & Bell, 1999).

Planned change can result in incremental change characterised by minute fine-tuning, fixing of problems, adjustments and modification of processes but do not necessarily result in fundamental changes in the organisation (Lanning, 2001). In contrast, radical change, which results in robust and fundamental change, is also known as revolution, refocus, transformation, reorientation, or turnaround (Buhanist, 2000).

In phase models the word “phase” is used deliberately to emphasise that different phases may and do overlap (Lanning, 2001). The word “step”, in turn, connotes discrete action; that is, step 1 is completed before step 2 can be taken (Burke 1994).

According to Lippitt *et al.* (1958: 10) “planned change originates in a decision to make a deliberate effort to improve the system”. Consequently, the notion of planned change has led to different kinds of models for carrying out the planning itself and the action following it. What these models have in common is that they all contain a sequence of phases (also referred as steps or stages) to be carried out (Lanning, 2001). These are accordingly called “phase models” for change (Lanning, 2001).

3.4.5.2 Lewin`s Three Step Model

Lewin (1951) developed a three phase model of change, based on the premise that an understanding of critical steps in the change process increases the likelihood of the successful management of change. These steps in the process are:

- Unfreezing:

This stage involves the recognition of the need to change. Action is taken to unfreeze the existing attitudes and behaviour, which is essential for supporting employees and minimising change resistance (Linstead *et al.*, 2009). Lewin believed that the stability of human behaviour was based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium supported by a complex field driving and restraining forces (Burnes, 2004).

- Changing:

As Schein (1992: 62) notes, “unfreezing is not an end to itself, it creates a motivation to learn but does not necessarily control or predict the direction”. This echoes Lewin (1958), that any attempt to predict or identify a specific outcome from planned change is very difficult because of the complexity of the forces concerned (Burnes, 2004). Moving the organisation to the desired state involves actual implementation of new systems of operation. This may involve experimentation, modification of systems or patterns of behaviour, technology or systems; may also be where people need to leave or new people join the organisation as the full nature of transition emerges (Linstead, Fulop & Lilley, 2009). Once the change appears to have reached equilibrium once more, it is time for the next process.

- Refreezing:

This stage involves the positive reinforcement of desired outcomes to promote the internalisation of new attitudes and behaviours. An appraisal of the change programme becomes necessary at this stage to ensure that the new way of operating becomes a matter of habit not a regulation. Burnes (2004: 274) adds that “refreezing seeks to stabilise the group at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that the new behaviour is relatively safe from regression”.

3.4.5.3 Kotter's eight step model

Lewin's model has been criticised for being too simplistic and thus, not offering practical enough information for carrying out change in practice (Lanning, 2001). Kotter (1995) developed an 8-step model after analysing different organisations that had undergone change.

Kotter's 8-step change model can be summarised as (Kotter, 1985):

- Increase urgency - inspire people to move, make objectives real and relevant.
- Build the guiding team - get the right people in place with the right emotional commitment, and the right mix of skills and levels.
- Get the vision right - get the team to establish a simple vision and strategy, focus on emotional and creative aspects necessary to drive service and efficiency.
- Communicate for buy-in - involve as many people as possible, communicate the essentials simply, and to appeal and respond to people's needs. De-clutter communications - make technology work for you rather than against.
- Empower action - remove obstacles, enable constructive feedback and lots of support from leaders - reward and recognise progress and achievements.
- Create short-term wins - set aims that are easy to achieve - in bite-size chunks. Manageable number of initiatives - finish current stages before starting new ones.
- Do not let up - foster and encourage determination and persistence - ongoing change - encourage ongoing progress reporting - highlight achieved and future milestones.
- Make change stick - reinforce the value of successful change via recruitment, promotion, and use of change leaders.

3.4.5.4 The six step model

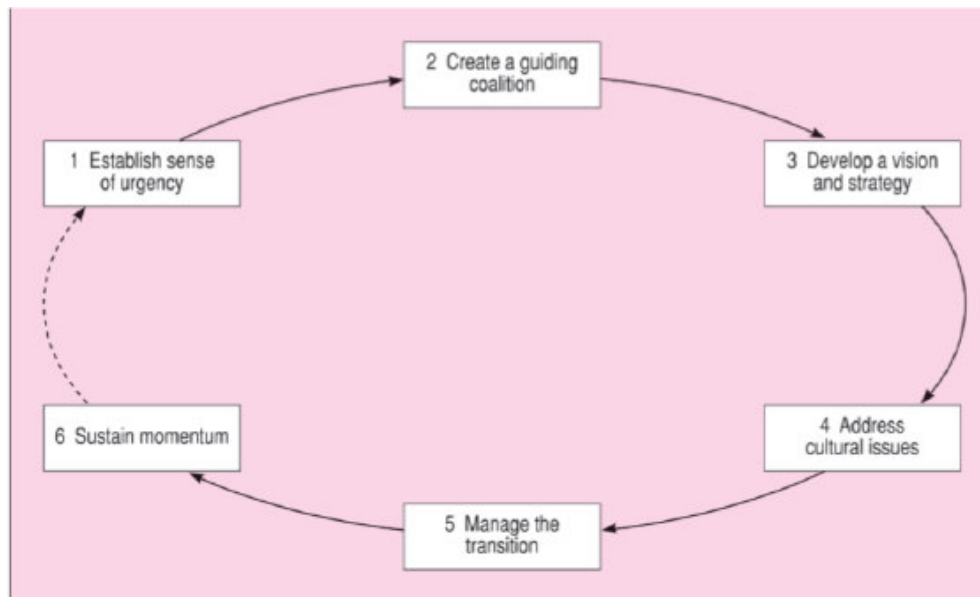


Figure 3: The six step model of change: Mabey (2007)

The six step planned change model takes the best and removes the worst of the approaches discussed above (Mabey 2007). Mabey (2007) modified the Kotter (1995), Dawson (1994) and Beckhard and Harris (1987) models to come up with the six step model of change.

Mabey (2007: 15) highlights that by “reducing change management into six steps, there is a danger of over simplification and falling into a trap of seeing change as a linear unfolding process, with a beginning, a middle and an end”. This explains why figure 3 above is a continuum.

A summary of the steps of the six step model are summarised below:

- Establish a sense of urgency: the need for change is often overwhelmed by the sense of complacency or inertia (Mabey, 2007). This stage “identifies potential threats and develops scenarios showing what could happen in the future, examines opportunities that should be, or could be, exploited, starts honest discussions, and gives dynamic and convincing reasons to get people talking and thinking, requests support from customers, outside stakeholders and industry people to strengthen change argument” (Mabey, 2007: 16)
- Create a guiding coalition: This stage convinces people that change is necessary (Mabey, 2007). This often takes strong leadership and visible support from key people within an organisation. These individuals can then champion the cause in their sections

(Mabey, 2007). Activities in this stage are; “identifying true leaders in an organisation, asking for an emotional commitment from these key people, working on team building within the change coalition, checking the team for weak areas, and ensure that there is a good mix of people from different departments and different levels within the organisation” (Mabey, 2007: 23).

- **Develop a vision and strategy:** The real value of defining the strategic purpose lies in the consultation process, that is, “articulating where the organisation is going and what it wants to achieve via genuine consensus building” (Mabey, 2007: 25). “It is one thing to have a clear statement of intent (which should mesh with the overall organisational mission and strategy), but it is another for this statement of intent to express a future vision or set of values that is meaningful and energising for the staff concerned” (Mabey, 2007: 25).
- **Address cultural issues:** Often so much effort is expended on the first three stages of change (see figure 3) that the later stages are neglected (Mabey, 2007). “Yet this is where many change interventions fail, insufficient effort is given to the prevailing attitudes and values (culture). Insufficient time is given to the special arrangements required by the change process (transition requirements)” (Mabey, 2007: 41). Insufficient energy is given to following through the changes, particularly amongst those staff most distant from the original initiative, but on whom its success depends (Mabey, 2007).
- **Manage transition:** Following all preparation work comes the difficult part of implementing, managing and consolidating the actual change process (Mabey, 2007). The transition state is typified by a number of problems. Mabey (2007: 46) adds that “there is invariably, confusion about roles, responsibilities and decision making channels as “steady-state” management is disrupted. Some people cope with ambiguity better than others, although the setting up of communication feedback mechanisms, periodic cross-functional meetings and temporary task team help”.
- **Sustain momentum:** Mabey (2007) states that at some point it is necessary to assess the impact of the various change initiatives that have been set in motion. Because the feedback of positive outcomes is an important aspect in giving momentum to the change programme, early success stories help to foster expectancy among those yet to participate or to be affected by the change effort (Mabey, 2007).

Mabey (2007: 53) further states that “where various initiatives are not working, some of the earlier steps in the six step model may need to be revisited. Whatever the situation, the changes `sponsor` need to be kept informed. His or her background lobbying and

influence will be essential for ensuring the project enjoys high visibility and adequate resourcing”.

Obviously the change agent and (where there is one) the change management team are well positioned to measure the impact of the changes in an informal manner since they will be in close contact with the implementation and outcomes (Mabey, 2007). However, it might also be helpful to augment this with more independent measures of the change to supplement and add credibility to this grapevine (Mabey, 2007). According to Mabey (2007: 43) “three measures can be used, namely: a climate survey or cultural audit, interviews and observer records”.

There are also numerous other phase-models for carrying out change in organisations. In table 2, models are summarised and organised according to Mabey (2007), Bullock and Batten (1985: 400) as cited in (Lanning, 2001: 14). All these models reflect different nuances and approaches to change, which throw some light on the research problem under discussion.

Table 2: Summary of different phase models representing a variety of decades and schools of thought: Lanning (2001:14) and Mabey (2007, 15)

Lewin 1951	Lippitt et al. 1958	Frohman et al. 1976	Ackerman 1982	Burke 1982	Bullock and Batten 1985	Beer et al. 1990a	McCalman and Paton 1992	Burke 1994	Walton 1995	Kotter 1995	Mabey 2007
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Unfreezing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Developing need ▪ Establish change relationship ▪ Diagnosing problems ▪ Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Scouting ▪ Entry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Awareness of the need and opportunities for change ▪ Assessing the environment and organisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Entry ▪ Contracting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Exploration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Mobilising energy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Problem / system specification ▪ Formulation of success criteria ▪ Identification of performance indicators 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Generating need 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Diagnosis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Establishing a sense of urgency ▪ Forming a powerful guiding coalition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Creating a guiding coalition
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Examining alternative routes and goals ▪ Establishing intentions of actions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Data collection ▪ Data feedback ▪ Diagnosis ▪ Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Designing the future state ▪ Defining what needs to be changed ▪ Planning and organising for implementation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Diagnosis ▪ Feedback ▪ Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Developing a task aligned vision ▪ Fostering consensus, competence and cohesion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Generation of options and solutions ▪ Selection of evaluation techniques and option editing ▪ Option evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Determining future state ▪ Addressing organisational power and political dynamics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Clarifying and coalition building 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Creating a vision ▪ Communicating the vision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Creating a vision and strategy ▪ Addressing cultural issues
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Moving 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Actual change efforts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Action ▪ Evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Implementing new state ▪ Evaluation and fine-tuning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Intervention ▪ Evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Action 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Spreading revitalisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Development of implementation strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Disengaging from past ▪ Organising transition teams ▪ Involving people ▪ Using multiple levers ▪ Providing feedback ▪ Creating symbols and language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sustaining 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Empowering others to act on the vision ▪ Planning for and creating short term wins ▪ Consolidating improvements and producing still more change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Manage transition ▪ Sustain momentum
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Refreezing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Stabilising change ▪ Terminating relationship 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Formalising the new state 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Integration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Consolidating changes ▪ Continually monitoring and strategising 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Consolidation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Utilising reward system ▪ Deploying guardians of the new way 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Institutionalising new approaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sustain momentum

3.5 CULTURE CHANGE

Kreitner, Kinicki & Buelens (1999: 57) define organisational culture as the, “shared values and beliefs that underlie a company’s identity”. Johnson & Scholes (1999: 73) define the cultural web as a “representation of the taken for granted assumptions or paradigm of an organisation and the physical manifestation of organisational culture”.

Senior (1997: 67) defines culture as, “the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another. Culture in this sense is a system of collectively held values”. Characteristics of a ‘subjective’ culture include shared values and beliefs among organisational members (Senior, 1997). Characteristics of ‘objective’ culture on the other hand, include artefacts in an organisation such as office locations, physical setting and office décor. Schein (1992) as cited by Schraeder and Self (2003: 512) described culture as “the solution to external and internal problems and posits that culture is multi level in nature, consisting at its deepest level of the most basic assumptions, values and artefacts. Cultures are typically an integral part of an organisation. Some say that culture is to an organisation what personality is to an individual”.

Cultures serve as forces that draw organisational members together, creating a sense of cohesion (French and Bell, 1999). “Culture formation is neither a random event nor an action dependent solely on the personalities of founders or current leaders, but it is to a significant degree, an internal reaction to external imperatives”. Schraeder and Self (2003: 512). Furthermore, change in the environment may necessitate a change in the culture, and goes as far as suggesting that these changes, which include new learning can also involve the need for new people (Johnson & Scholes, 1999).

Kotter and Heskett (1992: 11) suggest that, “corporate culture can have a significant impact on a firm’s long term economic performance...will probably be an even more important factor in determining the success or failure of firms in the next decade...and cultures that inhibit strong long term financial performance are not rare; they develop easily, even in firms that are full of reasonable and intelligent people”.

3.5.1 The cultural web

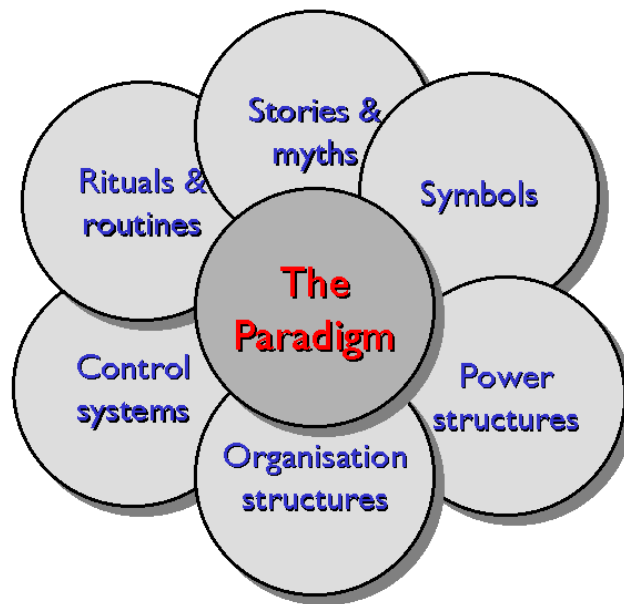


Figure 4: The cultural web of an organisation (adapted from Johnson & Scholes, 1999)

A model of culture as developed by Johnson helps understand the complexity of culture (Seel, 2005). The paradigm in the centre is the set of core beliefs which result from the multiplicity of conversations and which maintains the unity of the culture (Seel, 2005). The ‘petals’ are the manifestations of culture which result from the influence of the paradigm. Linstead, Fullop and Lilley (2009: 742) adds that the organisation is embedded in a “cultural web of stories and myths, rituals and routines, symbols, power structures, control systems and organisational structures, and all of these, together, shape a paradigm”.

A paradigm is basically a formula for what the organisation is and what it does and what the people in the organisation think are the recipes for its success or otherwise (Linstead, Fullop & Lilley 2009). Segal-Horn (2004) defines the paradigm as a core set of beliefs and assumptions held relatively commonly by managers while Seel (2005) defines paradigm as a self-consistent set of ideas and beliefs which acts as a filter, influencing perceptions. The paradigm is the heart of the web, and is sustained by its other elements (Linstead, Fullop & Lilley 2009)

The Cultural Web identifies six interrelated elements that help to make up what Johnson and Scholes (1999) call the "paradigm" – the pattern or model – of the work environment (Manktelow, 2011). The six elements are:

- Stories – These are past events that people talked about inside and outside the company (Manktelow, 2011). Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009: 139) states that “these are stories told by the organisation members that, as a form of oral history, communicate and reinforce core elements of the culture”. These include leadership styles, characteristics and how things used to be.
- Rituals and routines – These are daily behaviour and actions of people that signal acceptable behaviour (Manktelow, 2011). These determine what is expected to happen in given situations, and what is valued by management. Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009: 139) define these as, “...how organisational members treat each other, and perhaps more importantly, associated beliefs as to what is right and proper and valued”. These include committees, inductions, deference and blame someone.
- Symbols – The visual representations of the company including logos, how splash the offices are, and the formal or informal dress codes (Manktelow, 2011). Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009: 139) discuss symbols such as “logos, office designs, dress style, and language use that convey aspects of culture as examples of cultural symbols”.
- Organisational structure - This includes both the structure defined by the organisation chart, and the unwritten lines of power and influence that indicate whose contributions are most valued (Manktelow, 2011). Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009) state that structures relate to the nature of the formal and informal differentiation and integration of tasks within the organisation. Examples of such include devolved branches, functional structures, hierarchical and autocratic.
- Control systems - The ways that the organisation is controlled. These include financial systems, quality systems, and rewards (including the way they are measured and distributed within the organisation) (Manktelow, 2011). Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009: 139) state that these “communicate what is valued by the organisation through what they measure and reward”.
- Power structures - The pockets of real power in the company. This may involve one or two key senior executives, a whole group of executives, or unions, or even a department (Manktelow, 2011). The key is that these people have the greatest amount of influence on decisions, operations, and strategic direction. (Manktelow, 2011). Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009: 139) define this as “the most influential management groupings in the organisation”.

Johnson (1987) suggests such a paradigm shift demands a renewal of each and every related process and activity around the original paradigms as well as, of course, the redevelopment of the new paradigm itself. Segal – Horn (2004) suggests that, in order for

culture change to take place, all the six element that are intertwined in to change simultaneously.

3.6 THE FORCE FEILD ANALYSIS

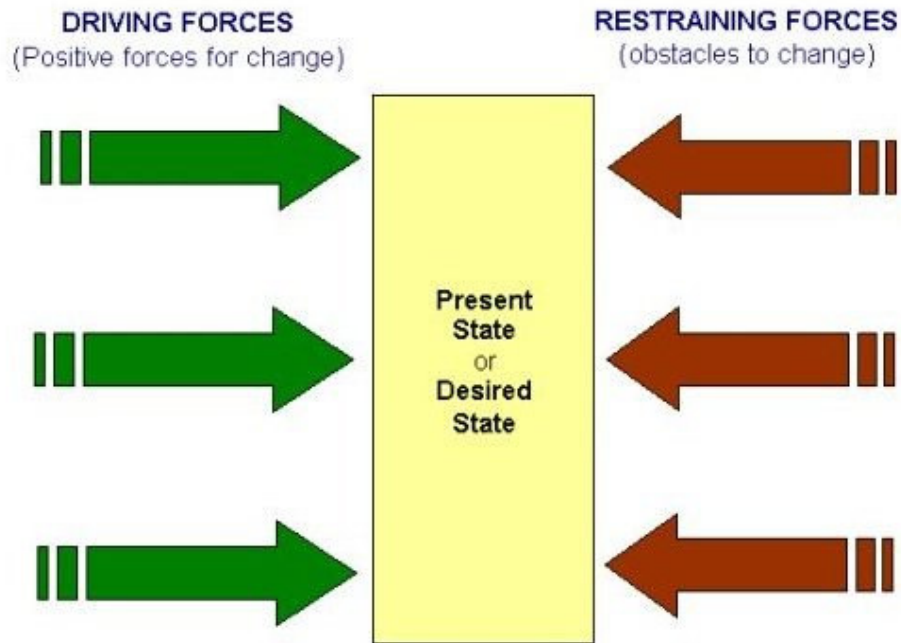


Figure 5: The force field diagram (Lewin, 1958)

Force field analysis is a diagnostic technique developed by Kurt Lewin (as cited in Linstead, Fullop & Lilley, 2009). Lewin`s model of organisational change highlights the importance of spotting and working with the force at play (Green, 2009). The forces pushing for change are driving forces while those working against change are called restraining forces. Lewin believed that the stability of human behaviour was based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium supported by a complex field driving and restraining forces (Burnes, 2004). Lewin`s force field analysis states that there are two forces in operation in the social system, those driving change, and those attempting to maintain the status quo. If these forces are in “equilibrium, to bring about change, an organisation needs to either increase the strength of the driving forces, or decrease the strength of resisting forces or ideally work on both simultaneously” (Linstead, Fulop & Lilley, 2009: 641). If successful, the organisation moves to the next phase (Lanning, 2004).

3.7 CHANGE AGENTS

Changes within an organisation demand a catalyst (Connor & Lake, 1994). The persons who assume the responsibility of managing the change process within an organisation and

who act as catalysts are called 'change agents' (Fox, 2006). Change managers design, oversee and direct change (Connor & Lake, 1994). Change agents can come from within the organisation or be external consultants (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1999). Internal change agents are typically senior executives, managers, internal staff developers or powerful lower level employees (Connor & Lake, 1994). External change agents can be consultants brought in from outside the company and have more credibility since they are not involved in company politics (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1999). Any manager may act as a change agent, although a change agent may also be a non-manager, a staff specialist or outside specialist whose area of expertise is in the implementation of change (Bhengu, 2007).

The characteristics or competencies of a change agent according to Buchanan & Boddy, as cited by (Senior, 1997) are:

- Goals: Sensitive to changes in key personnel, top management perceptions, able to specify goals clearly, flexible in responding to changes.
- Roles: Able team builder who can bring together stakeholders, skilled networker inside and outside the company, tolerant to ambiguity.
- Communication: Able to transmit need for change effectively, excellent interpersonal skills, enthusiastic, able to motivate people.
- Negotiation: Able to sell plans and ideas to others, finely tuned negotiator.
- Managing up: Aware of internal company politics, skilled at influencing people to gain commitment, to take a broad perspective. Fox (2006: 160) states that "often in the event of any major organisational change, internal managers are inclined to hire the services of an outside specialist as consultant to provide advice and assistance. These outside experts are said to be able to present an objective perspective, as opposed to insiders. On the other hand, outsider specialists may be at a disadvantage because they do not have an adequate understanding of the culture, history, operating procedures and personnel of the organisation". Managing the kinds of changes encountered by, and instituted within, organisations requires an unusually broad and finely honed set of skills, chief among which are the following according to (Nickols, 2004),
- Political Skills: Organisations are first and foremost social systems. Without people there can be no organisation. Lose sight of this fact and any would-be change agent will likely lose his or her head (Nickols, 2004). Organisations are hotly and intensely political. Change agents dare not join in this game but they should better understand it. This is one area where one must make one`s own judgment and keep one`s own counsel; no one can do it for the other (Senior, 1997).

3.8 RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Newstrom and Davis (1993: 276) explain resistance to change as, “employees resisting change because it threatens their needs for security, social interaction, status or self esteem. Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens (1999: 594) define resistance to change as, “...emotional or behavioural response to real or imagined work changes”.

The perceived threat stemming from change may be real or imagined, intended or unintended, large or small (Palmer, Dunford & Akin, 2009). Regardless of its nature, employees will try to protect themselves from effects of change. Strebel (1996: 139) explains the reason for employees resisting change, as, “...many employees see change as disruptive and intrusive”. Fox (2006) suggest that older people tend to resist change more than younger people. This is because older people have generally invested more in the current system and, therefore, have more to sacrifice by adapting to change. Linstead, Fulop and Lilley (2009: 649) added that “hostility occurs when individuals or group of individuals fail to take on the change initiative, or some element of change programme, and actively work to frustrate it”.

Karyn (2002: 138) states that “major organisational change or innovation can anticipate resistance, especially if proposed changes alter values and visions related to the existing order”.

Senior (1997) as cited in Bhengu (2007: 42) explains that there are “forces ‘facilitating’ change and forces ‘acting against’ it. The forces that are acting against change are categorised into individual responses and company responses” as shown below:

3.8.1 Individual resistance:

- Fear of the unknown.
- Dislike of the uncertainty and ambiguity surrounding change.
- Potential loss of power base.
- Potential loss of rewards.
- Perceived lack of skills for new situation.
- Potential loss of current skills.

3.8.2 Company resistance:

- Inertia forces deriving from the systemic nature of companies.
- Interlocking aspects of structures, control systems, rituals and routines, signs and symbols.
- Inertial forces deriving from group norms.

- Potential loss of group power bases.
- Entrenched interest of stakeholders.
- Lack of company capability.
- Lack of resources.
- Threat to resource allocations.

Robbins (1998) suggests six tactics to overcome resistance to change. These are education and communication, participation and involvement, facilitation and support, negotiation and agreement, manipulation and co-optation: covert influence, explicit and implicit coercion. Linstead, Fulop and Lilley (2009: 649) state that “organisational and individual resistance needs to be worked out, not dismissed or defeated”. They further state that communicating the change often and consistently is important but not enough, but change need to be supported with adequate resources, in order to make sure that the change is appropriate and sustainable.

3.9 PRINCIPAL CONSTRUCTS OF MEASUREMENT OF IMPACT

This section explored theories that will input into the development of questionnaires for this study. These theories are more inclined to the socio-psychological contract that measure the impact of organisational change to employees.

Organisations, under pressure to make rapid and constant changes, have had to alter employment relationships and the psychological contracts that underlie them (Robinson, 1996).

Any significant organisational change affects the employee's psychological contract. Thessen (2004) defines psychological contracts as the set of unwritten reciprocal expectations, beliefs or perceptions that characterise the relationship between employee and employer. Robinson (1996) states that psychological contracts refer to employees' perceptions of what they owe to their employers and what their employers owe to them. Rousseau (1995) defines the psychological contracts as an individual's beliefs about the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that person and another party. These contracts are unwritten and often largely non verbal set of expectations and assumptions about the obligations that people ascribe to their organisations (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). Theissen (2004: 10) states that psychological contract include “mutual responsibilities and expectations; but because it exists implicitly, it is deemed unofficial”.

The psychological contract is made up of attributes such as job security, the employee-employer relationship, trust, employer promises, loyalty, fairness of process, organisational commitment and the survivor syndrome (Theissen, 2004).

Morrison and Robinson (1997) state that psychological contracts are increasingly difficult to manage during a restructuring, downsizing, forced redundancies, the increasing use of temporary workers, the increasing use of specific performance based schemes, decreasing union power and diversity in workplace, and foreign competition alter the more traditional underpinnings of these contracts.

Cooper and Rousseau (1994) suggest that the breaking of the psychological contract can occur with any organisational change where new policies and processes make statements that are at odds with the status quo. Morrison and Robinson (1997: 230) argue that “a breach in psychological contract is cognitive, that is, it involves perceived breach or failure on the part of an organisation to fulfil an obligation commensurate with one`s contribution”. This violation is considered by Linstead, Fullop and Lilley (2009) as the emotional or affective state or experience that can also accompany one`s belief that there has been a failure by the organisation to fulfil a psychological contract. Such violation creates “deep visceral feelings of disappointment, frustration and distress stemming from perceived failure to receive something that is both expected and desired” (Morrison & Robinson, 1997: 231).

Morrison and Robinson (1997) suggest that violation decreases trust that employees have in their organisation as well as satisfaction they have in their job, the organisation as a whole, obligations they feel towards their organisation and their intention to stay. Some possible outcomes of violating the psychological contract are “reduced contribution from the person violated, unwilling to take extra roles and, in the extreme, seeking retaliation, revenge, sabotage, theft or acts of aggressive behaviour” (Morrison & Robinson, 1997: 227). Guest (2007) states, that breach creates anger and disappointment that reduce commitment to organisation, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship and increase employee turnover.

3.10 CONCLUSION

The objective of Chapter 3 was to provide a literature review on the subject of change management. Organisational change management includes processes and tools for managing the ‘people side’ of the change at an organisational level. These tools include a structured approach that can be used to effectively facilitate the change process of groups or the organisation. The literature review addressed the key issues involved in a change process such as resistance to change and the impact thereof, culture of change, change models and most relevant to this study, the psychological contracts. Successful change,

however, requires more than a new process. Successful change requires the engagement and participation of the people involved. Change management is a structured approach to change in individuals, teams, organisations and societies that enables the transition from a 'current state' to a 'desired future state'. The objective of Chapter 4 is to describe the research survey design and methodology.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This dissertation is based on research undertaken in the social world and is theoretical in nature using the quantitative research paradigms as basis. The research method used is a survey design falling within the echelons of descriptive surveys. In this chapter, the research survey design and methodology was discussed in detail. This chapter covers the limitations of the research, target population, survey design and also provides insight into the choice of sampling method.

In the business context, descriptive surveys may be used, for example, to ascertain attitudes to an organisation`s products (Bearden *et al.*, 1993) or attitudes of an organisation`s workforce (Hartley & Barling, 1998). Such surveys may be undertaken, for example, to assess job satisfaction; motivation; moral and stress; employee grievances and the satisfactoriness of the means of dealing with them; and reaction to possible changes in working arrangements (Gill & Johnson, 2010).

A cross sectional study was conducted in this dissertation. Coldwell and Herbst (2004) states that a cross sectional study is a study that is conducted once and reveals a snapshot of one point in time. The cross sectional design is often called the social survey design and is closely connected with questionnaire and structured questions (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Bryman and Bell (2007) define a cross sectional design as a process of collecting data at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables, which are often examined to detect patterns of association.

4.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH SURVEY

Bryman and Bell (2007), state that social surveys are mostly impacted by internal validity. Internal validity is concerned with the question of whether a conclusion that incorporates a casual relationship between two variables holds water (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

The research survey was adversely impacted upon by the following aspects:

- The research was limited to 750 employees working at the head office in Johannesburg central only. This limitation was due to the fact that the Department has regional offices scattered in Gauteng and it makes it impractically possible to administer questionnaires to all employees.

- The sampling frame of 191 employees is not necessarily a representative sample of the target population. Coldwell and Herbst (2004: 47) state that “it is difficult to access the proper number and type of people who are needed for a representative sample of the target population”.
- The head count completed in February 2011 was inconclusive as to the total number of employees in DID at the head office (DID, 2011)
- The organisational structure of DID is in a process of review and divisional analysis or data analysis by Chief Directorates was not possible.
- Due to the fact that issues of management abilities/inabilities during the change process were raised, some employees feared victimisation should they criticise management in the handling of the split. Respondents tend to give socially desirable responses that make them look good or seem to be what the researcher is looking for (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004).
- A lot of people in the sample did not participate in the survey, or dropped out (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004: 47). This led to some questionnaires not being returned to the researcher as well as some incomplete questionnaires. To alleviate some of the fears, the researcher had to arrange group meetings with various divisions to further explain the basis of the research and reassure employees that none of the information would be used against them.

4.3 THE TARGET POPULATION

Watkins (2006) defines a population as a collection of all observations of a random variable under study and about which the researcher is trying to draw conclusions in practise. A population must be defined in very specific terms to include only those units with characteristics that are relevant to the problem (Zikmund, 2003). The population for this research is the total number of permanent employees working at the head offices in central Johannesburg. The inconclusive head count report of 2010 indicated that DID had about 1386 permanent employees (DID, 2010). About 750 employees are at the head office.

The target sample for this research was drawn from randomly selected individuals from employees of the DID head office. A questionnaire was administered to these individuals drawing 128 responses to 28 questions. The population sample was drawn from the headcount report by the human resources division as at 31 October 2010.

The entity that serves as a unit of analysis will be ‘a body of individuals’ from various directorates within the organisation/department. The impact of change has been identified as the dependent variable.

4.4 THE CHOICE OF SAMPLING METHOD

The issues of generalisability in all quantitative studies are inevitably linked to the quality of the sample taken (Bryman & Bell, 2007). According to Watkins (2006: 47), a “sample is made up of the members of a population (the target population), the latter referring to a body of people or to any other collection of items under consideration for the purpose of the research. A sampling frame in turn refers to a list or any other record of the population from which all the sampling units are drawn, for example, in a large company, one can have a list of all the employees and this list forms the sampling frame from which one can take a sample”. Zikmund (2003), states that a sampling frame refers to a list or any other record of the population from which all the sampling units are drawn. The sampling frame in this research was a list of all Department employees.

Two main categories of sampling can be identified namely ‘probability sampling’ (where the researcher can in advance determine that each segment of the population will be represented in the (sample), and ‘non-probability sampling’ (where the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample) (Hartley & Barling, 1998).

Three of the more popular methods of probability sampling which can be used to select a sample, are random sampling, systematic sampling and stratified sampling (Zikmund, 2003). According to Watkins (2006: 48), stratified sampling is “best suited to a relatively small sample and there is a strong measure of diversity amongst the population elements”. The systematic sampling technique was the one of choices in this research. This method ensures no members of the population are under or over-represented (Watkins, 2006).

The systematic random sampling technique was used, which involved choosing the sample randomly from the existing employee population list or frame in all population groupings (Zikmund, 2003). According to Zikmund (2003), systematic sampling procedure is one in which an initial starting point is selected by a random process and every n^{th} number on the list is selected. In this instance, every second name on the list was selected. From a database of names from the employee register, names were drawn systematically to make up the sample population.

In order to generalise from a random sample and avoid sampling errors or biases, a random sample needed to be of adequate size (Gill & Johnsons, 2010). Various articles indicate methods of calculating the sample size. Gill and Johnsons (2010) tabulated population size and sample sizes based on different desired degrees of accuracy. For a population of 750, a confidence level of 95% and margin of error of 5; Gill and Johnsons (2010) suggest a sample

size of about 240 employees. For this research, a sample of 191 employees was used due to practicality constraints.

The research limitations pertaining to this sampling are:

- Employees forming the sample frame are permanent employees of the Department of Infrastructure Development.
- Employees sampled have been with the Department since the start of the split in June 2009.

4.5 MEASUREMENT SCALES

The survey used in the research is based on the quantitative research paradigm, whereby respondents were asked to respond to each of the statements or questions by choosing a range of agreement choices (Parasuraman, 1991). The Likert scale was used and its advantages according to Emory & Cooper (1995) are:

- Quick and easy to construct.
- Each item meets an empirical test for discriminating ability.
- The Likert scale is reliable.
- The Likert scale is also treated as an interval scale.

The most important reason, however, for choosing the Likert scale in this research, which is supported by Emory and Cooper (1995), is that the scale can be used in both respondent-centred (how responses differ between people) and stimulus-centred (how responses differ between various stimuli) studies, most appropriate to glean data in support of the research problem in question.

For section C; question 13 of the questionnaire, a semantic scale was used and data coded. This type of scale makes extensive use of words rather than numbers and respondents air their feelings or opinion about their work or environment (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004). Respondents had to outline the problems they experience in the Department.

4.6 SURVEY DESIGN

The statements and questions within the survey were designed with the following principles in mind, according to (Coldwel & Herbst, 2004):

- Avoidance of double-barrelled questions and statements.
- Avoidance of double-negative questions and statements.

- Avoidance of prestige bias.
- Avoidance of leading questions and statements.
- Avoidance of the assumption of prior knowledge.

The descriptive survey was used as it has the characteristics to indicate how many members of a particular population have a certain characteristic (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Particular care was taken to avoid bias in the formulation of the questions. The data collection method used in the survey, falls within the context of 'a survey' defined by Hussey and Hussey (1997: 68), as: "a sample of subjects being drawn from a population and studied to make inferences about the population".

More specifically, the survey conducted in this dissertation falls within the ambit of the 'descriptive survey' as defined by Ghauri, Grønhaug and Kristianslund (1995). The survey was conducted to collect 'primary data' using the 'questionnaire' method to conduct the interviews, an approach which maps to accepted data collection methods as proposed by Remenyi, Money and Twite (1995) and Emory and Cooper, (1995). A combination of closed and open ended questions was used to design the questionnaire.

Accompanying the questionnaires was a letter of approval from the HOD allowing the researcher to undertake this research within the DID. A cover letter was also attached to the questionnaire explaining explicitly the purpose of the survey and the research in general.

4.7 PILOT STUDY

Gill and Johnsons (2010) defined a pilot research as a trial run-through to test the research design with a subsample of respondents who have characteristics similar to those identifiable in the main sample to be surveyed. Piloting is necessary as it is very difficult to predict how respondents will interpret and react to the questions (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004). Conducting a pilot before the main survey allows any potential problems into the pro forma of questionnaire to be identified and corrected (Gill & Johnsons, 2010). Moreover, Gill and Johnsons (2010) further argue that where an interviewer-administered questionnaire is to be used, piloting provides the opportunity to refine, to and develop the interviewing and social skills of the researchers and help highlights any possible source of interviewer bias.

A group of experts selected from the sample had a test run on questionnaires and a number of issues needing the researcher's attention were highlighted and addressed. These experts were selected from each Chief Directorate/division from carefully selected senior managers with a certain level of research understanding.

4.8 RESPONDENT BRIEFING

Prior to conducting the interviews with the respondents, the researcher provided each respondent with detailed information pertaining to change management. Questions were piloted prior to the research to ensure that they were clear and the objectives were well understood. In addition, an overview of the dissertation objectives was provided. This exercise was undertaken to ensure that a common understanding of the issues raised in the survey prevailed and also to address any ethical issues of concern.

4.9 SURVEY QUESTIONS

The questionnaire was posed to DID employees at the Head office in Johannesburg central. A list of questions posed to the employees is provided as appendix D.

4.10 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

A combination of methods was used to collect data for this research including structured questionnaire, documentation review and interviews. In this study the method of triangulation was employed and data was collected by quantitative techniques.

Utilising a descriptive quantitative approach to collecting data within the multi-faceted process of change under study had the advantage of providing for greater attention to the nuances, settings, interdependencies, complexities, idiosyncrasies, and contexts found in the data (Patton, 1990), providing for thick description that addresses the research questions posed. Since the conceptual framework of this project is grounded in symbolic interactions, attention to those factors outlined by Patton (1990) were important in exploring and more fully understanding the social interactions and attempts to make sense and create meaning about the change phenomena. The three methods of data collection utilised and allowed uncovering the impact of change are questionnaires, interviews and documentation review.

4.10.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are a systematic way of data collection and ensure consistency by requiring that same questions are asked to employees of the Department via Directors. This method is highly applicable since information may be needed quickly from participants in a non-threatening way. The downside to this method is the general reluctance of public employees to commit to written information for the fear of victimisation.

The questionnaire was designed and self administered. A covering letter (Appendix B) was sent together with the questionnaire to each potential respondent, explaining the aim of the study and confidentiality issues of the study.

The questionnaire that was finally used (see appendix D), was modelled, in part modified, on the layout and aspects of the psychological contract inventory as developed by Rousseau (1995).

The questionnaire was constructed as follows:

SECTION A: Was designed for respondents to provide general and personal information about their age, gender and the Chief Directorate in which they work.

SECTION B: Examines change management and employee involvement

SECTION C: Concerns perception and attitude of employees towards their job and work in general.

4.10.2 Documentation review

Usually there is a large amount of data that has already been collected by others, although it may not necessarily have been analysed or published (Zikmund, 2003). This data was collected and analysed. Locating these sources and retrieving the information is a good starting point in any data collection effort.

Amongst the documents reviewed were project implementation plans, strategic documents, annual reports and presentations. This documentation was made available to the researcher and was used as a supplement to the interview information already gained. As advocated by Yin (1994), the advantage of documentation is that it is stable and can be repeatedly reviewed. It is also un-obstructive in that the data was not created as a result of this study (Yin, 1994). The data is exact as it contains precise details of names, positions, figures and events (Yin, 1994).

4.10.3 Interviews

This data collection technique involves oral questioning of respondents, either individually or as groups for individuals who may have problems with completing the questionnaire. Data was mainly collected through semi-structured one-on-one interviews with open-ended questions (Babbie & Mouton 2006). Responses to the questions posed during an interview were recorded by writing them down (either during the interview itself or immediately after the interview) or by tape-recording the responses, or by a combination of both. Protecting anonymity and confidentiality of respondents can be a challenge in public organisations (Skinner, *et al.*, 2005). The pen and paper recording encouraged more open and honest responses and ensured that participation in the interview did not have repercussions for respondent's relationship with their immediate superiors.

The interview approach was used as an attempt to gather information about the restructuring process. An interview guide, which served as a general plan of enquiry (Babbie & Mouton, 2006) was used in accordance with the advice of Patton (2002) to ensure that each interview followed the same basic lines yet could accommodate flexibility to explore issues as they were discussed. Prior to scheduling appointments, the general plan of enquiry was sent to the selected experts for review, advice and insight. The general plan of enquiry was sent to the participants prior to the interview. The interview guide approach allowed participants to prepare themselves in advance, which also afforded them the opportunity to look for information relating to the rationalisation which could be of assistance to the researcher. As recommended by Patton (2002), the interviews were conversational and situational. Appendix E shows the interview schedule and verbatim responses to interviews.

4.11 RESPONSE RATE

The response rate is specific to the type of sampling used and the need to acquire sampling probability within such a population (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Sometimes a sample design will use screening to find members of the sample that do not match the population studied and help increase the response rate (Watkins, 2006). This was not needed in this study, wherein all employees at work correspond to the reservation made for the sampling frame (Fowler, 2002).

Although there is no agreed standard of a minimum response rate, Fowler (2002) suggests that a common minimum should be in the region of 75%. Fowler (2002) further states that the effect of non-response on results creates a serious hazard for social research. This is because non-respondents are likely to be systematically different from those that do take the time to participate in surveys (Schutt, 2006). Furthermore, Fowler (2002) states that people who are particularly interested in the subject matter under investigation are more likely to participate, or return a questionnaire. This typically indicates the possibility of non respondents biasing estimates.

If knowledge does exist about those within the sample that do not respond, it is important to present information about their characteristics (Watkins, 2006). However, in light of the scope of this study and the risk of negative intervention, such information was not enquired in this study.

4.12 DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected was prepared and coded. Data preparation process ensured that the data was accurate and that it was converted into from raw to a classified or reduced form for

appropriate analysis and interpretation (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004). Data was further edited for accuracy, consistency, uniformity and arrangement. Coldwell and Herbst (2004) define data coding as a technique in which data is categorised or grouped into a number of classes. This allows for reduction in large number of responses to a few categories that contain critical information to enable efficient analysis (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004). The coding criteria used in this dissertation are referred by Coldwell and Herbst (2004: 96) as the “appropriateness to the research together with the exhaustiveness criteria”. These criteria allowed data to be grouped within age groups, work levels and gender groups in an exhaustive manner.

The coding procedure adopted on question 13 of Section C of the questionnaire was framed around the various work levels in DID, namely NMS, MMS and SMS levels. Responses are therefore grouped under each work level and coded in the format NMS1, NMS2, MMS1, etc to depict different levels and the different respondents. Coded verbatim responses for question 13 are shown in Appendix E.

The statistical analysis technique used falls within the ambit of descriptive statistics. Coldwell and Herbst (2004: 92) states that “descriptive statistics indicate measure of tendency (percentages, frequencies and medians) and measures of variation”.

Various methods of data presentation were used. These include pie charts, graphs and tables to show a pictorial representation of the distribution of responses within each category. Percentages and numbers were then used to compare these different categories.

4.13 VALIDITY

Of major concern is the threat to internal validity (Zikmund, 2003). The change under investigation is in mid-process and unexpected changes can take place distorting the reliability of the conclusion. One major threat is that the researcher is also affected by the change process. The conclusion derived by the researcher may be subject to personal biases and frustrations. Other validity issues are maturation, testing effects, selection and mortality (Fowler, 2002). The research instrument was not pretested on the study population and, therefore, cannot be deemed to have met the requirements of validity (Gill & Johnsons, 2010).

4.14 RELIABILITY

This research is of a social nature and findings are purely quantitative. These measures are highly subjective and conditional in that a different researcher may come up with a different set of conclusion (Gill & Johnsons, 2010). Threats prevalent to the survey research design

are; measurement errors, non response rate, sampling frame and reactivity (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004).

4.15 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher maintained ethical standards for the duration of the study. A high level of objectivity, integrity, sensitivity, anonymity of participants and confidentiality of information (where applicable) were maintained during the study (Fowler 2002). The respondents were assured that their responses would be kept confidential as the results were electronically collated.

The questionnaire was reviewed by the course tutor to check for appropriateness of questions. Permission to undertake the study and ethical clearance to circulate questionnaire and to use the Department in the study, was gained from the Head of Department of Infrastructure Development. Appendix C shows the approval from the Head of Department.

4.16 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the researcher detailed the research survey design and methodology. This included the target population and choice of sampling method as well as information on respondent briefing, where necessary. In the Chapter that follows, the results of the research questionnaire were presented. The author discussed and analysed the responses to individual questions. The author also provided some insight to the reasons why respondents responded in a particular manner. A summary of the findings and overall interpretation was also included in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher analysed the data obtained from the questionnaires and provided an interpretation of the results collected. The author also gave a summary of the findings from the responses received.

5.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.2.1 QUESTIONNAIRE: SECTION A

5.2.1.1 Response and response rate

The sample drawn out of the population comprised 191 employees. Of the total 191 questionnaires distributed by emails and in person, 128 were successfully returned. This represents a response rate of 67%. Although Fowler (2002) suggests that a common minimum response rate should be in the region of 75%, there is no universally agreed minimum. The acceptability of a sample is contingent upon the sample under investigation (Gill & Johnsons, 2010). A 67% response rate is quite acceptable in the population of the Department where a fear of victimisation is prevalent. The distribution of the 67% response rate per Chief Directorate is shown in table 3 below.

CORPORATE SERVICES BRANCH	Human Resources Management	11%
	Governance and Legal	9%
	Communications and Information Communication Technology	7%
INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT BRANCH	Capital Works	18%
	Maintenance	15%
OFFICE OF CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER	Financial Management	5%
	Supply Chain Management	10%
PROPERTY MANAGEMENT BRANCH	Strategic Asset Management	10%
	Precinct Facility Management and Rental	8%
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS BRANCH	EPWP Coordination and Program Support	7%

Table 3: Distribution of respondents in each Chief Directorate

5.2.2 Sample demographics

Categories included in the respondent`s demographic profile were gender, age group, job level, number of years of service with the DID and the number of years the respondent desires to be with the Department. The term respondent is used interchangeably with participant in this research.

The distribution of sample across these demographic categories as indicated in section A of the questionnaire is shown below:

5.2.2.1 Gender Distribution:

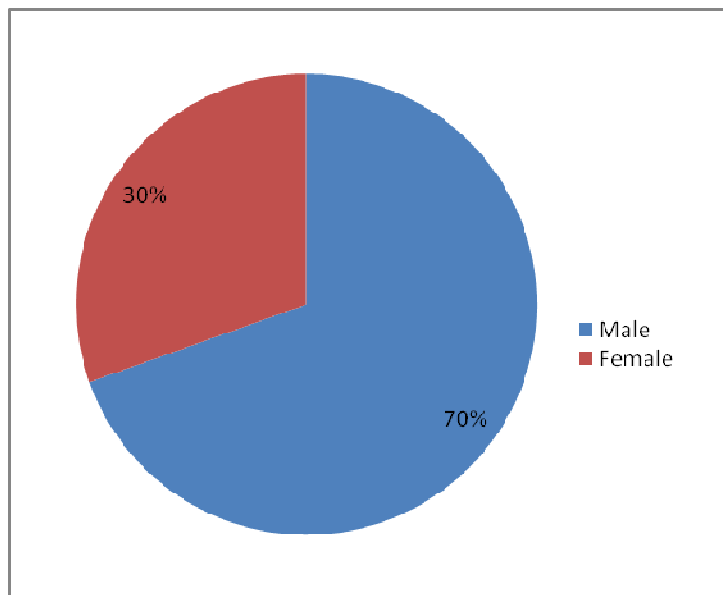


Figure 6: Distribution of respondents by gender

The pie chart above shows that 70% of respondents were male, which translates to 89 of 128 respondents. The female respondents were 39 or 30% of the respondents. The dominance of the male respondents is due to the fact that there are more male employees in the Department than female ones. Generally, male respondents were keen to participate in this survey.

5.2.2.2 Age Group Distribution:

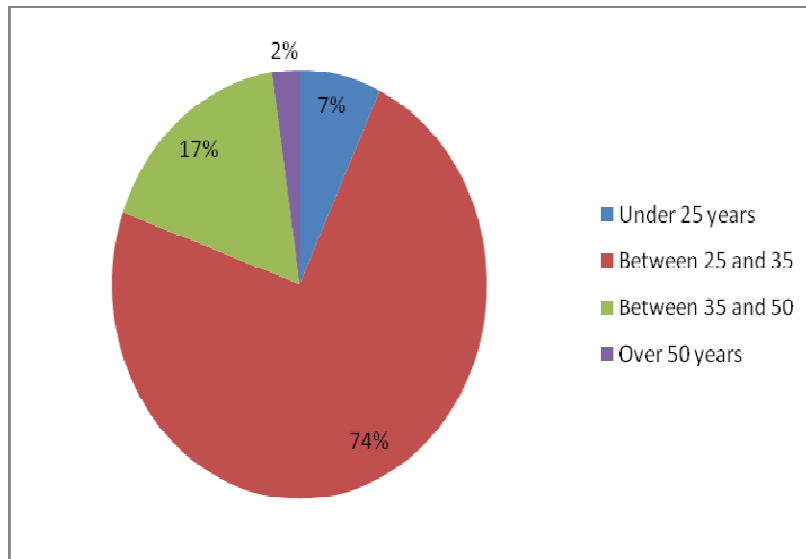


Figure 7: Distribution of Respondents by age group

The respondents fell largely in the “25 to 35” and “35 to 50” age groups, which translate to 74% or 94 respondents and 17% or 22 respectively. The “under 25 years” age group contributed 7% or 9 of the respondents. The “over 50 years” age group had 2% or 3 of the total number of respondents. The majority of respondents fell in between 25 and 35 years because this is the dominant age group in the Department. Likewise, 2 and 7% of the sample population represent few employees in the Department.

5.2.2.3 Work Level:

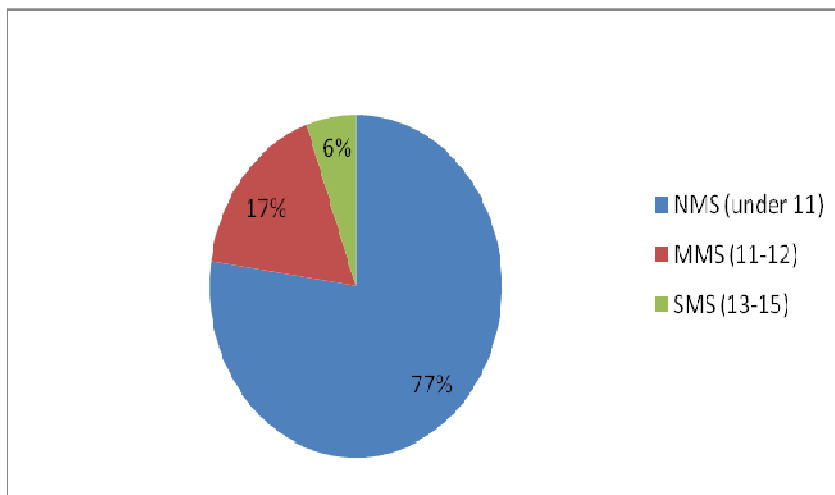


Figure 8: Distribution of Respondents by Work Level

Ninety-four percent or 121 of the respondents were in the Middle management Services (MMS) and None Management Services (NMS) levels, with 77% or 99 being NMS and 17% or 22 being MMS. Six percent or 7 of the respondents fell in the (Senior Management Services) SMS level. This behaviour is an organisational characteristic in which majority of employees are at the lower operational levels.

5.2.2.4 Distribution of duration with organisation:

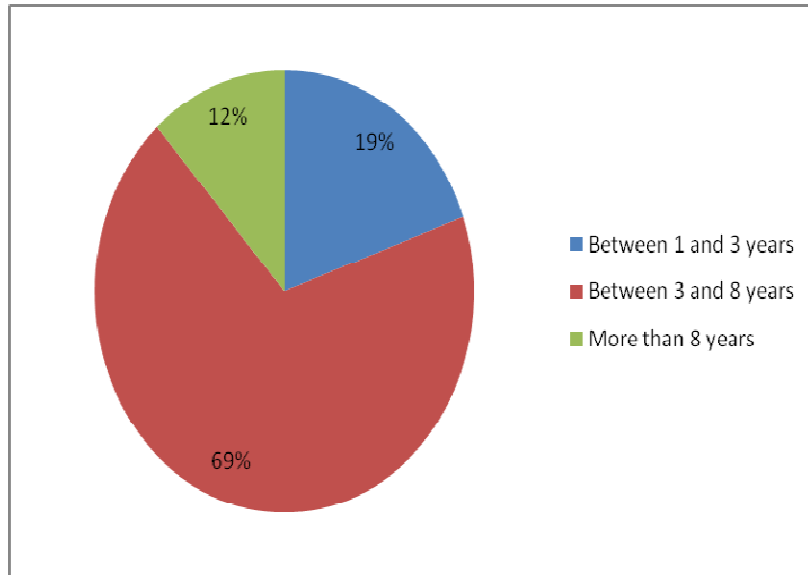


Figure 9: Distribution of duration with organisation

The majority of the respondents have been with the organisation for a period between 3 and 8 years representing 69% of the sample population. Twenty-five of the respondents (19% of sample population) have been with the organisation for a period between 1 to 3 years while 12% or 15 employees had been with the organisation for more than 8 years. This is an interesting statistic in which 88% of respondents have been with the Department for less than 8 years. A significantly large proportion of respondents have been with the Department for not more than 3 years.

5.2.2.5 Distribution of duration to be spent with organisation:

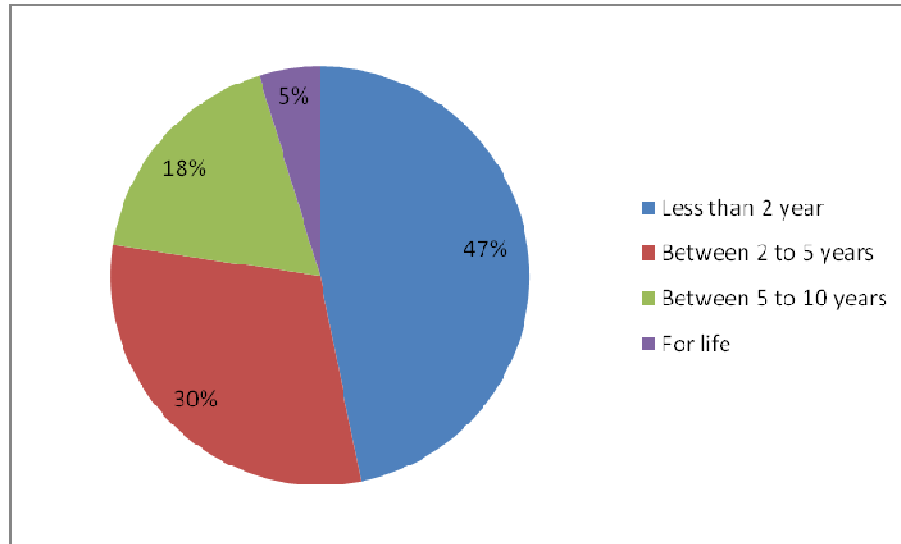


Figure 10: Distribution of duration to spend with organisation

Sixty respondents representing 47% of the sample intend to stay for a period shorter (less than 2 years) in the organisation. Thirty percent of the sample population desire to spend between 2 to 5 years in the organisation. Twenty-three or 18% of the respondents intend to be with the organisation for a period between 5 to 10 years while only 5% of the respondents desire to spend the rest of their lives in the organisation. The undesirable statistic indicates that 77% of the respondents would not want to be with the Department for more than 5 years.

SECTION B: CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

The analysis of the data in this section was guided by the questions and the responses from the participants. The analysis was as follows:

1. Are you aware of the reasons for the many changes that have taken place within the organisation at the DID?

The table below shows distribution of respondents to question 1 above.

	Number	Percentage
Yes	45	35
No	83	65

Table 4: Distribution of responses to awareness of why many changes took place in DID

The outcome of the survey as summarised on table 4 indicates that only 35% of participants were aware of the reasons why many changes took place in the Department. Eighty three of 128 respondents indicated no knowledge as to why these changes took place.

Unpacking the awareness of the reasons for these many changes to the three work levels indicates that 36% of the respondents who are aware of the reasons for changes are in the NMS. The MMS level contributes 32% of respondents who are aware of the reasons of the various changes while the remaining 29% of the aware respondents are in the SMS. Figure 11 shows the distribution of awareness of reasons for respondents to the reasons for the many changes. This indicates a serious lack of communication and employee involvement.

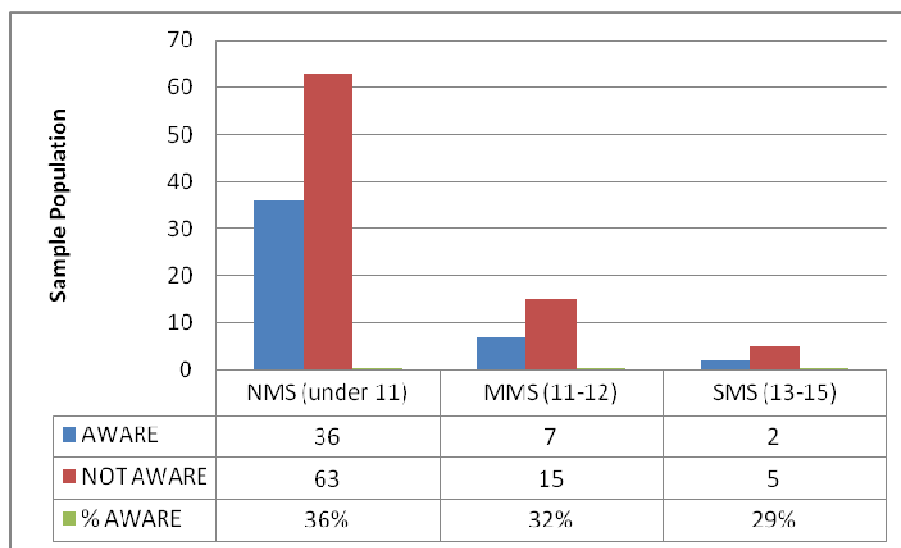


Figure 11: distribution of awareness of reasons for change by levels

2. Did the management communicate the vision for change?

Table 5 below shows the distribution of the responses on whether the vision for change was communicated. The data obtained from the survey indicates that 112 respondents believe that the vision for change was not communicated. This indicates 88% of the respondents while 12% or 16 respondents believe the vision was communicated. Of the 112 respondents, 87 are in the NMS, 19 in the MMS and 6 in the SMS (See figure 12 below). The majority of the respondents who believe the vision for change was not communicated are in the NMS as indicated above, making 88% of the NMS respondents.

	Number	Percentage
Yes	16	12
No	112	88

Table 5: Distribution of the responses as to whether vision was communicated

Sixteen respondents or 12% who believe change vision was communicated consist of 12 respondents in NMS, 3 respondents in MMS and 1 in SMS. The intriguing statistic is that only 1 of 7 respondents in SMS believes that the change vision was communicated. The SMS level is the senior management level which should be marshalling the change process.

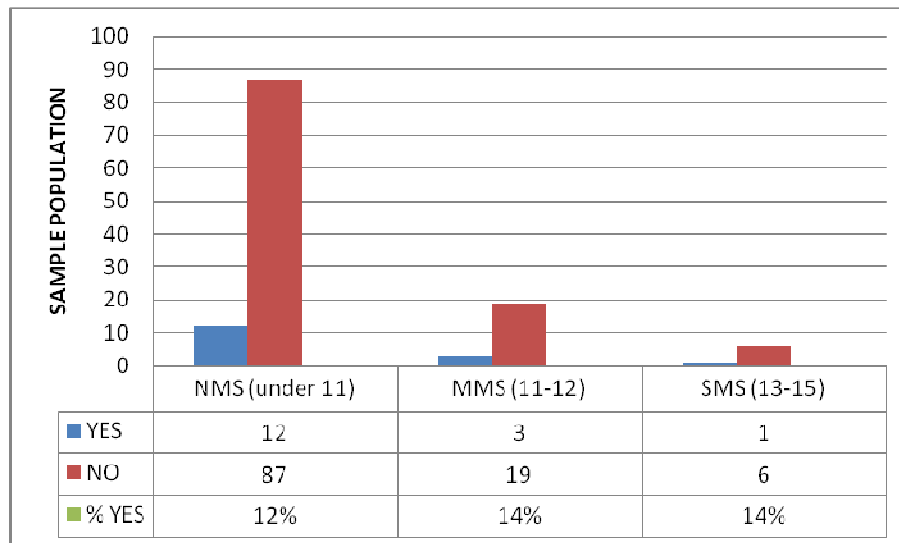


Figure 12: Distribution of the responses as to whether vision was communicated by levels

3. Has the change impacted negatively on your morale in the organisation?

Table 6 below shows the distribution of responses on whether change impacted negatively on the morale in the organisation. 111 of 128 respondents believe that the change impacted negatively to the morale in the DID. 13% or 17 respondents do not believe the morale was affected by the change at all.

	Number	Percentage
Yes	111	87
No	17	13

Table 6: Distribution of respondents on whether change impacted negatively on their morale or not.

The analysis of the impact of change on the morale in the organisation per work level is shown in figure 13 below. Of the 111 respondents who believe that the change impacted negatively to the morale in DID; 86 respondents are NMS (indicating 87% of the NMS), 19 respondents are MMS (representing 86% of MMS) and 6 of 7 SMS respondents (representing 86% of the SMS family)

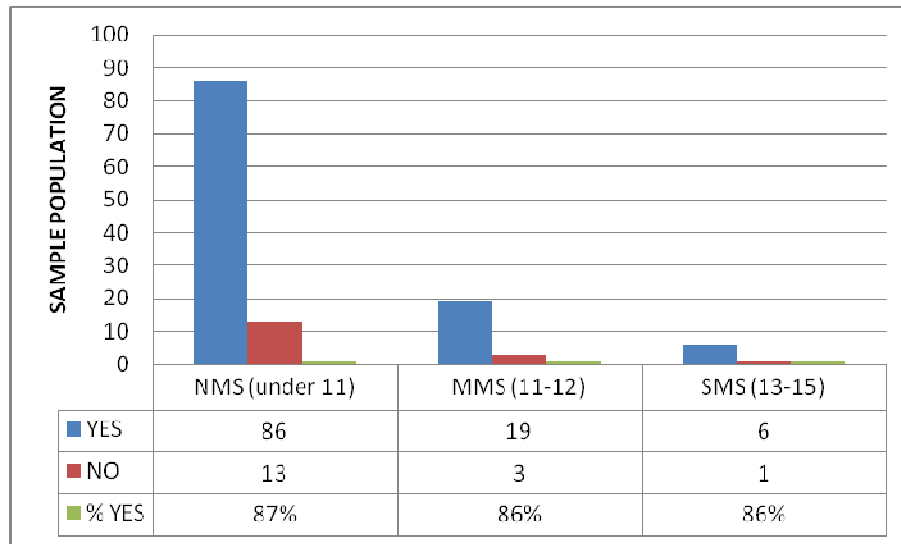


Figure 13: Response distribution on whether change impacted negatively on the morale in DID

4. If given an opportunity would you leave the DID and seek employment elsewhere?

	Number	Percentage
Yes	117	91
No	11	9

Table 7: Distribution of responses on whether an employee will leave DID for employment elsewhere if given the opportunity

The data captured from the survey and tabulated in table 7 above indicates 91% propensity for respondents considering alternative employment when given the opportunity. Only 9% (11 of 128) respondents indicated that, given the opportunity, they would not leave the Department for any other employer.

Further analysis indicates that of the 117 respondents; 97 of 99 NMS respondents or 98% would consider an alternative employee, 19 of 21 MMS (representing 86% of MMS) would leave DID once given the opportunity. Of particular interest, only 1 of 7 SMS indicated that once given the opportunity, they would leave the DID for employment elsewhere. This rather intriguing statistic is mainly due to the fact that; most SMS members are in the “35 to 50 years or higher age groups”. Most of these SMS members are long serving employees who persevered and rose through the ranks. This means that leaving DID for alternative employment will not augur well for their long term service and bonuses, let alone career development.

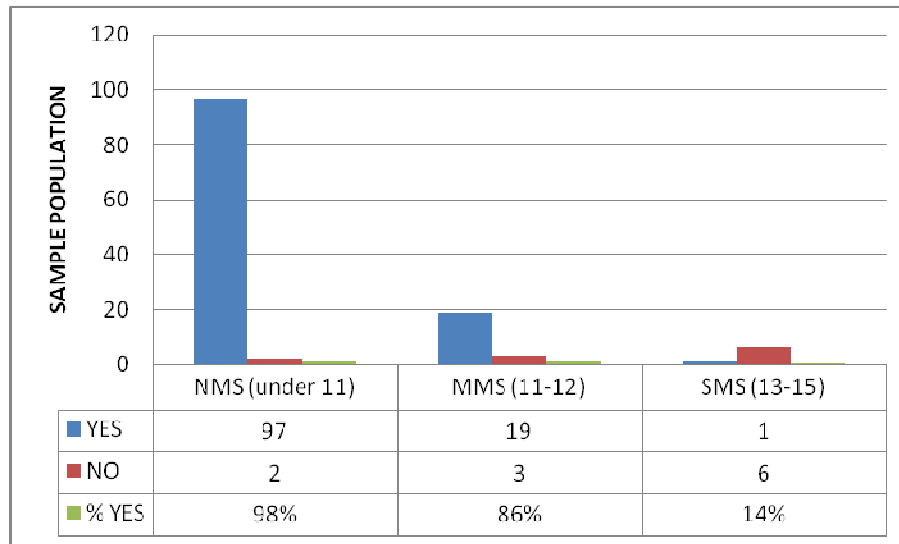


Figure 14: Distribution of responses on whether an employee will leave DID for employment elsewhere if given the opportunity.

5. How many meetings did you attend during planning and implementation of change?

The majority of participants; 89 or 70% fell in the category of having attended “1-3” meetings. Of the 89; 74 respondents are NMS, 14 are MMS, and only 1 is SMS. Table 8 and Figure 15 shows survey data on the distribution of responses based on total respondents and based on different work levels respectively.

	Number	Percentage
None	12	9
1-3	89	70
More than 3	27	21

Table 8: Distribution of respondents on number of meetings attended

With only 27 participants agreeing to having attended more than 3 meetings; 5 of 7 SMS respondents agree to have attended more than 3 meetings. This is due to the fact that SMS being in the senior management, may have been part of the planning of the change though a communication disconnection is evident between level MMS and SMS. Of the 27 who agree to have attended more than 3 meetings, 16 are from NMS and 6 from MMS.

Nine percent of the respondents or 12 indicated that they had attended no meetings to do with change. The analysis indicated that if they had attended such, they were not sure if these meetings were to do with change. Some believe that they might have attended labour (union) meetings addressing issues to do with unjust change processes but not necessarily

by their senior managers. The distribution of the 12 respondents is such that 9 are NMS, 2 are MMS and 1 from SMS.

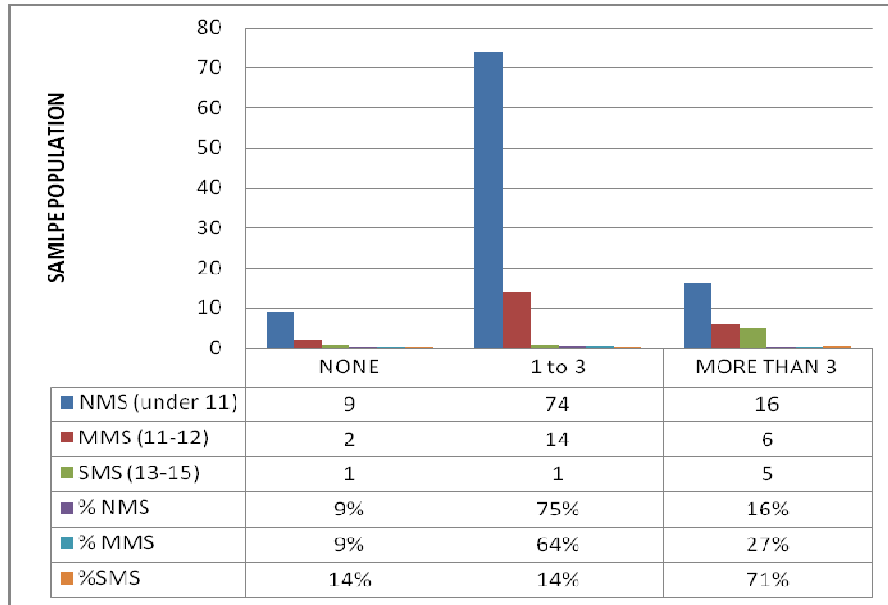


Figure 15: Distribution of respondents on number of meetings attended

6. The restructuring in the DID had a positive effect

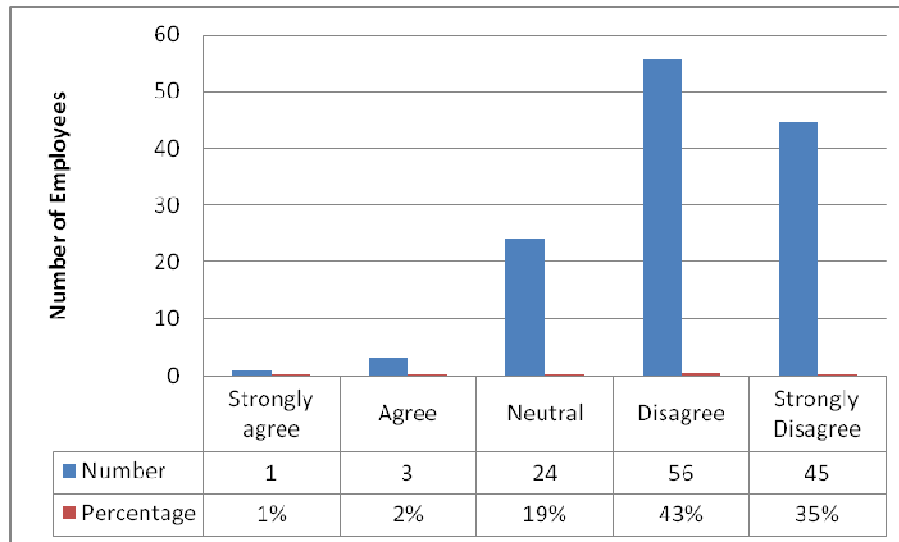


Figure 16: Distribution of respondents on whether restructuring had a positive impact

There is a marginal difference between respondents who are neutral, disagree or strongly disagree to the posed question. Seventy-eight percent of respondents at least disagree and indicate that the change has been negative as compared to only 3% believing the change has been positive. 19% of respondents were not sure whether the change had a positive impact or not as indicated by 24 respondents who had a neutral opinion. The 19% neutral

respondents suggest there is a lot of indifference to the change initiatives amongst employees. The result is in line with the negative morale people are experiencing as analysed in question 3 above.

7. The managers/leaders of my Department involved staff members during the split between the DRT and the DID

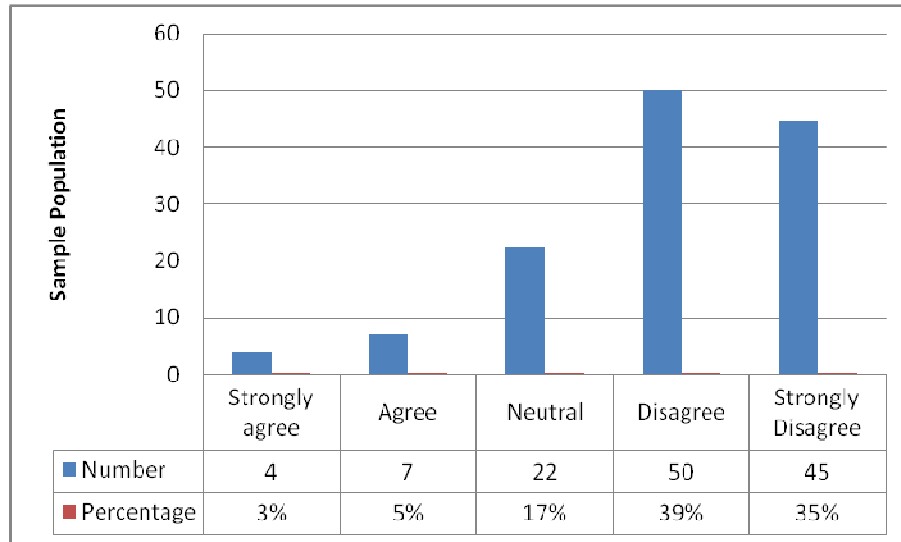


Figure 17: Distribution of involvement of staff members.

There is a 66% difference between respondents who at-least agree and those who at-least disagree. Overall, respondents believe the leadership of the Department did not involve employees during the change process. This is reflected by 74% of respondents at least disagreeing with the statement. Once again, the relatively high neutral responses suggest indifference amongst employees on the issue. Although 7% of staff members believe management led well during the company merger, it should still be of concern that so many employees are indifferent. Employees should ideally have faith and trust in management’s leadership during such changes. Management needs to overturn the number of neutral respondents to agreeable respondents or at least decisive respondents.

8. Feedback in the DID is given in an open and direct manner

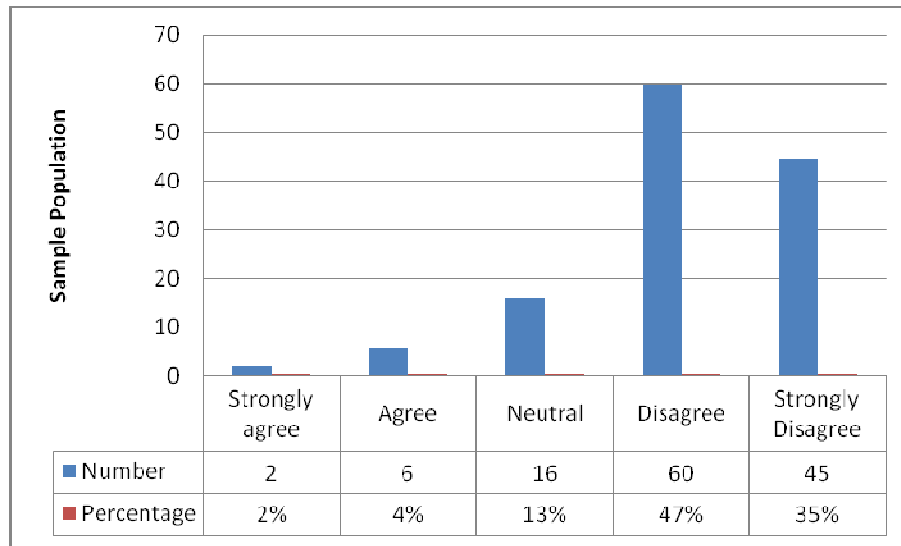


Figure 18: Distribution on whether feedback was given in an open manner

There is a vast split between employees who agree plus strongly agree and those employees who disagree plus strongly disagree to the statement. The variance between these distinctly opposite opinions is 76%. Only 6% of respondents at least agree while a staggering 82% at least disagree. The reason for this could be attributed to the fact that feedback was never given directly via meetings or any other channel but through corridor rumours. At this stage, it is not clear to the majority of the employees what stage the change is at. Also, the feedback was not sufficiently passed on to the majority of employees at lower levels. In order for a change initiative to be successful and minimise resistance to the change, communication plays a vital role (Linstead, Fulop & Lilley, 2009).

Thirteen percent of the respondents are indifferent. Usually, employees cast an indifferent opinion because they are scared of posing a seemingly opposite opinion to the management. This indifference can easily add to disagreeing opinions if management do not act swiftly to improve communication and empowerment.

It has been noted that communication to employees has deteriorated significantly. Very little information is passed on to staff regarding to progress during the split. Employees need to be informed of both major and minor milestones, so that they feel part of the change process as well as being valued as employees.

9. Management in the DID displays participative and transparent transitional leadership

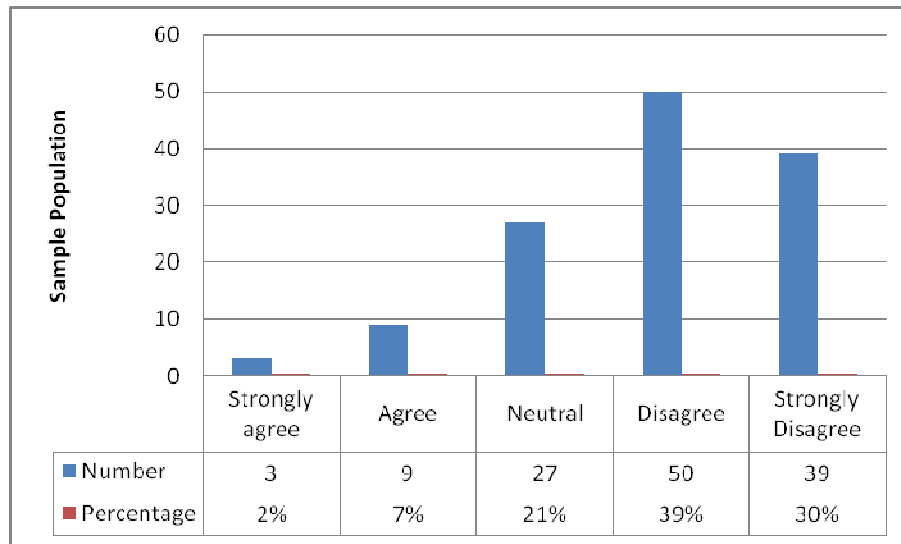


Figure 19: Distribution of whether management displayed transitional leadership

The majority (89%) of respondents are suspicious or do not believe in the leadership of the Department. This percentage comprises 50% of respondents who disagreed with the statement plus 39% of respondents who strongly disagreed with this statement. Again, a relatively large portion of respondents are indifferent. These respondents have a higher propensity for being against the statement and this will leave only 9% of the respondents at least agreeing if the negative perception against management is not rectified.

Many employees believe management in the first instance does not encourage participation or interaction with them, and secondly, employees are of the opinion that management wishes to ‘hide’ information from them. This perception held by employees can be attributed to mainly poor communication on the part of management during the change process. If a change agent was appointed, updates would have been provided to staff members throughout the change process, and employees would have felt less suspicious of management’s intentions. The effort required to undo or reverse these suspicions is far more than what would have been required to prevent this perception from being created. Employees will need to be reassured of their value and made aware of changes in order for the Department to gain back the trust of employees.

10. The changes made in the DID will be successful in improving the Department's performance

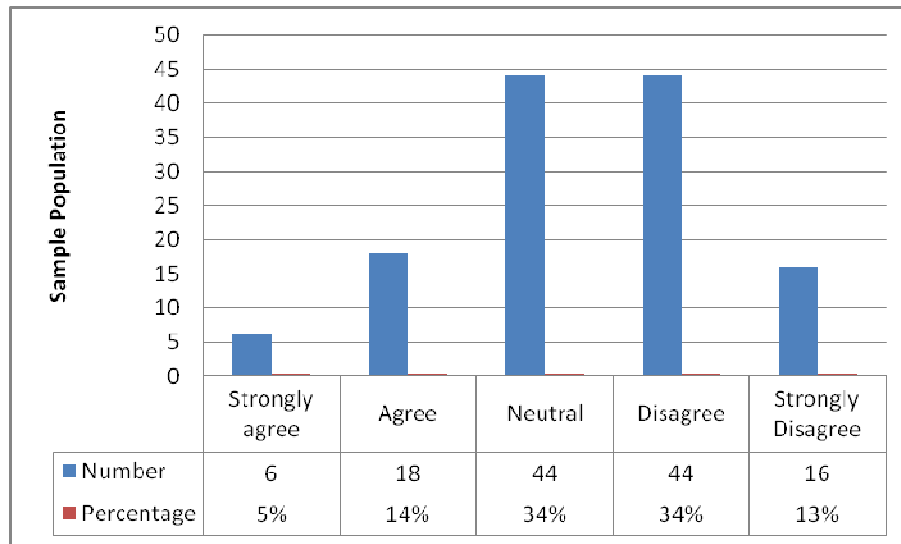


Figure 20: Distribution of respondents on whether the changes will improve the Department's performance

What should be of great concern to the company is the number of respondents (34%) who neither agree nor disagree that the changes made will result in the success for the company. The reason for such indifference and non-belief is primarily due to the lack of understanding of the motivation behind the changes made. This finding strongly correlates with findings on question 2 above in which 88% of employees believed that the vision for change was not communicated.

Management failed to keep staff members informed. The union leadership also needs to take responsibility for the way employees feel and their perceptions. In order to reduce resistance to change, education, communication, participation, involvement and support is essential. The union leadership was in a position to apply pressure on management to implement effective change strategies and ensure better dissemination of information to the general employees; however, this did not occur.

SECTION C: PERCEPTION AND ATTITUDE

1. You are comfortable with participating in this survey and are you sure management is not going to use this against you

Figure 21 below shows the distribution of respondents to the statement above. The majority of respondents (30%) strongly agree. Three other categories (agree, neutral and strongly disagree) share the same number of respondents. Twenty-two percent of respondents or 28 respondents agreed with the statement.

As noted in the analysis above, a large number of respondents (28) show an indifferent attitude to most of the questions posed to them. This may mean that this portion of respondents have lost interest in the general affairs of the organisation. Two opposing categories that are decided have the following statistics; 57 respondents or 52% of the respondents at-least agree with the statement while 28% of the respondents at-least disagree with the notion that management will victimise them once they participate in the questionnaire.

The reason for the 52% affirmative response is due to the fact that only a survey de-briefing exercise was effective in assuring respondents that the exercise was purely for academic purposes. The wording in the cover letter attached in the appendix also clearly indicated that respondent should not put names or any other information that may lead back to them.

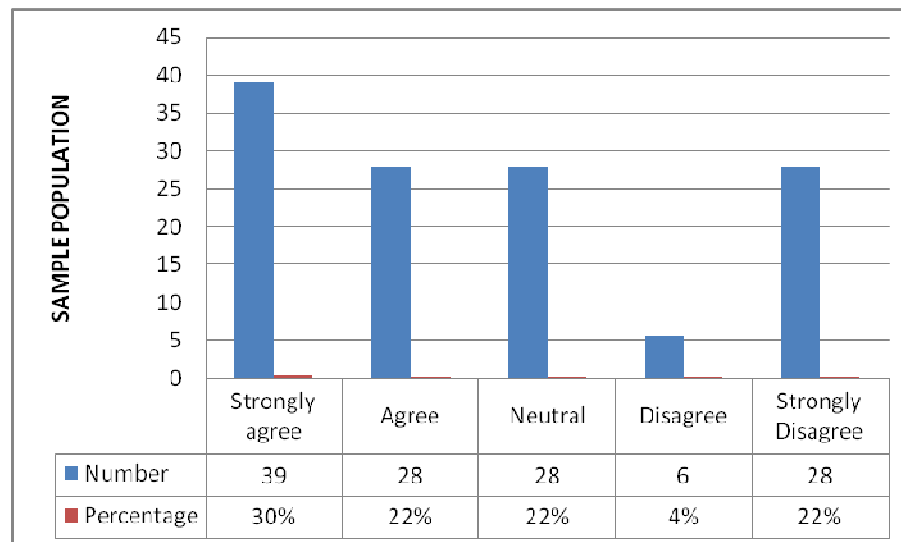


Figure 21: Distribution of respondents on whether they are comfortable in participating in the survey

2. Management in the DID places a high emphasis on employee satisfaction

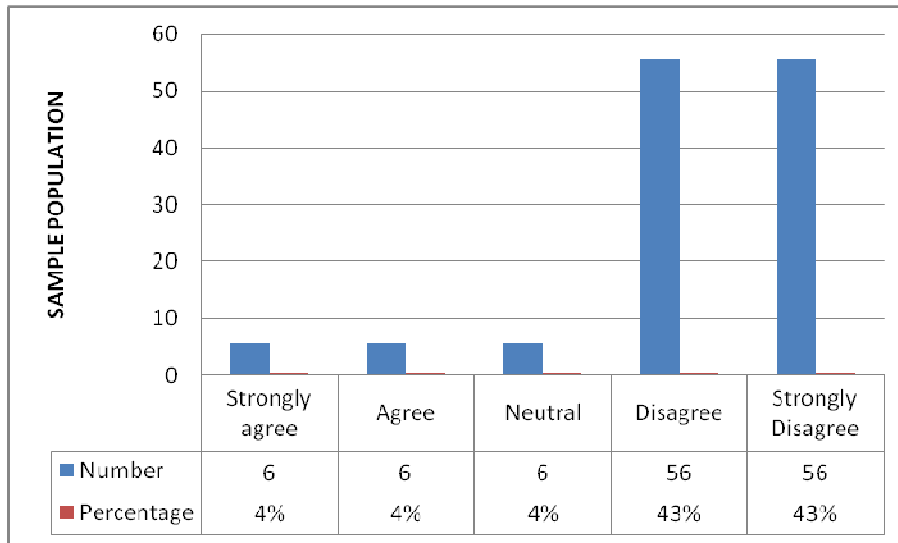


Figure 22: Distribution of respondents on whether management emphasizes employee satisfaction

Eighty-six percent (comprising disagree and strongly disagree respondents) of the respondents believe management do not consider employee satisfaction as important, while only 8% (agree and strongly agree) of respondents believe that management has regard for employee satisfaction. This is an unfortunate position the Department finds itself in.

Employees have the view that the organisation is merely looking out for management's interests. The interests of employees are not taken into consideration or even believed to be of any importance. Employees also believe that the management is only concerned with the bottom line of the company, their performance. Once employees begin to feel unappreciated, their morale is negatively impacted and many would prefer to seek employment elsewhere, where they can perhaps feel valued, appreciated and believe in their management's abilities and intentions.

This analysis strongly correlates with the measure of organisation morale in question 2 of section B in which 86% of respondents believe the change initiatives impacted negatively on the morale of employees.

3. I do not mind spending a half hour past quitting time, if I can finish something I have been working on.

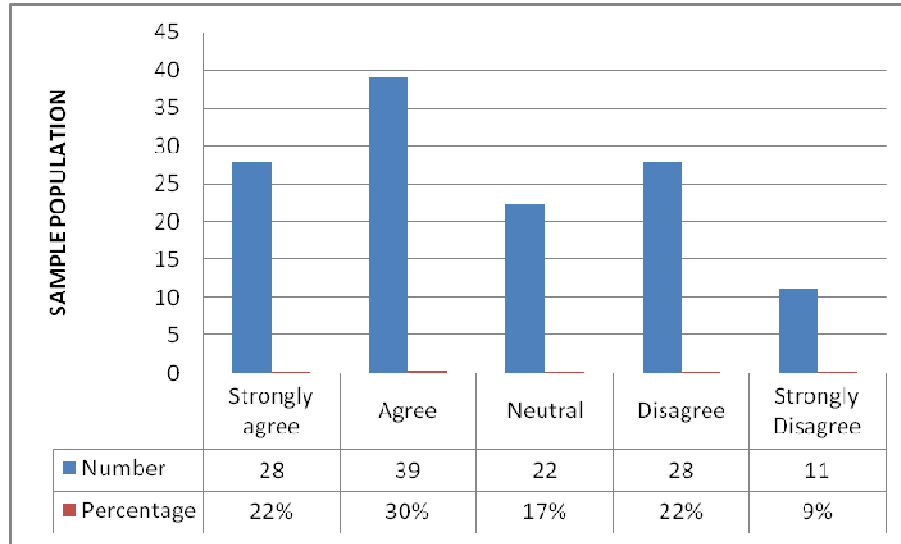


Figure 23: Distribution of respondents on whether they can put in extra time past the quitting time

The majority of respondents believe they can put in extra time to complete a task past quitting time. This is indicated by 52% of respondents who agree with the statement in question. This is a good indicator that employees still have understanding of their obligation to the organisation and have a level of commitment to their work in general. This shows that the problem is not work in general, but DID particular.

Thirty-nine respondents or 31% of the respondents at-least disagree with the statement in question. These respondents would not like to work past their quitting time. A relatively large number of respondents are indifferent to the statement indicated by 17% of respondents who are neutral.

4. The thought of waking up and going to work for DID makes me sick

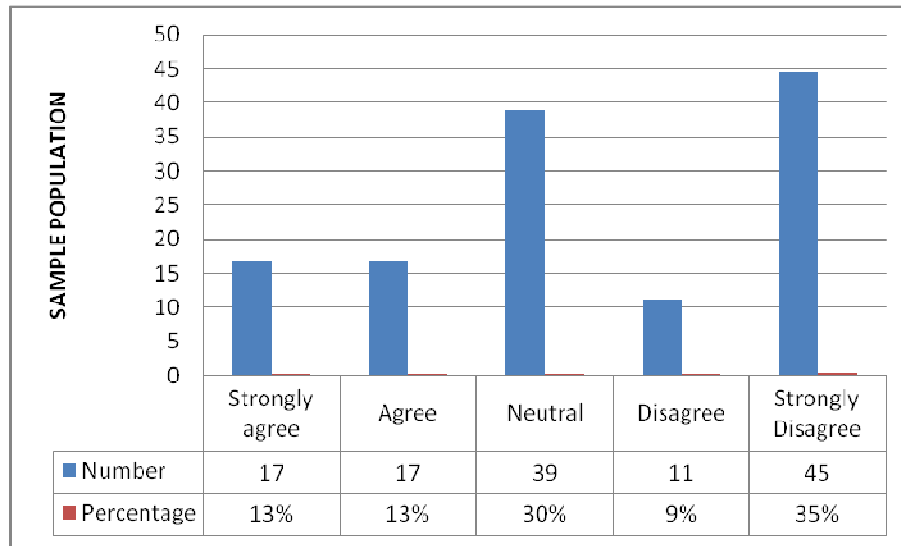


Figure 24: Distribution of respondents' attitude towards working for DID

A disturbing statistic is the level of indifferent respondents. Thirty percent (30%) of respondents are not sure of whether coming to work for DID affects how they feel. Neutrality of responses can be interpreted as fear of facing the not-so-familiar truth. From this view point, easily 56% (strongly agree, agree and neutral) may eventually be in favour of this statement if management do not aggressively pursue corrective measures to improve employees' perceptions and attitudes towards the organisation.

A hugely 44% (disagree and strongly disagree) of respondents disagree with the statement in question. This shows a sharp contrast between the responses on employee motivation and job satisfaction which scored 88% each against the organisation. This outcome is probably influenced by the nature of the statement itself and the complexities around the understanding of attitudes, perceptions, feelings, mannerisms, idiosyncrasies and beliefs. This question may have been poorly understood. The questionnaire forms showed a lot of indecision around this statement with 40% of the respondents changing their choices.

5. If I had the choice between going to the organisation's family day and staying home, I would probably stay home.

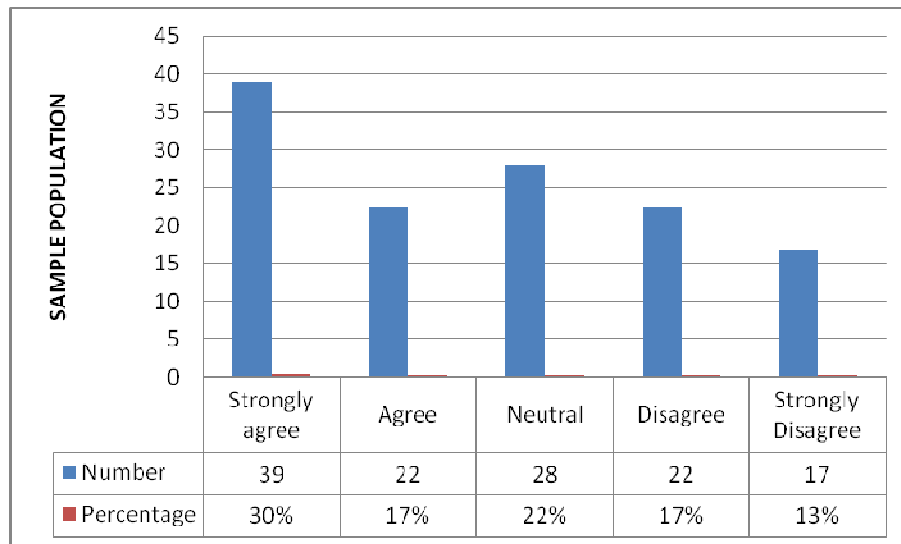


Figure 25: Distribution of choice between staying at home and joining the organisational family day

Thirty-nine respondents, indicating 30% of responses strongly agreed with staying at home rather than going to the organisation’s family day. Seventeen percent agreed to the statement. The idea behind this statement was to test consistency in respondents’ attitude and perceptions. This statement is closely related to statement 5 but shows opposing outcomes.

Focusing on the statistics in question, 28% of the respondents are on the fence. This is a very popular trend in this survey. However, only 30% of respondents would love to be part of the organisation’s family day. The statistics indicate that employees would opt to minimise time they spend with the organisation if they had a choice between being with the organisation or not. A few post-survey interviews indicated that most work-related function (weekend gatherings, end of year parties) were unsuccessful because of poor employee turnout.

Employees have a low sense of belonging. The management has a torrid task of increasing empowerment and ownership. This measure of attitude strongly correlates with the level of morale in the organisation. The outcome on both statements confirms this correlation with 88% in favour of low organisational morale.

6. I do only what my job requires, no more no less

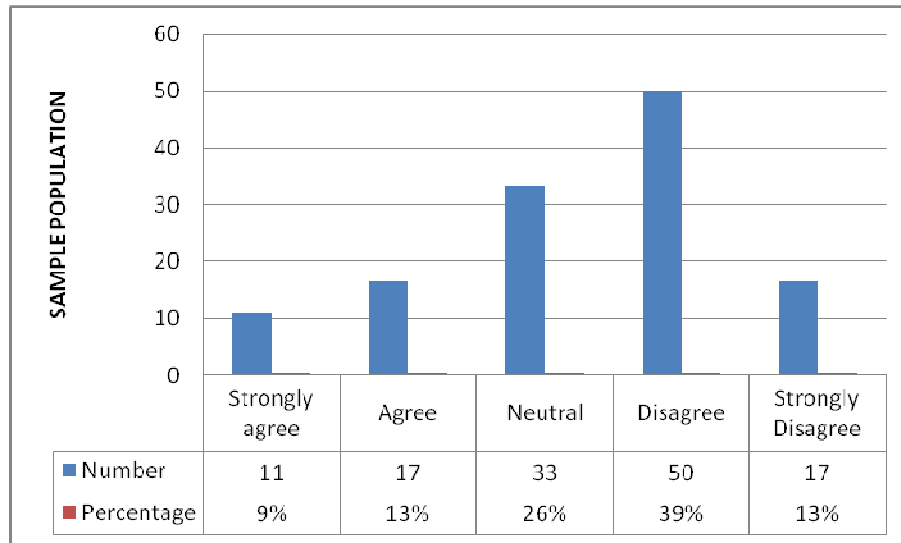


Figure 26: Distribution of respondents whether they will do more or less than their job requires

The statistics indicate that employees do not feel appreciated enough to warrant them putting extra effort towards their work. Increasing employee involvement and decision making will build a sense of ownership and empowerment. This can be done by creating job autonomy in all levels with a controlled delegation for power through job design.

While 33% of respondents are neutral to the statement, 67 respondents or 51% would not put more effort that is required of them. This is a rational approach if employees feel the employer is less appreciative of their effort and does very little extra to create a conducive working environment.

Post survey interviews aimed at understanding why employees are not motivated enough indicated that employees lack basic equipment to execute their work. The working environment is not hospitable. There is poor ventilation in offices and nothing has been done to address such issues.

7. I would probably keep working even if I did not need the money.

Figure 27 below shows the distribution of responses on whether employees will keep working even if they do not need money. The outcome of survey indicates that regardless of the organisation employees work for, people are generally selfish. Employees will expect to be remunerated even if they had all the money in the world.

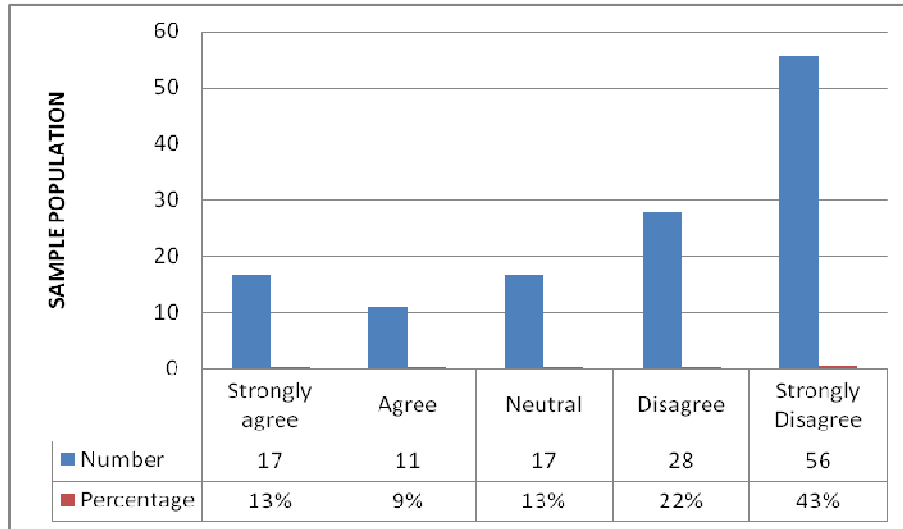


Figure 27: Distribution of responses on whether employees will keep working even if they do not need the money

Fifty-six respondents (65%) strongly indicated that they would not work if they did not need the money, while 28 respondents believe they will keep working even if they did not need the money, and 17 of the 128 respondents were indifferent about it. The neutral 13% may or may not work but in reality, very few people have a volunteering spirit. There ought to be some incentives to motivate employees.

8. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for, over the other places I was at the time I joined.

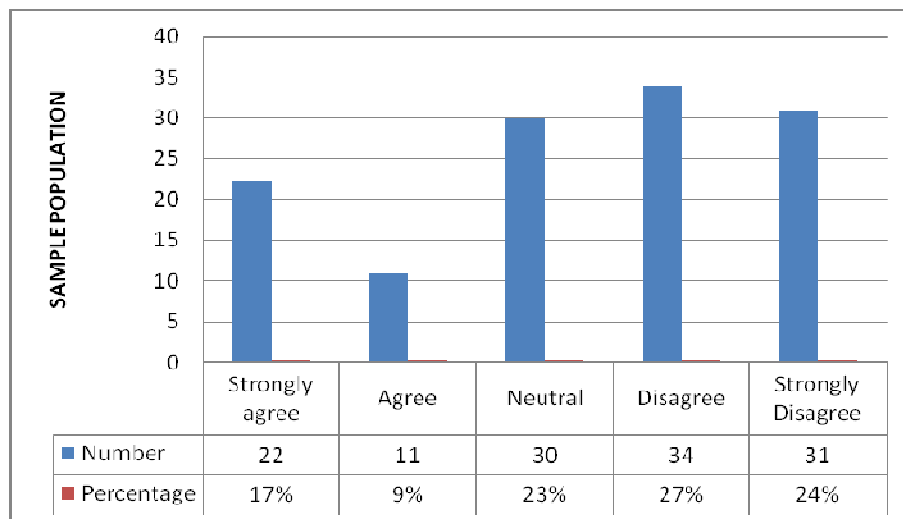


Figure 28: Distribution of respondents on whether they are glad to be with DID over their previous employer

Fifty percent of respondents are shared between indifferent respondents and those that believe that their previous employment was a better place to be while 24% of respondents

strongly disagree. That is neutral and those respondents who disagreed with the statement. Sixty-five of 128 respondents are not glad to be with DID over their previous employer. This represents 52% of the respondents. Various reasons have been given for why 52% of the respondents are not glad to have left their previous employer for DID. Amongst these reasons are the issues of job satisfaction, bureaucracy and structural uncertainties.

A huge number of indifferent respondents remain worrisome. Such high levels of undecided employees hamper organisational learning and innovation. An indifferent opinion is probably not an opinion, and not so useful for decision making purposes. Management in the DID is left with a responsibility of developing self conscious and self motivated employees. This only happens when the management begins to appreciate the worth and value of its employees. Job designs should be aimed at establishing high level of autonomy and decentralised decision making.

9. The work environment really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

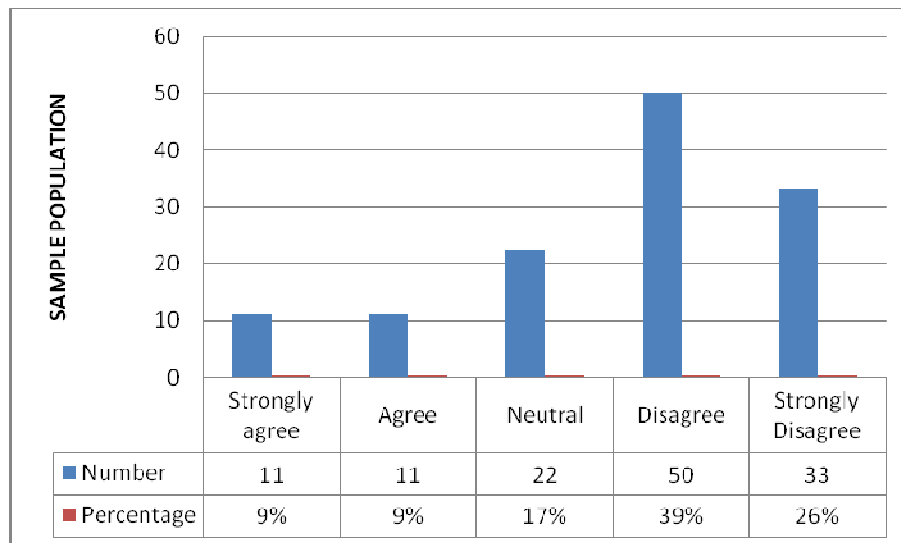


Figure 29: Distribution of the respondents' opinion about their work environment

The statistics represented in figure 29 above indicates a clear disagreement with the notion that respondents are inspired by their work environment to do the best. Eighty-eight of 128 respondents at least disagree with the statement indicating 65% of the respondents. The total respondents that are for the statement are equivalent in number with the neutral respondents (22 respondents). As noted earlier, indifferent respondents remain a concern in this research.

Management is left with a challenge of creating conducive working and inspiring environment. Improved work practices that stimulate learning, creativity and innovation will inspire employees. Performance measurement systems should not only aim at meeting organisation objectives, but more importantly to inspire creativity by incentivising and rewarding innovation and excellence.

10. Employees do not feel secure at work because of fear of losing their jobs

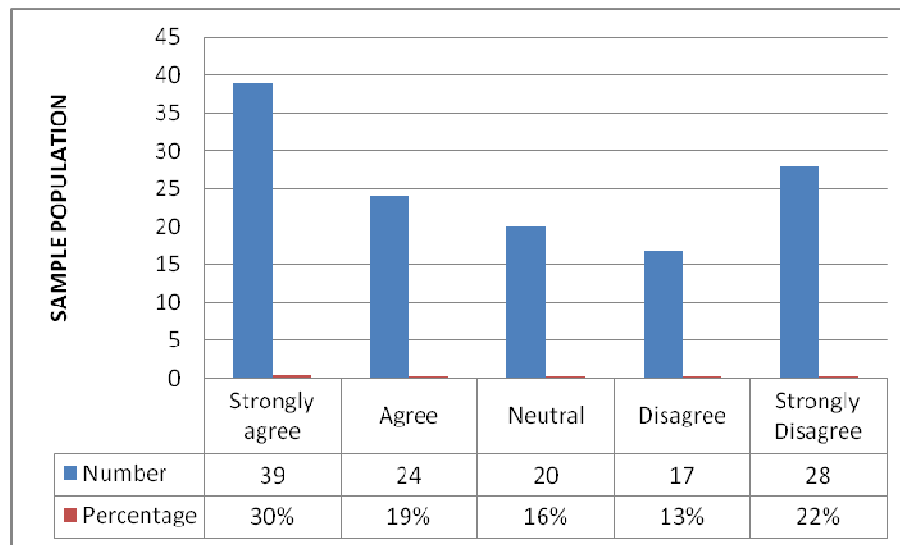


Figure 30: Distribution of respondents on job security

The majority of the respondents strongly believe that their jobs are not secure. Six-three of 128 respondents at-least agreed with the statement with 30% strongly agreeing and 19% agreeing to job insecurity. As expected, a largely 16% of respondents was indifferent. 35% (13% disagree and 22% strongly disagree) of respondents at-least disagreed with the statement.

The hugely affirmative responses are driven by the unprecedented lay-offs (suspension) of employees in October 2010 following a qualified audit on the Department. This trend continued into 2011 and employees began suffering from the survivor syndrome. The 22% of respondents that strongly feel secure attribute their belief to the fact that public service offers the highest job security. Because of the complexity of bureaucratic processes and the rigorous procedures, getting an employee totally fired is taxing.

11. Senior managers are obsessed with office power

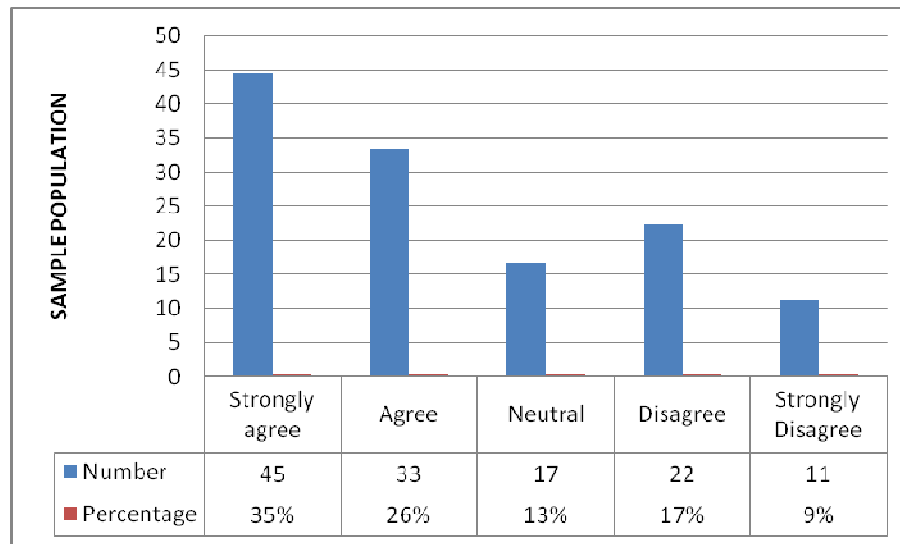


Figure 31: Distribution of the respondents' perception of the type of power in the organisation

35% of respondents strongly agreed to the proposition that managers are obsessed with office power. Thirty-three respondents or 26% of the respondents agreed to the obsessive office power culture. However, 22 respondents disagreed and 11 strongly disagreed.

The analysis above reflects on the unpopularity of the management style and type of power culture prevalent in DID. The survey indicated that hostility by some managers is due to their insecurities caused by their own inadequacies. Most of these managers rose to power not by merit but by persevering through the ranks and long services. The restructuring exercise that is still in the pipeline should aim at matching positions with qualifications and capabilities.

12. DID is the last employer Department I would recommend anyone to work for

Figure 32 below shows the distribution of respondents to their attitude towards recommending anyone to work for DID. With the majority of respondents falling strongly for this proposition, 26% of the respondents remained indifferent. Fifty-seven percent or 73 of 128 employees would not recommend anyone to work for DID. The management needs to focus more on creating a satisfying working environment and improve employee morale. That way, they will wish their colleagues to work for DID. Other reasons noted are the lack of professionalism and career development.

This statistics correlate with the 52% respondents who regret they left their previous employer for DID. The analysis also agrees with the 91% of respondents that would leave the Department if they get an opportunity.

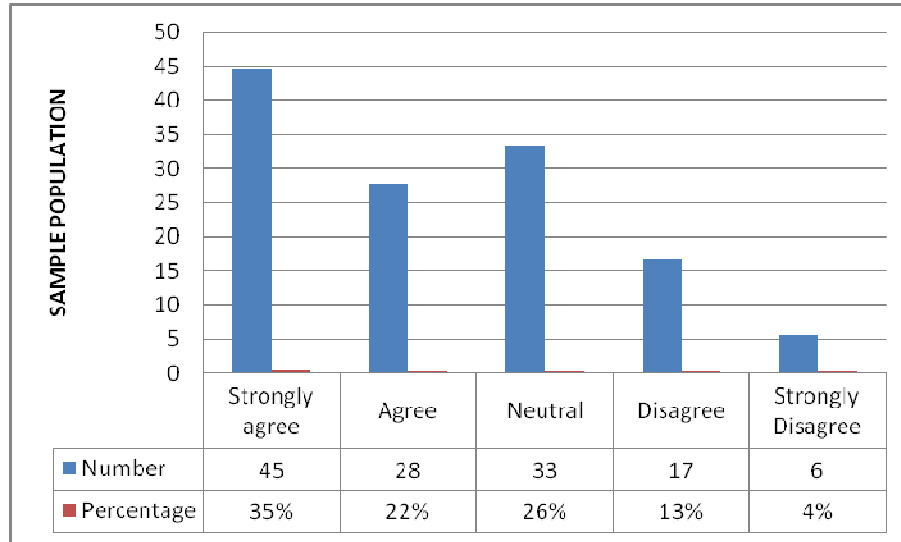


Figure 32: Distribution of respondents on whether they will recommend anyone to join DID

13. What problems are you experiencing in your section since the split?

There was a wide range of problems experienced by respondents since the split. A summary of the most common problems experienced by employees are given below:

- **Strategic Direction**

Lack of strategic direction, vision and organisation objectives has been sighted as one major problem by respondents especially those in the MMS and SMS level.

- **Structural**

There exists no clear structure from the period the split began. Some sections in the Department are between transition process from one section to another. Employees get moved around from section to section as sections get disbanded and absorbed into divisions. This causes inter-divisional interaction with functional areas difficult.

- **Policies and processes**

A myriad of comprehensive policies and procedures are believed to exist, but are not fully communicated to all levels of the Department. Policies are meant to standardise corporate behaviour and create coherent and conducive cultural behaviours. These corporate policies tend to be antagonistic and become restrictive to the expedient innovative ways of working. Procedures and approvals are burdensome and reduce the whole bureaucratic

arrangement into a mess of paperwork intensive, non coherent slow moving, directionless mass going nowhere, slowly but surely. Most MMS and SMS respondents noted that long approval processes are not in line with the contractual environment.

Also highlighted was the lack of decisive decision making by senior managers while all power and control and decision making is in the hands of the Head of the Department.

- **Resources**

Resources are not equitably and effectively distributed. Key personnel to the execution of the DID mandate like project planners/managers are not provided with safety gear and cell phones, laptops and mobile internet for communication purposes while office bound employees are furnished with such.

The information technologies are obsolete with computers and servers are battling to cope. Some respondents indicated that it takes between 30 minutes to 1 hour to log on to the intranet and to receive emails from the external parties. Offices are not habitable with insufficient ventilation, lack of clean drinking water and poor ablution facilities.

Most, if not all photocopying and printing machines have been grounded for a long time and printing paper is as scarce as gold.

- **Human Resources**

The majority of respondents in the NMS level noted that they have worked for years for the Department as contract NYS (National Youth Service) but they still have not been absorbed into permanent positions.

Most MMS and NMS raised the lack of career development coaching, and mentorship as a problem especially for professionals that joined the Department.

- **Leadership**

Most MMS respondents raised the lack of systematic guidance and decisive visionary leadership as a concern. The lack of visionary leadership led to the change drift.

- **Psychological contract**

The following were problems given by most employees across all levels:

- Staff input is not considered.

- Employees do not feel appreciated by the organisation.
- Most changes made suit management.
- Employees are afraid to speak out openly, fear of no confidentiality and victimisation.
- No trust in human resources division.

5.3 THE FINDINGS IN SUMMARY

In brief, the analysis reflected a total breakdown in communication between senior management and the employees. The majority of respondents are male and in the NMS level. This is an organisation characteristic. The outcome of the survey on change management and employee involvement indicated the change vision was not communicated while employee involvement was minimal in all stages of change processes. Analysis of the perceptions and attitudes of employees towards the Department and senior management revealed total mistrust. The majority of respondents would generally not want to be associated with their work environment if they had a choice. Furthermore, the analysis clearly indicated that the change impacted negatively on the morale of the employees and the psychological contracts at large. The majority of employees indicated their intention to leave the Department if the opportunity presented itself. Significantly large numbers of undecided (neutral) respondents are characteristic of all questions.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In Chapter 5, research data was analysed and elaborated upon. In the following and final chapter (Chapter 6), the research was concluded and recommendations drawn.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, the research conclusion was discussed and recommendations drawn. The research problem, research questions and investigative questions were re-stated, to determine if they were successfully addressed by the research.

The author concluded the chapter by making recommendations useful to DID when embarking on future change initiatives. The researcher also elaborated on lessons learnt throughout the research process.

6.2 THE RESEARCH AND DATA COLLECTION DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research conducted in this dissertation was based on research undertaken in the social world, theoretical in nature using quantitative research paradigms as basis. The split of DID served as a phenomenon within a real life context falling within the ambit of a survey research.

The Likert scale was selected for the purpose of data processing. In any survey, it is customary to pilot the questionnaire with a group of people to ensure there is no ambiguity and misunderstandings regarding questions or statements. This requirement was described in Chapter 4. The survey aimed to both explore and understand certain phenomena through the use of multiple data collection methods namely; interviews, questionnaires and documentation review. This was demonstrated in Chapter 4, with the questionnaire in Chapter 4, and the responses analysed and interpreted in Chapter 5. In line with the purpose of the survey, the analysis and interpretation attempted to provide a better understanding of certain phenomena within DID, which is the impact of change on employees.

6.3 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM RE-VISITED

The research problem statement for this dissertation reads as follows:

“Staff of DID are adversely impacted as a result of ineffective change management strategies in DID.”

Insights into the reasons why staff have been adversely impacted due to ineffective change management strategies have been provided. Had a structured strategy been planned and implemented, the responses to the questionnaire posed would not have been so negative. Low employee morale, distrust in management, lack of understanding of the reasons why

specific changes had to be made, eagerness to seek alternative employment may not have been so highly rated, as per questionnaire analysis. Management at DID blindly entered the change process without sufficient research and planning, let alone engaging a change agent, as prescribed in Chapter 3.

6.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTION RE-VISITED

The research question investigated in this dissertation was:

Which change management strategies could have been deployed within the newly formed DID to minimise the change impact on staff?

The question was answered in Chapter 3 (literature review) and Chapter 5 (results and analysis) of this dissertation. In Chapter 3, the role and importance of appointing a change agent was highlighted. The questionnaire responses in Chapter 5 indicated that many employees of DID were not aware of the reasons for the changes that took place in the company. A change agent, in this instance, would have further reduced the number of people who did not understand the reasons motivating all the changes (Linstead, Fulop & Lilley 2009). Chapter 3 offered various change strategies which could have been adopted for the change initiative; for example, it details the six step model for change (Mabey, 2007), and explained the 3-phase Change Model by Lewin (1958).

Managing complexity during change is explained as a strategy that can be used during a change process (Kotter, 1996). This was expanded in the theory on the cultural web (Johnson & Scholes, 1999). Chapter 3 elaborates on elements of change to assess the flexibility of the environment to change.

6.5 INVESTIGATIVE QUESTIONS RE-VISITED

The following investigative questions were researched in support of the research question:

- Did the change initiative at DID follow a structured sequence of events to effect change?
- What were the primary objectives of the change initiative?
- What were the typical issues which surfaced and impacted employee satisfaction adversely?

The first investigative question was addressed in Chapter 3, the literature review and chapter 5, the analysis of data and interpretation of results. Chapter 3 provided structured change management strategies that could have been selected by DID. Responses to question 8 and 9 of section B of the questionnaire in Chapter 5 clearly demonstrated that management of

DID did not follow a structured sequence of events to effect change. Responses to these questions varied from poor communication, poor leadership, and lack of transparency and distrust of management's motives for the change. Robbins (1998) recommends six tactics that can be used to overcome resistance to change, in Chapter 3.

The second investigative question was dealt with in Chapter 2, where a holistic perspective of DID was provided. In Chapter 1, background information was elaborated on with respect to the reasons of the split of DPTRW into DID and DRT.

The third investigative question was answered in Chapter 5, of the research study. Question 13 was open ended question, allowing respondents to freely communicate the problems they are encountering within the organisation.

A summary of the most prevalent responses to question 13 is detailed in Chapter 5 and verbatim responses to this question are attached in Appendix E.

6.6 KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS

The key research findings of this dissertation have been:

- Lack of a communication strategy to keep employees abreast of developments before, during and after the change process (Linstead, Fulop & Lilley 2009). Many staff members indicated that they felt their ideas and suggestions were largely ignored and feedback was negligible. The involvement of staff in decision making processes could be enhanced by ensuring more comprehensive feedback on proposals and by providing opportunities for further discussion and debate, even when ideas are not considered feasible by the senior management team (Mabey, 2007). The opportunity for wider debate on proposals would help demonstrate to staff that they are seen as integral to the change process and that their ideas are seriously considered. Many staff indicated a lack of clarity over organisational direction and do not have confidence in the senior management team to make sensible decisions for the future.
- Lack of leadership during the change initiative: This includes failure to appoint a change agent to manage the process.
- Job security: Despite surviving retrenchment, the NYS interns are not certain as to their future with DID.
- Re-structuring process: Surviving interns under (NYS) in particular continue to feel insecure in their roles and fear further changes. This feeling is compounded by the lack of clarity around roles and responsibilities. Human resource management strategies

could be strengthened to ensure that support and assistance continues to be available to them post-change (Bhengu, 2007).

- Employee value: Staff need to feel that the contribution they are making to the organisation is recognised and that their expertise and experience is valued if the organisation is to maintain its commitment (Theissen, 2004). Staff members who do not feel valued may not perform to their full potential and the achievement of organisational objectives can be inhibited (Morrison and Robinson 1997). Regular communication of organisational goals, direction and value systems by both line managers and the senior management team can help to better integrate staff into the new organisation (Osborne & Brown, 2005). It may be necessary to redefine organisational values and determine the congruence between those of individuals and those of the organisation (Kotter, 1996). The success of the organisation will in part be determined by the ability of both the organisation and its staff to collectively own and acknowledge the same value system (Theissen, 2004). There is an ongoing need to communicate what the organisation is trying to do, how it is going about it, and what the key priorities are (Kotter, 1996).
- Trust: Survey results indicate a high level of distrust in management both in terms of how honest staff members feel the management has been with them regarding the changes and in their confidence in management to make sensible decisions for the future (Morrison and Robinson, 1997). It may be possible to rebuild this relationship over time by ensuring that communications are transparent, they have greater opportunities to be involved in change management strategies and that management is seen to be accountable for its performance (Mabey, 2007).
- Non-existence of a structured change model strategy that could have been used and adapted to the DID environment.
- Mammoth change experienced within the organisation emanating from the split had significant impact on the employees of DID.
- The appointment of change agents (internal or external) to manage and lead a change initiative is vital.
- Previous change efforts resonated into a drift while leaving employees laden with new and conflicting policies and procedures.
- The political environment plays a significant role in affecting the change direction of the DID. The 5 year political cycles usher in new political leadership (HOD).
- Changes in political climate are abrupt, leading to the destruction of change efforts prescribed by the previous political leaders.

The literature reviewed provides strong evidence to suggest that organisational change can have a profound effect on levels of staff commitment, as demonstrated by the potential loss

of loyalty and trust in the organisation, feelings of insecurity, the implementation of seemingly unfair downsizing/retrenchment processes and confusion over roles and expectations — symptoms known collectively as "survivor syndrome" (Robbins, 1998) and Theissen (2004). Failure to effectively communicate direction and ensure legitimate, ongoing opportunities for staff to be actively engaged in the process of the split, and ensuring transparency of decision making can damage the relationship between employers and employees, thereby reducing the commitment staff feels towards their organisation (Theissen, 2004).

Managing change successfully means addressing issues from both the organisational and the individual perspective (Senior, 1997). There is a clear sense that the restructuring was "done" to staff at the DID rather than taking staff along with them; however, the ability of any organisation to gain 100 percent agreement to substantive change is questionable (Theissen, 2004).

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Should DID need to embark on any change initiatives in future, the management of the organisation needs to consider the following:

- Communication is critical during any change initiative and can be the difference between a successful process and failed process.
- With any major change such as split of a huge organisation, it is vital that a change agent be appointed to manage the process (Mabey, 2007). The agent can be an external consultant, or an internally appointed leader within the Department (Fox, 2006).
- Management needs to re-build the relationship between itself and employees. This can be achieved by having regular feedback sessions headed by the HOD as a sign of commitment to transformational change and "walking the talk" (Nyasha, 2010).
- Change needs to be understood and managed in a way that people can cope effectively with it. Managers and leaders need to be a settling influence throughout the process. People affected by the change need a chance to decide how the change will be managed, and to be involved in the planning and implementation of the change.
- Communications to handle sensitive aspects of organisational change management needs to be face-to-face (Theissen, 2004).

Osborne and Brown (2005), states that change is endemic in the public sector. The pressures for change come from all sides: globalization, government initiatives, doing more with less, improving the quality of infrastructure and the pace of change is ever increasing (Mabey, 2007) and (Osborne & Brown, 2005). Living with change and managing change is an essential skill for all. It would add value if managers and leaders within the DID can

attend change management workshops or briefings, in order to gain more knowledge regarding change initiatives.

Cultural aspects require consideration. Once the culture is understood, it should be addressed as thoroughly as any other area in a change process. Leaders should be explicit about the culture and underlying behaviours that will best support the new way of doing business (Johnson, 1987). Seel (2005) adds that this requires developing a baseline, defining an explicit end-state or desired culture, and formulation of detailed plans to make the transition.

Another issue that has received increasing attention in the literature on public administration is how to create organisational norms where experimentation and innovation are not feared but rather valued (Osborne & Brown, 2005). The Department needs to develop ways of encouraging creativity. Other recommendations are for creating the “freedom to imagine” to stay “thin” (minimising organisational layering), create room to experiment (by granting groups the freedom to think “beyond the box”), push authority downward, lower barriers of internal collaboration, democratise (by shifting from centralised rule to a more participatory style), prime DID for innovation (by creating separate funding to implement creative new ideas), create a marketplace of ideas (in which ideas rise or fall on their own merits rather than on the basis of power or politics), prepare for stress (because change can be discomforting), maximise diversity (internally, but especially in relation to the community), and age gracefully (while maintaining an interest in innovation) (Osborne & Brown, 2005).

The success of the change efforts by DID is solely contingent upon the capabilities, perceptions of, and commitment by, all stakeholders (Nyasha, 2010). Because of the importance of managers to the adaptive process, it is important to enhance those traits required to promote the change orientation (Osborne & Brown, 2005). While it could be argued that theirs is simply a maturation problem which will correct itself with time, the strains that the Department is now undergoing denies this option (Osborne & Brown, 2005). The Chief Directors will need to concentrate particularly on this cohort by listening, to and empowering staff, and reinforcing change-ready traits aggressively.

The organisation architecture of DID should allow for streamlined bottleneck-free processes coupled by open door policies to allow a continuous smooth flow of information and communication. Much effort needs to be put towards undoing red tape, bureaucracy and paper intensive processes (Nyasha, 2010). Financial systems improvement requires usage of minimal signatories and approvals to allow quicker payment processing without compromising the integrity of the payment processes. Knowledge and understanding of

multi-year planning and budgeting will reduce the risk caused by erratic funding by clients (Nyasha, 2010).

The macro external environment surrounding DID is dominated by the political climate. Under such circumstances, it is recommended that public managers be especially attentive to the politics and politics of change as a readiness to change strategy (Osborne & Brown, 2005). Since nearly every move by public managers will have political implications, political leaders will want to be informed to avoid surprises (Osborne & Brown, 2005). Changes are influenced by political cycles, especially the calendar of elections (Nyasha, 2010). Beginning major changes during the final year of a particular administration is not likely to receive much support; instead, the administration must seek to secure and institutionalise those changes that are already made (Nyasha, 2010) and (Osborne & Brown, 2005).

6.8 KEY RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The key research objectives of this study were to:

- Determine and discuss in detail the forces of change.
- Explain the role of change initiators and change agents within an organisation undergoing change.
- Discuss planned change models and examine a suitable strategy that could have been implemented at DID.
- Determine the reasons of change resistance and the impact thereof.

Research objectives have been addressed successfully and recommendations drawn to assist DID in improving its change management initiatives.

6.9 PERSONAL REFLECTION

The researcher, being part of the organisation under investigation, tried not to be biased during the process of doing this research.

6.10 OPPORTUNITIES FOR FUTURE STUDY

- A blanket survey of all staff within individual sections would be useful. There is anecdotal evidence to suggest that some departments felt more involved in the consultation process than others did.
- A follow up survey in the next 12 months on the same group of staff to see if commitment has changed. The need for longitudinal data when investigating the effects of survivor responses cannot be overstated (Russell & Rentz, 2001).

- A study of the staff that left the Department following the termination of their contracts to assess whether the process adopted influenced their decision to leave.

6.11 CONCLUSION

The objective of Chapter 6 was to re-state the research problem/question, investigative questions, key research objectives, significance of the research as stated in Chapter 1 and make recommendations to mitigate the research problem and provide an answer to the research question. The research conducted for this dissertation will be of significant value to the management of DID as it highlights the shortcomings in the change initiative and also illustrated the strategies that can be implemented in future change processes. This research will also be of value to other companies or organisations seeking to undergo similar changes to those undertaken by DID.

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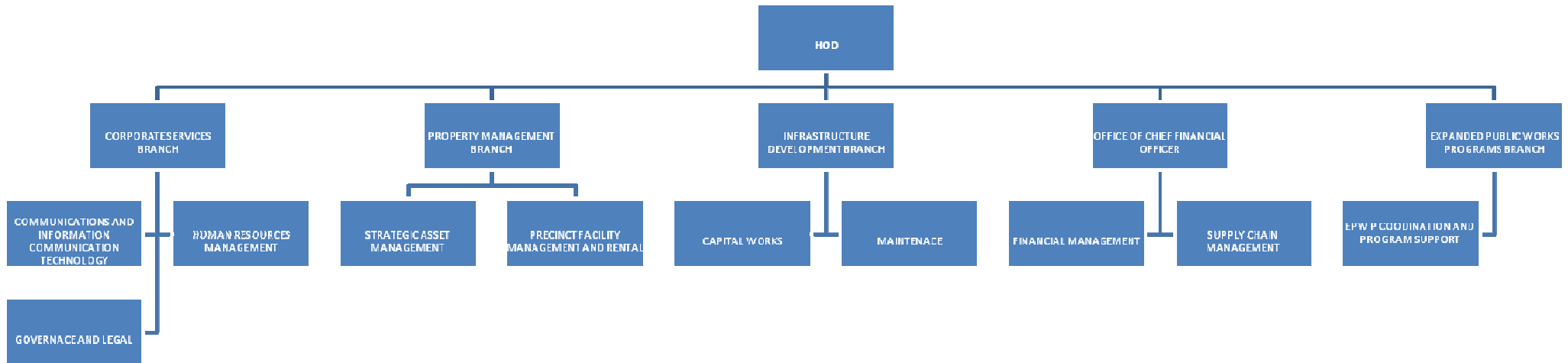
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ORGANOGRAM (DID, 2010)



APPENDIX B: COVER LETTER

Dear Sir/ Madam,

REF: A STUDY OF DID CHANGE MANAGEMENT (THE SPLIT TO DID AND DRT)

I would like to invite your participation in a study of the change management and its impact in the DID. This survey is conducted as part of a research project, which shall be submitted in partial fulfilment for the Degree of Master of Business Administration from UNISA Graduate School of Business Leadership. It is conducted under the expert guidance of Ms Jacqueline Baumgardt and Dr Sydney Shipham, tutor and senior lecturer respectively at the Faculty of the Graduate School Business Leadership, UNISA.

The survey instrument for the study is a questionnaire comprising three sections:

SECTION A: asks about personal details

SECTION B: examines change management and employee involvement

SECTION C: concerns perception and attitude of employees towards their job and work in general

Responding honestly and accurately to the questions is imperative to the success of this scientific attempt at examining the impact on the employees.

Your response to questions in Section B and C reflect the perceptions, attitude and true beliefs you have about your work environment, therefore there is no right or wrong answers. Secondly, it is recommended to respond in a spontaneous manner. Thirdly, because the focus of this study is on personality and attitude of individual employees, respondents are advised not to seek assistance from their colleagues when responding to the questionnaire.

I would like to thank you in advance for completing this questionnaire. The information you provide through the questionnaire will be confidential and shall only be used for the purpose of this academic research. If you have any questions, please email me at tendainyasha@gmail.com

Please do not be afraid of completing this questionnaire, it is purely for academic purposes and no individual will be victimized. For this reason, do not write your name or any other personal details on the questionnaire forms. After completing the questionnaire, please drop it into the box provided at your work place.

Note that permission has been granted by the H.O.D to undertake this study in the Department

Once again, thank you for your time and participation in this study.

Yours Sincerely,

Tendai Nyasha

APPENDIX C: PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT



HOD OFFICE /HOOF KANTOOR

17TH FLOOR

ENQUIRIES: TUMELO MAGODIELO

TELEPHONE: (011) 355 5080

HOD'S OFFICE INTERNAL DISTRIBUTION SHEET

CAPITAL WORKS: PROJECT MANAGEMENT		
DATE : 01 MARCH 2011		
SUBJECT: Request for Permission to use the Department for an Academic Research		
LEON COETZEE	FROM:	DATE:01/03 /2011
<p><i>Hod:</i> Request from an employee to conduct research in the Department for study purposes. Recommended that info be submitted to Hod before submission to academic institution.</p>		
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT MS M MODIPA	FROM:	DATE: <i>[Signature]</i> 2/3/2011
<p><i>Ms Nyasha</i></p>		
REFERS BACK	FROM: <i>[Signature]</i>	DATE: 2/3

The Head of Department
Department of Infrastructure Development
Corner Sauer and Commissioner Street
Corner house
Private Bag X 88
Marshalltown
2107
Johannesburg

23 February, 2011

Dear Ms. M. Modipa

REF: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE THE DEPARTMENT (DID) FOR AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH ENTITLED: THE IMPACT OF ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE. (A CASE STUDY FOR THE GAUTENG PROVINCE DEPARTMENT OF INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT)

Permission is sought for the use of the Department (DID) as an entity and information thereof in the development of an academic research for master's degree in business administration (MBA).

I am an employee in the Department under Capital Works and pursuing my MBA studies with the University of South Africa Graduate School of Business Leadership. This research will entail the use of the organizational information and administration of questionnaires in the organization.

I will pledge to make available, the outcome of this research to the Department on conditions to be agreed.

Respectfully yours


Tendai Nyasha

23/02/11

Approved



2011/03/02

APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: PERSONAL AND GENERAL INFORMATION

Please put an **X** in the appropriate block.

Please indicate the Chief Directorate under the Department of Infrastructure Development in which you work in;

X

CORPORATE SERVICES BRANCH	Human Resources Management	
	Governance and Legal	
	Communications and Information Communication Technology	
INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT BRANCH	Capital Works	
	Maintenance	
OFFICE OF CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER	Financial Management	
	Supply Chain Management	
PROPERTY MANAGEMENT BRANCH	Strategic asset Management	
	Precinct Facility management and rental	
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS BRANCH	EPWP coordination and program support	

1. What is your gender?

Male	
Female	

2. Indicate which age group you fall in

Under 25 years	
Between 25 and 35	
Between 35 and 50	
Over 50 years	

3. What level at work are you?

NMS (under 11)	
MMS (11-12)	
SMS (13-15)	

4. How long have you been in this organisation?

Between 1 and 3 years	
Between 3 and 8 years	
More than 8 years	

5. How long do you intend to be in this organisation?

Less than 2 year	
Between 2 to 5 years	
Between 5 to 10 years	
For life	

SECTION B: CHANGE MANAGEMENT AND EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

1. Are you aware of the reasons for the many changes that have taken place within the organisation at the DID?

Yes	
No	

2. Did the management communicate the vision for change?

Yes	
No	

3. Has the change impacted negatively on your morale in the organisation?

Yes	
No	

4. If given an opportunity would you leave the DID and seek employment elsewhere?

Yes	
No	

5. How many meetings did you attend during planning and implementation of change?

None	
1-3	
More than 3	

Please consider the following statements and indicate to what degree you agree or disagree with each, circling the corresponding number.

1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neutral, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree.

6. The restructuring in the DID had a positive effect

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. The managers/leaders of my department involved staff members during the split between the DRT and the DID

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. Feedback in the DID is given in an open and direct manner

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

9. Management in the DID displays participative and transparent transitional leadership

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. The changes made in the DID will be successful and will improve the Department's Performance

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

SECTION C: PERCEPTION AND ATTITUDE

Please consider the following statements and indicate to what degree you agree or disagree with each, circling the corresponding number.

1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neutral, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree.

1. Are you comfortable in participating in this questionnaire and are you sure management is not going to use this against you

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

2. Management in the DID places a high emphasis on employee satisfaction

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. I do not mind spending a half hour past quitting time, if I can finish something i have been working on.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. The thought of waking up and going to work for DID makes me sick

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

5. If I had the choice between going to the organisation's family day and staying home, I would probably stay home.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

6. I do only what my job requires, no more no less

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

7. I would probably keep working even if I did not need the money.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

8. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for, over the other places I was at the time I joined.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

9. This work environment really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

10. Employees do not feel secure at work because of fear of losing their jobs

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

11. Senior managers are obsessed with office power

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

12. DID is the last employer Department i would recommend anyone to work for

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

13. What problems are you experiencing in your department/area since the split?

APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE AND VERBATIM RESPONSES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

CORPORATE SERVICES BRANCH	Human Resources Management	4 March 11 (09: 00 – 10: 00)
	Governance and Legal	4 March 11 (10: 00 – 11: 00)
	Communications and Information Communication Technology	4 March 11 (13:00 – 14:00)
INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT BRANCH	Capital Works	5 March 11 (09: 00- 10: 00)
	Maintenance	5 March 11 (10: 00- 11: 00)
OFFICE OF CHIEF FINANCIAL OFFICER	Financial Management	6 March 11 (13: 00- 14: 00)
	Supply Chain Management	6 March 11 (09: 00- 10: 00)
PROPERTY MANAGEMENT BRANCH	Strategic asset Management	7 March 11 (09: 00- 10: 00)
	Precinct Facility management and rental	7 March 11 (11: 00- 12: 00)
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS BRANCH	EPWP coordination and program support	8 March 11 (09: 00- 10: 00)

VERBATIM RESPONSES

Below are selected verbatim responses drawn from the respondents during the interviews:

“We are worried about losing our jobs” (NMS1, NMS2, NMS3)

“The management cares very little about our work environment, it is inhabitable” (MMS1, MMS4, MMS7).

“There is total lack of leadership, no organisational vision, no direction” SMS3

“I do not even know the HOD” (MMS6)

“The management is trigger happy, while they do very little to improve performance” (MMS10)