Change Management Practices In Small Island Economies: A Study Of Private Sector Organisations In Mauritius

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This Thesis is presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Murdoch University

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I declare that this thesis is my own account of my research and contains as its main content work which has not previously been submitted for a degree at any tertiary education institution.

..........................

Sanjiv Gungadeen
Abstract

This dissertation examines change management practices in private sector organisations in Mauritius. It presents the findings from a qualitative study of three private sector organisations from different sectors in Mauritius: the banking sector, the hotel industry and a privatised state-owned enterprise.

Thirty eight in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted in a modified grounded theory study to establish the key dimensions of organisational change. Themes from participant responses were coded and synthesised to provide insights into the process of change in the organisations under study. The emergent theory suggests that organisational change is a multi-dimensional, multi-directional and evolutionary process and this study has identified that organisational change is influenced by the contextual and historical aspects of the country. The emerging key dimensions of change served to confirm six dimensions evident in the extant literature on organisational change:

- Organisational structure.
- Organisational culture.
- Leadership processes.
- Individuals.
- Knowledge management.
- Resistance to change.

A seventh dimension, and therefore largely unacknowledged factor, considered to be central to the change process in Mauritian organisations was also identified:

- Partisanship.
Partisanship was found to be present in all the case study organisations, and to be a pervasive influence on the change process. History, culture and context have served to embed this dimension in the change processes.

A model is presented which illustrates how the process of organisational change is undertaken in Mauritius, which clearly defines the role of partisanship. It is proposed that this model may be applied to other small island economies with similar historical, cultural or contextual features as is the case with Mauritius.
Dedication

Dedicated to my wonderful wife Lovenia and my two lovely children, Luvnish and Lavisha. Their support and sacrifices and patience made this all possible. Thank you so much for helping me reach my goal. I love you all!

I also dedicate this thesis to my Dad and Mother in law who both passed away during the course of my study. My thoughts will always be with you for all your support and everything you have done for me.
Acknowledgements

While coming to the last bend of my rollercoaster ride of my life-changing trip, I am reminded that my long journey has been full of joys, sorrows, and impatience to get to the finish line but, most importantly, I thought of all the persons who were part of it; supportive parents, loving siblings, unconditionally loving wife and children, insightful supervisors, and helpful colleagues.

Foremost, my heartfelt gratitude goes to my family not only for their unwavering support, love, through one of the toughest road of life but for also boosting my confidence and morale whenever I diverted and needed them. I would have never contemplated this route if my wife has not been foresighted enough to see that potential in me. My special thoughts go to two beloved lost souls during my journey, my amazing dad and supportive mother in law.

Besides performing the duties of a core supervisor, David Holloway, has been one the focal point of my journey as he has been inspirational and ignited my passion for research. He has also provided me with constructive feedback at each stage of my write up and instilled in me a creative flair.

The dissection and application of the grounded theory would not have been possible without the critical reflections of my second supervisor, Megan Paull. Endowed with the lens of a meticulous writer and the mind of a critical thinker, she looked at the minute details of my writings and urged me think creatively and together we came to the theory of partisanship.

My thanks also go to the staff of Murdoch Library most particularly Soun Wong, Tamara and Janet for all their support during this journey. I would also like to
acknowledge the support provided by Karen from the Murdoch School of Management and Governance and thank her for her continuous help and making my student life easier.

Lastly, all my sincere thanks for all those who voluntarily participated in my data collection without whose voices this research would have been incomplete.
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List of Abbreviations

GTM: Grounded theory method

HRM: Human resource management

NGO: Non-governmental organisation

PRME: Principles for responsible Management education

SIDS: Small island developing states

UNCED: United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

SIEs: Small Island Economies

IT: Information Technology
Chapter One: Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Change management is and has always been an enigmatic process. According to Graetz, Lawrence, Simmer and Smith (2011, p. 22), “Evidences of failed cases of change implementation indicates the reality that change in organisations is not so simple or straightforward.” The extant literature identifies a 60-70 per cent failure rate for organisational change projects – a statistic that has remained constant since the 1970s (Ashkenas, 2013). Towers and Watson (2013) investigated 276 mid-sized and large organisations from North America, Europe and Asia, and found that only 25 per cent of change management initiatives were successful long-term. There has been extensive research conducted in the field of organisational change management attempting to resolve the vexed issue of successful outcomes. Beer and Nohria (2000), in their paper “Cracking the code of change”, identify that 70 percent of change initiatives fail. In other words, the majority of the initiatives implemented by management fail to achieve the desired goals (Kotter, 2012; Maurer, 2011; Warrick, 2009)

Despite spanning a period of over half a century, the change management literature is complex and fragmented, characterised by a diversity of approaches and opinions (Cummings, Waddell &Worley, 2014; Kimberley, 2002). As a result, changes have been perceived as becoming more complex and as having a more radical effect on the organisation’s finances; yet, the failure rate for change projects continues to increase (Miller, 2012). The reasons for failure are numerous, with each study revealing particular factors. For example, over 70 percent of organisational changes,
necessary for the organisation’s success, fail to deliver the intended results (The Standish Group, 2012) and poor planning is identified as the main reason for failure (Hammond, 2008; Ika, 2009; Kerzner, 2009; Maurer, 2010; Pomfret, 2008; Shenhar & Dvir, 2007).

This research indicates that the process of change management is multifaceted (Karp & Helgo, 2008; Rusaw, 2007), and its effects on the organisation are diverse and complex. However, the aetiology of organisational change management continues to generate serious debate amongst researchers and practitioners. Scholars in the field, including Narayandas and Rangan (1996), recognise that “the only constant is change”, as originally expressed by Greek philosopher Heraclitus (500 BC). Consequently, adaptation to change has become a common focus and concern for modern organisations. Bainbridge (1996, p. 4) argued that:

“Change is no longer an irregular outing, an inconvenient upheaval to be undertaken once every ten years. Change is something we have to learn to live with, to structure and to manage. Change is here to stay, and the winners will be the ones who cope with it”.

External and internal organisational environments are affected by factors including: globalisation, technological innovation, competition, a knowledgeable workforce, changing government laws and regulations, political events, and shifting social trends. Such factors exert a range of pressure, often creating an impetus for organisational change to respond effectively to these impacts. However, the implementation of a change process does not always bring about success. One argument is that the majority of change management practices and methodologies are wholly inadequate in delivering successful change initiatives (Anderson & Anderson, 2001). A number of scholars, including Anderson and Ackerman-Anderson (2001),
Dawson (2003), and Desai and Sahu (2008), conclude that the majority of change management theories are inadequate in concrete situations and in different contexts.

This thesis details an investigation of organisational change processes in private sector organisations in Mauritius, as an example of a small island economy, and focuses on identifying the factors that influence those processes, with a view to identifying any unique element at work.

1.1 Background to the Research

There is an extensive body of literature addressing topics related to organisational change in various parts of the world, including a range of different cultures. One perspective that has been largely overlooked in the literature is change management in small island economies. A review of the literature shows that there is little empirical evidence and little or no published literature that can be used to inform future research in this context. This dissertation focuses on examining the process of change management in private sector organisations in Mauritius by presenting findings from a qualitative study of three private sector organisations using a variant of grounded theory methodology.

Change is simultaneously inevitable and complicated in nature. As Abrahamson (2000, p. 78) suggests: “Change has all but become a societal and economic requirement; either change or perish”. To remain competitive, change should be carried out as effectively as possible, and using the appropriate framework and guidance to improve the outcomes generated. The construction of a contextually appropriate approach will enhance the change management mechanisms in Mauritius, and arguably, in other small island economies.
1.2 Statement of the Problem

The literature on change management indicates that the paradox for organisations that endeavour to develop strategies for organisational change is the consistent lack of understanding of the underlying phenomenon and the associated factors. A significant volume of research has produced a disparity of theoretical and practical propositions directed at increasing productivity through change and change management (Werr, Stjernberg & Docherty, 1997). There is no single methodology or theoretical framework that adequately addresses the solutions for the change dynamics at play in the evolution of organisations. Studying change in organisations is difficult due to the divergent forces at work, including individuals, and organisational processes and mechanisms, which can facilitate the process of change, but also be constraining forces in the process. A primary objective of this research is to contribute to the development of knowledge in the field of change management in the context of small island economies.

This study examines the nature of change within organisations, and particularly identifies and analyses the practices used to implement organisational change in private sector organisations in one small island economy, namely, Mauritius. This is achieved by analysing the experiences of staff within three organisations that have undergone changes during three years (2005 to 2008). All the three organisations under study had undergone major changes during the three years mentioned above.

The analysis identified and investigated the contribution of the key dimensions or factors of change in the case study organisations and compared these with the theoretical elements considered to be necessary for effective change management in the extant literature. The qualitative research approach utilised in this study,
involving semi-structured interviews of participants, was judged to be the most appropriate since it facilitated a deeper understanding of the change management phenomenon through the responses of the individuals who narrated their personal stories and shared their organisational experiences.

1.3 Impetus for the Research

This study began with an area of interest, namely, change management, which the researcher was exposed to during his career in one of the organisations under study. This experience led to an interest and a decision to conduct this research. The focus is on analysing the change management practices in Mauritius, as an example of a small island economy, including the formulation, implementation and sustainability of the process of change in private sector organisations. As a result, three of the most important sectors in Mauritius were chosen, namely, the banking sector, the hotel industry and a privatised state-owned enterprise.

A review of the literature shows that there is little empirical data on change management in small island economies. A description of the specific features of SIEs is given in chapter two section 2.11.1.2) This thesis aims to add a new dimension to the existing literature. The organisational cultures, management styles and inherent perceptions in these regions are different from Western countries. Thus, this research will help to reclassify the available empirical data and will generate additional knowledge that will become a reference for future research.

The global organisational environment continues to evolve rapidly. Research is especially relevant in small island economies due to the lack of contextual guidance or appropriate frameworks and concepts for leaders trying to bring about changes in their organisations. There is little research on countries like Mauritius where
ethnicity is considered to be a major factor in the decision-making process of organisations (Eriksen, 1998). From a theoretical perspective, this study brings together a number of elements that operate within the same organisational territory, including organisational culture and knowledge management. It also identifies the role of partisanship, a factor previously unidentified in this context. Raised awareness and effective responses to these situational factors is likely to help to increase the effectiveness of change management processes and minimise resistance to change.

This thesis proposes a new model for change management taking into account the unique situational factors in Mauritius. Consequently, both theoretically and empirically, this research contributes to the understanding of change management, and adds to the general development of theory in the field.

1.4 Research Questions

Central to a focussed study is the formulation of a research question or questions. Creswell (2013), and Miles and Huberman (1994) recommend several sub-questions for each central research question, to enable the researcher to narrow the focus of the study, but still facilitate open questioning. Based on the literature review and identified needs for research, this study explores and analyses the phenomenon of organisational change management in Mauritius. The overarching research problem that is addressed in this dissertation is as follows:

What factors influence change management practices of private sector organisations in the small island economy of Mauritius?

The research questions derived from this problem are as follows:
1. What processes do change practitioners implement during organisational change processes that enhance successful change outcomes?

2. What are the organisational factors that influence change management processes?

The research sub-questions are as follows:

1. To what extent do organisational structures have an effect on change management?

2. What is the impact of culture on change management?

3. What are the common traits or qualities of leadership that lead to successful change management?

4. Does change management bring about ‘individual change’, that is, changes in behaviour, and changes in both cognitive and non-cognitive individual characteristics?

5. How important is knowledge management to organisations as a dimension in the dynamics of change management?

The researcher used these questions to collect data during the participant interviews to answer the central research questions and also “the sub-questions, in turn, can become specific questions used during interviews” (Creswell, 2013, p. 130). A capstone question, which was originally part of the central question is:

What unique factors can be identified as playing a role in change management in organisations in Mauritius?
The identification of partisanship as a key factor in change management in Mauritius forms part of the contribution of this research.

1.5 Benefits of the Research

This research aims to identify appropriate strategies for change initiatives to be undertaken by organisations in small island economies like Mauritius in the future. The model developed from this study provides options for mitigation of adverse change effects. The researcher has applied concepts derived in Western countries as the basis for the thesis and has utilised these insights to analyse the empirical findings from Mauritius.

The result is a narrowing of the research gap by taking into account factors which might be present in small island economies such as Mauritius, and their cultural and historical issues, as factors that influence the change implementation process and outcomes. This will allow a deeper understanding of the problems facing private sector organisations in Mauritius. The goal of this variant of a grounded theory study of change is to contribute to the existing literature on change; one that will help to clarify how adopting certain practices for creating organisational and human conditions may facilitate organisational change in the private sector in Mauritius.

The study identifies a set of factors that influence the change management process in Mauritius, which the researcher argues are unique. The findings from this study may be appropriate for organisations in countries in the region that are contextually similar, both historically and culturally, for implementing and sustaining change. Given that Mauritius is identified as one of the Small Island Developing States
(SIDS, UNCED, 19921), these findings and implications could be generalised to those states with similar economies and resources. Therefore, in combination, these factors form a unique set of key dimensions that could be applied to other small island countries, and provide leaders and other practitioners with an effective model and approach for promoting and sustaining organisational change.

New ways of thinking about organisational change will help to achieve more effective results by adjusting the way change is initiated, led, implemented, further monitored and sustained. This reframing helps to identify the environmental factors and human conditions required to facilitate positive change outcomes. This will also help senior leaders better manage change resistance among employees and take appropriate measures to minimise such resistance.

This research will inform other academic research projects in small island economies that are currently limited in nature, providing potential economic and social benefits to those small island states.

1.6 Choice of Methodology

The qualitative research framework in this dissertation was guided by a modified grounded theory approach (Birk & Mills, 2011; Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Sterk, Theall & Elifson, 2000; Strauss & Corbin, 2008). The literature on the topic was reviewed to provide an indication of the extent of current knowledge and work undertaken in the field, and to confirm that a gap existed in the current research (Birks & Mills, 2011).

1 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), also known as the Earth Summit, held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (3–14 June 1992). This recognition was made specifically in the context of Agenda 21 (Chapter 17 G).
The literature review and the adoption of a grounded theory methodology led to the emergence and clarification of the research problem, the research questions and the sub-questions. Grounded theory is an effective way to analyse and explain the core processes involved in real world experiences, and seeks to understand the way real people respond to changes and their resultant consequences (Charmaz, 2005; Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Patton, 2002).

According to Creswell (2013, p. 64), grounded theory provides a method to “systematically develop a theory that explains process, action, or interaction on a topic.” Given that change management is a process, the grounded theory approach was assessed to be the most relevant framework suitable for this thesis. As Strauss and Corbin (2008) argue, “a process in grounded theory research is a sequence of actions and interactions among people and events pertaining to a topic” (cited in Creswell, 2012, p. 431).

In keeping with the tenets of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 2008), and using a modified grounded theory approach, data was collected by means of semi-structured interviews with participants. A theoretical sampling approach was used to select those individuals who had experienced change processes in private sector organisations. This approach included identifying those who are likely to be knowledgeable about issues and themes emerging in the data as the study progressed.

The study involved three stages of data collection. The first set of data was collected in the period November 2009 to January 2010 and the second and third, in the period October 2010 to December 2010. In the first stage, a pilot study was undertaken, with a questionnaire consisting mainly of general questions about change management sent to a group of twenty people likely to be knowledgeable about
change management in private sector organisations in Mauritius. Eight individuals agreed to participate and responded to the questionnaire. The responses from this initial study were integrated with data from the literature review to develop and refine the research questions and the interview questions to be used to generate the empirical data for the study.

In the next phases of the research, a total of 38 interviews were conducted including the two focus groups. This involved 44 participants from the three different industries. Initially, 15 participants were approached from each organisation from which 36 participants agreed to be interviewed, including 14 participants from the authority, 11 participants from the Hotel and 11 participants from the Bank. A further eight participants from the authority and the bank were interviewed as part of two focus groups.

The data was coded and analysed using the constant comparison method. The iterative process of data collection, coding, comparison and analysis was followed by a comparison with the extant literature, and this produced an emerging, substantive theory of change management practices of organisations in small island economies.

1.7 Dissertation Organisation

Figure 1.1 below shows the organisation of the thesis and the constitution of the specific chapters.

Chapter One provides an overview of organisational change, and establishes the importance of effective organisational change in the current turbulent business environment. The research problem and assorted research questions are posited with particular reference to the knowledge gap in relation to organisational change in Mauritius, as an example of a small island economy. Given the paucity of the
literature and research in small island economies, there exists an obvious gap in the literature, which this thesis attempts to narrow.

A discussion of the use of a modified grounded theory approach is outlined, including its relevance to this study. The chapter also outlines the data collection process, and the use of theoretical sampling for participant selection and data analysis, including the use of interviews, coding and the constant comparison method. A brief overview of the change management practices of private sector organisations in Mauritius is provided. Finally, the various terms used in the dissertation are defined in relation to the contextual factors.

Figure 1.1: Thesis map
Chapter Two presents a review of relevant literature on change management and defines the scope of the literature in the field, including the various definitions of terms used by different authors in the field. A discussion of the theories and models of change management is also provided, emphasising the core theoretical ideas and current relevant research, including research carried out in Mauritius. The chapter then outlines the research gap in organisational change management in the context of small island economies.

The chapter also analyses the key dimensions of change, including an area that emerged after the researcher had completed the primary data collection, namely, partisanship. This emergent concept was not recognised as a key dimension for organisational change at the beginning of the study, but was found to be very relevant to the findings in the context of Mauritius. Consequently, in subsequent chapters, this outcome was reviewed to confirm and validate the findings. The chapter also enabled the researcher to identify the theoretical propositions relevant to the change management literature. This led to the clarification and identification of the main research problem in the thesis, and subsequent research questions and sub-questions.

Chapter Three details the research design and methodology utilised to address the research questions and sub-questions. An overview is provided of the varying ontological and epistemological perspectives, and the choice of the specific paradigm (realism) is justified. According to Creswell (2013), effective research requires making assumptions, paradigms and frameworks explicit in the writing of a study and influences the conduct of inquiry.
The chapter provides a justification for using a qualitative approach in this study. The main reason being the study of the research problem inquiring into the meaning that individuals or groups (in this study, private sector organisations) attribute to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2013). A detailed explanation of grounded theory follows, as well as its relevance to this study where the objective is to go beyond description and to generate or discover a theory (Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

The chapter then details the data collection and analysis procedures, and mentions the methodological appropriateness of using interviews in the research setting. The details of how the researcher established reliability and trustworthiness for this study are also provided. The main ethical considerations adopted by the researcher were identified, as this requires that “the researcher is aware of and is addressing in the study all of the ethical issues through all phases of the research study” (Creswell, 2013, p. 47).

Chapter Four introduces and discusses the three case studies used, including the profiles of the three organisations in their relevant business environment context. A systematic analysis of the data collected is conducted to identify the common themes and categories. This is followed by the results of the research and an intra-case analysis. The organisations are analysed separately to show the various themes and categories that have emerged. Subsequently, the findings in relation to the emerging themes are presented.

Chapter Five suggests explanations for the findings using an inter-case analysis, which further refines the key research constructs. The three case studies are compared and contrasted with current relevant research demonstrating the differences and similarities amongst the three organisations in their change
management practices. The inter-case analysis provides further insights into issues concerning the change management process in Mauritius with reference to existing relevant literature. The research findings are integrated with the body of literature reviewed during the initial stage of the research and with the literature on the emergent concept of partisanship. Thus, the major research findings are presented in a way to address the main research problem.

Chapter Six discusses the contributions of this study. It identifies the main grounded theory and the theoretical model of this research including the emerging dimension of partisanship. The chapter also explains the process of change management as it occurs in the organisations under study, with particular reference to the key dimensions of change. The set of dimensions identified are specific to the Mauritian private sector with partisanship emerging as a unique factor that also influences the organisational change process. Therefore, the chapter provides evidence and confirms that organisational change in private sector organisations is a multi-directional, multi-dimensional and evolutionary process with a set of fluid relationships between the various actors in the process. Most particularly, the importance of partisanship as being part of the business culture and its acceptance by individuals and other stakeholders involved in organisational change and various organisational processes is highlighted. This chapter also provides evidence from the literature for possibilities for generalisation of the findings of this research to the country level and to a broader context of SIEs. Subsequently, the role of partisanship in change management in SIEs is discussed.

Chapter Seven concludes the dissertation and reflects on the research as a whole by summarising the research design and process, the findings and theory generation.
The theoretical model of organisational change in Mauritius is also described, highlighting the implications and the contributions of the study to the body of knowledge in the change management field. The chapter also identifies the limitations of the study. In other words, the objectives of the chapter are to re-state the research problem, research questions and sub-questions, and key research objectives, re-visit the significance of the research as stated in Chapter One, and suggest solutions to mitigate the research problem and provide answers to the research questions and sub-questions. Ultimately, this chapter discusses the implications for further research in this field.

1.8 Overview of Organisational Change Management

The grounded theory of change management in private sector organisations in Mauritius generated in this study suggests that it is a multi-directional, multi-dimensional and evolutionary process, and is not a static process. The enabling factors identified interact with each other throughout its duration. This study has identified seven key dimensions influencing change in the context of Mauritian private sector organisations:

- Organisational structure.
- Organisational culture.
- Leadership processes.
- Individuals.
- Knowledge management.
- Resistance to change.
- Partisanship.
As a result of the analysis in this study, partisanship emerged as a key dimension for change in small island economies, adding a unique dimension to those already identified in other studies. The findings in this thesis provide meaningful insights for leaders and other practitioners in Mauritius. The emergent theory suggests that organisational change is dependent on the contextual and historical aspects of the country. It also reveals that there are distinct relationships between the various factors and organisational processes, which are inter-connected. Decision-making is influenced by the historical context of the country, as well as the cultural factors to which the individuals are exposed.

Although this study focused on Mauritius, the process of organisational change has general implications and can be applied to other countries with similar historical, cultural or contextual features, that is, other small island economies. Consequently, this thesis provides a model of how the process of change is undertaken in such economies.

This research makes important theoretical and methodological contributions by extending the literature on organisational change management and small island economies. This thesis adds to the body of literature by identifying the factors influencing organisational change, including organisational structure, organisational culture, leadership, individuals, knowledge management, resistance to change and partisanship.

The systematic procedures approach to developing grounded theory, advocated by Corbin and Strauss (2008), was used for the research. Creswell (2013) suggests that this approach is much more helpful than a Glaserian approach for researchers who are new to learning about and applying grounded theory research. This adherence to
the method, provided by Corbin and Strauss (2008), confirms the fact that the latter provides “considerable detail, guidance, and structural support” for researchers new to grounded theory (Casey, Grealish, Hunter, Keady & Murphy, 2011).

1.9 Definitions of Key Terms

The definitions of various key terms used in this dissertation are provided below.

1.9.1 Change management

Change management is a multi-directional, multi-dimensional and evolutionary process, which is embedded in the historical context of an organisation, and is interdependent on the mutual interaction and communication of its stakeholders who co-construct meaning to steer the changes needed for productive and desired outcomes.

1.9.2 Small island economies

The most common criteria used to define small island economies is their size in terms of population. The Commonwealth (1985) defines small island economies as those with populations smaller than 1.5 million.

1.9.3 Qualitative research

Qualitative researchers investigate objects and phenomena in their natural settings, and attempt to identify, interpret and understand these based on the meanings that people construct and bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013). In other words, qualitative researchers are interested in how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world (Merriam, 2009).
1.9.4 Semi-structured Interview

The semi-structured interview is a qualitative data collection strategy where the researcher asks participants a series of predetermined, open-ended questions. The researcher has more control over the topics of the interview than in unstructured interviews. However, in contrast to structured interviews or questionnaires that use closed questions, there is no fixed range of responses to each question (Given, 2008).

1.9.5 Interviewee

The interviewees include all the individuals who participated in the interviews and voluntarily expressed their views on organisational change management, drawing on their experience of the phenomenon working in the organisations under study.

1.9.6 Constant comparison

Constant comparison is the concurrent process of coding and analysing the collected data (Partington, 2000). The constant comparative method involves breaking down the collected data into discrete ‘incidents’ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) or ‘units’ (Lincoln & Guba, 1994), and coding these according to categories.

1.9.7 Grounded theory

Grounded theory is an interpretive qualitative research method originally conceived by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Grounded theory provides a mix of structure and flexibility, with clear and unambiguous guidelines. The aim of grounded theory is to discover theory. As explained, “grounded theorists want to know what is going on. They look at areas that have either never been studied before or those that are inundated with disparate theories” (Yee, 2001, p. 15). The modified version of the grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) is used in qualitative studies to guide
theory development based on the experience of participants about a particular phenomenon (Sarker, Lau, and Sahay, 2000).

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the dissertation and explored the background to the study. It then provided the justification for conducting the research. The research questions were presented, followed by the anticipated benefits of the study. An explanation of the modified grounded theory approach used in this thesis was also outlined, followed by an overall description of the structure and organisation of the dissertation. This chapter also provided an overview of organisational change management in Mauritius, highlighting the seven key dimensions, and then defined various key terms that will be used throughout the research. Based on these fundamentals, the following chapter reviews the literature, and provides an in-depth description of change management theories and concepts.
Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews and analyses the literature on change management, and reflects on the theories and approaches to change, and the determinants of change. The extant literature on organisational change addresses a number of issues ranging from theoretical to practical and includes empirical studies. This chapter synthesises past and present studies, and scrutinises the models and theoretical constructs already addressed in the literature. This chapter also fulfils one of the requirements of the research methodology, which is to provide a framework before embarking on the research (Goulding, 2002; Suddaby, 2006).

According to Adriopoulos and Dawson (2014), attempts to synthesise organisational change theories and evaluate future directions in the field show that there is a diverse and ever-growing body of research and literature on change that is producing a plethora of models and frameworks for understanding organisational change. Researchers in the field have been trying to study the various aspects of the phenomenon of change by dissecting the different factors related to it. For instance, Deserti and Rizzo (2014) suggest that organisational changes are symptoms of a change in the organisation’s culture.

Continuous research in the field has led to many theories of change, some recent ones of which are shown in Table 2.1 below.
### Table 2.1: Recent theories of change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Theory explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Spicer and Levay</td>
<td>Critical approach to change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Bold, Giuclea and Nastase</td>
<td>Relationship between environmental and organisational change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Gordon, Lamm and Pursur</td>
<td>Value congruence and behavioural support for organisational change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Morgan and Spicer</td>
<td>Critical approach to change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Qian and Daniels</td>
<td>Employee cynicism towards organisational change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Shanley</td>
<td>Interconnections between management development and change management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The various perspectives existing in the literature have not led to a ‘theory of change’ that is unanimously accepted (Barnett & Caroll, 1995; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995, 2005). As a result, organisational change has been defined differently in terms, such as organisational development and organisational transformation (Cummings, Waddell & Worley, 2014; Newhouse & Chapman, 1996). Similarly, Adriopoulos and Dawson (2014) argue that the growing body of research and literature consists of elements, such as, theory and practice of organisational change (Burke, 2011; Hulks, Myers & Wiggins, 2012), philosophies of organisational change (Smith & Graetz, 2011), storytelling and change (Boje, 2012; Jabri, 2012), practical guidelines on managing change (Bevan, 2011; Cameron & Green, 2012), why change fails (Oss & Hek, 2012), organisational development (Anderson, 2010; Gallos, 2006; Shani, Coghlan & Cirella, 2012) and books on change management (Anderson, 2012; Burnes, 2009; Waddell et al., 2014; Grieves, 2010; Senior & Swailes, 2010).

As such, there are numerous perspectives on change management. Earlier studies and researchers, such as, Hedberg, Nystrom and Starbuck (1976), Kotter (2012), and
Lawrence (1990), tried to examine the elements that motivate organisations to change, such as the external environment of the organisation. A review of the literature, from the processual perspective of change, reveals that authors from different fields have constructed different views, such as, a linear process (Lewin, 1947, 1951), a political process (Pettigrew & Whipp, 1991), an interpretative process (Dutton & Duncan, 1987), a pattern process including incremental change (Argyris, 1990; Nelson & Winter, 1982), and a chaotic process (Gould, 1980; Stacey, 2000).

Currently, researchers are faced with a plethora of views and theories on change management. Boje, Burnes and Hassard (2012) suggest that the academic study of organisational change arguably began with Lewin (Burnes, 2004b, 2009a, 2009b; Greiner & Cummings, 2004; Schein, 1988). Weick and Quinn (1999, p. 361) describe, “the sheer sprawl of the change literature.” This chapter attempts to make sense of these various approaches and comprises four sections.

Section One explores the current literature on change management. It identifies the different definitions of change management and the various perspectives on the topic, the models and theories, and the types of change. Therefore, this section discusses the organisational change construct and highlights the various approaches adopted by researchers in the field. This section also identifies the key dimensions of organisational change as discussed by various authors in other parts of the world. Section Two examines the process of change management in Mauritius and highlights the contextual aspects, including the economy, culture and ethnicity of the country. It also mentions literature on change management in the country, referring to recent research conducted in the field. The third section presents the gap in the literature that will be addressed by this thesis, the justification for this research and
its contribution to the body of knowledge on change management. Section Four provides a summary of the literature review, including a diagram of the themes identified during this process.

Given the depth and breadth of the literature on organisational change, this review focuses on the key concepts, models and research that have influenced theoretical development in this area. Therefore, the principal aim of this literature review is to identify the application of change management models in private sector organisations in a small island economy, namely, Mauritius. This review led to the generation of propositions and questions that form the basis of this research. These propositions and questions are detailed in Chapter Three.

2.1 Change Management, a Real Enigma?

Although years of research have produced an array of theoretical orientations directed at increasing productivity through change and change management (Werr et al., 1997), there is hardly one methodology that adequately addresses solutions for the change dynamics at play in organisational change. Despite the number of articles, books and blogs on organisational change, a significant number of change efforts fail (Jorgensen, Owen & Neus, 2008). Hence, evidence of failed cases of change implementation indicates that the reality of what takes place in organisations is not so simple or straightforward (Graetz et al., 2011).

As such, researchers have not stopped investigating this field, hoping to find one adequate theory to solve the problems associated with the phenomenon of change management. However, studying change in organisations has been very complex considering the entirely divergent forces at work, including individuals, and
organisational processes and mechanisms, which are equal but somehow opposing forces of the whole process.

2.2 Language of Change: Inconsistency in the Literature

A review of the literature on change management shows that many authors have used different terms to describe the large arena of concepts in this field. Kezar (2001) suggests that because the language relating to change differs, a common language is difficult to find. She supports this claim by providing an example of how theorists from different perspectives use different language to interpret the change phenomenon. Hence, Kezar (2001, p. 3) uses the following definition by Van de Ven and Poole (1995) to illustrate it: “change is the observation of difference over time in one or more dimensions of an entity.”

According to Kezar (2001), theorists from a cultural and social cognition perspective would replace the word ‘observation’ with the word ‘perception’, and would examine the values and mental maps of organisational participants rather than the dimensions. Consequently, one of the striking facts is the interchangeable use by authors about the use of words, such as models and theories.

2.3 The Need for Change

By (2005), in his review of the theories and approaches to managing change, suggests that there is a consensus that change is triggered by internal or external factors, and comes in all sizes, shapes and forms, thus affecting organisations in all industries (Balogun & Hailey, 2004; Burnes, 2004; Carnall, 2003; Kotter, 2012; Luecke, 2003). The need for change can arise from changing internal or external conditions in the environment within which the organisation operates. External forces that trigger organisational change include political, technological, cultural,
demographic, economic and market factors (Child & Tsai, 2005; George & Jones, 2002). Internal forces that trigger organisational change include introduction of new technology, new people in key positions, or pressure to modify administrative structures (Dawson, 2003; Leavitt, 1964). The need for change is ever-present. As societal and economic conditions change, companies need to evolve their structures to adapt, in order to enable themselves to maintain or gain a continuous competitive advantage, which is accomplished by remaining ever vigilant and watching for needed changes in their business environment (Anderson, Klein & Stuart, 2000; Fink, Longenecker & Neubert, 2007; Longenecker & Yonker, 2013; Maurer, 2010).

According to Bourne and Bourne (2012, p. 6), “increased competition means that if you do not continually analyse what is happening in your market, and change and improve what you are doing, then you will probably be put out of business.” Change is an unavoidable function of the current business environment and requires the attention of every individual involved in the management of the organisation, including leaders and managers at all levels. Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993, p. 681) claim that due to the increasingly dynamic environments, “organisations are continually confronted with the need to implement changes in strategy, structure, process and culture.” Many theorists agree that the process of change is not completely understood (Armenakis & Bedeaian, 1999; Van de Ven & Poole, 1995) making it imperative that it continues to be investigated.

2.4 Definitions of Change Management

There are various definitions of organisational change in the extant literature derived from various disciplines, including psychology, sociology, management and
organisational studies. This section in the literature review focuses on the definitions of change management in the context of management of human resources.

As each field has its own definitions and theories of change management, the literature on organisational change does not lead to a ‘theory of change’ that is unanimously accepted (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995). Theories tend to be fragmented and shed light on only one or two aspects of the phenomenon. Most of these theories draw on the same parameters as the basis for explanation. They also stress the urgency for movement from one state to another even though the new state is always unknown and feared, and sometimes not desired by some of the people going through it. A general idea of how organisational change is understood can be crafted by studying the similarities across the different definitions provided. These were categorised by Lippit, Watson & Westley (1958) across six dimensions which continue to remain relevant:

- Outcome (goals, results, direction, improvement, renewal).
- History (cause, need, motive, context).
- Actors (roles, parties, social dimensions).
- Phases (steps, sequences, order, activities).
- Communication (interaction, cultural aspects, sense making).
- Steering (monitoring, directing, orchestrating, guiding, managing, keeping one’s awareness).

Van De Ven and Poole (1995) define organisational change as an empirical observation in an organisational entity of variations in shape, quality or state over time, after the deliberate introduction of new ways of thinking, acting and operating. An interpretation of the issue would imply that the general aim of organisational
change is the adaptation to the environment (Barr, Stimpert & Huff, 1992; Child & Smith, 1987; Leanna & Barry, 2000) or an improvement in performance (Boeker, 1997; Keck & Tushman, 1993). Cohen, Fink, Gadon and Willits (1995) state that change involves moving from the known to unknown, from relative certainty to relative uncertainty, from the familiar to the unfamiliar. This latter definition is more focused on state than outcome.

From a different perspective, Moran and Brightman (2001) define change management as the process of continually renewing an organisation’s direction, structure and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers. Complexity theorists believe that organisational change is characterised as a process that unfolds over time, involving periods of greater and lesser instability, in which the restlessness of a system is an instinctive response towards survival in a continually changing environment (Ferdig & Ludema, 2005).

Nadler and Tushman (1989) adopted a broader approach, whereby change can involve one or several components of an organisational system, or a realignment of the entire system, affecting all key sub-systems, such as strategy, work, people, and formal and informal processes and structures. This means that when the change affects a large part of the organisation, it is considered strategic in nature.

According to Bennett (2001), change might be small or large but is concerned with improvement, variation, alteration or modification. Similarly, organisational change that is fundamental, sustainable and continuous is critical to the survival, growth and effectiveness of all organisations (Burke, 2010; Herold, Fedor & Caldwell, 2007). Nickols (2000) suggests that change management has at least four basic definitions, as follows:
• the task of managing change practice;
• an area of professional practice;
• a body of knowledge; and
• a control mechanism.

Change has also been defined as the movement of an organisation from the existing plateau towards a desired future state, in order to increase organisational efficiency and effectiveness, regardless of its speed (Waddell et al. 2014; Goerge & Jones, 2002). Kotter (2011), a well-known organisational change theorist, defines change management as the utilisation of basic structures and tools to control any organisational change effort. The goal of change management is therefore to maximise an organisation’s benefits, and minimise the change impacts on workers and avoid distractions.

Other authors refer to change as an effort that consists of actual physical changes to the job or the operations of the organisation and requires different emotional stimulation (Berneth, 2004). Chonko (2004) describes change as the shifting from one stage to another and involves breaking down existing structures and creating new ones. Barnett and Carroll (1995) defined change as a transformation between two points in time, with the key ability to compare the organisation before and after the transformation.

The source of change is both internal and external pressures associated with the expansion or need of businesses to respond to challenges. Internal change factors are concerned with organisational growth, while external factors are associated with issues, such as, institutional and market volatility (Barnett & Carroll, 1995). Robinson and Clifford (1977) identified change as any planned or unplanned
alteration of the status quo, which affects the structure, technology and human resources of the total organisation.

A definition of change management for this thesis and a justification is provided later in this chapter (see section 2.11.4). Table 2.2 below draws on Lippit et al. (1958) to aggregate the definitions of organisational change in the literature.

**Table 2.2: Elements used to define organisational change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>History</th>
<th>Steering</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Actors</th>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Van de Ven and Poole (1995)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohen and Fink (1995)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moran and Brightman (2001)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferdig and Ludeman (2003)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nadler and Tushman (1989)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worley and Cummings (2014)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nickols (2000)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kotter (2011)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berneth (2004)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chonko (2004)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.5 Perspectives on Organisational Change

Perspectives on organisational change are the foundation for theoretical inspiration (Graetz et al., 2011). Researchers from different fields have developed various approaches, theories and models of organisational change, and the volume and inconsistency between the different views is confusing. According to Graetz and others (2011), part of the reason why various perspectives on organisational change have emerged is because there is no accepted and conventional definition for organisational change.

Various authors have attempted to combine and categorise change either using the diverse perspectives or metaphors of change. For instance, some authors categorise change based on its radicality (Dunphy & Stace, 1988; Gersick, 1991; Nadler & Tushman, 1989). Van De Ven and Poole (1995) base their suggestion on the outcome and process, and identify four categories: evolutionary, teleological, life-cycle and dialectical. Mintzberg and Westley (1992) proposed a framework of organisational change comprised of the following elements:

- contents and levels;
- means and processes;
- episodes and stages; and
- sequences and patterns of change.

Kezar (2001) classified the theories of change into six categories labelled as follows: (1) evolutionary, 2) teleological, 3) life cycle, 4) dialectical, 5) social cognition, and 6) cultural.
Each perspective has a distinct set of assumptions about why change occurs, how the process unfolds, when change occurs, how long it takes and the outcomes of change. These three perspectives by Kezar (2001), Mintzberg and Westley (1992), and Van De Ven and Poole (1995) offer the most comprehensive explanation of the change phenomenon, as the individual models now number over 100 and are difficult to categorise (Kezar, 2001). Table 2.3 below provides an understanding of the categories of change as per these three frameworks.

Table 2.3: Perspectives of change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Elements of categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mintzberg and Westley (1992)</td>
<td>- contents and levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- means and processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- episodes and stages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- sequences and patterns of change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van De Ven and Poole (1995)</td>
<td>- evolutionary</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- teleological</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- life-cycle</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- dialectical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kezar (2001)</td>
<td>- evolutionary</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- teleological</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- life-cycle</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- dialectical</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- social cognition</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- cultural</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The following sections provide a detailed description of these perspectives and use distinctions that clarify the various approaches and models used in change management based on the research by Kezar (2001).

2.5.1 Life-cycle

The core philosophy of the life-cycle theory is that the events progress in a linear and sequential manner so that change can be anticipated in a logical way in-line with the logical constructs of institutions. Generally, this theory has an event sequence of
start-up, grow, harvest and terminate. According to Van De Ven and Poole (1995, p. 377) the theory suggests that:

“Change is imminent; that is the developing entity has within it an underlying form, logic, program or code that regulates the process of change and moves the entity from a given point of departure toward a subsequent end that is prefigured in the present state”.

This implies that change occurs because of some underlying code that regulates progress. This also means that change events typically follow a single sequence and are cumulative in nature, such that each successive stage evolves from an earlier stage. Rules and order are the terms that are used to define processes in this case.

As a result, this theory is used to explain the development of an organisation from beginning to end (Quinn & Cameron, 1983). Various scholars have studied this aspect of organisational development and most have studied it through a specific perspective by unique sets of organisational characteristics. Consequently, the existing models range from the cognitive orientations of organisation members to organisational structures and environmental relations (Queen & Cameron, 1983). The life-cycle theory includes developmentalism, ontogenesis and stage theories of child development (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995, p. 513). Some examples of life-cycle theory models include Bales Model of group problem-solving (Bales & Strodtebeck, 1951), Cameron and Whetten’s (1983) organisational cycle, and Greiner’s (1972) model of organisation growth (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995).

Mintzberg (1992, p. 47) points out that, “each stage in organisation life-cycle is a cluster of attributes, or configurations in organisations”. The focus is on organisational growth, maturity and decline (Levy & Merry, 1986), and change is part of a stage, and is progressive and rational (Miller & Friesen, 1980). According to
Rajagopalan and Spreitzer (1996), management plays a central role and assists members of the organisation to grow through training and motivational techniques.

2.5.2 Evolutionary

According to evolutionary theory, change is best understood against the wider backdrop of life as a series of events relating to competitive survival, which are governed by natural selection processes that are inherent to every human organism (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995). Consequently, evolutionary theory has an event sequence of variation, selection and retention, and a generative mechanism of competitive selection and resource scarcity.

This theory follows a pattern of variation, selection and retention and resembles biological evolution. The main assumption is that change is dependent on circumstances, situational variables and the environment faced by each organisation (Morgan, 1986). As a result, evolution is primarily deterministic and people have only a minor impact on the nature and the direction of the change process (Kieser, 1989). Selection occurs through the competition for resources with the maintenance of some of the current or previous forms. This is a recurrent pattern that is probabilistic and progressive.

Darwinian Theory is the most recognised evolutionary theory (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995). According to Morgan (1986), the key concepts include systems, interactivity between the organisation and its environment, openness, homeostasis and evolution. Morgan (1986) suggests that the main assumption underlying evolutionary theory is that change is a response to external circumstances, institutional variables and the environment faced by each organisation. Therefore, social systems, as diversified,
interdependent and complex, evolve naturally over time because of external demands (Morgan, 1986).

2.5.3 Dialectic

The core philosophy in the dialectic approach to organisational change is that all existence is shaped by opposition and conflict, where contradiction is a natural state and can be viewed as thesis-antithesis-synthesis. Therefore, there is the existence of a generative mechanism of pluralism, confrontation and conflict. The dialectic theory begins with the assumption that the environment is filled with colliding forces, which are competing with each other for control (Kezar, 2001).

This therefore requires at least two competing entities at any given time. Change and development are explained as a balance between opposing forces. Change occurs when one force gains enough power to shake-up the status quo. Organisations pass through long periods of evolutionary change (as the dialectical between the polar opposites occur), and short periods of second-order or revolutionary change when there is an impasse between the two perspectives (Morgan, 1986). The end result is a win-lose proposition as opposed to the ideal win-win outcome.

Some theories that might employ this philosophy include conflict engagement (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995, 2005, 2007). New organisational forms or variations are understood to be created at random. Selection occurs though the competition for resources and then retention maintains some of the current or previous forms (Kezar, 2001). Dialectical models are also referred to as political models and characterise change as the result of clashing ideology or belief systems (Morgan, 1986). In this case, conflict is seen as an inherent attribute of human interaction. According to Bolman and Deal (2013), change processes are considered to be predominantly
bargaining, consciousness-raising, persuasion, influence and power, and social movements.

2.5.4 Teleological

In the teleological theory, change is enacted through goal-setting mechanisms, whereby functional organisations are adaptable to the change requirements at any given point in time (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995). The key watchwords are cooperation and consensus building. This theory comprises an event sequence of envision/set goals, implement goals, dissatisfaction, search/interact and envision/set goals. There is a generative mechanism of purposeful enactment and social construction. The teleological theory is based on the assumption that the purposes of goals are the end-state to which they are directed. As opposed to the life-cycle theory, the entities set the goal and then work toward achievement.

All activity is directed toward goal achievement, and successive goal-setting and achievement. There is no set sequence of events as in the life-cycle theory. In this theory, the process for change is rational and linear, similar to the evolutionary theory, but individual managers are much more instrumental to the process (Carnall, 1995; Carr, Hard & Trannant, 1996). The goal is set and whatever is necessary to achieve that goal becomes the process. Key aspects of the change process include planning, assessment, incentives and rewards, stakeholder analysis and engagement, leadership, scanning, strategy, restructuring and re-engineering (Brill & Worth, 1997; Carnall, 1995; Huber & Glick, 1993). The recognition of constraints imposed by the external environment is part of the teleological process. Social construction drives goal-setting and the processes to achieve those goals. Examples of teleological
theories include social construction, adaptive learning and epigenesis (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995).

2.5.5 Social cognition

Social cognition theory describes change as being tied to learning and mental processes, such as sense making and mental models. Change occurs because individuals see a need to grow, learn and change their behaviour. The most distinctive approaches within this model include the sequence sense making, organisation learning and reframing that focuses on the importance of meaning construction, and making the change meaningful at an individual level (Van De Ven & Poole, 1995).

Therefore, change in organisations is tied to appropriateness and is a reaction to cognitive dissonance (Argyris, 1994). According to Harris (1996), the social cognition theory examines how leaders shape the change process through framing and interpretation, and individuals within the organisation interpret and make sense of change.

2.5.6 Cultural

According to cultural theory, cultures are always changing, and change occurs naturally as a response to alterations in the human environment (Morgan, 1986). The change process tends to be long-term and slow. Change within an organisation entails the alteration of values, beliefs, myths and rituals (Schein, 2010). This theory shares many assumptions with social cognition theory, in that change can be planned or unplanned, regressive or progressive, and can contain intended or unintended actions and outcomes (Smirich, 1983).
Table 2.4 below provides a summary of the different theories of change, including some examples of models within each category.

Table 2.4: Summary of the theories of change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Evolutionary</th>
<th>Teleological</th>
<th>Life-cycle</th>
<th>Dialectical</th>
<th>Social cognition</th>
<th>Cultural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Why change occurs</td>
<td>External environment</td>
<td>Leaders; internal environment</td>
<td>Leaders guiding individual growth</td>
<td>Dialectical tension of values, norms or pattern</td>
<td>Cognitive dissonance; appropriateness</td>
<td>Response to alterations in the human environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process of change</td>
<td>Adaptation; slow; gradual non-intentional</td>
<td>Rational; linear; purposeful</td>
<td>Natural progression; result of training and motivation; altering habits and identity</td>
<td>First-order followed by occasional second-order; negotiation and power</td>
<td>Learning; altering paradigms or lens; interconnected and complex</td>
<td>Long-term; slow; symbolic process; nonlinear; unpredictable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes of change</td>
<td>New structures and processes</td>
<td>New structures and organising principles</td>
<td>New organisational identity</td>
<td>New organisational ideology</td>
<td>New frame of mind</td>
<td>New culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key metaphor</td>
<td>Self producing organism</td>
<td>Change master</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Social movement</td>
<td>Brain</td>
<td>Social movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>Resource dependency; strategic choice; population ecology</td>
<td>OD, strategic planning; reengineering; TQM</td>
<td>Developmental models; social psychology of change</td>
<td>Empowerment; bargaining; political change; Marxist theory</td>
<td>Single and double looped learning; paradigm shifting; sense making</td>
<td>Interpretive strategy; paradigm shifting; processual change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criticisms</td>
<td>Lack of human emphasis; determinist quality</td>
<td>Overly rational and linear; inability to explain second-order change; plasticity of people</td>
<td>Little empirical proof; deterministic character</td>
<td>Deterministic; lack of environmental concern; little guidance for leaders</td>
<td>Deemphasises environment; overemphasises ease of change; ignores values and emotion</td>
<td>Impractical to guide leaders; focus on universalistic culture; mostly untested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Environmental emphasis; systems approach</td>
<td>Importance of change agents; management techniques and strategies</td>
<td>Change related to phases; temporal aspect; focus on people throughout the organisation</td>
<td>Change not always progressive; irrationality; role of power</td>
<td>Emphasises socially constructed nature; emphasis on individuals; habits and attitudes as barriers</td>
<td>Context; irrationality; values and beliefs; complexity; multiple levels of change</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Van De Ven Poole (1995) and Kezar (2001)

### 2.6 Types of Change

This section provides an overview of some of the different types of change that are commonly used by different authors in the field, which fall under the umbrella of various typologies of change, as discussed in the previous section. Although the
factors that affect change or that trigger the process can be identified, it is not always easy to distinguish the various types of change. As a result, the literature on organisational change has dedicated a considerable amount of attention to classifying change (for example Dunphy & Stace, 1988; Nadler & Tushman, 1995; Porras & Robertson, 1992). Table 2.5 below shows how the different types of change are shared between the three different categories as per Senior’s (2002) framework.

Consequently, many authors have presented classifications of change in various forms including contingency tables. For example, Nadler and Tushman (1989) identify four types of change: tuning, adaptation, reorientation and recreation. These differ in terms of the degree of change, or the extent to which organisational systems are modified, and in the position of the change in relation to external events.

Similarly, Porras and Robertson (1992) developed a categorisation scheme based on the planning involved in the change and the degree of change. These authors identify four types of change: developmental change (planned first-order change), transformational change (planned second-order change), evolutionary change (unplanned first-order change), and revolutionary change (unplanned second-order change).

Over time, some agreement has been reached about the various types of change and it has been established that change is incremental or transformative (Mohrman, 1989; Nadler, 1988), first-order versus second-order (Bartunek & Moch, 1987; Nadler & Tushman, 1995), transformational, transitional or transactional (Ackerman, 1984; Burke, 1994), and episodic versus continuous (Weick & Quinn, 1999).

Despite this general agreement different authors have used different terminologies to describe the same approach. For example, Burnes (2004) argues that there is a
difference between incremental and continuous change in the sense that incremental change relates to departmental, operational and ongoing changes, whereas continuous change describes organisation-wide strategies and the ability for organisations to adapt to the pressure of the changes in the internal and external environments.

Nevertheless, considering the different approaches adopted by authors in various fields, one of the most popular frameworks is provided by Senior (2002) who has identified three categories of change, as follows:

- change characterised by the rate of occurrence;
- change characterised by how it comes about; and
- change characterised by scale.

Table 2.5: Categories and types of change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of change</th>
<th>Types of change</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rate of occurrence</td>
<td>- continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- discontinuous</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- incremental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- revolutionary</td>
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<tr>
<td>How it comes about</td>
<td>- planned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- emergent</td>
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<td>By scale</td>
<td>- fine-tuning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- incremental adjustment</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- modular transformation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- corporate transformation</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: the Author

The following sections provide a more detailed description of the different types of change in Senior’s (2002) framework.
2.6.1 Continuous change

Continuous change is ongoing, evolving and cumulative (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Some authors also refer to this as first-order or incremental change, it is characterised by people constantly adapting and editing ideas they acquire from different sources. This type of change involves continuous improvement, whereby the change consists of alterations or modifications on existing system characteristics. Weick and Quinn (1999) contrast episodic and continuous change, equating episodic change to Lewin’s (1951) change model of ‘unfreeze-change-freeze’, and describe continuous change as ‘freeze-balance-unfreeze’. In their discussion, Weick and Quinn (1999) state that episodic change represents a macro-level view of organisational change, whilst continuous change represents a micro-level view of organisational change. They also state that episodic change occurs when “pre-existing interdependencies, patterns of feedback, or mindsets produce inertia” (Weick & Quinn, 1999, p. 368) which occurs when rapid changes in the environment outstrip the ability of the organisation to respond. These authors also conclude that episodic change has a tendency to create ‘either-or’ thinking, since the process presupposes replacing something that exists with something new.

In addition, Weick and Quinn (1999, p. 375) contend that continuous change is emergent in nature, and “ongoing, evolving and cumulative” because it consists of “improvisation, translation and learning.” Furthermore, a continuously changing organisation is one that possesses a change repertoire that enables a proactive or reactive response to strengthen, enlarge, change, and unlearn skills and knowledge as necessary.
2.6.2 Discontinuous change

Discontinuous change is one of the three types of change identified by Grundy (1993), and is characterised by a rapid change of strategy, culture or structure, or all of these. Whilst some authors agree with this definition (Luecke, 2003; Senior, 2002), other authors describe this type of change as revolutionary (Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). Similarly, other authors refer to discontinuous change as radical transformation, and argue that undergoing such a process is a significant departure from current or existing practices and procedures, often within a relatively short space of time (Graetz, Lawrence, Rimmer & Smith, 2010).

Such change is often associated with transformational, secondary or second-order change, as it relates to the core values and the corporate identity of organisations (Palmer, Dunford & Akin, 2006). Nadler and Tushman (1990) contend that discontinuous change is detrimental to an organisation’s ability to ultimately adapt, as those organisations that initiate and implement discontinuous change more rapidly than their competitors have a competitive edge. Furthermore, they believe that companies may need to embed adaptation models into their cultures and management practices, by creating natural processes instead of event oriented approaches (Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

2.6.3 Revolutionary change

Revolutionary change, also referred to by some as discontinuous change (for example Palmer et al., 2006), is transformational and radical, and fundamentally alters the organisation at its core (Newman, 2000). Accordingly, organisations undertake such change when they experience severe external or internal disruptions that render existing organisational arrangements ineffective (Waddell et al., 2014).
As such, this type of change is systemic and revolutionary, as it represents abrupt shifts in the organisation’s structure, culture and process (Waddell et al., 2014).

This type has been confirmed in empirical research by many authors, including Tushman and Romanelli (1986), Kelly and Amburgey (1991), Miller and Chen (1994), Anderson and Tushman (1991), Goles, Hirschheim and Sabherwal (2001), Romanelli, Tushman and Virany (1992), Church & Waclawski (2002), and Beugelsdijk, Slangen and Van Herpen (2002).

External forces that trigger revolutionary change include technological, institutional or market environments, and internal forces include declines in organisational performances or major shifts in the distribution of power. As such, these forces create an emerging sense of crisis that is strong enough to overpower the existing inertial forces (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994).

2.6.4 Incremental change

Incremental change involves continuous improvement in the organisation and includes processes, such as, quality management or the implementation of a new computer system to increase efficiencies. As such, incremental change involves small changes in response to minor shifts in the environment in which the organisation operates. These changes occur within the context of the organisation’s existing business strategy, structure and culture, and are aimed at the status quo (Waddell et al., 2014).

Grundy (1993) describes incremental change as either smooth or bumpy, whereby the former evolves slowly in a systematic and predictable way, and the latter is characterised by periods of relative tranquillity punctuated by acceleration in the pace of change. According to Senior (2002), one way of categorising these forms of
incremental change is to see them as change that is associated more with the means by which an organisation achieves their goals, than as a change in the goals themselves.

### 2.6.5 Planned change

Planned change is a deliberate, conscious decision to improve the organisation in some manner, or to change the system in a deeper, more fundamental way (Bouckenooghe, 2010). This type of change is intentional and is undertaken to achieve a specific organisational goal, and can be organisation-wide (Burnes, 2009). According to Senior (2002) planned change assumes that the environment is known, and as such, a logical process of environmental analysis can be harnessed in the service of planning any change.

According to Burnes (2004), planned change can be described as consciously embarked upon and directed by an organisation, as opposed to change that might be forced on an organisation or might occur by accident. Planned change has also been referred by some authors as blueprint, top-down, rational, linear or episodic change (for example Balogun, 2006; Weick & Quinn, 1999; Marshak, 2002).

Moreover, there are many models for implementing planned change. The most common example is Lewin’s (1947) three step model, which forms the basis of this type of change. In fact, most planned organisational changes normally aim to bring improvement and effectiveness in the following four levels of the organisation: human resources, functional resources, technological capabilities and organisational capabilities (Stace & Dunphy, 1994).
2.6.6 Unplanned change or emergent change

In unplanned or emergent change, the organisation has to respond to an unanticipated external change, where the response is adaptive and spontaneous. This approach sees change as ongoing, and as an unpredictable process of aligning and realigning to a turbulent environment (Burnes, 2004). Factors, such as, environment, context, situation, depth and speed of change are considered very important.

Emergent change has gained importance in recent years as many authors (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Bouckenooghe, 2010; Boyatzis, 2006; By, 2005) have questioned and challenged the appropriateness of planned change in a dynamic environment, where the conditions of doing business are turbulent and increasingly uncertain. Consequently, different ways of thinking about and understanding change in organisations have arisen. In the traditional perspectives, using cause and effect theories in the complex sciences, researchers have tended to view change through a lens of linearity, causality relationships, deterministic doctrine and predictability or assertive sciences. Recently, alternative concepts and theories, such as, complex adaptive systems, nonlinear feedback loops, emergence and self-organisation, have challenged the traditional perspectives on organisations and organisational change (Boyatzis, 2006; Stacey, Griffin & Shaw, 2001; Grobman, 2005; McKelvey, 2004).

As such, an emergent approach to change emphasises bottom-up action, rather than top-down planning and control (Bamford & Forrester, 2003). The central theme is that the emergent approach is less reliant on defined goals and plans, and more concerned with emergent strategies and developing priorities as changing conditions dictate (Essain, Williams & Massey, 2008). Subsequently, the advocates of emergent
change come from various backgrounds and each offers their own view of how organisations should and should not manage change (Bamford & Forrester, 2003).

Hence, in the literature, there has been growing support for emergent change mainly because the majority of organisational change efforts, using planned methods and approaches, fail to achieve their objectives (Gardner, 2009; Griffith, 2002; Higgs & Rowland, 2000). Authors and scholars that support emergent change include Quinn (1980), Wilson (1992), Dawson (1994), Burnes (1996, 2004), Falconer (2002), and Bamford and Forrester (2003). Some common examples of emergent change include Jick, Kanter and Stein’s (1992) ten step model, Kotter’s (2012) eight stage process, and Luecke’s (2003) seven step model.

2.6.7 Fine-tuning

According to Senior (2002), fine-tuning is an ongoing change process that aims to match the organisation’s strategies, processes, people and structure. This type of change has also been referred to as convergent change (Nelson, 2003). The purpose is to develop personnel suited to the actual strategy of the organisation, linking the mechanisms and creating specialist units to increase volume, attention to cost and quality, and to refine policies, methods and procedures (Dunphy & Stace, 1993).

Dunphy and Stace (1993) also suggest that fine tuning changes are typically manifested at departmental or divisional levels, where organisations try to find the ‘fit’ between strategies, processes, people and structure. This involves refining policies, methods and procedures, and developing training and strategies.

Consequently, Dirks, Cummings and Pierce (1996) argue that fine-tuning allows for greater opportunities for control and ownership than are afforded by other types of change, such as, transformational change. As a result, fine-tuning may be associated
with more positive outcomes, in terms of individual well-being and affective responses, than corporate transformation.

2.6.8 Incremental adjustment

Incremental adjustment refers to organisational changes that involve direct modifications (but not radical change) to corporate business strategies, structures and management processes (Senior, 2002). Subsequently, this change entails expanding sales territory, shifting the emphasis among products, improved production process technology, articulating a modified statement of mission to employees, and adjustments to organisational structures within or across divisional boundaries to achieve better links in product or service delivery (Dunphy & Stace, 1993).

2.6.9 Modular transformation

According to Dunphy and Stace (1993), modular transformation encompasses the organisational changes that involve a major realignment of one or more departments or divisions. They also argue that this type of change involves transformation in the organisation through:

(a) restructuring particular departments and divisions;
(b) changes in key executives and managerial appointments in these areas;
(c) work and productivity studies resulting in significantly reduced or increased workforce numbers;
(d) reformed departmental and divisional goals; and
(e) introduction of new process technologies affecting key departments and divisions.
Consequently, a modular change is considered a partial and progressive change, in contrast to incremental adjustment, and can be radical. However, it focuses on part of an organisation, rather than the whole organisation (Senior, 2002).

2.6.10 Corporate transformation

According to Senior (2002), corporate transformation is organisation-wide, and is characterised by radical shifts in business strategy and revolutionary changes. Dunphy and Stace (1994) suggest that a corporate transformation could witness changes, such as:

- reformed organisational mission and core values;
- altered power and status affecting the distribution of power in the organisation;
- reorganisation, including major changes in structures, systems and procedures across the organisation;
- revised interaction patterns, including new procedures, work flows, communication networks and decision-making patterns across the organisation; and
- new executives in key managerial positions from outside the organisation.

Corporate transformation involves large-scale changes such as organizational mergers and acquisitions, restructures and downsizing efforts. As such researchers have found that corporate transformations have been associated with negative consequences among employees due to conflicts and confusion that arise which is detrimental to employees in terms of their attitudes and well-being (George & Jones, 2001; Pollard, 2001)
2.7 Models of Change

This section discusses the different models of organisational change that have been used in various fields of management. Models are different from theories as they do not predict or explain factors linked to the outcomes. However, models often draw on theories to understand a specific problem in a certain context, and may offer a framework for identifying interventions to address the factors (Kezar, 2001: Redhead, 1980; Woodward, 2003). The different models of organisational change, currently in the literature, draw on and combine various pre-existing models into larger models for conducting the change management process. A model has the power to link actions and make sense of a disturbing situation (Kaplan, 2002, p. 295)

The choice of the appropriate model depends on the situational factors, and the change practitioners or agents leading or conducting the process. The situational factors include time availability, complexity of the change, impact and outcome of the change, and level of employee resistance. According to Van De Ven and Sun (2011), selecting the most appropriate method is a crucial step in the change process and should not be marginalised during the planning stages of a change strategy. The most commonly used models of change are as follows:

1. Lewin’s three step change model.
2. Kotter’s eight phase change process model.
3. Anderson and Anderson’s change process model.
4. Armenakis and others change readiness model.
5. Action research model.

Each of these models is discussed below.
2.7.1 Lewin’s change model

Lewin’s (1951) change model is considered to be a classical organisational development approach, and as such, is grounded in modern thought. Kurt Lewin is frequently cited in literature on change management, and is considered to be the vanguard of social, organisational and applied psychology. Lewin (1951) argued that successful change management involves three stages: unfreezing the status quo, moving to a desired end-state and freezing the new change. Until recently, most change models were generally based on Lewin’s three stages of change (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Lewin’s change model assumes that change is:

a) linear and moves forward from one state to another;

b) progressive and moves towards a desired goal that initially disrupts the status quo;

b) planned and usually based on some failure within the organisation; and

d) unusual because change is infrequent and discontinuous, after which the organisation returns to a “quasi-stationary” or stable state (Marshak, 1995, pp. 61-62).

Lewin, a physicist and social scientist, explained organisational change using the analogy of changing the shape of a block of ice. Consequently, his change model is linked to force field analysis. According to Lewin, to achieve change effectively, it is necessary to identify all of the options for moving from the existing present to a desired future state, and to evaluate the possibilities of each and decide on the best option, rather than aiming for the desired goal and taking the straightest or easiest route.
In this model, Lewin encourages managers to be aware of two forces of resistance: first, resistance stemming from ‘social habit’ or ‘custom’, and second, the creation of an ‘inner resistance’ to change (Lewin, 1951). He argued that these two forces of resistance are rooted in the interplay between the group as a whole and the individuals within it (Morgan, 1997). As most individuals will want to stay within the behavioural norms of the group, individual resistance to change will increase as the person is induced to move further away from current group values (Lewin, 1951).

For Lewin, the forces of resistance can only be overcome by breaking the habits, challenging the interests or ‘unfreezing’ the customs of the group. In other words, lowering resistance involves reducing the value the group attaches to an element, or fundamentally changing what the group values. He considered the three steps of unfreezing, changing and refreezing beliefs, attitudes and values to be required to achieve change, with the initial phase of unfreezing involving group discussions in which individuals experience other views and begin to adapt their own (Burke, 2014).

Lewin’s three step change model is a powerful cognitive tool for understanding change situations. Schein (2010) subsequently adopted and improved this model by specifying the psychological mechanisms involved at each stage.

The three stages of this model (Schein, 2010) of organisational change are described below.

**Stage 1 – Becoming motivated to change (unfreezing)**

The first stage of change is built on the theory that human behaviour is established by past observational learning and cultural influences. Schein (2010) believes that learning and change has to start with dissatisfaction or frustration that disconfirm
people’s expectations or hope. The unfreezing process consists of three basic subprocesses that are essential for readiness and motivation to change to be generated (Schein, 2010).

- Disconfirmation or lack of confirmation, where present conditions lead to dissatisfaction, such as, not meeting personal goals.

- Creation of guilt or anxiety. Learning anxiety triggers defensiveness and resistance due to the pain of having to unlearn what had been previously accepted. Three responses occur: denial, scapegoat and passing the buck, and manoeuvring and bargaining.

- Provision of psychological safety. Previous beliefs now seen as invalid creates ‘survival anxiety’. However, this may not be sufficient to prompt change if learning anxiety is present.

Schein (2010) suggested that during the unfreezing stage some sense of threat, crisis or dissatisfaction is required to create motivation to start the process of unlearning and relearning.

**Stage 2 – Changing what needs to be changed (unfrozen, moving to a new state)**

The second stage involves changing through cognitive restructuring, that is, helping people to see, feel, judge and react to things differently based on a new point of view (Schein, 2010). Once there is sufficient dissatisfaction with the current conditions and there exists a genuine desire to enact change, it is necessary to identify exactly what needs to be changed. There are three possible impacts from processing new information:

- words take on new or expanded meaning;
• concepts are interpreted within a broader context; and
• there is an adjustment in the scale used to evaluate new input.

A precise view of the new state is required to clearly identify the gap between the present state and that being proposed. Activities that aid the change include imitating role models and looking for personalised solutions through trial-and-error learning.

Stage 3 – Making the change permanent (refreezing)

In the final stage, new behaviour becomes habitual, which includes developing a new self-concept and identity, and establishing new interpersonal relationships. The main objective of this stage of the process is to ensure that the new behaviour is congruent with the behaviour and personality of the learner (Schein, 2010). This therefore reinforces the new process in order to prevent rescinding of the change, and is concluded by a period of new equilibrium (Lewin, 1948, p. 4).

2.7.2 Kotter’s change process model

Kotter’s (1995, 2012) change process model is guided by the principles of leadership and involves eight phases for creating major change. Each phase in this model acknowledges a key principle that is related to the responses and approaches of individuals to change, in which people see, feel and then change.

According to Kotter (1995, 2012), it is important to proceed through the phases in sequence. Each phase requires a considerable length of time, and skipping phases only creates illusions of speed and never produces satisfactory results. Hence, making mistakes in any of the phases could have a devastating impact, slow momentum and negate hard-won gains (Kotter, 2012). According to Kotter (1995, 2012) four functions are essential to implement change using a top-down approach;
setting a vision that should be consistent with the market and other external realities associated with the organisation;

setting strategies to achieve that vision;

aligning people by communicating the vision both inside and outside the organisation; and

inspiring action by motivating and influencing people, and eliminating large obstacles.

This model emphasises leadership skills, and affirms that understanding and managing change forms an integral part of effective leadership. Accordingly, leadership should seek to change what individuals do, and if effective, can change what individuals think and believe (Kotter, 1995, 2012). Each of the eight phases in the change process model are described below (Kotter, 1995, 2012).

Phase 1 – Creating a sense of urgency

Individuals in the organisation should be made aware of the importance of the change process. Leaders should motivate and encourage workers to participate in the process. The sense of urgency for change could be created by communicating the actual situation of the organisation, such as, its financial state, and the possible benefits of implementing the change process, such as, the future growth.

Phase 2 – Building a powerful coalition

A group of individuals with power, expertise, credibility and leadership is needed to guide the vision and sell the vision to others. This guiding coalition should build and help increase the levels of trust among employees by promoting shared objectives.
Phase 3 – Establishing a clear vision and strategy

A clear vision and the appropriate strategies to achieve success are needed to increase commitment and motivation among employees. The leader works with a group to build a picture of success through the vision by using concepts, such as, brainstorming, strategic thinking and initiative. This creates a compelling vision of the future that will help to provide proper guidance for the change process to occur.

Phase 4 – Communicating the vision through numerous channels

Initiators of change communicate the vision by using all means, keeping it simple by using metaphors, repeating the message and listening to people. This is a difficult and challenging task to have followers accept the vision and it is important to use every possible vehicle to communicate effectively.

Phase 5 – Empowering employees

For the process to occur smoothly, managers should put in place the appropriate structure for change and continually check for any barriers. One way to make this possible is to empower employees, which includes encouraging risk-avert and non-traditional ideas and actions. Moreover, removing obstacles and structural barriers can empower the individuals needed to execute the vision and move forward in the change process.

Phase 6 – Planning and creating short-term wins

When individuals feel that the change process is producing results the level of motivation throughout the organisation is boosted. Therefore, it is essential to plan and create short-term wins, and make the results visible to everyone to inspire belief in the process. It is also important to recognise and reward those involved in successful steps, which will increase commitment among the employees.
**Phase 7 – Building on the change**

Many change projects fail because victory is declared too early. The short-term wins gained in the previous phase are only the beginning of the task that should be completed to achieve long-term change. Managers should use credibility to change policies and procedures that do not fit the vision. To consolidate the improvements, leaders should recruit and promote employees who can implement the vision.

**Phase 8 – Incorporating changes into the culture**

Institutionalising the new approach ensures that the new behaviours will lead to organisational success. Leaders of organisations undergoing change should anchor the changes in organisational culture. Moreover, skipping steps only creates an illusion of speed and never produces a satisfying result. Finally, managers should avoid critical mistakes during any of the phases, as these could have devastating impacts on the process by slowing momentum and negating previous gains.

### 2.7.3 Anderson and Anderson’s change process model

This model, developed by Anderson and Anderson in the 1990s, addresses transformation as a continuous process and has three phases: upstream, downstream and midstream. The process begins with a wakeup call to leadership, where the vision and values during the transformation determine the gap that must be closed between the current state of the organisation and the desired future values (Anderson and Anderson, 2001, 2010). The three phases in this process are described below (Anderson and Anderson, 2001, 2010).

**Phase 1 – Upstream change**

Leaders prepare to lead the change by assessing the capacity of the organisation to succeed in the change. In this phase, leaders create the organisational vision and set
the ideal conditions for positive employee involvement, thus increasing the commitment level. The assessment includes determining the design requirements and modelling the desired culture through the use of critical leadership decisions that act as a catalyst for the change effort.

**Phase 2 – Midstream change**

In this phase, the design of the desired state occurs. This is developed and tested by analysing its impact, and further plans are created to co-ordinate its implementation precisely. Leaders encourage employee participation and ensure that the purpose of change is well understood, which builds further commitment and increases the readiness and capacity for the change to occur.

**Phase 3 – Downstream change**

In this phase, the change is implemented and integrated in the new desired state of the organisation. This phase of the process is dependent on the two previous phases, as the effective management of the upstream and midstream phases ensures that the implementation and integration occurs smoothly. As such, this model is primarily about change leadership competency and includes factors, such as, leadership and decision-making styles, communication skills, inter-relationships with the various stakeholders, and most importantly leadership capability and experience.

According to Anderson (2001, 2010), an effective change process model guides activities towards a desired outcome. The process establishes direction, builds momentum, and articulates the sequence and order of activities. He further states that transformation requires a model that attends to the organisational and technological, and human and cultural factors. Finally, Anderson (2001, 2010) suggests that the leaders conducting the transformation should use facilitative and
participative approaches, and should be inclined to coach people to make the change successful.

2.7.4 Armenakis et al. readiness model

Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) and Armenakis and Harris (2002) established a model that includes elements of Lewin’s (1947) work and Bandura’s (1986) Social Learning Theory. The institutionalisation of the change model was developed by Armenakis et al. (1993; Armenakis and Harris, 2002)) to provide leaders with a set of strategies to create readiness for change initiatives. This guides members to adopt the change and eventually institutionalise the change initiative into the culture of the organisation.

The model developed by Armenakis et al. (1993, 2002) is a conceptualisation of change, as presented in Lewin’s (1947) three step change model, but describes the change process as readiness, adoption and institutionalisation. Moreover, these authors consider employee readiness as the cognitive precursor to the behaviours that support the change effort, which is reflected in the willingness of members to adopt the change (Armenakis et al., 1993). According to this model, employee readiness is influenced by factors such as the nature of the message transmitted, the change agent attributes (including expertise, trustworthiness, credibility and sincerity), and the interpersonal attributes and social dynamics of organisational members.

Although the Armenakis et al. (1993, 2002) model originated from Lewin’s model, the way the change process is perceived is not similar at all. They assert that the unfreezing step is the process of creating readiness to change (Armenakis et al., 1993). The second step, the moving (adoption) phase, involves organisational members shifting from the old inappropriate behaviours to adopting new desired
behaviours, whereby the shift occurs through changes in organisational structures and processes. The freezing (institutionalisation) phase occurs, as Lewin (1947) had argued, when the organisation reaches a new state of equilibrium. The new behaviours are made permanent by the setting up of norms, policies and structures or even altering the organisation’s culture (Armenakis et al, 1993).

Armenakis et al. (1993, 2002) identified three strategies for conveying a change message: active participation, persuasive communication and management of information and five change message components: discrepancy, efficacy, appropriateness, principal support and personal valence. Armenakis et al. (1993) describe this model as comprising several factors that influence an employee’s beliefs, attitudes and intentions in relation to readiness for change. In addition, employee readiness may also be influenced by unplanned media information, existing organisational conditions and significance of the change effort. These authors suggested that readiness for change is the cognitive precursor to employee behaviours that either support, or resist, a specific change initiative (Armenakis et al., 1993). The steps involved in the Armenakis et al. (1993, 2002) model are as follows:

**Step 1 – Persuasive communication**

According to Armenakis et al. (1993, 2002) persuasive communication involves transmitting the message components to change recipients using tactics such as making speeches, sending memos. Such type of communication is a means for a change agent to directly communicate the change message through primarily verbal means, for example, persuasive speeches by change agents or printing informative articles in employee newsletters.
Step 2 – Active participation by those affected

A way of getting change targets involved in the change effort and providing a visceral connection to the desired goals. This step involves adoption and active embracing of the change by the employees. At this point, employees are expected to act in new ways through vicarious learning, enactive mastery and participative decision-making. According to the model, leaders can engage employees in active participation tactics that foster “learning by doing” (Armenakis et al., 1993, 2002). Additionally, active participation is an essential influence strategy as it incorporates self-discovery and establishes ownership in the change (Armenakis, Brown & Mehta, 2011).

Step 3 – Management of internal and external information

According to Armenakis et al. (2011) management of internal and external information can take many forms. Management of information is an important tool as it helps to support and reinforce the change (Armenakis et al., 2002). Change recipients are reassured when they are provided with evidence that the organisation’s productivity and profitability have improved (Armenakis et al., 2011)

2.7.5 Action research model

Kurt Lewin coined the term Action Research in the 1940s, and other authors, such as, Argyris and Schon (1996), further developed the model. As such, action research is a model that is used as a means of implementing organisational change especially in complex social situations where the people whose lives or circumstances are being changed need to be involved in designing and implementing the change that affects them (Burns, 2007; Parkin, 2009; Somekh, 2006).
The action research model includes a combination of changing not only attitudes and behaviour, but also testing the change method being utilised (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Collier, 1945; French, 2009; Lewin, 1945, 1951; McShane & Von Glinow, 2005; Schein, 1980). Action research has been viewed as cyclical in nature (Mertler & Charles, 2011), and data gathering after action is relayed to key clients or groups to allow for re-diagnosis and new action (Waddell et al., 2014).

Action research is a cyclical process in which initial research about the organisation provides information to guide subsequent action. Hence, in the initial stage, the change process is action-oriented because the ultimate goal is to make change happen. The second stage involves trying different frameworks in a real situation to verify whether or not the theories work, or applying the various theories in various situations that require change. The process of action research is first to diagnose a need for change (unfreezing), then to introduce an intervention (moving), and finally to evaluate and stabilise change (refreezing). This is consistent with Lewin’s (1951) three step change model.

Action research uses iterative cycles of research and action, and places heavy emphasis on data gathering and diagnosis to guide subsequent action. The approach involves considerable collaboration between organisational members and the practitioners of the change process, placing importance on action planning and careful evaluation of results after action has occurred.

According to Waddell et al. (2014), there are eight stages in the action research model:

- Problem identification.
- Consultation with a behavioural science expert.
• Data gathering and preliminary diagnosis.
• Feedback to a key client or group.
• Joint diagnosis of the problem.
• Joint action planning.
• Action.
• Data gathering after action.

The action research model underlies most current approaches to planned change and is often considered synonymous with Organisational Development (Waddell et al. 2014).

As the literature of organisational change management is vast, it would be impossible and unrealistic for the researcher to review the entire body of literature. Therefore, the following section considers the approaches adopted by various authors through the evolution of the change management process and presents an overview of the range of views on the topic of organisational change management, in order to better understand this topic. This analysis has helped the researcher craft the research questions and sub-questions and the next section also further clarifies these.

2.8 Range of Views on Change Management

This section provides a summary of the various views of authors in the field of change management on the classification and interpretation of the types of changes. Many of these views are interrelated, and some draw on or continue from the research of previous scholars on the phenomenon of organisational change. This summary includes the following terms and concepts of change:

a) Developmental, transitional and transformational change.
b) Morphostatic and morphogenetic change.
c) Operational and strategic change.
d) Change and systems thinking.
e) Stages of development.
f) Punctuated equilibrium.
g) Radical change.
h) Contingency approach.
i) Chaos theory.

Each of these terms and concepts are elaborated below.

### 2.8.1 Developmental, transitional and transformational change

Various authors have described change in relation to the extent and scope of change. Ackerman (1997) distinguishes between three types of change: developmental, transitional and transformational.

Developmental change can be planned or emergent, and can also be first-order or incremental. It deals with improving or enhancing an existing situation in an organisation and usually focuses on improving skills or processes. According to Gilley and Maycunich (2000) involves scanning the internal and external environments continuously and creating a work environment that rewards individual innovation, growth and development. Developmental change aims at creating a culture of building competitive advantage through continuous dynamic yet manageable change (Gilley et al., 2009).

Transitional change seeks to achieve a state that is different from the existing one and is most desired by the organisation. Gilley, Gilley and McMillan (2009) suggest that such type of change improves the current state through minor, gradual changes
in people, structure, procedures, or technology. Transitional change is also episodic, planned and second-order or radical. The transitional change model is considered the basis of most organisational change literature (Beckard, 1987, 1989; Kanter, 1983; Nadler & Tushman, 1989). This originated in the work of Lewin (1951) who conceptualised change as a three stage process: unfreezing, moving and refreezing.

Transformational change is radical or second in nature and requires a shift in the assumptions of the organisation and its members (Kuhn, 1970). The transformation occurs within an organisation, which can differ in terms of structure, processes, culture and strategy. Transformational change is “deep and pervasive” affecting the whole organisation and involves changing the assumptions and institutional behaviours (Kezar & Eckel, 2002a). This can also lead to the creation of an organisation that operates in a developmental mode where it continuously learns, adapts and improves. Transformational change helps organisations to increase competitiveness and differentiate in the market (Denning, 2005)

2.8.2 Morphostatic and morphogenic change

Smith and Tranfield (1991) distinguish between morphostatic and morphogenic change. Morphostatic change refers to adapting to a status quo position, and involves deciding which parameters need adjustment to return to a steady state. Morphogenic change involves finding new and more appropriate organisational forms.

2.8.3 Operational and strategic change

DeWit and Meyer (2005) differentiate between operational and strategic change. Operational change is the most common type of change found organisations and focuses on enhancing the performance of the organisation within the limits of the current system in order to align it with the environment. Strategic change focuses on
altering the alignment of the organisation with its environment (Rajagopalan & Spreitzer, 1996). It therefore involves a shift in structures and processes, and a reorientation of the mission and purpose of the organisation (Fiss & Zajac, 2006). According to DeWit and Meyer (1988), operational changes are necessary to maintain the business and organisational systems, and strategic changes are directed at renewing them.

2.8.4 Change and systems thinking

The literature on organisational change theories implicitly or explicitly includes assumptions about the nature of an organisation and its relationship with its environment. Dooley (1997), Hage (1999) and Haveman (2000) articulate this relationship for some organisational change theories that are influential in the literature. An organisation may be seen as:

- An ‘organism’ that adjusts or evolves in response to fluctuations or contingencies in the environment and simultaneously influences its environment. In stable and certain situations mechanistic organisational forms are appropriate, and in unstable and uncertain markets an organic organisational form is more appropriate.

- An ‘entity’ that must adapt to its environment through testing in a Darwinian sense. Firms with inferior structures and/or practices die in a resource-constrained competition, and both planned and unplanned variation is introduced in a cycle of variation-selection retention.

- An ‘institution’ that influences and is influenced by its context
- Defined by its ability to change its information-processing capabilities. Due to bounded rationality, heuristics are seen as dominating organisational decision-making and thus organisational change.

- ‘Political’, whereby those departments or occupations that handle the major contingency facing the organisation will become the dominant coalition and exert their power to maintain dominance. A variant of this is resource dependency theory.

Theories about change at the individual level underlie much of the thinking about how change at the organisational level is accomplished. Bennis and others (1985) group available change mechanisms into the strategies that reflect the different theories about how individuals can be induced to change. These are as follows:

- Educative/empirical-rational strategies, which posit that individuals, guided by reason, will utilise some rational calculus of self-interest to determine needed changes in behaviour. Knowledge is a major ingredient of power in these strategies.

- Normative/persuasive strategies, which posit that individuals are guided by internalised meanings, habits and values. These strategies emphasise the importance of balancing knowledge about technologies and systems with knowledge and understanding of non-cognitive determinants of behaviour, including processes of persuasion and collaboration.

- Power-coercive strategies, which emphasise political and economic sanctions, and regulatory strategies as ways to amass political and economic power behind change goals. These strategies include non-
violent protests, use of political institutions, and the manipulation of the alignment and composition of the power elite.

2.8.5 Stages of development

Greiner (1998) proposes an organisational life cycle approach to change. In this, an organisation undergoes distinct, identifiable and predictable stages of development in which periods of prolonged growth, evolutionary stages, are interspersed with periods of upheaval and crisis, revolutionary stages. Greiner maintains that the new practices that emerge from a revolutionary stage are incorporated in the subsequent evolutionary stage, ultimately leading to the next revolutionary stage.

2.8.6 Punctuated equilibrium

In contrast to Greiner’s (1998) organisational life cycle, Gersick (1991) contends that individual systems of the same type do not necessarily develop along the same path, and that changing a system does not necessarily move it in a forward direction. Gersick (1991, p. 12) claims that:

“…punctuated equilibria are not smooth trajectories toward pre-set ends because both the specific composition of a system and the ‘rules’ governing how its parts interact may change unpredictably during the revolutionary punctuations”.

In addition, Romanelli and Tushman (1994, p. 1141) state:

“Punctuated equilibrium theory depicts organisations as evolving through relatively long periods of stability (equilibrium periods) in their basic patterns of activity that are punctuated by relatively short bursts of fundamental change (revolutionary periods)”.

Greiner (1998), Gersick (1991), and Romanelli and Tushman (1994) view evolution and revolution similarly, in that, they identify periods of equilibrium interspersed with bursts of fundamental change.
2.8.7 Radical change

Greenwood and Hinings (1996, p. 1024) define radical change as a fundamental reorientation of an organisation, whilst convergent change is “fine-tuning an existing orientation.” They discuss whether radical change is achieved through evolutionary or revolutionary means, and surmise that the capacity of an organisation to act is a key enabler for radical change.

2.8.8 Contingency approach

Burnes and Stalker (1961) emphasise the contingent relationship between an organisation and its environment, and the need to adapt to its environment. In contrast to both the planned and emergent approaches to change management, the basic tenet of the contingency approach is that there is more than ‘one best way’ to change. However, although contingency theory has contributed significantly to organisational design theory, it has not had the same impact on change management theory (Bate, 1994; Burnes, 1996). However, in North America and Australia, a rational model of change based on a contingency approach has prevailed (Dawson, 1994).

Dunphy and Stace (1993) proposed a model of organisational change strategies and developed methods to place an organisation within that model. They maintain that their model reconciles the opposing views of the planned and emergent theoretical protagonists.

One can argue that the planned and emergent approaches to change management are equally valid but apply to different organisational circumstances. For example, an organisation facing constant and significant environmental changes may find an emergent approach to change management more appropriate than a planned
approach. Thus, a model of change could embrace a number of approaches, with the most suitable approach being determined by the environment of the organisation. The resultant continuum is depicted in the following diagram, as adapted from Burnes (1996, p. 197).

**Environment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stable</th>
<th>Turbulent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Emergent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2.1: Continuum showing the interaction between the organisation and its environment. (Adapted from Burnes, 1996, p.197)*

Therefore, the contingency approach is a rejection of the ‘one best way’ approach espoused by the majority of change management protagonists. This approach infers that an organisation is ‘contingent’ on the situational variables it faces, and therefore, an organisation must adopt the most appropriate change management approach.

### 2.8.9 Chaos theory

Fitzgerald (2002, p. 339) has described chaos theory as, “the science of complex, dynamic, non-linear, co-creative and far from equilibrium systems.” According to this theory, effective organisations operate at the edge of chaos, pursuing ongoing improvement by a process that resembles self-organisation. Fitzgerald (2002) regards chaos theory as the science of 21st century management, and identifies five core properties: consciousness, connectivity, indeterminacy, emergence and dissipation. Thus, understanding the application of chaos theory would help organisations
comprehend and cope with the challenges of profound change in the increasingly turbulent marketplace.

2.9 Change management research in Mauritius

There is limited empirical evidence on change management in Mauritius or in other similar small island economies. No published literature that can be used to inform future research has been identified. This is a perspective that has been largely overlooked, although much has been written about topics related to organisational change in various parts of the world, addressing different cultures, and work ethics and values. These will be returned to later in this chapter. Examination of the literature has shown that there is a considerable gap in scholarly research on change management in the context of Mauritius. An appropriate model or framework will enhance the change management mechanisms existing in Mauritius as the contextual factors and how they influence change projects in a multi-cultural country will be revealed.

2.9.1 The role of literature in a grounded theory approach

While some proponents of Grounded Theory express a preference for limited use of the literature, several authors have identified the role of the literature in the development of a grounded theory study. Strauss and Corbin (2008) and other authors have supported the use of literature in a GTM approach. According to Dunne (2011), a literature review can; (a) provide a cogent rationale for a study, including a justification for a specific research approach (McGhee et al., 2007; Coyne & Cowley, 2006); (b) help to contextualise the study (McCann & Clark, 2003a), orient the researcher (Urquhart, 2007) and reveal how the phenomenon has been studied to date (Denzin and Lincoln, 2013; McMenamin, 2006); (c) ensure the study has not already been done (Chiovitti & Piran, 2003) while simultaneously highlighting pertinent
lacunae in existing knowledge (Creswell, 2013; Hutchinson, 1993); (d) help the researcher develop ‘sensitising concepts’ (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; McCann & Clark, 2003a), gain theoretical sensitivity (McCann & Clark, 2003b; McGhee et al., 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1998), avoid conceptual and methodological pitfalls (McGhee et al., 2007) and become aware of, rather than numb to, possible unhelpful preconceptions (Maijala, Paavilainen, & Astedt-Kurki, 2003); (e) promote ‘clarity in thinking about concepts and possible theory development’ (Henwood & Pidgeon, 2006, p. 350); (f) leave the researcher open to criticism by not informing oneself about relevant literature at an early stage.

Additionally, O’Leary (2005) and Rowley and Slack (2004) have argued that the literature review helps by; informing the researcher and the study about a subject; supporting discussion of the subject using appropriate language and correct terminology; supporting the development of research questions and hypotheses; facilitating validation of the research and researcher; directing the research to make a contribution to an existing body of literature; providing context for research; contributing to a bibliography; suggesting useful research methods; providing a context and mechanisms for analysing and interpreting results.

This literature review offers evidence that there is substantial scope for research to analyse organisational change in the private sector in the context of Mauritius. The review also identifies the current gaps in knowledge and helps to provide a rationale for the proposed research (Hutchinson, 1993). More importantly, the initial review of the literature was imperative because it provided justification to the researcher for utilizing a grounded theory study.
2.9.2 Use of the Literature in search for key dimensions for change

As this study makes use of Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) model of grounded theory, the literature review helped to identify the issues that were central to change management practices. The review was also useful to discover the existing gap in the base of knowledge in this field. At one point, the extant literature was used in conjunction with the responses from the first batch of interviews to identify the key dimensions for change.

Strauss and Corbin (2008) provide a list (non-exhaustive), which shows how the technical literature may be used in a grounded theory research, as follows:

- It can be a source for making comparisons.
- It can enhance sensitivity.
- It can provide a cache of descriptive data with very little interpretation.
- It can provide questions for initial observations and interviews.
- It can be used to stimulate questions during the analysis.
- It can suggest areas for theoretical sampling.
- It can be used to confirm findings, which can be used to illustrate where the literature is incorrect, simplistic or partially explains a phenomenon.

According to Dunne (2011), the review of existing research resembles what McMenamin (2006, p. 134) terms the “geography of a subject”, and is central to the formulation and justification of the research questions.

The following section provides a description of the factors that have an impact on change management which might be relevant in small island economies. These
factors have been labelled the ‘key dimensions for change’ and are included in the following discussion.

2.10 The Key Dimensions for Change in this Research

An organisation can either instigate or submit to change, but either way it must change (Burnes, 2004). Changes in the business environment are driven by developments in technology, socio-political conditions, culture and globalisation. Effective change management is thus a critical aspect of most organisations (Weber & Weber, 2001). This section analyses the various factors that were deemed important by the interviewees in this research.

2.10.1 Organisational structure

Organisational structure describes the framework through which the overall work of the organisation is subdivided to support the implementation of strategic decision-making and operational processes. Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009) indicate that structures relate to the nature of the formal and informal differentiation and integration of tasks within an organisation. Other authors have stated that organisational structure includes the nature of formalisation, layers of hierarchy, levels of horizontal integration, centralisation of authority (locus of decision-making), and patterns of communication (Damanpour, 1987, 1991; Germain, Droge & Daugherty, 1994; Dewar & Werbel, 1979; Gerwin & Kolodny, 1992; Ruekert, Walker Jr & Roering, 1985; Swamidass & Newell, 1987; Walton, 1985).

An appropriate structure helps the organisation to operate in its business environment. Changes in the environment will normally affect the organisational structure, and similarly, the structure will affect the organisation’s ability to manage change. For example, the advocates of emergent change believe that organisations
need flexible structures to deal with a pattern of continuous change. Therefore, an
effective organisational structure needs to fit the conditions of the time (Drucker,
2005). In fact, organisational structures denote the way responsibility and power are
allocated, and work procedures are carried out among organisational members (Blau,
1970; Dewar & Werbel, 1979; Germain, 1996; Gerwin & Kolodny, 1992; Ruekert et
al., 1985; Walton, 1985).

Various authors have viewed organisational structure using different dimensions. For
example, Schein (1971) identifies three dimensions, namely, the hierarchical
dimension, the functional dimension, and the dimension of inclusion and centrality.
Other authors, such as, Daft (1995), have been more specific and refer to elements,
such as, work specialisation, departmentalisation, chain of command, span of control,
centralisation and formalisation. Organisations differ on these dimensions, and thus
have different structures.

The dynamic business environment has forced leaders of organisations to think about
how to redesign or restructure their organisations, which has led to profound changes
in organisational structure (Anthony, Lapointe, Belanger & Murray, 2013). However,
in some cases, redesigning or remodelling organisational structures has proved to be
detrimental as indicated by the failure of numerous downsizing and organisational
change efforts, where some structures may not be effectively reversible (Appelbaum,
2013; Appelbaum, Everard & Hung, 1999; McKinley, 1992).

Organisational structure is an element with multiple dimensions. However,
mechanistic and organic structural forms are the most prevalent distinction for
describing fundamental differences in organisational structure in the literature (Burns
& Stalker, 1961; Slevin & Covin, 1997; Stopford & Baden-Fuller, 1994).
External pressure and competition force organisations to abandon mechanistic organisational forms and to design more flexible structures (Gullov, 2006; Hassard, McCann & Morris, 2006; Schiling & Steensma, 2001). In addition, the need for organisational flexibility to accommodate a changing world is well understood (Englehardt & Simmons, 2002).

Consequently, organisational change efforts often involve moving from traditional, hierarchical structures toward flat, flexible types of organisations (Damanpour, 1996; De Canio, Dibble & Amir-Atefi, 2000; De Sanctis, Glass & Ensing, 2002). As such, organisations with relatively flat and flexible structures are widely believed to be superior to bureaucratic structures that are more traditional and hierarchical, both in terms of performance and the ability to undertake change processes (Handel, 2014).

Change management has been related to organisational structures by researchers according to contingency theory. Therefore, organisational structures should be designed to fit with factors such as the environment, organisation size, technology and organisation strategy. The notion of fit has long been associated with structural contingency theory (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967), which has tended to emphasize environment–structure relationships. Similarly, Shields (1997) states that some of the potential drivers of change are factors such as competition, technologies, organisational design and strategies.

Dirks et al. (1996) point to revolutionary changes that aim to challenge the existing structure and rebuild a new one. Similarly, Armenakis et al. (1993, p. 681) argue that “organisations are continually confronted with the need to implement changes in strategy, structure, process and culture” because of increasingly dynamic environments. Therefore, any structural change should be influenced by changes in
these situational factors and the organisation’s effectiveness is dependent on how they respond to these contingencies.

2.10.2 Organisational culture

The concept of organisational culture was popularised in the early 1980s, although its roots can be traced to the human relations view of organisations that originated in the 1940s. In the late 1970s, Pettigrew (1979, pp. 570-581) openly talked about ‘organisational culture’, and described it as “a system of generally accepted collective meanings, which operate for a concrete group on certain occasions.” Pettigrew (1979) developed the concept of culture by combining two different conceptual standpoints within the framework of organisational behaviour theory. Hence, he grouped the symbolism of cognitive anthropology, and the views of historical and sociological studies to derive the concept of organisational culture. In doing so, he introduced concepts, such as, language, belief, values, rituals and ideology.

Consequently, during the 1980s and 1990s, many organisations and leaders perceived the concept of organisational culture as the single most important element in organisational success. Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv and Sanders (1990) identified seven characteristics to describe the phenomenon of organisational culture, as follows:

1) Culture refers to ways of thinking, values and ideas of things, rather than the concrete, objective and more visible part of an organisation.

2) Culture is holistic and refers to phenomena that cannot be reduced to single individuals; culture involves a larger group of individuals.
3) Culture is inert and difficult to change; people tend to hold on to their ideas, values and traditions.

4) Culture is a socially constructed phenomenon; culture is a human product and is shared by people belonging to various groups. Different groups create different cultures, so it is not human nature that dictates culture.

5) Culture is soft, vague and difficult to catch; it is genuinely qualitative and does not lend itself to easy measurement and classification.

6) Culture is characterised by terms, such as, ‘myth’, ‘ritual’, ‘symbols’ and similar anthropological terms.

7) Culture is historically related; it is an emergent phenomenon, and is conveyed through traditions and customs.

Consequently, there has been continuous study in this field since the time organisational culture became prominent. Some of the studies include those carried out in the field of national culture (Adler, 1991; Hofstede, 1994; Kluckholn and Strodtbeck, 1961) and organisational culture (Gagliardi, 1986; Hatch, 1993; Smircich, 1985; Schein, 2010; Weber, 1968, 1978). Culture is important to many organisations, as there are cultural differences between countries and between organisations that affect the application of change management processes. In this context, Hofstede (1993, pp. 253-270) suggests that in various countries, “not only do the management practices vary, but also the entire concepts of management could differ.” The theories could be interpreted differently in countries with a different national culture and history. The notion of national culture has been explained by Hofstede (1980, p. 21-23):

“Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. This
programming of the mind is developed early in life and contains components of national culture due to societal influence”.

In order to study the relationship between organisational culture and change management process in private sector organisations in Mauritius, this thesis has used the framework of national culture provided by Hofstede E (1990).

2.10.2.1 Hofstede’s cultural framework

Hofstede (2001) identifies five national culture dimensions, namely, power distance, collectivism / individualism, masculinity / femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. He used these five dimensions to measure the differences between cultures. In fact, these work-related cultural dimensions have been regarded as a paradigm in the field of cross-cultural studies in many parts of the world. The following sections describe the five dimensions of organisational culture as per Hofstede’s (2001) framework, after which the choice of the latter will be considered.

2.10.2.1.1 Power distance

The power distance dimension refers to the power inequality between superiors and subordinates. Organisations with high power distance have very obvious hierarchical structures, where there is a clear line between managers and subordinates. In contrast, organisations with low power distance tend to have a flat organisational structure.

2.10.2.1.2 Uncertainty avoidance

The uncertainty avoidance dimension refers to people’s tolerance of ambiguity. Organisations with high uncertainty avoidance tend to use more written rules to reduce uncertainty. In contrast, organisations with low uncertainty avoidance make use of fewer written rules and rituals.
2.10.2.1.3 Collectivism / individualism

The collectivism / individualism dimension refers to people’s value of themselves and the groups or organisations that they belong to. People with high individualistic values tend to care about self-actualisation and career progress in the organisation. In contrast, people with low individualistic values tend to value organisational benefits more than their own interests.

2.10.2.4 Masculinity / femininity

The masculinity / femininity dimension defines the gender roles in organisations. In organisations with high masculinity tendencies, very few women gain higher-level and better-paying jobs. In contrast, in organisations with low masculinity, women have more opportunities due to an enhanced equitable organisational status.

2.10.2.1.5 Long-term orientation

The final cultural dimension, termed Confucian Work Dynamic by Hofstede and others (1990), includes four items: 1) ordering relationship, 2) thrift, 3) persistence, and 4) having a sense of shame. These dimensions represent the Confucian values in Chinese society.

This final dimension has not been used in this research for various reasons due to the fact that it has not been commonly used by researchers as a research instrument. Long/Short term orientation as a dimension for national culture does not seem to have been accepted by the cross cultural research community (Fang, 2003). Various authors have criticised this dimension and described it as difficult to understand and unfamiliar (Newman and Nollen, 1996); irrelevant (Redpath and Nielsen, 1997) due to the difficulty to differentiate between the two spectrums being “unclear and
contradictory”; ambiguous and confusing (Signorini, Wisemes & Murphy, 2009). For these reasons this research has not used the Long/Short Term orientation dimension.

The importance of culture is a dominant influence on the whole of organisational life. Schwartz and Davis (1981, p. 35) state that, “Culture is capable of blunting or significantly altering the intended impact of even well thought-out changes in an organisation.” Moreover, the national culture within which the organisation is rooted can have a powerful influence on the reaction of members to change.

This study can help to understand how interventions are designed in the small island economies to account for the cultural values and assumptions held by organisation members. As most of the studies mentioned above have been applied to industries and organisations in Western countries, it would be useful to know whether the methods used in these countries work for the small countries. The information obtained here will help future research in this field.

2.10.2.2 Justification for using Hofstede’s cultural framework

Various authors have written extensively about national culture and have provided models that have been widely accepted and adopted. Well-known researchers who have contributed to cultural studies include Adler (1983, 1995, 2002), Hall (1960), Harris and Moran (1996), Hofstede (1984, 2001), House and Javidan (2004), Khuklohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Ronen and Shenkar (1985) Shane (1992), Schein (1996), Schwartz (1994), Triandis (1993, 1994) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Tumer (1998). Most of these studies have commonalities and have mostly been an extension of previous research. For instance Trompenaars (1996) study followed
Hofstede’s (1984) initial research on national culture, although there are some clear differences in their models.

Hofstede’s (1984, 2001) cultural framework has been used in a range of different research paradigms in fields such as leadership, communication, corporate culture, cross cultural psychology, hospitality management and international management. Despite the fact that his work has been frequently cited by researchers in the past few decades there has also been various studies that have criticised the applicability of his work. Some authors (McSweeney, 2002; Peterson, 2003) have even criticised the originality of the framework in addition to its applicability to nations internationally.

This study has used Hofstede’s dimensions of national culture for studying work-related cultural values in private sector organisations in Mauritius. Although Mauritius is not cited in the table of countries ratings on Hofstede’s dimension, there are various reasons to justify its use and specific applicability for this research.

The first reason for using the Hofstede’s framework is that it has already been used previously to carry out a cross cultural study in the Hospitality industry in Mauritius (see Lee-Ross, 2004). The author used this dimension to explore the motivational antecedents of workers through a cross-cultural analysis (Lee-Ross, 2004). Another author, Ramgutty-Wong (2004), in her study on human resource management in Mauritius supported this framework while discussing national culture and work-place values in Mauritius (Horwitz, Kamoche, Muuka and Yaw, 2004). Liu and Sudweeks (2003) also used Hofstede’s framework to verify whether the dimensions listed by the model have any influence on the workplace by examining the relationship between culture, technology and teamwork in a Mauritian information technology company.
Furthermore, Hofstede’s (1984, 2001) framework has been one of the most extensively used and researched studies during the past two decades. For instance in their review of 25 years of empirical research, Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson (2006) found that the framework assisted researchers effectively due to its clarity, parsimony, and resonance with managers. The authors further argue that researchers have used Hofstede’s framework successfully to select countries that are culturally different and the overall values of the framework are clearly relevant for additional cross-cultural research (Kirkman, Lowe and Gibson, 2006).

Another reason for using this framework is related to the support that it has gained throughout the world since its first publication (Hofstede, 1980). Various studies have sustained his work and many authors (Pheng & Yuquan, 2002; Schwartz 1994; Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars 1996, Taras, et al., 2010) have added empirically to this framework due to its consistency in relation to countries with multiple cultures. In fact, it has turned out to be a useful measuring device in cross-cultural research while investigating distinctive cultural settings.

Mauritius is a multicultural and multi ethnic country with specific influences on organisations derived from its history and background. The subject of change management in Mauritius is referred to later in this chapter. The above discussions on Hofstede’s framework substantiate its use for this study due to its acceptability, support and reliability. Not only the model has proved to be reliable because of the number of national culture samples studied, it has also been valuable and has contributed to the body of knowledge on national culture.

2.10.3 Leadership processes

Leadership has been identified in the literature as one of the most important elements for a successful and effective change process. According to Kotter (1990), leadership
is about coping with change. Various authors have listed different roles of change leaders, starting with developing a vision and strategy for dealing with resistance (Bass, 1996; Griffith-Cooper & King, 2007). In addition, leadership focuses on people’s values, stirs emotions and challenges the status quo. Good leadership possesses particular traits: physical and personality characteristics, skills and abilities, and social factors including interpersonal skills, sociability and socio-economic position (Yukl, 2010).

Various authors have shown that there are several other traits that are essential for effective leadership. For example, in a meta-analysis, Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986), identify six traits that distinguish successful leaders from others: intelligence, an extrovert personality, dominance, masculinity, conservatism and being better adjusted than non-leaders. In another study, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) identify a different list of six essential traits: drive (achievement, ambition, energy, tenacity and initiative), leadership motivation (personalised or socialised), honesty and integrity, self-confidence (including emotional stability), cognitive ability and knowledge of the business., Hanges and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004) suggest nine aspects to describe the dimensions of leadership styles present around the globe: integrity, visionary, inspirational, decisive, non-malevolent, diplomatic, administratively competent, team integrator and performance oriented.

Leadership theories and styles in relations to leading change in organisations have evolved across time, as a result of the transitions that organisations have experienced due to the rapid changes in the business environment. This review therefore covers a portion of the vast literature on leadership. As there was no empirical evidence on this particular subject, this study aims to investigate the different traits the leaders in
Mauritius possess, and how they interact and influence the change management process.

Leadership style is one of the most strongly linked dimensions to organisational change. Whilst managing the change process is important, effective leadership is also important to implement and sustain it throughout its duration. Moreover, many authors (for e.g Griffin & Ebert, 2010) argue that there is a relationship between the leadership competencies of managers, namely, their effectiveness at person-oriented and task-oriented behaviours, and organisational change management.

This review of the literature shows that research about organisational change and leadership has evolved with researchers using different views and perspectives to describe leadership for change management. These varied perspectives and schools of thought have provided distinct dimensions and sets of requirements for effective leadership. For instance, transformational and charismatic leadership have explored the relationship between leadership characteristics or behaviours and organisational change (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House & Aditya, 1997; Yukl, 1999, 2006, 2010). Battilana, Alexander, Gilmartin, Pache and Sengul (2010) examined leadership competencies (traits) for implementing a planned organisational change, and related the effectiveness of trait theory of leadership to successful change.

Similarly, other authors have related leadership and change management with a cultural perspective, and suggest that cultural values shape the meaning of various aspects in the workplace, including expectations of the leadership style (Early & Erez, 1997; George, 2003; Head & Sorensen, 2005; Mahler, 1997). Hampden-Turner (1990) suggests that an interplay exists between leadership and culture, whereby
leaders help to create, shape and develop organisational culture, and concurrently, culture helps to shape all of its members.

According to Wilkins and Ouchi (1983), and Peters and Waterman (1982), culture can be changed by developing a new set of values and a new leadership philosophy, which the management disseminates to the rest of the organisation. Other authors have listed different roles of change leaders, starting with developing a vision and strategy for dealing with resistance (Bass, 1990; Griffith-Cooper & King, 2007), and motivating employees during change processes. The style of leadership has been found by researchers to contribute to, or even cause change failures (Jorgensen et al., 2008; Kiely, 1995; Nadler & Tushman, 1997; Reynierse, 1994).

The quality of leadership is a crucial factor, influencing the way in which human resource practices and processes are enacted within organisations, including organisational change (Purcell, Kinnie, Hutchinson, Rayton & Swart, 2003; Kiffin Petersen & Cordery, 2003). According to DuBrin (1998), being a leader involves making a difference to an organisational change program and facilitating positive change. The most common abilities of effective leaders are to inspire and stimulate others to achieve worthwhile goals (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 1993).

Consequently, literature on change management has related change management leadership to another aspect of the process, namely, resistance to change. Leaders have a pivotal role in the process of change, as well as in coping with resistance to change. According to Long and Mao (2008), certain leadership styles, such as, transformational leadership, can reduce the level of resistance to change by creating congruence between employee interests and the organisational vision.
2.10.4 Individuals

The main objective of any change program is to bring about desired changes in the individual behaviours of employees throughout the organisation. This ensures that employees are acquiring changes in attitudes, concepts, knowledge, rules and skills. Many researchers have identified employee participation and involvement as a critical factor in change management processes, and some authors have suggested that there is some evidence of a positive connection between participation and the success of organisational change (Saksvik, Tvedt, Nytro, Andersen, Andersen and Buvik, 2007; Choi, 2007, 2011; Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008; Lines, 2004).

A generally accepted fact is that most of the time people do not like change, and yet it is also well accepted that people are at the heart of change in organisations. Most of the research, however, is centred on individual responses to organisational change and there is very little literature on how people come out of the process. In other words, to what extent does the change management process bring about ‘individual changes’, in terms of changes in behaviour, and in both cognitive and non-cognitive individual characteristics? Do organisations really change the people in them?

Research has shown that organisations change people in many ways. For instance, organisations may choose to develop their employees in terms of their ability to adapt and handle change (LePine, Colquitt & Erez, 2000). Some authors have tried to study this phenomenon and understand how individuals accept the realities of change (Adams, Hayes & Hopson, 1976; Chell, 1993; Nelson & Kletke, 1990). As Walinga (2008, p. 320) emphasises, “ultimately, it seems that all change, whether organisational, individual, externally, or internally initiated, depends on the individual’s resolve or willingness to change.”
As such, literature in the field of individual change has been distinctively related to the readiness to change of employees in organisations. There is evidence from the literature showing that change readiness centres on the employees’ internal cognitive appraisals and attitudes about themselves, their organisations, and the change process (Armenakis et al., 1993; George & Jones, 2001; Walinga, 2008).

Resistance to change is another element of change management in organisations that is closely related to the human aspect of the process. Hence, Dawson (2008, p. 2) urges the importance of this phenomenon and affirms that “managing the human aspect of change is frequently cited as one of the most significant factors to the ‘success’ or ‘failure’ of major change initiatives” People resist change for various reasons, but most of the time organisations fail to consider the affective nature of the situation. Consequently, analysing the emotional impacts of change is critical due to the fact that change is often an ‘affective event’ (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to Mossholder, Settoon, Armenakis and Harris, (2000), studies of organisational change have been criticised for excluding the affective domain, and focussing on cognitive and behavioural aspects.

Individual change includes changes in behaviour, and changes in both cognitive and non-cognitive individual characteristics (Woodman & Dewett, 1989, 2004). Individual change within organisations can be defined as changes in behaviour, such as job performance and changes in individual characteristics, such as job knowledge, job attitudes and job motivation, which are relevant to organisational functioning and effectiveness (Woodman & Dewett, 2004). There are various ways that organisations create individual changes by influencing the attitudes and behaviours of their employees, using and adopting programs and practices via the socialisation of new
hires, organisational change initiatives, and training programs (Woodman & Dewett, 2004). An efficient reward system enhances the change process as employees react positively to such motivational strategies (Lussier, 2006).

Finally, related to the phenomenon of individual change is a psychological contract, which can be defined as the set of unwritten reciprocal expectations, beliefs or perceptions that characterise the relationship between employee and employer (Theissen, 2004; Rousseau, 1995). Theissen (2004) suggests that a psychological contract is made up of attributes, such as, job security, the employee and employer relationship, trust, employer promises, loyalty, fairness of process, organisational commitment and the survivor syndrome. According to Isabella (1993), individuals evaluate the rightness or wrongness of the changes during any process, and the breach of a psychological contract can occur with any organisational change, which causes conflicts and results in resistance (Rousseau, 1995).

This study examines the cognitive and affective nature of change in relation to the individuals involved in the change process, and tries to find out how individuals behave in relation to organisational change.

2.10.5 Knowledge management

An effective way to indulge in a change management process is to create knowledge among the individuals in the organisation. This ensures that people understand the importance of the change program and are not scared of it, as knowledge creation empowers them with the necessary skills and abilities to improve their performance (Rastogi, 2000, Ionesca et al. 2012).

According to Malhotra (1997), knowledge that is contained in the minds of organisational members is the greatest organisational resource and in the same
context, Martin (2000) suggests that knowledge has become increasingly important because of the increased pace of globalisation, and the interaction of technology and organisational change.

Furthermore, Lee and Kang (2005, p. 470) suggest that, “a firm can increase its flexibility and adaptability in a rapidly changing business environment by focussing on the efficiency of knowledge management activities.” Nonaka (1991) argues that in a continuously changing environment, the only source of lasting competitive advantage is knowledge. According to Nonaka (1998, pp. 14-37), “in an economy where the only certainty is uncertainty, the one sure source of lasting competitive advantage is knowledge.”

Liebowitz (2000) argues that most managers feel that the critical asset that separates their organisation from their competitors is the knowledge or intellectual capital of their employees. Two terms that are very important in the context of change management are knowledge and knowledge management. Wiig (1996, pp. 38-39) defines knowledge as, “the insights, understandings, and practical know-how that we all possess. It is the fundamental resource that allows us to function intelligently.” Knowledge is also highly subjective and dependent on a number of factors, such as, the culture, beliefs, values, insights, intuitions and emotions of the individual. Furthermore, as knowledge is shared and disseminated throughout the organisation, it increases in value (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Sveiby, 2000a; Tiwana, 2000; Zack, 1999a, 1999c).

Duffy (1999, p. 64) defines knowledge management as, “the identification, growth and effective application of an organisation’s critical knowledge.” Duffy (2001) believes that knowledge management is a formal process that engages an
organisation’s people, process and technology in a solution that captures knowledge and delivers it to the right people at the right time.

Moreover, Duffy (1999) proposes that knowledge management is the process of identifying, growing and effectively applying an organisation’s existing knowledge, in order to achieve the organisation’s goals, while creating an organisational culture that permits further knowledge creation. The following section describes the two types of knowledge identified by the researchers in this field.

According to Nonaka (1991, pp. 96-99), “Tacit knowledge is personal and hard to communicate with others since it is hard to formalise or write down.” Similarly, Polanyi (1966) defines this type of knowledge as personal, context-specific and thus not easily visible and expressible, nor easy to formalise and communicate to others. Moreover, tacit knowledge comprises deeply embedded personal beliefs, attitudes, values and experiences that give tacit knowledge its meaning (Popper, 1972). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995, p. 8), state that tacit knowledge may include insight and intuition, and is “deeply rooted in an individual’s action and experience, as well as in the ideals, values or emotions he or she embraces.”

Explicit knowledge is about ‘know what’ and tacit knowledge is about ‘know how’ (Seeley Brown & Duguid, 2001). In addition, explicit knowledge or ‘codified’ knowledge refers to knowledge that is transmittable in some systemic language, such as, words, numbers, diagrams or models (Polanyi, 1966). It is suggested that ‘know how’ is embedded in action or social practice, and is hard to get at outside of the context in which work is done and working life is played out (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Seeley Brown & Duguid, 2001; Suchman, 1987). This leads to the notion that tacit knowledge needs to be converted into explicit knowledge to be shared outside a
community of practice (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). However, explicit knowledge is argued to be only useful when the tacit knowledge to make it work is also known (Seeley Brown & Duguid, 2001).

For any change management to be successful while competing in a new environment, the focus should be on managing people’s knowledge, their behaviour and their expectations. There should also be a concerted effort to encourage employees to share and use knowledge in the workplace, and to reward people who do so. This is because knowledge creation helps in bringing a freedom from past organisational decisions and culture, and thus reduces the impact of the barriers and resistance to change.

Subsequently, studies in knowledge management have revealed an inseparable relationship between knowledge management and organisational culture (Davenport & Prusak, 2000; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Von Krogh & Nonaka, 2000). In addition to the organisational culture, Gupta and Govindarajan (2000, p. 71) synthesise other factors that impact on knowledge management into six clear and well-defined categories: 1) organisational structure, 2) reward systems, 3) processes, 4) people, 5) leadership, and 6) information system. In a similar vein, Schulz (2001) has related knowledge management to factors such as technology, products, processes, strategies and markets. Therefore, notions of knowledge management vary in the literature depending on the types of knowledge the various authors have focused on (Schulz, 2001).

2.10.6 Resistance to change

Resistance is an inevitable response to any major change. Individuals naturally rush to defend the status quo if they feel their security or status is threatened. Folger and
Skarlicki (1999, p. 25) claim that, “organisational change can generate scepticism and resistance in employees, making it sometimes difficult or impossible to implement organisational improvements.” The study by Coch and French (1948), entitled “Overcoming resistance to change”, considered as one of the seminal studies on resistance to change, investigated why organisational members resist change and what can be done to overcome such resistance (Armenakis, Field, Harris & Holt, 2007; Bouckenooghe, 2010; Peccei, Giangreco & Sebastiano, 2011).

Over time, resistance to change has gained much interest and the notion that people inherently resist change has been criticised widely (Jansen, 2000). According to Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009), the resistant behaviour stems from the consequences of the employees established relationship with the organisation, or the perception of his/her role or place in the organisation. Bruckman (2008) conducted a literature review and revealed the following reasons why resistance occurs (cited in Waddell et al., 2011):

1. Change in the status quo.
2. Increased fear and anxiety about the consequence of change – real or perceived.
3. Altering the way people see the world and calling into question their values and rationality.
4. Misunderstanding of the change itself.
5. Mistrust of those leading the change.

Sources of resistance thus include perceived threats to their self-interest or fear of poor outcomes, such as, being required to perform more work or earn less money, or having their job status or security threatened (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Trader-
Leigh, 2002). In addition, other sources of resistance include perceived loss of power, loss of prestige, loss of salary or change in working conditions (Dent & Goldberg, 1999).

2.10.6.1 Definition of resistance to change

This section of the chapter outlines some definitions of resistance to change to give a better understanding of the concept of employee resistance. Zander (1950) defined resistance to change as a “behaviour which is intended to protect an individual from the effects of real or imagined change”. Zaltman and Duncan (1977) define resistance as, “any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo”. Graetz et al (2011) relate resistance to change to the barriers arising from organizational politics, inappropriate use of power, challenges to cultural norms and institutionalized practices, lack of understanding, inappropriate timing, inadequate resources, incorrect information or employee suspicion of honourable management intentions. Other authors (Folger & Skarlicki, 1999; Van Tonder 2004) have described resistance as an employee behaviour that seeks to challenge, disrupt, stop, re-route or invert prevailing assumptions, discourses, and power relations.

Piderit (2000, p. 783) suggested a broader scope for the term employee resistance and stated that, “a review of past empirical research reveals three different emphases in conceptualisations of resistance: as a cognitive state, as an emotional state, and as a behaviour.”

Piderit (2000), focused on resistance to change based on these three dimensions: cognitive, emotional and intentional (Piderit 2000; p.786). Piderit (2000, p. 786) cites:
“Watson (1982) who suggests that what is often labelled as resistance is, in fact, only reluctance. Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) define resistance in behavioural terms but suggest that another state precedes it: is a cognitive state they call (un)-readiness”.

Other authors attempt to define employee resistance based on similar emotional factors displayed as a result of changes in organisations. Oreg (2006) proposed a tridimensional scale, comprising of affective, cognitive, and behavioral resistance. Earlier studies (Coch and French, 1948; Argyris & Schon, 1974, 1978, 1996) have also related emotional factors such as aggression, frustration and anxiety as a defence mechanism to organisational change.

A review of the literature shows that the concept of resistance to change is undergoing a shift, even a transformation (Bareil, 2013). The focus on the phenomenon has moved from overcoming or reducing resistance (Coch and French, 1948) to actually using it as resource (Burke, 2014; Ford & Ford, 2009). The various perspectives have suggested that resistance can be used as an important source of employee feedback. It can also be an important resource in improving the quality and clarity of the objectives and strategies at the heart of a change proposal (Ford & Ford, 2009; Ford, Ford & d’Amelio, 2008). Consequently, some researchers view resistance as a positive factor (Morin, 2007; Waddell & Sohal, 1998).

Bringselius (2010) proposes a conceptual framework that depicts four interpretations of resistance to change: opinion, psychological reaction, conviction and personality. These interpretations of resistance are distinguished on the basis of two variables, namely, the changeability and the emotionality of resistance. Consequently, these are supported by specific theoretical themes and management strategies as shown in Table 2.6 below. The aim of this framework has been to facilitate communication on resistance over different theoretical strands, support advances in research on
resistance, and help develop an understanding of both the concept and the phenomenon (Bringselius, 2010).

**Table 2.6: Characteristics of the four interpretations of resistance to change**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Opinion</th>
<th>Psychological reaction</th>
<th>Conviction</th>
<th>Personality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High changeability, low emotionality</td>
<td>High changeability, high emotionality</td>
<td>Low changeability, low emotionality</td>
<td>Low changeability, high emotionality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theoretical influence</strong></td>
<td>Labour process theory, human resource management theory</td>
<td>Social psychology (in part)</td>
<td>Moral philosophy, whistle blowing theory</td>
<td>Biology, personality, psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Central themes</strong></td>
<td>Employee influence, opinions, feedback</td>
<td>Psychological reactions, stereotypes</td>
<td>Convictions, ideals, ethics</td>
<td>Personality, psychological predispositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management strategies</strong></td>
<td>Dialogue and adjustment of planned changes</td>
<td>Therapy (to build acceptance for planned changes)</td>
<td>Dialogue and if feasible adjustment of planned changes</td>
<td>Dismissal or replacement of resistant employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary management goal with strategy</strong></td>
<td>Improved quality of decisions</td>
<td>Improved employee motivation</td>
<td>Improved ethics</td>
<td>Improved efficiency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Bringselius, 2010*

### 2.11 Change Management in Mauritius

During the last two decades, Mauritius has seen rapid changes in the business environment driven by developments in technology, changes in socio-political conditions and globalisation (KPMG, 2012). Such changes in the business environment have been increasingly accelerated and inevitable. Coping with these rapid changes has been extremely difficult and has led to organisations closing down or relocating to other countries.
Although Mauritius is considered a stable country, it is very different to countries or places where research on organisational change has been previously conducted. That is, contextually, Mauritius provides an efficient platform for research in the field of change management due to the complexity of its society and organisations. As most of the theories of change management have been elaborated in stable environmental conditions, various scholars have questioned the applicability of these theories (Andreeva, Alas, Vanhala & Sun, 2008; Clark & Geppert, 2002; Liuhto, 1999).

Subsequently, this research adds another dimension to the body of knowledge in the field, due to the fact that organisations in Mauritius are different in nature and have their own specificities. The following section provides a backdrop to the consideration of change management in Mauritius by highlighting the profile of the country.

2.11.1 Profile of Mauritius

Mauritius is situated in the Indian Ocean with a total area of 2,050 square kilometres and has a population of 1.3 million (World Bank, 2014). Mauritius is an ex-colony of the Netherlands, France and Britain, and as such, boasts a rich colonial history and heritage. As a result, it is a multi-racial, multi-cultural and multi-lingual country with a population made up of several communities. The communities that constitute the population include Indo-Mauritians, 65 per cent, Africans (Creoles or General), 30 per cent, Sino-Mauritians, 3 per cent, and Whites (Franco-Mauritians), 2 per cent (Statistics Mauritius, 2013).

Although most of the communities speak ‘Creole’ (a French-based local language), other languages are also used, including, English, French, Hindi, Urdu and Mandarin. The main religions in Mauritius include Hindu, 48 per cent, Roman Catholic, 23.6
per cent, Muslim, 16.6 per cent, Other Christian, 8.6 per cent, Other, 2.5 per cent, Unspecified, 0.3 per cent, and none, 0.4 per cent (KPMG, 2012).

Mauritius has been independent since 1968 and became a republic within the Commonwealth in 1992. The country is a stable democracy with regular free elections and a positive human rights record, and has attracted considerable foreign investment (UNDP, 2014). The country is considered to be one of Sub-Saharan Africa’s strongest economies and is the only African country ranked as a “full democracy” in the Economist Intelligence Unit Democracy Index (World Bank, 2014). Mauritius is highly regarded in Africa for its stable political conditions, sound governance structures, attractive business climate and its policies for promoting gender equality. During the last five years the country has experienced a compound annual growth of 3.9 per cent, although the growth in 2012 was 3.3 per cent (World Bank, 2014).

Due to limited natural resources, the Mauritian economy is dependent on four major sectors; tourism, textile, financial services and agriculture (mainly sugar). In recent years, the government has encouraged the modernisation of the sugar and textile industries, while promoting diversification into alternative areas, such as, information and communications technology, financial and business services, seafood processing, and exports. However, services and tourism remain the key economic drivers, and a lack of resources means that the government still owns utilities and controls imports of rice, flour, petroleum products and cement.

As mentioned above, Mauritius has a rich colonial history owing mostly to its dual colonial influences, that is, French and British, which have influenced the essential systems in the country, such as, the administrative mechanisms and the legal system.
As such, the French legal and British administrative systems have been adopted by and have promulgated across the country. Consequently, the legal system is a hybrid of Anglo-Saxon Law and French Civil Law, which is based on the Napoleonic Code (Miles, 1999). Administrative laws including company law are basically English Company Law, whereas the Mauritian accounting system and practices have remained the Anglo-Saxon version.

2.11.1.1 The Mauritian culture

The Mauritian society is a multi-cultural society, constituting of different ethnic and religious groups, where there is equal respect for people from various cultures (Tseung-Wong & Verkuyten, 2010). Maintaining and promoting this cultural diversity has been a challenge for various political parties and authorities governing the country. The sensitivity of this issue has compelled political parties and authorities to adopt specific policies and strategies that maintain the harmony between the various ethnic and religious groups through interaction and communication.

As a multi-racial country, Mauritius has a population with different religious beliefs and ethnic backgrounds, which are of great importance to many in the workforce. The societal culture most often reflects the organisations and the way business is conducted in the country. The organisational culture in Mauritius is rooted in a mixture of several national cultural groups inherited from its colonial heritage. As such, organisational culture constitutes various factors, including, religious background, ethnicity and the particular backgrounds of individuals, including personal upbringing, the place they live and education level.
Given that there are differences in cross-cultural values, it is important to understand what determines these differences. Based on previous research (Chow, Harrison, McKinnon & Wu, 2002; Verburg, Drenth, Koopman, Van Muijen, & Wang, 1999; Ralston, Egri, Stewart, Terpstra and Kaicheng, 1999; Ralston, Holt, Terpstra & Yu, 1997; Ju, 1993; Tung, Oskamp & Skromme, 1997; Shieh, 1996; Schwartz, 1999; Tung, 1981; Yang & Bond, 1991), several potential determinants can be identified, namely, employees’ ethnic origin, parent company’s nationality and different cultural exposure experiences. However, looking deeper at the origin of organisational culture, there are various vital factors that contribute to the genesis of this culture.

As Fenton (1999) suggests, Mauritius is a typical plural society that not only comprises many cultures, but also historically lacks any strong impulse towards social and cultural integration. Indeed, history shows that anti-colonialism in Mauritius was quite different from most postcolonial nations. The Mauritian state was modelled on the British colonial model, which is characterised by male hegemony at all levels of its structures. Thus, Mauritian society is dominated by a strong patriarchal ideology and subsequent gender bias, whereby women are traditionally, legally and culturally attributed a second-class status in society. This gender-based subordination is also reinforced through religious beliefs and cultural practices. The next section gives a brief description of the features of SIEs in general.

2.11.1.2 Features of Small Island Economies (SIEs)

Small island economies are scattered around the globe and have been observed to be similar with unique features and attributes. According to Tisdell (2009), although they are extremely diverse in their relative sizes, geographical nature and arrangements for their governance, they do have common economic and related
challenges. SIEs are also referred to as small island states or small island developing states and face special disadvantages associated with small size, insularity, remoteness and being prone to natural disasters (Briguglio, 1995).

Guillaumont (2010) suggests that such economies are also exposed to external shocks related to trade and exchange rates such as slumps in external demand, world commodity prices instability (and correlated instability of terms of trade) and fluctuations in international interest rates. Very often SIEs are characterized by domestic distress generated by political instability or by unforeseen political changes (Guillaumont, 2010). Hence, they have limited control and capacity and few options to cope with the difficulties caused by such changes in economic and environmental factors (Tisdell, 2009).

Due to their diverse geographical locations most of the SIEs are highly dependent upon tourism for their economic development as it generates employment and foreign direct investment (Lee, Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2015). Such type of development has been associated with effective development of SIEs (Bianchi, 2002; Britton, 1982), but also with risks associated with the conditions of labour (Lee, Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2015). Some of these economies such as those derived from volcanic sources are very productive and are dependent on agriculture. Therefore, depending on the landforms of small islands, the possibilities for land-based primary industries vary and affect the economic challenges of these islands (Tisdell, 2009).
2.11.2 The literature on change management in Mauritius

Although various articles or books have been published in the field of management addressing societal issues in Mauritius, there is not one single article or research on change management specific to the country. Various authors, who have been consistently investigating and publishing articles in their fields, have appeared in international journals, such as SSRN (Social Science Research Network), Taylor and Francis, Emerald, Eric and Sage publications. In addition, various books on change management literature by reputable authors are widely available, and are used as textbooks and reference books by tertiary institutions or students. A brief tabulation of the literature on change management from 2011-2012 is provided in Appendix A, which shows that there is little research in the field of human resource management in Mauritius and no study on change management was found.

One article by Ramgutty-Wong and Gokhool (2000), entitled “Coping with change and globalisation: A study of managerial perceptions in Mauritius”, discusses how managers are coping with globalisation related changes in Mauritius, particularly in political, technological, economic and social areas. However, this study also does not focus specifically on the change management process or the factors related to it. One noticeable feature of the articles published by different authors is the trend towards studying human behaviours and the cultural tendencies of the country. Therefore, a study of change management in the Mauritian context is very relevant, as it involves studying the human, organisational and cultural dimensions at play during the process.
2.11.3 The need for research on change management in Mauritius

As Appendix A shows, there is no research in the field of change management during the last decade in Mauritius, with no empirical evidence on change management in this region. From a contextual perspective, there is no literature published in relation to the private sector in Mauritius. Whilst there have been many studies in marketing, human resource management and financial management, the researcher could not find any studies that had investigated change management in Mauritius.

This lack of information and literature on change management in the context of a small island economy served as an impetus for the researcher, and is one of the main factors that motivated this study. Ultimately, this thesis will add to the body of knowledge in this field by providing an account of the change management process in private sector organisations, and by contributing empirically and theoretically. In addition, conducting research on the change management phenomenon in small island economies is justifiable, and will provide practitioners and leaders with guidance and support in decision-making processes.

Alongside this gap in the literature is the call for the development of a theory of change management that seeks to address the ‘how’ of the process and also the building, rather than the testing, of theories in small island economies. Ultimately, this study contributes to the literature by trying to fill part of the gap and by developing a substantive grounded theory on change management through field data gathered from private sector organisations in Mauritius.
2.11.4 Definition of change management for the thesis

For the purpose of this thesis, the following definition is proposed, which amalgamates all the characteristics of change management definitions in the extant literature.

*Change management is an evolving multi-dimensional and multi-directional process embedded in the historical context of an organisation that is interdependent on the mutual interaction and communication of its stakeholders who co-construct meaning for steering the changes needed for productive and desired outcomes.*

2.11.4.1 Justification of the definition

Organisations in Mauritius are characterised by values and beliefs that have been inherited from colonisation by the French and English. They have their own specificities and even though Mauritius is an African country, its organisations have cultures that are unique to Mauritius. For instance, unlike many developing countries in Africa and Asia, Mauritius scores highly on both long-term orientation and individualism in Hofstede’s Framework, resembling “achievement cultures” such as Singapore (Ramgutty-Wong, Yolles & Iles, 2004). Decision-making in organisations is imbedded and influenced by the particular cultural and historical context of the country.

Change is multi-dimensional and is a complex process with several factors at play. Multiple dimensions interact with each other during the change process and affect the final outcome. Various dimensions, such as the cultural values, beliefs, leadership, motivation and other organisational factors including organisational structure, impact on change management. Therefore, an effective process should consider all of these key dimensions before planning or implementing the process.
Change is also multi-directional, as it applies to the entire organisation and flows in various directions. Change can be initiated by and directed at any level of the organisational structure. As such, change may be a mixture of both directions and may include approaches, such as, from-middle-both-directions, bipolar or multiple-nucleus (Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Mohr, 1997). Another vital component of any organisational change initiative is that communication must never be unidirectional, but rather multi-directional (downwards, upwards and sideways). The multi-directional aspect of change is related to important dimensions of the organisation, such as, the culture, communication and knowledge transfer.

Change is also an evolutionary process. Van De Ven and Sun (2011) suggest that change is an ongoing and never-ending process of organisational life. An organisation’s environment (internal and external) is characterised by ever-changing needs and requirements of the factors and stakeholders involved. In other words, the inner and outer context of an organisation is ever-changing, thus, creating impetus for change. Pettigrew et al. (2001) describe the ‘outer’ context of change as the social, economic and political environment outside the organisation, and the ‘inner’ context as the dimensions within the organisation, such as, culture, politics and structure (Girginov & Sandanski, 2008; Stockdale & Standing, 2006). None of these elements remain in a status-quo situation, and as such, the change process in the latter is affected by the former in the way it unfolds and evolves.

The change process consists of different levels and develops through the interaction of its stakeholders who are involved in various events and actions, including meetings and processes, such as, negotiations, consultations, persuasion efforts and communication programs. Subsequently, change affects groups and individuals
within an organisation who experience their own change processes (Whelan-Berry, Gordon & Hinings, 2003). Therefore, it is important to consider all of the stakeholders within an organisation, including individuals and groups, before making decisions related to a change program, in order to reach the desired outcomes.

Change involves the interplay of the various elements in the process and an effective communication mechanism. Communication is considered the key mechanism for constructing meaning, and for increasing understanding and acceptance of the change (Armenakis and Harris, 2002; Armenakis et al., 1993; Axley, 2000; Daly, Teague & Kitchen, 2003; Dennings, 2006; Mohr, 1997; Smith, 2007).

The meaning constructed comprises cognitive and affective responses, which create attitudes to change that may contain positive and negative elements (Einwohner & Hollander, 2004; Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Piderit, 2000), and will be influenced by a range of factors, including perceived favourability and fairness of the outcomes, and the processes of decision-making and communication (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Fisher, 2002; Matheny & Smollan, 2005; Paterson & Hartel, 2002; Weiss, 2002).

When participants view change, it is filtered through their preferences and is accordingly appreciated and accepted, or resisted (Dibella, 2007). Therefore, productive and desired outcomes are only obtainable when all of the essential elements are embedded in the strategy for bringing about change with an effective communication process. Figure 2.2 below illustrates the change management process based on the above definition for the thesis.
2.12 Summary of the Literature Review

The literature review leads to the conclusion that competencies of change managers in Mauritius are unique due to the nature and contextual factors in which the process takes place. Very few, if any, contemporary studies have been conducted on the change management topic and the literature is limited, to the extent of being non-existent. Although various factors influencing organisational change have been identified in studies elsewhere in the world (see Alas & Vadi, 2004; Pihlak & Alas, 2012), those specific or unique to Mauritius are yet to be revealed. The nature of
organisational change in Mauritius includes various influential factors, such as, history, politics, culture, societal pressure and economic conditions.

The review of the literature has indicated that articles published in the field of change management are limited, so that competencies focusing on change managers cannot be found in any books or practical guides based upon research. Senior leaders in the country continue to attempt to identify competencies and adopt various methods that are related to bureaucratic structure. Therefore, this literature review has identified the following factors as key dimensions for organisational change in Mauritius:

- Organisational structure
- Organisational culture
- Leadership processes
- Individuals
- Knowledge management
- Resistance to change

The gap in the literature has identified the need for further study and provided an imperative to confirm the factors of change mentioned above. Chapter Three describes the methodology of this research, whereby modified grounded theory is proposed as a means to identify the change management practices in the private sector organisations in Mauritius.

### 2.13 Diagram of Themes

Figure 2.3 below shows the links between the major themes in this study, which emerged from the review of the literature on organisational change management.
Figure 2.3: Major themes

History and contextual factors, such as, ethnicity and religion

Culture

Leadership

Knowledge

Management style

Structure

The organisation

Change process

Individual reactions to change

Resistance to change

Accept
Embrace
Resist
Manipulate

Supportive measures to enhance implementation

Corrective measures, communication or coercion by organisations

Change outcomes
2.14 Conclusion

The review of organisational change management literature, in this chapter, has provided insight to the various aspects and dimensions of organisational change. It has accomplished its main objective by providing an overview of the theoretical perspectives and research approaches regarding the topic of change management in relation to small island economies. As such, it has laid the foundation for future research and analysis into this topic relevant to the private sector in Mauritius. Furthermore, this review has evaluated the strengths, weakness and gaps in the literature in the field of organisational change, and has uncovered research opportunities to build on the base of knowledge.

This review has also analysed the seminal and more recent works on the phenomenon of change management, and most importantly, has synthesised the research conducted in small island economies together with specific literature on small island economies. A summary of the various ways in which different authors have classified and categorised the change process is provided in Table 2.7 and Table 2.8 below.

This review of the relevant literature on change management has provided a context for the study. Although there is very little empirical research in the extant literature related to small island economies, this review served to synthesise a relatively small sample of work in the heavily packed field of change management. As a result, it cannot be construed as comprehensive in nature, but it provides a glimpse into the field. It also provides an insight for future research and opportunities to further contribute to the theory and practice of change management.
Table 2.7: Different approaches to organisational change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Radicality of change</td>
<td>Dunphy and Stace (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nadler and Tushman (1989)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gersick (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contents and levels</td>
<td>Mintzberg and Westley (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means and processes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Episodes and stages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequences and patterns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes and process</td>
<td>Van De Ven and Poole (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six categories:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evolutionary</td>
<td>Kezar (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teleological</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life-cycle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialectical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social cognition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Author
### Table 2.8: Types of organisational change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of change</th>
<th>Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contingency approach</td>
<td>Burnes and Stalker (1961)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dunphy and Stace (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational and strategic</td>
<td>Dewit and Meyer (1988)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphostatic and morphologic</td>
<td>Smith and Tranfield (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous change and punctuated equilibrium</td>
<td>Gersick (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope of change</td>
<td>Greenwood and Hinnings (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radical change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity theory</td>
<td>Brown and Eisenhardt (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental, transitional and transformational</td>
<td>Ackerman (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stages of development</td>
<td>Greiner (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Episodic and continuous</td>
<td>Weick and Quinn (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaos theory</td>
<td>Fitzgerald (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned change</td>
<td>Burnes (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unplanned or emergent</td>
<td>Burnes (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hayes (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergent</td>
<td>Plowman, Baker, Beck, Kulkarni, Solanski and Travis (2007)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** The Author
Chapter Three: Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the research methodology applied in this study and comprises three sections. The first section describes the choice of research paradigm for this study, giving reasons for its applicability. The different paradigms available for use during research are analysed by comparing the fundamental components, which separate and distinguish the different paradigms. The most appropriate paradigm for this research has been selected.

The second section discusses the approach adopted for this research, and outlines the choice and use of qualitative research as the methodology in this study. Although there are several reasons why a qualitative method is used in this research, the main reason is to understand the unique experiences of individuals through in-depth interviews. The third section describes in detail the research design, and discusses the adoption of the modified grounded theory approach.

3.1 Scientific Paradigms

Thomas Kuhn first introduced and used the term paradigm for science in 1970. He argued that scientific work takes place within a specific framework, which he identified as the paradigm. According to Kuhn, the paradigm determines the key concepts and methods, research designs and scientific problems to be studied. He believed that the paradigm can influence the scientific process indirectly in four ways, and can determine what is being studied and examined, the nature of the questions asked, the specific structure and characteristics of the questions, and the way the research results are portrayed. Paradigm is commonly defined as the basic
belief system or worldview that guides the researcher, not only in the choice of methods, but also ontologically and epistemologically (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

3.1.1 The inter-relationship between research building blocks

In any research, it is essential to justify the choice of the paradigm. Therefore, this section examines the four main research paradigms and their basic assumptions. The reasons for the choice of paradigm in this study are highlighted, as related to the researcher’s perceptions. However, it is important to initially identify why the term paradigm is used in this thesis. Different authors have used different words to describe paradigm, largely depending on when and where it is used, and by whom (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 1990).

Guba (1990, p. 17) defines paradigm as, “the basic belief system or world view that guides the investigator.” It is also used to explain the philosophical assumptions about the nature of knowledge and how that knowledge can be measured by researchers (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 1990; Smircich, 1983). In simple terms, Covey (1989) explains paradigm as the way people see the world, in terms of perceiving, understanding and interpreting a theory, explanation, model or map. Similarly, paradigm is the fundamental view of the researcher or how the researcher perceives his/her reality (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Finally, paradigm reflects the fundamental beliefs, values and assumptions that people hold about the reality of something (Kuhn, 1970). As shown in the above definitions, the different meanings of paradigm is related to the researcher and his/her perception of the world, including his/her beliefs, values and culture, philosophical assumptions, perceptions of the reality around him/her, and analytical capacity, which informs and guides his/her views of surrounding objects.
There is no universally accepted paradigm for any form of research, and the discussion and debate continues as to which paradigm and subsequently which methodology is best to conduct research (Patton, 2002; Perry, 1998; Smircich, 1983; Yin, 2014). As Cunningham (1993, p.36) notes, “there is no single paradigm and/or methodology that meets the needs of all researchers and research questions when investigating our complex, diverse and changing contemporary society.” As such, the choice of the most appropriate paradigm and methodology is dependent on the researcher. Figure 3.1 below shows the directional relationship between ontology, epistemology, methodology, methods and sources (adapted from Hay, 2002, p. 64).

**Figure 3.1: The directional relationship between research building blocks**

![Figure 3.1: The directional relationship between research building blocks](image)

Source: Adapted from Hay (2002, p. 64).
3.1.2 The common perspectives of paradigms

According to Morgan (1990), all paradigms share three common perspectives: ontological, epistemological and methodological. He also notes that the methodology applied to conduct the research differs, as the different paradigms have varying views of the world. A clear understanding of these perspectives is important and the assumptions that underpin research for the following reasons:

- to better understand the inter-relationship of the key components of research, including methodology and methods;
- to clarify confusions during theoretical debates and approaches to social phenomena; and
- to enable the researcher to defend his/her position and recognise the position of others.

3.2 Ontology

Ontology is considered the starting point of any research, and it logically leads to the epistemological and methodological positions of the researcher. According to Blaikie (2003, p. 8):

...ontological claims are claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other, that is, ontological assumptions are concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality.

Crotty (1988) suggests that ontology is the study of being, of what exists and of what is thinkable. Therefore, ontology questions the real nature of entities, that is, how do they come into being and why. According to some authors, ontology asks questions, such as (Perry, Reige & Brown, 1999, p. 68):
What is the nature of reality?
What is already known about this reality?
What is already known about the real world?
Is this how things really work?

Therefore, if ontology is about what we know, then epistemology is about how we come to know what we know. These two perspectives are linked to each other, in that epistemology follows ontology.

Guba and Lincoln (1994), and Perry at al. (1999) have arranged the existing paradigms into four categories: positivism, critical theory, constructivism and realism. These four paradigms inform and guide research in the social sciences, and are described in the following sections.

3.2.1 Positivism

The positivism paradigm maintains that a social world exists externally and its properties can be measured through objective methods. According to positivists, knowledge is only significant if it is based on observations of this external reality (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991). Guba and Lincoln (1994) assert that positivism is based on the assumption that the reality of the research is both real and apprehensible because it can be measured and touched. As a result, when a researcher investigates reality, a causal relationship can be consistently measured and categorised across both time and context (Perry et al., 1999). The researcher and the reality are independent, and the data and its analysis are value-free. The data is usually collected in a very structured manner with rigid rules of logic and measurement, truth, absolute principles and prediction (Halcomb & Andrew, 2005;
Therefore, the data does not change as it is being observed and the researcher does not intervene.

### 3.2.2 Critical theory

In the critical theory paradigm, reality is virtual or historical, derived from social contexts (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As such, it assumes apprehensive social realities that incorporate historically situated structures, where the researcher aims at “critiquing and transforming the existing social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values” (Perry et al., 1999, p. 17).

Critical theory researchers include Marxists, feminists and action researchers. Research enquiries in this paradigm include long-term ethnographic and historical studies of organisational processes and structures. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), assumptions are essentially subjective, and thus, knowledge is grounded in social and historical routines. Knowledge is value dependent and not value free.

Within this paradigm, the researcher is described as a “transformative intellectual” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 112), that is, someone wishing to change the world in which the participants live (Brown, 1997; Perry et al. 1997). In other words, the research has the tendency to transform the participants by changing their attitudes and current practices. Hence, the process depends on the expertise, experience and ability of the researcher, with the aim to transform ignorance and misconception into a new, informed perception (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

### 3.2.3 Constructivism

The constructivist paradigm maintains that “there are multiple versions of reality and as a result there can be no singular truth” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 112; Perry et al., 1999, p. 785-802). Therefore, it holds that individuals or groups construct realities.
that are based on their own perceptions of reality (Perry et al., 1999). Guba and Lincoln (1994) assert that:

…realities are apprehendable in the form of multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature … and dependent for their form and content on the individual person or groups holding the constructions.

Hence, reality is a mental construct of individuals or groups, which occurs between the researcher and participants during the study (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The findings of the research are created between the investigator and the subject during the enquiry, and knowledge becomes those constructs for which there is general consensus (Perry et al., 1999). Within this paradigm, the researcher is described as a “passionate participant” and the findings may be a creation or a synthesis of what the researcher has discovered during the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 11).

3.2.4 Realism

The realist paradigm suggests that the external reality is probably true, rather than completely true, and therefore, there is a real world to be discovered even if it is only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In comparison to constructivists and critical theorists who assert that there are many realities, realists maintain that there is only one reality, although several perceptions of that reality must be triangulated to obtain a better picture of it (Perry et al., 1999).

Therefore, realists acknowledge the difference between the world and particular perceptions of it, and the pre-eminent importance of that world. According to Perry et al. (1999), the ultimate aim of the critical realist is to arrive at an imperfect understanding of the common reality of a system in which many people operate independently.
Another significant difference is that researchers within the realist paradigm focus on methodology which allows them to explore, develop new insights and understand a phenomenon, in order to add to the body of knowledge, rather than to test and prove (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Yin, 2014). Thus, the data gathering tools, such as, convergent interviews and case studies, are qualitative in nature and rely less on statistical proof and more on a convergence of understanding (Perry, 1998; Perry et al., 1999; Shipman, 2014; Yin, 2014).

Critical realism was articulated and refined by Roy Bhaskar in several works. He initially presented the idea as a corrective to both positivism and relativism as explanatory models of scientific practice. According to Bhaskar (1978), within the realist paradigm, the world can be distinguished as having three domains of reality, namely, mechanisms, events and experiences. Thee domains have been described as follows (Bhaskar, 1978, p. 13; Outhwaite, 1983, p. 322; Tsoukas, 1989, p. 53):

- Real domain: processes that generate events, in which generative mechanisms or causal powers exist independently with a tendency to produce patterns of observable events under contingent conditions.
- Actual domain: patterns of events occur whether observed or not.
- Empirical domain: experiences may be obtained by direct observations.

Hence, the goal of research within the realist paradigm is the discovery of these observable or non-observable structures and mechanisms that underlie events and experiences (Tsoukas, 1989).
3.2.5 **The paradigm applied in this research: Realism**

In any research, the paradigm explains the philosophical assumptions about the nature of knowledge and can be measured (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 1990; Smircich, 1983). However, there is no universally accepted paradigm for any form of research, and the discussion and debate continues as to which paradigm and which methodology is best to conduct research (Patton, 2002; Perry, 1998; Smircich, 1983; Yin, 2014). No single paradigm or methodology can meet the needs of all researchers and research questions, due to “our diverse, complex and changing contemporary society” (Cunningham, 1993, p. 71). Babbie (2012) argues that the various approaches compensate for the weaknesses of others and paradigms are not discarded. According to Merriam (2014) there is “almost no consistency about this aspect of research”. Kuhn (1996, cited in Gray, 2013) described this issue as a “paradigm crisis”. However, depending on the context, some paradigms and methodologies are more suitable than others.

In this thesis, realism has been adopted for various reasons. The realism paradigm suggests that external reality is probably true, rather than completely true. Therefore, the belief is that the real world cannot be known with absolute certainty or systematically and consistently measured, and rather can be imperfectly measured (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to Healy and Perry (2000), within a critical realism framework, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are appropriate for researching the underlying mechanisms that drive actions and events.

The realism ontology is suitable for this research as the major aim is to study and examine the behaviours of individuals in relation to change management in organisations. Figure 3.2 below shows the suitability of critical realism for this
research. This is supported by Perry et al. (1999) who suggest that naturalistic methods, such as, case studies and unstructured or semi-structured in-depth interviews, are acceptable and relevant within the paradigm, as are descriptive statistics and statistical analyses, such as, those derived from structural equation modelling and other techniques.

**Figure 3.2: The qualitative – quantitative research continuum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Naturalistic</th>
<th>Scientific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnography</td>
<td>Quasi experiment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-depth interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Explanatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretive</td>
<td>Post-positivism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idiographic</td>
<td>Critical realism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positivist/Mechanistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nomothetic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In this study, organisational change is considered the reality, which has been experienced and researched by other scholars in relation to its factors and dimensions, and their perceptions are some of the many “windows” that elucidate this reality (Perry et al., 1999, p. 18). This research employs the grounded theory approach proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990), which is consistent with the realist approach and which uses the extant literature during the initial stages.
3.3 Epistemology

Epistemology is closely related to ontology and its consideration of what constitutes reality. Epistemology considers the most appropriate ways of enquiring into the nature of the world (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008), and “what is knowledge and what are the sources and limits of knowledge” (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, p. 14). Epistemology is concerned with the theory of knowledge, especially its methods, validation and the possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality. Blaikie (2003, p.8) describes epistemology as, “the theory or science of the method or grounds of knowledge”, which encompasses a set of claims or assumptions about the possible ways to gain knowledge of reality. In other words, how what exists may be known, what can be known, and what criteria must be satisfied in order to be described as knowledge.

Similarly, Chia (2002, p. 6) describes epistemology as “how and what it is possible to know”, and emphasises the need to reflect on methods and standards through which reliable and verifiable knowledge is produced. Moreover, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006, p. 11) refer to epistemology as “knowing how you can know”, and expand this by asking how knowledge is generated, what criteria discriminate good knowledge from bad knowledge, and how reality should be represented or described.

These authors also highlight the inter-dependent relationship between epistemology and ontology, and how these inform and depend upon each other. Given this important link, it is essential to understand the position of the researcher. If the researcher holds certain ontological positions or assumptions, these may influence his/her epistemological choices and the final ideas or conclusions drawn. In other words, this depicts the relationship between the enquirer and the knowledge.
Therefore, epistemology focuses on the knowledge gathering process and, to some extent, is also concerned with the development of new theories or models that supersede existing theories or models. As mentioned above, Blaikie (2003, p. 3) describes epistemology as, “claims about how what is assumed to exist can be known”, and refers to the set of questions designed by the researcher to draw out an explanation and provide an answer (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013). According to Goldman (2000), the aim is to elicit the true answer from those who have the knowledge. Although differing variants of epistemology exist in social sciences research, the four most accepted typologies are as follows:

1. Objectivism.
2. Social constructionism or subjectivism.
3. Relativism.
4. Quine’s naturalism.

Each of these typologies relates to one of the existing competing paradigms, and choosing one of these epistemological positions leads to selecting and employing a particular methodology. Obviously, different epistemological positions can lead to different views of the same social phenomenon. These four epistemological perspectives are described in the following sections.

3.3.1 Objectivism

Objectivism contends that social entity and phenomena have an existence that is external to social actors (Bryman, 2008; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007). Objectivism postulates that objects have “intrinsic meaning” that exists apart from the “operation of any consciousness” (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). Therefore, in this approach, the world and its relationships are concrete, and as such, reality is external,
research is conducted at a distance independent of the object of the research, and phenomena that cannot be observed are disregarded (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). The major assumptions of objectivism are as follows (Jonassen, 1992; Lakoff, 1987):

- There is a real world consisting of entities structured according to their properties and relations. The categorisation of these entities is based on their properties.
- The ‘real’ is fully and correctly structured so that it can be modelled.
- Symbols are representations of reality and can only be meaningful to the degree that they correspond to reality.
- The human mind processes abstract symbols in a computer-like fashion so that it mirrors nature.
- Human thought is ‘symbol manipulation’ and is independent of the human organism.
- The meaning of the world exists objectively, independent of the human mind and is external to the knower.

According to Crotty (1998, p.8) applying the “right way” helps to discover the “objective truth” as these are objectified in the people we study.

3.3.2 Social constructionism or subjectivism

Social constructionism or subjectivism is the opposite of objectivism, and in this approach, the construction of knowledge is based on the notion that there is no pre-existing reality. The epistemological assumptions of social constructionism are as follows (Cobb, 1994; Jonassen, 1992; Philips, 1995):
• There is a real world that sets boundaries to what we can experience. However, reality is local and there are multiple realities.

• The structure of the world is created in the mind through interaction with the world and is based on interpretation. Symbols are products of culture and they are used to construct reality.

• The mind creates symbols by perceiving and interpreting the world.

• Human thought is imaginative and develops out of perception, sensory experiences and social interaction.

• Meaning is a result of an interpretive process and depends on the experiences and understanding of the ‘knower’.

3.3.3 Relativism

Lawson (2003b, p. 162) suggests that:

…epistemological relativism expresses the idea that our categories, frameworks of thinking, modes of analysis, ways of seeing things, habits of thought, dispositions of every kind, motivating concerns, interests, values and so forth, are affected by our life paths and socio-cultural situations and thereby make a difference in how we can and do see and know or approach things, and indeed they bear on which we seek to know.

In epistemological relativism:

…no cross-framework judgements are permissible for the content, meaning, truth, rightness, and reasonableness of cognitive, ethical, or aesthetic beliefs, claims, experiences or actions can only be determined from within a particular conceptual scheme” (Fay, 1996, p. 77).

This epistemological position claims that there exists a reality that is independent of the observer. Easterby-Smith, Jackson & Thorpe (2008) suggest that in each phase of
the research a number of methods are used to identify and represent the phenomena being studied. According to Cresswell (2013), triangulation uses data sources as a means for seeking convergence across qualitative methods and is a hallmark of the relativism. However, the challenge is the ability to gain effective access to the existing independent reality, and subsequently describe and communicate this to others. Therefore, in this approach, many viewpoints are sought and the values of multiple sources of data are accepted, which might enable generalisations to be made beyond the situation under study (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

3.3.4 Quine's naturalism

Naturalism exists in different forms, including ontological and epistemological naturalism. Followers of ontological naturalism believe that only natural entities exist and there is nothing supernatural. In this approach, epistemology is the view that belief and evidence are natural phenomena that should be studied as other natural phenomena, that is, by ordinary scientific methods.

One of the most recognised supporters of naturalism is W.V.O Quine, whose version of epistemology raises serious doubt about the fruitfulness of the traditional philosophic study of scientific knowledge. According to Quine (1981), naturalism in epistemology implies that we should start from our current theory of nature when we try to solve the problems of epistemology. Moreover, naturalism “sees natural science as an inquiry into reality, fallible and corrigible but not answerable to any supra-scientific tribunal, and not in need of any justification beyond observation and the hypothetico-deductive method” (Quine, 1981, p. 72).

However, Quine’s ideologies and assumptions have attracted many objections in the following perspectives: apriority, normativity of belief, theory choice or theory
acceptance, circularity, non-epistemicity, normativity of epistemic notions, and radical scepticism. Rather than completely eliminating it, these objections have helped to shape epistemological naturalism.

One of the outcomes of these objectives is co-operative naturalism, which holds that empirical results are essential and useful to epistemology. Whilst it is difficult to eliminate traditional epistemology, it is unlikely to succeed in its investigation of knowledge without empirical results from the natural sciences. As such, Quine endeavoured to reverse the situation in the field of epistemology and proposed the idea that in its new form epistemology would simply be a chapter of natural science, that is, cognitive psychology. Quine (1981) termed this move naturalising epistemology.

3.3.5 The epistemology applied in this research: Quine’s naturalism

In this thesis, Quine’s (1953, 1969) naturalised epistemology has been adopted for various reasons. Quine’s naturalised epistemology is a reformistic and scientific approach. The researcher recognises that reality beyond the purview of natural science is of no sense, and if natural science is concerned with the whole world one cannot find reality outside of the world. This epistemological stance is closely related to the ontological perspective in this thesis, namely, critical realism. This is closely related to the notion that Quine’s naturalised epistemology is normative as it offers useful advice for accomplishing our cognitive goals, most importantly, truth.

The researcher also recognises that individuals formulate their beliefs depending upon contingent facts about who they are and what kind of environment they operate in. As a result, the cognitive strengths and weaknesses of people are not necessarily
obvious or amenable to introspection. Therefore, the natural way to understand our behaviour is to test our belief-forming mechanisms to see how reliable they are.

Quine (1969, 1990) argues that distinctions between science, epistemology and common sense are arbitrary. Thus, Quine (1969, 1990, p. 82-83) suggests naturalised epistemology, which he claims “studies human belief-forming mechanisms in the context of the external world, with a view toward improving our cognitive practices.” Within this epistemological perspective, “the logical truth is after all a convention and thereby it is not immune to revision” (Quine, 1969, 1990, p. 82-83). Hence, the goal of naturalised epistemology is to determine the best methods for forming and revising our beliefs, and to find out whether any methodological principles can be generalised to our everyday thought.

Therefore, the researcher recognises that it is important to test the reliability of our belief-forming mechanisms, and to investigate the fundamental links between the external world and our beliefs.

### 3.4 Methodology

The two broad streams of research design that can be used by researchers to uncover the intricacies of a given phenomenon are quantitative and qualitative. The decision of which research stream to use depends on several factors, such as, the research question and the nature of the research. Quantitative research is normally used in situations where the principal aim is to verify an existing set of defined variables in an established theory (Hom & Kinicki, 2001), or to test the defined variables in an untested theory (Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, Sablynski & Erez, 2001). Quantitative research is also the appropriate methodology in situations where the research area is
predisposed to numeric quantification (Charmaz, 2006; Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

If the aim of the research is exploratory in nature, where it seeks to understand an area or phenomenon about which little is yet known (Hendry, 2003), or it attempts to uncover the meaning of an experience of a group in relation to a given situation (Kendra & Taplin, 2004), then qualitative methodologies are the most appropriate (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Symon & Cassell, 1998).

Data collected by either qualitative or quantitative methodologies can be used to verify or generate new theory (Glazer & Strauss, 1967). A grounded theory method can lead to the qualitative assessment of change management practices in the private sector in Mauritius. The following sections describe grounded theory as a research technique and discuss how other researchers have used this in their studies.

### 3.4.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research has gained acceptance and popularity, and is now used across disciplines, including sociology, medicine, business, economics, psychology and anthropology (Merriam, 2014; Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2013). In the past two decades, the number of research strategies that fall under the qualitative umbrella has increased significantly, and is still increasing. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2013), each additional field that intensely applies this research method reveals a new twist, adds ideas and develops its own techniques. The different types of qualitative research strategies that have been widely used include:

- hermeneutic and phenomenological research;
- naturalistic inquiry;
- ethno-methodology;
• ethnography;
• qualitative case study;
• participatory action research; and
• grounded theory.

The problem statement or research question in qualitative research is stated in a way that provides the flexibility and freedom to explore the phenomenon in-depth, whereby the main aim is to identify the phenomenon. Strauss and Corbin (2008, p. 43) argue that objectivity in qualitative research does not mean controlling the variables, but rather enabling “openness, a willingness to listen to and ‘give voice’ to respondents.” According to Stake (1995), qualitative research focuses on understanding the complex inter-relationships of a phenomenon, and not the cause-effect relationship.

Qualitative research differs from quantitative research in several ways. Qualitative research emphasises finding meanings by closely looking at and analysing people’s words, actions and records. The goal is to discover patterns, consisting of contextual findings, which arise through close observation and analysis. A qualitative approach to research is particularly appropriate when analysing data derived from the personal experiences of participants, as it allows the quality of those individual experiences to be retained in the analysis and interpretation.

A qualitative research method is also suitable for understanding a neglected or insufficiently elaborated theoretical area, such as change management in small island economies, where little research has been conducted. Moreover, qualitative research does not rely on statistical or quantifiable procedures or hypothesis testing, but instead uses other systematic methods and procedures to collect, code and analyse
data, and to generate theory from the data. The specific qualitative methodology that
guides the data analysis in this study is grounded theory, which is discussed further
below.

3.4.2 Definitions for qualitative research

Qualitative research is a term that has attracted various meanings in social science
research, and is defined differently by different authors. For example, Borg and Gall
(1989) suggest that the term is often used interchangeably with other terms, such as,
naturalistic, ethnographic, subjective and post-positivistic. Other authors use the term
ethnographic as an overall category for research using qualitative methods and for
ethnographies (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984). Some of the well-established and widely
used definitions of qualitative research are identified below.

Van Maanen (1983, p. 9) define qualitative research as:

"An array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode,
translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the
frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the
social world"

Van Maanen (1983, p. 9) sees qualitative research as an umbrella comprising an
array of interpretative procedures and suggests: “These techniques aim to describe,
decipher, translate, or in different ways manage the meaning, not the frequency, of
more or less natural occurrences and interactions in the social and cultural world”

Denzin and Lincoln (2013, p. 4) state that:

Qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive,
naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative
researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make
sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to
them. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a
variety of empirical materials case study, personal experience,
introspective, life story interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts-that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals’ lives.

Cresswell (2013, p. 37-39) maintains that:

Qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of the informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting.

According to Pope and Mays (1995), qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings in an effort to discover the meanings attributed by those who are being researched (the subjects), rather than that of the researcher.

Merriam (1998) describes qualitative research as understanding the meanings that people have constructed, in which the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. This usually involves fieldwork, primarily employing an inductive research strategy that focuses on process, meaning and understanding, which results in a richly descriptive product.

3.4.3 Grounded theory

This study employs grounded theory, which is a qualitative approach, to conduct research in the field of change management. This objective is achieved by using distinct features of the grounded theory methodology, such as, theoretical sampling, constant comparisons and a coding paradigm. In many cases, qualitative research has used grounded theory to investigate phenomena, such as, feelings, thought processes and emotions, which are difficult to study using quantitative methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, 2008).
Grounded theory was originally developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967, 2009, p. 2), as a means to make possible the “systematic discovery of theory from the data of social research.” The principal aim of grounded theory is to develop a theory from gathered data, rather than to test a theory or hypothesis using gathered data. In other words, qualitative methods are used to obtain data about a phenomenon and a theory emerges from the data. Since it is qualitative research, the research problem is not stated precisely or in terms of dependent and independent variables. As such, the first justification for applying a grounded theory methodology concerns arriving at a grounded theory from the data itself. The theory is perceived as grounded in the reality as represented in the data.

However, following this early description of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss worked separately on the implementation of the methodology. Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998, 2008) developed a detailed description of the development of a grounded theory. They provided guidelines (techniques and procedures) for the inexperienced researcher to gain the most from the data, but stressed that they are only tools and should not drive the analysis. This was strongly criticised by Glaser (1992), who suggested that their approach forces a theory from the data and prevents the natural emergence of the theory from the data. Researchers who choose to use grounded theory as a research methodology, should critically investigate the divergence between the founders of the theory (Heath and Cowley, 2004). Then, based on their perception, the researchers should select which approach to follow.

### 3.4.4 Reasons for choosing the Grounded theory method

In this thesis, a qualitative approach is used to understand the change management practices in the small island economies. The grounded theory methodology has been
adopted, as it enables an understanding of an area without requiring any pre-formed concepts of knowledge or reality. The ontology and epistemology adopted in this research accept that knowledge is not static, but is always emerging and transforming, and is interpreted by both the observer and participant.

Meaning is conveyed through dialogue and action, and within dialogue and action are embedded understandings, experiences and emotions. Only through interaction and discourse can meaning be unlocked and conveyed to the observer. From this perspective, grounded theory provides a method that enables a researcher to induce true meaning and understanding. Above all, grounded theory allows researchers to get into the field and quickly acquire an empirically grounded understanding of social phenomena, and to evaluate the phenomena without reliance on extant theory.

As Kaplan and Maxwell (1994, p. 32) suggest:

…researchers are motivated to undertake qualitative research to be able to engage with humans at a higher level and gain a more complete understanding of their world and its accompanying phenomena, this understanding can be lost when textual data are quantified.

In this study, the main purpose is to develop a new theory for the research area, based on systematically collected data. Further reasons for applying the grounded theory methodology are as follows:

- The grounded theory approach helps to identify the main objectives of the research. It essentially attempts to explore and develop generalised formulations about the features of the phenomenon, namely, change management, while simultaneously grounding the account in empirical observations or data.
A review of the literature shows that there is little empirical data on change management in small island economies. As such, there is a lack of a theoretical foundation that can form the basis for understanding the actual change management practices in the private sector organisations in small island economies, such as Mauritius.

One of the key advantages and challenges of applying grounded theory is that it is applicable to research domains that are characterised by their emergence and lack of substantive theory. Therefore, grounded theory is useful in this study because it allows a focus on the contextual and processual elements, as well as the action of key players associated with organisational change.

This research aims to contribute to the development of knowledge in the field of change management in small island economies. The grounded theory methodology allows the drawing of rich data from individual and organisational experiences, which will help to generate a grounded understanding of the change management practices in these countries. A further objective of the research is to add empirical data to the existing literature. Grounded theory is valid empirically, “because the theory-building process is so intimately tied with evidence that it is very likely that the resultant theory will be consistent with empirical observation” (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 547). Eisenhardt (1989, p. 546) argues that the iterative comparison across sites, methods, evidence and literature, which characterises such research, leads to a “constant juxtaposition of conflicting realities [that] tends to ‘unfreeze’ thinking, and so the process
has the potential to generate theory with less researcher bias than theory built from incremental studies or armchair, axiomatic deduction.”

- Grounded theory is also easy to use. The theory provides a mix of structure and flexibility, with clear and unambiguous guidelines, and presents a single, unified and systematic method of analysis. According to Charmaz (2006), the major strength of GTM [grounded theory methodology] is that it provides tools for analysing processes which make it easier for the researchers to follow specific steps to develop the concepts, categories, hypotheses and theory.

- Grounded theory allows a degree of flexibility in both the selection of instances for inclusion in the sample and the analysis of the data, which is well-suited to the exploration of change management in small island economies, as it is a topic that has received little attention.

The grounded theory methodology includes systematic procedures for selecting the sample, and continues the analysis and comparison process, which helps the researcher make continuous modification according to the actual data. The progressive nature of this method allows for openness in the process, such that the participants contribute to the collected facts (Dey, 1999). The researcher and the participants collaborate to generate data, which in turn generates the theory (Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

3.4.4.1 Methodology used: Modified grounded theory

This qualitative research did not use the grounded theory in its pure form but it was guided by a modified grounded theory approach (Birk and Mills 2011, Charmaz,
2006; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Sterk, Elifson and Theall, 2000; Strauss and Corbin, 2008). The pure form of the GTM implies that data collection and analysis occur simultaneously which was not the case in this research. Nevertheless, this study has respected the major steps involved in a pure form of GTM, most particularly the one by Strauss and Corbin (2008).

In keeping with the tenets of the grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin, 2008), and using the modified grounded theory approach, data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews; undertaken with a theoretical sample with the participation of individuals who had experienced change processes in private sector organisations. The data were then coded and analysed using the constant comparison method, and this produced an emerging, substantive theory of the change management practices of organisations in Mauritius. Subsequently, this theory was generalised for small island economies based on support and evidence from previous qualitative studies.

3.4.5 Organisations under study

The case studies taken from three different organisations, operating in three different industries were chosen for analysis in this study, namely, a bank, a hotel and a privatised state-owned enterprise (an authority). The three organisations were from the private sector and all had recently experienced a change process. Individuals recruited for the three phases of data collection were all from these three organisations.

The study involved three stages of data collection. The first part of the research started with a preliminary survey where a simple questionnaire was sent to participants and it comprised mainly of general questions about change management.
The sample consisted of around 20 participants of which 8 persons responded and gave their views on the subject.

This batch of questionnaires was analysed using open coding which helped to develop the framework employed in the interviews conducted in the second phase. These preliminary survey responses were integrated with data from the literature review to create the final interview schedule. In the second and third phases of the research fifteen participants were selected from each organization and a total of thirty eight interviews were conducted including two focus groups from institutions of different industries, that is, a hotel, a bank and a privatized state owned institution. Data for this research were collected in Mauritius in two periods from November 2009 to January 2010 and October 2010 to December 2010.

All of the three organisations included different characteristics, in terms of the employees background and culture. However, despite these differences, there were commonalities that ensured there would likely be some coherence and integrity to the data collection while also giving way to some variation and providing diversity of results and data analysis.

3.5 Participant Selection

One of the main objectives of this research is to study the factors, procedures and practices related to change management in the private sector in a small island economy. More precisely, the aim is to create a theoretical model of change management based on the practices of organisations in the private sector in Mauritius. Although the literature on change management is very rich, and many interventions and studies have been carried out in this field, it is very difficult to find any research on change management in small island economies. As such, this study
endeavours to produce a model that would adapt to the environment, and guide leaders and other practitioners to carry out change management in small island economies and also help to improve the process.

The characteristics and aspects of the strategies and conditions contributing to change management were studied by analysing the views and opinions of individuals who had experienced a change process during their career in the organisation. Participants were individuals who had either led change or followed the leadership of others during a change effort. They delivered diverse perspectives, including differing views on the change management process, and the responses ranged from the most negative to the most positive extremes. Line-by-line coding of the responses provided a good starting point as it helped to identify the initial phenomenon and produce a list of themes that the participants believed to be very important. It should be noted that extant literature was used to confirm or counter the data from the interviews to develop the concepts to further the research. This method helped to acquire a deeper and more thorough understanding of the concepts and terms.

### 3.5.1 Sample size

Given the research questions to be addressed and the study’s qualitative design, the actual sample size could not be predetermined in this study. In fact, the participants were selected based on the researcher’s judgement and the sampling was purposeful and focused on a number of information-rich cases. In addition, the purposive sampling guaranteed a rich, diverse, cross-section of individuals from different levels of the organisation from front line to top management.

The first phase of the research consisted of a sample of 20 participants, from which eight participants responded positively and gave their views on the subject. In the
second phase of the research 15 participants were selected from each organisation and a total of 38 interviews were conducted, including two focus groups from organisations in different industries. However, the main criteria required participants to have experienced a change process in their respective organisation and being at different levels of the hierarchy.

This is in line with the statement by Strauss and Corbin (1998, 2008, p. 172) who suggest that a small sample of great diversity yields, “high-quality, detailed descriptions of each case, which are useful for documenting uniqueness, and important shared patterns that cut across cases and derive their significance from having emerged out of heterogeneity.”

3.5.2 Sampling procedures

Data for this research was collected in two phases: first, between the period November 2009 to January 2010, and second, between October 2010 to December 2010. The sampling procedure included both theoretical and convenience sampling methods. In relation to theoretical sampling, the participants were selected based on how their experiences of the change process could contribute to theory development. Unlike the sampling in quantitative investigations, theoretical sampling cannot be planned before embarking on a grounded theory study. Strauss and Corbin (2008), suggest that the specific sampling decisions evolve during the research process itself.

The sample could also be considered convenience sampling due to accessibility reasons, in that, those easily available were selected. This criterion guaranteed that the candidates chosen had been exposed to the experience of a change initiative in their organisations, which supports the concept of, “going to the most obvious places and the most likely informants in search of information” (Strauss & Corbin, 2008)
The researcher also ensured that the sample included a range of experience from different levels of each of the organisations, that is, management leadership to operational level employees. As Bryman (2004) suggests, theoretical sampling is an ongoing process and is concerned with the refinement of ideas, rather than boosting sample size. The interviewees were encouraged to give other information about the complexities of the change process in addition to answering the interview questions. As Hoepfl (1997) suggests, unlike quantitative sampling strategies, qualitative samples tend to be purposive, that is, searching for information-rich cases that can be studied in depth rather than every case in a broad population.

3.5.3 Access to participants

All of the participants in the research were initially contacted either by email or phone prior to the interviews, which were completely voluntary, and the participants were given the choice to leave the interviews whenever they felt uncomfortable. Initially, a letter describing the key features of the research was sent to the potential participants to gain their agreement and trust. This letter also concisely explained the confidentiality and anonymity issues so that there would be a higher response from potential interviewees. The participants recruited were requested to give referrals for other potential interviewees as the interviews progressed, who were then contacted either by email or phone.

3.6 Data Collection

Data collection was achieved through in-depth, open ended interviews, which lasted between 45 minutes to 1.25 hours. Interviews were conducted face-to-face and individually in a location preferred by the participants. In addition to the interviews, the researcher also used two focus groups to collect data and enhance the process of
data collection. Hence, the focus group helped the process to obtain additional data, which in turn allowed additional coding and writing of memoranda.

3.6.1 Research questions

The interview questions developed were designed to acquire information from the participants to answer the overarching research question:

What is the unique contribution of factors that influence change management practices of private sector organisations in small island economy of Mauritius?

The interviews were based upon open ended questions, which are described in the following section. The interview questions were further refined after the first phase of interviews, and the researcher added other non-scripted spontaneous questions as the interviews proceeded (Berg, 2009; Ryan, Coughlan & Cronin, 2009). The interview questionnaire can be found in Appendix B.

The questions were developed to assist in the unravelling of the roles as the researcher categorises and codifies them (Strauss, 1989; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In order to explore the process of change management in the selected organisations, the design of the interview questions was based on Patton’s (2002) suggestions, that is, to ask value questions that reflect on the issues and help answer the research questions, including questions about behaviours, opinions, values, feelings, knowledge, sensory, background and demography.

Strauss and Corbin (2008, p. 29) suggest that the data collection process helps the researcher establish whether more interviews should take place, and if so, what types of questions should be asked. Hence, the areas that were explored in the interviews
included general experiences, individual and organisational beliefs, attitudes and values, and critical incidents about change processes.

In addition, the aim was to gain an understanding of how the participants assessed the change process and what could have been done differently to improve it. Finally, some of the questions dealt with behavioural changes, which were to gain an insight of how the process had affected the individuals.

3.6.2 Interviews

The interviews were conducted individually and face-to-face prior to which the candidates were contacted and given a brief description of the research and its perspectives and benefits in relation to private sector organisations in the country. In addition, just before the interview the candidates were given an informational letter describing issues, such as, research procedures, purpose of the study and contact information of the researcher for further enquiry. Moreover, the interviews were conducted in Creole, which is the language spoken by the locals in the country. This strategy ensured that there was no communication barrier and there was mutual understanding between the interviewer and the candidate (Temple, 2006). The researcher also ensured that the translation from Creole to English was as accurate as possible (Temple, Edwards & Alexander, 2006).

Several authors have identified the fundamental steps to be followed to conduct qualitative research interviews effectively. Authors, such as, Kvale and Brinkmann (2009), Denzin and Lincoln (2013), Dick (1990), Patton (2002), Brenner (1985), Guest, Mack, MacQueen (2005), and Rubin and Rubin (2012), have mentioned the step-by-step stages to be followed in interviews to ensure consistency and a more effective flow of communication between the interviewee and the researcher.
Although all of these interview protocols have common features, the one used in this research was similar to the one suggested by Dick (1990), which is as follows:

a) The interviewer to introduce himself/herself to the participant.

b) Discuss more general matters before entering into the interview process itself, and thank the participant for both their time and the willingness to be involved in the research process.

c) Remind the respondent of the purpose of the interview, checking that the themes are clear based on the letter, email, the phone call or the face-to-face conversation.

d) Confirm that the person is happy to allow the interviewer to use a tape recorder to record the interview and give an assurance that a copy of the transcript will be forwarded to them.

e) Assure the participant that their anonymity will be protected at all times.

f) Ask if there are points about which they are uncertain, and clarify the points in such cases and enable the respondents to fully understand.

g) Ensure that they have a copy of the themes close at hand for ease of reference, if required, during the interview.

The aim of the interviews was to achieve an understanding of the change management phenomenon in the organisations under study through the individuals who narrate the stories and share their experiences. The most important strategy was to ensure that the interviewee was at ease, in order to acquire the maximum amount of information about his/her journey of the change process. Initially, the interviewer
started with general questions to ‘break the ice’, such as, how long have you been working with this organisation, or other general themes that would help the interviewee to gain confidence and speak openly.

Once the candidates appeared to be comfortable and ready they were informed about the nature and requirements of the interview and its approximate duration (between 45 minutes to one hour). It was important to build a certain ‘bond’ to get the most out of the individuals. The candidates were then asked permission to record the interview and assurances were also given to them concerning confidentiality and anonymity in accordance with the University’s ethics approval.

The next stage of the process included going through the formal interview schedule and asking questions about the phenomenon under study. Moreover, when the interviews were formally terminated and the tape-recorder switched off, the researcher made notes of informal conversations that would take place. These notes were useful in the later stages of the research, as they helped in the interpretation of the data (Yin, 2014).

The analysis and interpretation of these interviews was carried out in various stages, as a consequence of the richness of the data derived. The results of the analysis are fully presented and described in Chapter Four and Chapter Five. The researcher fully transcribed all the interviews himself, according to Gorman and Clayton (2005, p. 137-138):

…if at all possible, and then simply listen to the tape recording of the interview. This will give you the opportunity to correct any mistaken impressions, enable you to transcribe any short, highly pertinent observations, and not preclude later transcription or partial transcription if required.
3.6.2.1 Group interviews

Two group interviews were carried out during the course of this research to gain further insight of the themes that had emerged during the study. These interviews were very informative as the participants interacted with each other giving more insights about the change management practices in these organisations. The process allowed each person to participate in the discussion in an open manner. The group interview allows interviewers to get a wider range of experience. The advantages of group interviews have been discussed extensively by various authors (Bassett, Beagan, Ristovski-Slijepcevic, & Chapman, 2008; Crabtree, Yanoshik, Miller and O’Connor, 1993; Culley, Hudson, & Rapport, 2007; Greenbaum, 1998; Krueger & Casey, 2000). Group interviews enable interaction between the participants and help to generate richer responses and verify data gained through previous research thus increasing the reliability of the research (Lewis, 1992, p. 413).

3.6.2.2 Translating the interviews

As most of the interviews were carried out in Creole, the researcher had to translate the responses into English before transcribing them. According to Kruse & Schmieder (2012: 248) qualitative researchers agree to interviews being conducted in the interviewees’ native language as it helps the participants feel more comfortable and express themselves more precisely in their native language.

Several issues have been considered during this translation process and the researcher ensured that there was equivalence of meaning or the right semantic meaning (Ihetveen, 2012; Sechrest, Fay & Zaidi, 1972). Literal translation of words carries the risk of cultural differences (Ihetveen, 2012) and would affect the results or the analysis of the research. According to Tarozzi (2013) the language-cultural has
several implications and ignoring it may lead to misunderstanding and loss of semantic power.

All the interviews were translated into English prior to analysis which is considered to be more appropriate when all the members of the research team do not speak the same language as the participants (Nurjannah, Mills, Parker & Usher, 2014). As there are no dictionaries (Creole-English or English) available for translation, the researcher used his own knowledge of subject-specific terminology, awareness of style and grammar, nuances, and idiomatic expressions which was sufficient to obtain acceptable translation (Halai, 2007, p.351). Translation of the interview texts were carried out in such a way that the basic requirements of (a) making sense, (b) conveying the spirit and manner of the original, and (c) having a natural and easy form of expression, were all met adequately” (Halai 2007: 351).

3.7 Data Analysis

This research has used a version of grounded theory method, which according to Charmaz (2005) involves a process of simultaneous data collection and analysis. This study has specifically focused on a form of grounded theory analysis as outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1990). Therefore, the extant literature was incorporated into the study as a means to confirm or counter evidence that emerged from the interview data. The data analysis is not a confirmation of prior literature, but rather an interplay between the researcher and the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; 2008, p. 13).

As mentioned in the literature review in Chapter Two, the three basic elements of grounded theory are concepts, categories and propositions, which are all related to the analytic process. In addition, the generation and development of concepts,
categories and propositions is an iterative process where theory is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

A complex method, grounded theory requires the researcher to find ways to organise an ongoing analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Researchers use memos and process notes to help in the analysis process. Throughout the data analysis process in this study, emergence and conceptualisation were undertaken constantly to help in the tentative formation of relationships between emerging concepts.

Traditionally, grounded theory takes researchers through a series of steps involving constantly comparing data with other data and the various concepts that have emerged. Therefore, another important phase of the research was the coding scheme, which relied most heavily on those proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990). Accordingly, there are three types of coding: open coding, axial coding and selective coding.

Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggest that researchers begin the analytical process with the use of analytical tools, such as, finding key phrases or words in documents and experimenting with meanings. In summary, the three types of coding can be described as follows (Strauss & Corbin, 1990):

- Open coding is a process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in data.

- Axial coding is the process of creating sub-categories and associating these with properties and dimensions.

- Selective coding is the process of integrating and refining the theory.
The coding scheme described above, which has been used in this study, is currently the most commonly accepted coding scheme for use with the grounded theory method (La Rossa, 2005).

3.7.1 Saturation

The researcher determined that saturation was reached when new concepts or categories had stopped emerging from the interviews. This decision is based on the person conducting the research and is very subjective. Creswell (2012) suggests that saturation of a grounded theory is typically reached upon interviewing 20 to 30 participants. In this study saturation was reached after 38 interviews because no new categories or properties were emerging from the existing data. Hence, the researcher determined that theoretical saturation had been reached as there were no new insights or themes emerging from the data. This was consistent with the Strauss and Corbin (2012, p. 212) statement;

(a) no new or relevant data seem to emerge regarding a category,
(b) the category is well developed in terms of its properties and dimensions demonstrating variation
(c) the relationships among categories are well established and validated

Therefore, all the above points suggested that saturation had been reached in the study and no further interviews were required.

3.7.2 Data management

Another important aspect in grounded theory research is the ability of the researcher to manage data efficiently. According to Harry, Klinger & Sturges (2005), the volume of data can quickly become overwhelming because of the inductive nature of the study. In this study, the researcher took notes to record any observations about
the participants during the interview process and also after the interviews. These notes were useful in later stages of the analysis to help in the reconstitution phases, and in relating concepts and ideas together. Therefore, data management was essential as it helped to organise high volumes of information and assist in retrieving data for analysis.

3.7.3 Data analysis method

At the heart of the data analysis is the stage where the researcher becomes immersed in the data and performs activities that become the ‘rituals’ of the analytic process and that have to be done continuously and consistently. These activities in the form of repeated comparisons, codings and sorting of data are all inclusive of the major characteristics of the grounded theory approach. Therefore, this method requires a high degree of fluidity and flexibility, as the researcher moves back and forth between data collection and analysis for the purpose of the, “validation of concepts and hypotheses as these are being developed” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 46).

As this research follows grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998), the data analysis follows a similar grounded theory procedure, including constant comparison, analytical coding, and memoing.

The following section demonstrates how the qualitative analysis was carried out in this study, involving analysing data by making use of constant comparison through the stages of open coding, axial coding and selective coding. As such, the process starts with the open coding process where concepts are first developed (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).
3.7.3.1 Constant comparison

The constant comparative analysis method is an iterative and inductive process of reducing the data through constant recoding (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This is the part of the analytic process where the researcher constantly compares data with data, incidents and concepts. Thus, in this study, as the interviews were analysed, the researcher used new data from transcripts and notes taken to identify similarities and discrepancies, and ultimately searched for initial substantive codes. At this stage, the aim of the analysis was to extract codes and build up concepts that demonstrated the most understandable and identifiable patterns to explain the central phenomenon in the research or the core category, if the latter had already been discovered.

According to Basit (2003), the coding process is the fundamental analytical process and plays a vital role in analysing, organising and making sense of textual data. Although the coding process is not linear and rather is a dynamic and flexible process, the initial stages mainly consist of an open coding process. In fact, constant comparison forms the basis of the entire analysis process in the research.

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), there are three major benefits of using the constant comparison method.

(a) This method protects against researcher bias because all conclusions must stand up to new data and conceptual formulations.

(b) This method helps to achieve precise results because broad generalisations will not be supported under the scrutiny of comparison.

(c) This method improves the consistency of the study and ensures that similar concepts are joined together.
Therefore, in this study, the data was constantly compared until the core category was identified. This particular category accounted for most of the variation in the patterns of behaviour of the individuals in the organisations under study.

3.7.3.2 Open Coding

Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 102) describe this first stage of the analysis as open coding because the researcher’s aim is to, “uncover, name and develop concepts” and “open up the text and expose the thoughts, ideas and meanings contained therein.”

In this study, the materials collected during the first phase of interviews and the research literature were reviewed to develop open codes from these sources as a starting point. During the open coding phase, the researcher carried out a microanalysis of the raw data from the interview transcripts where the data was broken down and analysed word-by-word and line-by-line. As Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest, there are different levels of open coding, but recommend the most arduous for beginners, so that they can create a habit of describing what they see while staying close to the data.

As the open coding continued it was necessary to keep the research questions in mind and keep asking questions, such as, what does this mean or what is going on here? Such questions assist in the selection and assignment of codes. Staying close to the research questions is important as it helps to come up with as many interpretations as possible of the data (Glazer, 1978; Strauss & Corbin, 1987, 1990, 1998, Birks & Mills, 2011).

The search for patterns was started by assigning common code labels, which were based on initial understandings of the actions of the respondents in relation to certain incidents. The first table in Appendix C illustrates this phase with two examples of
topics of relevance that were identified, coded and grouped based on similarities, which then formed particular concepts. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), and Glazer (1992), these concepts have to be examined and grouped together according to common themes and assigned to a higher order label. For example, the interviewees talked about training and development using different descriptions, which are illustrated below.

**Figure 3.3: Common themes under training and development**

- capacity building program put in place in a regular basis.
- building capacity of team members
- enhancing team member capabilities
- well organised training programs

Subsequently, the various concepts sharing characteristics or meaning are grouped to form categories, which are described as groups of concepts that are related to the same phenomenon (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

The second table in Appendix C illustrates the initial codes that were identified during the open coding process from interview transcripts.

**3.7.3.3 Axial coding**

According to Creswell (2013), axial coding emerges from open coding. During this step, the researcher focuses on one open coding category (called the core phenomenon), and goes back to the data and creates categories around this core phenomenon. Strauss and Corbin (1990) conceptualise the whole notion as a set of categories around the core phenomenon, which is seen as a visual model called the axial coding paradigm (Creswell, 2013). These consist of:
- Causal conditions (what factors caused the core phenomenon).
- Strategies (actions taken in relation to the core phenomenon).
- Intervening conditions (broad and specific situational factors that influence the strategies).
- Consequences (outcomes from using the strategies).

An example of axial coding is provided in Appendix C, which demonstrates how sub-categories were derived. Consequently, the sub-categories give a more powerful explanation of coding because they answer the questions, such as, when, where, who, how and with what consequence in relation to the core phenomenon.

3.7.3.4 Selective coding

Selective coding is the final step in the analytic coding process where the researcher takes the model and develops propositions that interrelate the categories in the model or assembles a story that describes the inter-relationship of categories in the model (Creswell, 2013). In other words, the nascent theory is integrated by linking the different categories to the central research phenomenon. The researcher tries to pull out the theoretical framework by integrating and connecting categories. Therefore, the theory developed, is articulated towards the end of the study and can assume several forms, such as, a narrative statement (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998, 2008), a visual picture (Morrow & Smith, 1995), or a series of hypotheses or propositions (Creswell & Brown, 1992).

Therefore, generally grounded theory is seen as a method for building theory, rather than verifying it (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). It ensures that theory is informed by and emerges from the data, and is not preconceived or forced upon the data. Strauss & Corbin (1998) suggest that researchers may consult literature or experience in order
to uncover examples of similar phenomena. Birks and Mills (2011, p.) refer to advanced coding and identify that this “is at the heart of theoretical integration”

### 3.8 Ensuring Quality

Patton (2002) states that validity and reliability are two factors that any qualitative researcher should be concerned about when designing a study, analysing the results and judging the quality of the study. Silverman (2004, p. 283) suggests that, “validity and reliability are two important concepts to keep in mind when doing research, because in them the objectivity and credibility of research are at stake.”

Many authors, such as, LeComte and Goetz (1982), Lincoln and Guba (1994), Eisner (1991), Lather (1993), Walcott (1993), Angen (2000), Richardson and St Pierre (2005), and Lincoln, Lynham and Guba (2011), have commented on the importance of validation in qualitative research and have used different terms for this purpose (cited in Creswell, 2013). Validity and reliability are used differently in qualitative research and are described below.

In qualitative research, validity addresses the credibility of the findings (Guba, 1981). This refers to the ‘truthfulness’ of the findings in the research, and it is the responsibility of the researcher to provide chains of evidence and sets of narrative accounts that are plausible and credible (Hammersley, 1992). As such, validity refers to the best available approximation to the truth of propositions. Validity is more important and comprehensive than reliability, as it is harder to measure and evaluate (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002).

On the other hand, reliability is the extent to which the set of meanings derived from several interpreters are sufficiently congruent (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). In addition, reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are
assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions (Hammersley, 1992).

### 3.8.1 Criteria for evaluation for grounded theory research

The criteria for assessing the quality of the data in quantitative and qualitative research are not similar. Creswell (2013) refers to two sets of criteria that can be used to judge the quality of the grounded theory research:

- Charmaz’s (2006) four criteria; and

Charmaz (2006) proposes the following four criteria: credibility, originality, resonance and usefulness.

Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998, 2008) identify seven criteria, in the form of questions, to be applied during the general research process:

1. How was the original sample selected? What grounds?
2. What major categories emerged?
3. What were some of the events, actions or incidents that pointed to some of these major categories?
4. On the basis of what categories did theoretical sampling proceed? Guide data collection? Was it representative of the categories?
5. What were some of the hypotheses pertaining to conceptual relations and on what grounds were they formulated and tested?
6. Were there instances when hypotheses did not hold up against what was actually seen? How were these discrepancies accounted for? How did they affect the hypothesis?

7. How and why was the core category selected (sudden, gradual, difficult, easy)? On what grounds?

Consequently, the above criteria guided the researcher during the data collection and analysis stage to confirm the findings, and to generate themes and categories from the data.

### 3.8.2 Trustworthiness

To maintain the quality of data and the standard of the research, it is important to ensure the trustworthiness and credibility of the study. As suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998, 2008), Lietz, Langer and Furman (2006), and Patton (2002), the researcher has to use multiple strategies to establish trustworthiness and minimise the risk of avoidable errors in the study. Merriam (1998) suggests five strategies: audit trail, member checking, peer debriefing, triangulation and reflexivity.

Other authors also provide various lists, which include some of the criteria listed above. Creswell (2013), and Creswell and Miller (2000) propose eight different procedures for achieving credibility and the trustworthiness of findings: prolonged engagement and persistent observation in the field, triangulation, using peer review or debriefing, negative case analysis, clarifying researcher bias, in member checks, rich think description and external audits (cited in Strauss & Corbin, 2008).
3.8.3  Strategies used to ensure trustworthiness

This study has used a combination of available strategies to ensure the quality of the study which are described below.

3.8.3.1 Audit trail

All interview records were kept in both hard copy and electronic formats to maintain an audit trail. All other materials, such as, transcribed copies of the interviews, memos and data analysis products were secured. Important notes in relation to the research, such as, incidents during interviews have all been recorded and kept to improve the quality of the data.

3.8.3.2 Constant comparative method

Constantly comparing data and information also helps to ensure the trustworthiness of the study. Researchers use comparative skills to stay grounded in the data. Similarly, in this study, comparison was made including incident-to-incident and afterwards with the literature or other data, with the aim to “stimulate … thinking about properties and to help pull the researcher’s thinking away from personal and professional experience” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; 2008, p. 122).

3.8.3.3 Triangulation

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the purpose of using triangulation is to establish consistency among the data, that is, to establish credibility. Guba and Lincoln (1994) also suggest that triangulation of data can come from four different sources: sources, theories, methods and investigators. This study used several theories and existing literature to triangulate data and support the themes emerging from the interview responses. Subsequently, pre-existing studies and research finding
helped in shaping categories and making comparisons. Therefore, it helped in ensuring the quality of the data, and developing theories and reports that are credible.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Using human beings in the methodology as the objects of inquiry in interviewing gives rise to ethical issues that are common in social science research. Many authors identify various issues related to the ethical considerations in the research methodology (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Leedy & Omrod, 2005; Patton, 2002; Wellington, 2000). The research adhered to the principles of sound ethical research, as presented by the Murdoch University Human Resource Ethics Committee, and an Ethics Clearance was obtained (2009/202). The research was conducted in accordance with the Australian Code For The Responsible Conduct Of Research and code of ethics established by the Ethics Committee to ensure that all ethical issues were addressed with honesty and integrity.

Data was safeguarded and confidentiality maintained in accordance with Murdoch University policy. The interviewee responses and input were accessible only to the researcher, his Supervisors and the University, where the data will be stored on removable media and in a locked filing cabinet for a minimum of five years after the publication of the findings.

3.10 Conclusion

This study examines the process and actions prior to, during and after the implementation of organisational change to gain an understanding of the factors involved. A qualitative methodology involving the grounded theory approach was
selected for this study because it required an in-depth analysis of the processes, interactions, relationships and results of the change efforts. Through the use of a complex and rigorous process of simultaneous data collection and analysis, this study allowed the emergence of a theory explaining change management practices in small island economies. The development of a theory based on the sample selected for this study was achieved and the results and recommendations for practitioners are described in the following two chapters.
Chapter Four: Intra-Case Analysis Findings

4.0 Introduction

This chapter systematically reports the analysis of the data collected during the interviews and identifies the themes which emerged after the completion of the coding process. The first section focuses on each case and describes the occurrence of each theme within the three organisations. The second section provides an in-depth intra-case analysis through comparison of the data obtained from each organisation in this study.

One of the main objectives of the study was to create a theoretical model of change management based on the practices of private sector organisations in Mauritius. The characteristics and different aspects of the strategies and conditions contributing to change management were studied by analysing the views and opinions of the individuals who had experienced a change process during their career in the case study organisations.

The study comprised individuals who had either led change or followed the leadership of others during a change effort. The participants delivered diverse perspectives, including differing views on the change management process, and the responses ranged from the most negative to the most positive extremes. As discussed in Chapter Three the data was collected in a three phase process in each of the three selected case study organisations. The next section will provide the profiles of the three organisations.
4.1 Profiles of the Three Organisations

The hotel selected for the study is part of a hotel group with properties in Mauritius, the Maldives and Réunion Island. The bank selected for the study is a leading financial services group in Mauritius with a growing international presence. The service provider selected for the study is an authority, which was previously a government department and is now a private entity. These three organisations represent three key industries in Mauritius.

4.1.1 The hotel

The hotel group, founded in 1987, comprises a collection of premium hotels in the Indian Ocean, and offers guests the opportunity to celebrate island life and enjoy light living. The group owns five resorts including three in Mauritius, one in the Maldives and one in Réunion Island. The company is mainly Mauritian owned and, as of 31 December, 2009, had more than 2,810 shareholders. In 2011, the hotel was relaunched under another name and with a drastic change in its vision, mission and strategies (Source: Taken from the Organisation’s Annual Report 2012; 2013)

The hotel industry in Mauritius has undergone major changes due to the global economic crisis. Some organisations faced some difficulties competing, and were compelled to come up with new measures and strategies to be able to survive. Given that the industry is vulnerable to external environmental incidents and intensified rivalry among competitors, some of these hotels were doing well and some less so. As discussed in Chapter three the participants in this study were selected from various hierarchical levels in the organisation.
4.1.2 The bank

The bank is a leading financial services group in Mauritius with a growing international presence. The organisation provides all the services of a universal bank within a diversified business model. The lines of business include: retail banking, small and medium enterprises, wealth management and private banking, corporate banking, international banking and global business, treasury services, eBusiness, fiduciary services, asset financing, stockbroking, and asset management (Taken from the Organisation’ annual report, 2013).

4.1.3 The authority

The authority is a service provider and one of the main agents for revenue collection in Mauritius. It is a privatised state-owned enterprise and was still going through a major change process when this research was conducted. This change consisted of the consolidation of previously separate major revenue departments. A stated objective of this change process was to reduce the level of corruption in the various organisations and to enhance the image of the organisation (Taken from the Organisation’s Annual Report, 2006/2007)

4.2 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Among the sample selected in the hotel, about 39 percent of the respondents in the study were between 21-30 years of age, 26 percent were between 31-40 years of age, and 35 percent were between 41-60 years of age. Among the sample selected in the bank, about 39 percent of the respondents in the study were between 21-30 years of age, 26 percent were between 31-40 years of age, and 35 percent were between 41-60 years of age. Among the sample selected in the authority, about 32 percent of the respondents in the study were between 21-30 years of age, 32 percent were between
31-40 years of age, and 37 percent were between 41-60 years of age. Figures 4.0, 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 below show the distribution of the participants according to their age groups.

**Figure 4.0: Demographic information on the three organisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>organisation</th>
<th>Hotel</th>
<th>Bank</th>
<th>Authority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size/number of individuals</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-60</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>Bachelor or higher</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>operational</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>management</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.1: The hotel (age groups)**

![hotel age groups diagram]
4.3 Results and Intra-Case Analysis

This section presents the results from the responses obtained during the interviews and group interviews of participants from the three different organisations. Consequently, the results are presented in a very systematic order organised and clustered appropriately under themes or headings that emerged during the initial stage of the study. The findings from the analysis suggest seven themes that
influenced the change management process in the private sector in Mauritius: organisational structure, organisational culture, leadership processes, individuals, knowledge, resistance to change and partisanship. This last theme or heading is an important unique finding in this study. The first organisation considered is the hotel, followed by the bank, and finally the privatised state-owned enterprise (the authority).

4.3.1 Organisational structure

Participants were asked to give their opinions about organisational structures and how these affected the change process. Respondents were asked about the type of structure their organisation had, including other dimensions, such as, standardisation, centralisation and formalisation, and to consider the relationship of structure to change. This section outlines the data as it was derived from the case study organisations.

4.3.1.1 Organisation structure at the hotel

Participants at the hotel emphasised the importance of the structural setting in relation to the change process. As stated in the literature, organisations may flatten their structures in times of uncertainty, thus making them more adaptable to the change (Gullov, 2006; Handel, 2014; Walton, 1985). This view was supported by the majority of participants. One observed:

The structure is definitely very important ... if your structure is very rigid it is very difficult to bring about change. We are now moving towards a flat organisation and are very open to consultation and communication. Directors now believe in an open door policy (HM1).2

2 Participant quotes use an identifier about the participants and their context, maintaining anonymity.
Questioned about whether these dimensions existed in their organisation, most hotel interviewees responded positively, but specified that a mixture of these aspects were present, as stated by another participant:

*All the dimensions mentioned here are present and I think that our organisation needs all these forms of organisation to carry out its business effectively. However, it is often difficult to differentiate one from the other* (HM3).

It was important to find out which of the structures favoured the change process in case study organisations. Therefore, questions that discussed the different types and forms of organisation were included, and the interviewees were asked to describe their company’s structure in relation to the following terms:

- Flat, tall, matrix, bureaucratic, network and virtual.
- Specialisation, standardisation, formalisation, centralisation, configuration and traditionalism.

One hotel participant reported the quest to find the right structure:

*The people at the top of the organisation have been trying to find an effective structure to make things happen in the organisation and we have been trying to flatten it so that there is less and less hierarchies. This process has started some two years ago* (HO3).

Participants also noted that the hotel had many different forms and structures from specialisation to traditionalism and expressed the view that this was important for the effective management of the group of hotels. Sometimes one of these forms would be more dominant but it was important to get the right balance, as witnessed by one of the managers: “*There should be a synergy between the processes. For example, you can’t have two production entities stand alone, as it is waste of resources* (HM5).”
Although, the organisation was part of a multi-national corporation most of the decisions were taken locally. This showed that there was very little centralisation in keeping with the strategy of the organisation to fit the regional context. A majority of the interviewees suggested that the appropriate structure for change to occur effectively was a flat organisation, in part due to ease of communication.

Among other elements considered during the interview was the relationship between the size and the structure of the organisation, that is, whether a change in the size of the organisation had an effect on the structure. In a normal and logical setting a growth in the organisational size would increase the prospect and necessitate greater work division, sharing and co-ordination to grow. Some authors have empirically substantiated this outcome, including Pugh and Hickson (1976), Blau and Schoenerr (1971), Child and Mansfield (1972), and Miller and Toulouse (1986).

Earlier studies have also shown that organisational size is positively associated with structural differentiation of levels and occupational categories (Blau, 1970; Blau & Shoenherr, 1971; Pugh et al., 1969). Larger organisations are more complex, and besides increasing the types of activities it increases the number of activities within each type. Blau (1970) builds a theory to explain the impact of size. Large size increases structure, which increases pressure for more administration to control and co-ordinate the increased heterogeneity of work activities. However, within sub-units, increased size increases the number of similar activities, which reduces the amount of administration required to co-ordinate them.

The larger the organisation, the more likely the basic design dimension will be formalised, central, specialised, standardised and complex. In addition, the hierarchy
of authority is typically a tall structure. Large organisations also reap the efficiency advantages of economies of scale.

Other questions relating to the organisational structure required the interviewees to talk about the size, technology, strategy and business environment of the firm. The aim was to know how these factors had affected the change management process during the last few years. The majority of the participants believed that it was not necessary to change the structure when changing any of the above mentioned factors.

### 4.3.1.2 Organisation structure at the bank

The participants in the study spoke of the structure of the organisation as a very important factor in organisational change and suggested that the outcome of the process largely depended on the type of structure the organisation had. They also had preferences for certain types that they thought would be appropriate for bringing about changes in organisations, as one participant suggested: “Structures should not be rigid ... should be flexible so that change is possible and efficient (S1).”

A majority of interviewees had problems describing the exact structure of their organisation. Although, they worked for the same organisation, they described these into different forms of settings such as pyramid, tall or matrix ones. This confusion may be attributed to the existence of different forms in the organisation and the interviewees could not distinguish between these.

The participants reported the existence of different organisational frameworks such as specialisation, standardisation and traditionalism. Consequently, there was a need for people who could do different jobs at the same time rather than workers having only one area of expertise. There was evidence of a high level of bureaucracy, as supported by one respondent:
There is a form for everything we do at the bank, all the duties and communications go in a very formal way, and most of the policies emanate from the Bank Of Mauritius (BOM) which is the central bank regulating and monitoring the actions of all the banks in the country (S3).

Although the employees had some freedom in decision-making, there was very little delegation of power as they had to consult their supervisor for most of the decisions relating to banking issues. Moreover, the employees felt that decision-making was reasonably quick due to the fact that everything was well organised and the environment within which they were operating required very timely actions. The employees considered training to be an important part of the organisational strategies to be able to work in such an environment.

A major emphasis was that the appropriate structure combined with the mission and the values of the organisation would lead to success, and bringing about changes in other aspects of the organisation mattered less. One respondent recognised that, “The structure is already there, and neither the strategy, size or technology would have an effect on it (S1).”

The different changes in the business environment were important, as these impacted on the operations of the organisation because it operated in the financial sector. The participants emphasised that it was vital for the organisation to adhere to its structure. Any changes to the formal setting of the organisation would be for the sake of raising the quality or the standards of the final output of the organisation, as affirmed by an interviewee:

*Changes in terms of size, technology or external factors like the business environment is always in favour of the organisation like increase in the quality of work, timeliness of decision-making or cutting cost to tackle difficult situations like the recent financial crisis (S4).*
Questioned about whether the existing structure (tall) helped the organisation in any way during the change, one respondent observed that:

*There is not enough freedom, and everyone is very hesitant. When taking decisions, we are always bothered by what will the boss think and how will he react* (S6).

The results indicated that the interviewees were of the opinion that changes in size, technology and strategy had little effect on the organisational structure. In other words, the organisational structure of the bank was basically built on a vertical management structure that adhered to principles, such as, task orientation, traditional performance appraisal system, vertical structure, high degree of specialisation, centralised decision-making, and high degree of formalisation.

However, there were elements that the interviewees perceived as ‘success factors’ for the effective management of such organisations and these can be listed as follows: flexibility, innovation, speed/timeliness, flat, teamwork, skills and experience, consultation and communication. A diagrammatic representation of the interrelationship between these factors is illustrated by Figure 4.4.

**Figure 4.4: Success Factors**
4.3.1.3 Organisation structure at the authority

As in the other two cases, most of the interviewees acknowledged that structure was one of the main factors that affected the successful implementation of change in organisations. One interviewee expanded this idea and suggested that: “Structures may either facilitate or hinder change management and my boss always talks about how to make the structure more efficient (MR2).”

Some of the participants struggled to identify the type of structure their organisation had and there was ambiguity concerning this part of the questionnaire. A group of participants seemed to be confused about the structure within which the organisation was operating and were not sure about it. This confusion was due to the fact that although it was supposed to be flat, it had most of the properties attributed to tall structures, such as, little or no delegation of power, lengthy and slow decision-making process with lots of procedures and formalities.

A majority of interviewees believed that the organisation had a mixture of different forms and structures, and thought that this aspect was important for the effective management of the organisation. The employees indicated that often the dominant forms would come out to be more significant, as revealed by an interviewee: “My organisation has certainly got aspects of most of the terms mentioned, but I think it will fit the term centralisation (MR4).”

Another perception was that the appropriate structure for change to occur effectively was a flat organisation configuration. This view was supported by a candidate:

*The organisation turned into a flatter structure and communication was more fluent and the flatter is the organisation, the more easier it is to bring about the change. Rigid structures make change difficult (MR12).*
Other responses related to bureaucratic organisations structures, which was one of the most common forms found in many of the organisations in the country. Most of the participants were of the view that bureaucracy was a barrier to successful implementation of change. An interviewee supported this view:

_Bureaucratic structures provide a very rigid platform and it is difficult to bring about change. This is because the decision-making process slows down when there are many levels in the hierarchies in the organisation very little delegation of power. For change to occur effectively there should be an efficient flow of communication between the different layers of the organisation (MR14)._ 

Most of the candidates agreed with this comment and one interviewee added that:

_My organisation’s structure is a tall one and it really relates to all the aspects of bureaucracy. Decision-making sometimes takes ages to be taken as it has to go from one level of the hierarchy to the other (MR1)._ 

Another interviewee stated that: “An appropriate structure will result in better communication system and better distribution of resources” and “should therefore design the best one to enhance the change program (MR4).”

The results also revealed that the organisation had all the features of a bureaucratic organisational form. However, many participants related the organisational structure to other important aspects of the organisation that might have an effect on change management.

The respondents indicated that factors, such as, communication, span of control, authority and decision-making process were vital in a change process. A group of respondents blamed bureaucracy for a slow decision-making process in the organisation, which they thought had blocked the change process to some extent. As a respondent explained:
My company has many aspects of bureaucracy and there are long chains of command, and decisions have to go back to supervisors before a clear cut decision is finally taken (MR9).

This organisation had more than 30 different sections that constituted different types of jobs, and some structural configurations were specifically used to maintain control throughout the organisation. For example, most of the decision-making process was centralised at the top and one participant suggested that: “My organisation fits the term centralisation as most of the decision-making mechanism is concentrated at the higher level of the hierarchy (MR11).” The respondents viewed this strict centralisation as a strategy to maintain consistency throughout the firm, as rules and regulations were the most appropriate tools given the nature of the business.

The other forms of organisation, such as, matrix and virtual, that were mentioned in the questionnaire were less popular and some were unknown. In addition, the interviewees suggested that the organisation had adopted a combination of different structures, that is, there was an amalgamation of the processes to conduct business effectively.

This created some confusion and respondents could not come up with a clear-cut distinction. Other questions relating to the organisational structure required the interviewees to talk about the size, technology, strategy and business environment of the firm. The aim was to know how these factors affected the change management process during the last few years.

4.3.2 Organisational culture

According to Mahler (1997), organisational culture influences employee attitudes within the process of organisational change by providing a reservoir of meanings against which experience and performance data are interpreted and inquiries about
changes in procedures and program technologies can proceed. In addition, Valentino and Brunelle (2004, p. 402) state that, “although the concepts of culture are abstract, they turn out to be highly related to creating effective organisation change.” The following sections will consider the aspect of organisational culture in the three organisations under study starting.

4.3.2.1 Organisational culture in the hotel

Another important theme that emerged from the data was the organisational culture. The participants described its importance in a change management process. Most participants agreed that organisational culture was among the most significant dimensions in any organisational change process. There was some agreement, however, on whether a cultural shift was essential to bring about organisational change. For example, one interviewee responded positively to this viewpoint: “Yes, it is very important, as I told you earlier, when you change the vision, the entire strategy changes. This includes the culture, your way of thinking etc (HM1).”

The organisational culture is one of the elements of an organisation that establishes how prepared the employees are to embark on a change process positively. One of the candidates supported this view:

*The way we do our job and the way we tackle problems, like the way we think, all these are indications of our work culture. And these things can be the determining factor for change management to take place (HO3).*

As the views varied among the individuals, a group of the interviewees were not of the same opinion. The following statement was different and was from a participant who did not share this view:

*I don’t think it is important as we don’t even have the proper culture ... work culture comes with the education system and ours is not training...*
people with the right mentality and there is no commitment and most of the employees act in a very selfish manner (HM6).

Conversely, some participants were of the opinion that the appropriate culture would be acquired after the change had taken place in the organisation. In this sense, one participant stated that:

*You have to know how to bring about the right culture. You have to motivate them and it’s not something that happens instantly. The team members should be very positive participate at all levels. Like we also bring foreigners, like ‘management gurus’ to talk to them and inculcate the right behaviour or attitude (HO7).*

Another important point to note here was that the different hotels of the organisation had leaders from different parts of the world and they were of different ages. It is likely that this contributed to different responses from one hotel to another.

As leaders of change, managers in the sector have various roles to play in the quest for increasing effectiveness through initiating change processes. In the hotel industry, managers should not only look at how to led, but perhaps more importantly at how followers are prepared to be lead (Okumus & Hemmington, 1998). Therefore, creating an effective workforce through proper motivation is the responsibility of the manager. Walkup (1997) states that motivated employees will perform more efficiently in serving customers.

In the same context, how the respondents appraised the culture of the organisation was wide ranging and depended on the factors that they regarded as important elements of the organisational culture. For example, one participant believed that his organisation’s culture was very strong:

*Yes, we actually have a very strong culture and this has impacted highly on our performance. For example, we were very far away (16th) in the*
ranking among the best hotels in Mauritius and we actually are 5th two years since the change has taken place. This is quite a progress and everyone is really motivated (HM3).

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), a strong culture is a powerful lever in guiding behaviour and that companies who cultivate their cultures have an edge that is shown in terms of productivity. Teamwork, co-operation, consultation and communication were considered to be very important in organisations. Furthermore, a strong culture makes employees feel better about what they do, so they are more likely to work harder (Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

As mentioned earlier in this section, the views of the participants differed and some believed that the culture had led to the weakening of values, such as, teamwork, commitment and open communication. One participant supported this view:

*I have an SOP to respect. My own culture and education internally is that I would never leave the job at the official time and stay here for 2-3 more hours. But how many people think like this? Very few. Like when you go to any office do you feel that there something different or unique about that place? May be in some very old institutions here (in this country). But, I think that we are a very young organisation and I have changed jobs 14 times, so where is the commitment, no one has ever tried to retain me when I was looking to improve and climb the ladder. This also means that if I get a better offer in a rival company, I’ll go there and even work harder (HM6).*

In addition to the organisational culture it was apparent that the ethnic culture was playing a role. The next part in this section will use the framework provided by Hofstede (1991) to examine and analyse the interviewee responses, and this will be used across the three cases. According to Hofstede (1991), the most important differences that could explain employees and managers behaviour and attitudes are the following five dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism / individualism, masculinity / femininity, and task orientation.
4.3.2.1.1 Power Distance

The results showed that the hotel was characterised by high power distance. As power and authority was centralised, most participants believed that employees rarely expressed differences or disagreements to their superiors fearing that they could be fired. They accepted all the decisions that were imposed upon them and their involvement in decision-making processes was very low. One participant justified this view with the following statement: “We accept disparity along the hierarchy, may be this is the way we are brought up and educated (HM1).” As a result, this culture helped to maintain control and ensure the efficiency of the operational level of the organisation.

4.3.2.1.2 Masculinity / femininity

Masculinity was another factor that dominated this sector as the place was characterised by a highly competitive environment and there was no consideration for modesty or caring in the style of management. An interviewee was of the view that the reason behind this was the population’s ancestral roots. He stated that: “This is due to our cultural background, that is, the majority of the population is from an Asian background (HO1).” Other participants held the same view: “80% of the population is from Asian and Indian background where the man is always considered as the dominant race (HM2).” Consequently, most of the top jobs in the sector were allocated based on the gender of the individuals which was also due to some religious inhibitions.

4.3.2.1.3 Collectivism / individualism

Although these two factors varied from place to place, the general tendency was more towards individualism as participants were of the view that “people are
obsessed with success.” Another popular reason advanced by the interviewees was the prevalence of a high rate of competition, which automatically led to people being very concerned with their own personal interest.

4.3.2.1.4 Uncertainty avoidance

Most of the participants agreed that uncertainty avoidance was high, which was reflected in the way business was done in the country. When asked about reasons for this, participants replied that since time immemorial the population has been behaving in this way, which might also be due to the poverty they had endured during the colonisation of the country. This was supported by a participant who thought that:

*No one wants to take risk of any sort when investing their capital in any sort of project. They are very precautious and always look for foreign investors as partners in their business (HM4).*

Miroshnik (2002) concludes that there are elements, such as, values and social structures that emerge from national cultures and directly influence an organisation’s activities and procedures through their employees. In this study, the objective for using Hofstede’s (1991) framework of national culture was to know how far these results were in line with his findings. This will be discussed further in Chapter Five.

4.3.2.2 Organisation culture in the bank

Participants stated that the role of culture as a factor for change was predominant, and pointed out the importance of strong cultural values, such as, teamwork. According to Peters and Austin (1985), shared company values affect individual performance because shared values set a framework, whereby employees can flexibly and speedily respond to day-to-day situations. One statement from a participant justified and elaborated this view:
We have lots of team work and introducing or adopting the right culture is very important ... there is team spirit, solidarity and consultation where everyone's ready to help ... there is a personal or human touch and we think that at the end of the day the reputation of the Section is at stake (SM2).

Most of the respondents at a managerial level, however, expressed a strong belief that the right culture helped to bring about the change process with fewer hurdles. One interviewee suggested that:

The most important task for us is to create a positive attitude about organisational change, which is only possible with the right culture. This would in turn help the change effort to gain acceptance (SM7).

Another issue revealed in the data was the difference in points of view between employees of different ages. This element made a difference as employees believed that there was a varying culture because of age gaps. This viewpoint was brought forward by a participant who explained that:

We have differing views, our ideas also differ, our managers have been working for a long time and our ways of thinking are different ... our point of view doesn't match (S1).

The participants discussed the difficulty of changing the culture of organisations because its original culture was rooted firmly, and would initially involve changing the attitudes and behaviours of the workforce. The participants indicated that such behaviours and attitudes were embodied in the workforce of the organisation: “Young people accept the change, but senior managers are very sceptic as they are used to certain routines. Change happens as they do not have other choice (S3).”

The interviewees also mentioned that changing the culture of the organisation usually implied the alteration of many other elements of the organisation, which would normally de-motivate the leaders to undertake a culture change. These included core
elements, such as, the strategy and structure of the organisation, and many leaders avoided indulging in such changes. When questioned about how an appropriate change could be brought about, the majority of participants indicated that it was important to make the employees comfortable and receptive through employee education. One interviewee suggested that: “Culture change needs appropriate education and training, it also needs formal and informal communication and lots of commitment on behalf of the leaders of change (S4).”

The participants also described the leaders of the organisational leadership as one of the most important pillars in the change process. Their action and contribution is vital in many ways, such as, the way they treat the individuals in the organisation and the way they view the change process. The leadership aspect will be returned to later.

However, the interviewees agreed that this organisation had a strong culture and it was not necessary to change it to bring about change. As such, a strong culture can enhance the likelihood that members will display a high degree of commitment. Some participants suggested that once you get into the company you will be fit into the shell of the culture dwelling in the organisation.

The following section addresses some of the aspects of national culture as per Hofstede’s (1991) framework. The country has had a flourishing past with links to slavery, colonialism and exposure to both French and British bureaucratic administration and practices. This historical antecedent could play a major part in shaping the cultures of organisations in the country.

4.3.2.2.1 Power distance

The bank was an adequately organised and highly monitored organisation, and it showed signs of high power distance. Although the organisation’s agendas, missions
and values publicised for equality, most of the respondent believed that this was not the case in reality. The respondents suggested that management does not really interact with its employees, or encourage them to participate in discussions and decision-making.

4.3.2.2 Uncertainty avoidance

The data showed that members of the organisation were not keen to take much risk. They preferred being allocated specific roles, and periodically reviewed ideas to minimise uncertainty and chaotic situations in the business. However, the overall results showed that employees were inclined to favour more structured environments.

4.3.2.3 Masculinity / femininity

Although there was a policy for equal opportunities in the organisation, figures from the data did not justify this position. However, there were differing views from male and female employees. Male respondents claimed that they accepted the aspects of low masculinity, but female respondents had a different opinion: “The male employees do not accept a woman as their boss, their ego is so strong (S6).”

In this dimension, the data was confusing. The results showed that most of the members of the organisation supported femininity, as they were concerned about supporting co-workers. However, the data showed that individuals favoured a masculine organisation. As this cultural dimension refers to the expected gender roles in leadership, the female interviewees were of the opinion that there was an expectation: “For men to have more power and expect men to be effective leaders in organisations.”

There was some indication that the approach in this sector was less considerate (for example, a lack of work goals, friendly atmosphere, position security, physical
conditions and co-operation), and that gender-wise the employees were not interested in helping their colleagues or trying to resolve conflicts. However, an equal gender proportion in the sample would have possibly reduced bias in the results in this dimension and given a more balanced view.

4.3.2.2.4 Collectivism / individualism

The properties related to the collectivism / individualism dimension highlighted a strong collectivist culture. Employees strived to maintain harmony and consensus, and possess a highly developed sense of team spirit where the team effort is more important than personal credit. Table 4.1 below summarises the whole scenario of national culture in the organisation as per Hofstede’s (1991) dimensions.

Table 4.1: National culture in the organisation: Bank

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<td>Uncertainty avoidance</td>
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4.3.2.3 Organisation culture at the Authority

At the Authority, the interviewees expressed their views about the relevance of the organisational culture as a contributor of successful change. One interviewee suggested:

*I think that culture had always had an influence on change management. And our efforts, performance, willingness and commitment are all centred around the organisational culture acquired during our career with the organisation* (MR14).
The organisational culture always determines how ready people are to embrace change favourably. Therefore, one candidate pointed out:

*The way people think determines the way they perform. If for example they have a positive attitude and are always ready to take up challenges to increase performance, they might welcome change positively (MR8).*

Interviewees shared their opinions and had mixed feelings about whether it was important to change the organisational culture for the change process to occur. If a group of them believed it was important to bring about such a transition in culture, others did not acknowledge this point of view.

One major observation was that this case was different from the two previous cases. Participants revealed that the appropriate culture was acquired after the change had taken place in the organisation: “*Slowly you have to adapt to the new ways of doing things. Therefore everything has to change like the way of thinking, doing your job etc (MR3).*”

Questions about how people appraised the culture of the organisation varied and depended on the factors the employees considered important as an aspect of organisational culture. The participants had their own opinion of cultural values and facts and some even came up with factors like ‘patriotism’.

However, those who considered teamwork to be an important aspect of culture believed that the organisational culture had weakened. According to the respondents, this change was due to the fact that teamwork had declined because people had become very ‘selfish’ and everyone was thinking that: “*He will be the boss tomorrow.*” As most of the candidates deplored the aggravation of the situation in terms of human relations, one interviewee observed that: “*Everyone acts for his own*
personal interest and there is no solidarity or co-operation among colleagues (MR1).”

The other reason brought forward by the interviewees for this decline was the grouping of different departments together had meant that the employees had to work with new colleagues. One participant provided his understanding of the situation: “The merger with other departments had turned the employees into very self-centred beings and bonds with each other had been lost (MR9).”

Those who assessed the culture as strong referred to elements like professionalism and the way of doing their jobs. One participant emphasised that:

There is more professionalism and people's mentality has changed and so has the way they do things. With the new generation everything is changing and the culture is becoming stronger and stronger, that is, the change has brought a completely new culture (MR11).

The employees strongly indicated that it was important to create the right environment, framework and emotion to nurture the appropriate culture. According to Buchanan, Fitzgerald, Ketley and others (2005), the way in which an organisation fosters shared beliefs, perception, norms, values and priorities reflects the organisation’s culture. The importance of developing positive change attitudes throughout the workforce ensures successful change implementation (Jones, Jimmieson & Griffiths, 2005).

The interviewees believed that culture had a vital role in the process: “It is also very important to create the right culture, so that people work with their heart and show more commitment (MR6).”
As with the other two cases the authority was also analysed using Hofstede’s (1991) dimensions of national culture.

4.3.2.3.1 Power distance

The organisation had a high power distance structure and the employees accepted the fact that: “The higher an individual’s position in an organisation, the greater should be his power and his responsibility.” One interviewee supported this view and explained that: “The higher your responsibility, the more accountable you are and the greater power you should have (MR12).” The employees deferred to the judgment and decisions of their supervisors. As power and authority was centralised, most participants believed that employees rarely expressed differences or disagreed with their superiors fearing that they could be fired. They accepted the decisions that were imposed upon them and their involvement in decision-making processes was very low.

However, a minority of the candidates indicated that there had been a change in attitude of the managers and some of them had shown the willingness to consult and discuss with their subordinates before taking decisions.

4.3.2.3.2 Uncertainty avoidance

Among the three organisations under study, the authority had the highest degree of uncertainty avoidance as the rules of conduct and decision-making were clearly documented in an Act and Regulations to assist in decision-making processes. In addition, decisions relating to major issues were monitored by a legal department.

4.3.2.3.3 Masculinity / femininity

The nature of the job at the authority privileged a very competitive environment with people favouring high achievement orientation, value assertiveness and materialism.
The job was also dominated by male officers whereas their female counterparts represented only around 30 percent of the total number of employees of the organisation. Progressing through the higher levels of the organisation fewer and fewer females were seen. According to most of the interviewees, this inequality was due to the nature of the work environment that required individuals with tough management attitudes and less emphasis on relationships and the well-being of others.

4.3.2.3.4 **Collectivism / individualism**

The tendency among the respondents revealed a high level of individualism and a low level of collectivism. The interviewees suggested that the employees only worked in groups for certain projects, but the workplace was characterised by people acting for their own personal interest.

4.3.3 **Leadership processes**

Leadership has been identified as one of the major factors in the successful implementation of change processes. Hence, several researchers agree that during times of major change effective leadership has been attributed to successful outcomes (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Yukl, 2010). Leadership has emerged from the data as an influential element in the change process.

4.3.3.1 **Leadership at the hotel**

At the hotel leadership was a strong theme. The interviewees agreed that the leaders of organisations had an important role to play in this process. They recognised that these people can make a real difference during change and had great effect on the outcome of the process. As the hotel was characterised by close interactions and
association among managers and employees, the participants believed that effective leadership approaches would positively affect the change process.

The respondents were asked to narrate their experiences with their leaders at the time of the change. The literature shows that some qualities, such as, integrity, vision, toughness, confidence and enthusiasm, are universally recognised qualities for leadership (Adair, 2005).

Most of the respondents in the organisation acknowledged that various specific and contextual features are vital for the managers during a change process. Again, there were various kinds of views and the majority of participants believed that most of the managers were supportive and helpful during the process. The interviewees agreed that the leaders of organisations had an important role to play in this process, and they recognised that these people can make a real difference during change and had great effect on the outcome of the process.

Kent, Johnson and Graber (1996) recognise that leaders exert influence over situations and interact with others. The common leadership traits that the candidates considered to be very important included ‘charisma’, communication skills, trustworthiness, motivational skills, passionate about the job, supportive and role model.

The questions in this part of the interview included elements, such as, the attitude of the managers towards the employees and their roles as leaders of the process. One participant shared his feelings about the situation:

_The majority of managers were very helpful and supportive during the process. As they had trust in their employees. You know, it is a two-way traffic and if they trust us they know that we will give the best of ourselves_ (HO8).
Another candidate confirmed this:

*Our managers explained the importance of the process and showed us the benefits and as were had to make a fresh start from where we were trained and communication was very open. This was really important otherwise many would have left the organisation or else continued to work in the same old way (HO10).*

The data revealed that leaders were expected to lead and guide the employees as role models and develop an effective communication strategy during the change. One manager, when asked about his experience with his subordinates, described it as follows:

*I definitely have had the trust and co-operation from most of the employees and everyone is very motivated here. If you go downstairs now, you’ll see everyone smiling and satisfied. This has reflected on our guest satisfaction index which actually around 95 percent and is our measure for performance (HM3).*

As the experience of every individual is not similar during a change process, there was also a group of participants who viewed the situation differently. These individuals believed that everything had changed and their leaders were not very reliable. They did not have total trust in them. One interviewee was a bit confused and frustrated with his situation:

*My boss is from a different country and he sometimes does not understand the context of our cultures and tradition. He is also a bit old and rooted in his colonial style which is very difficult to cast aside from him. As a matter of fact our hotel is quite big and we’ve got other managers who are from other countries which complicates our situation. And I don’t think that with a party at the end of the year we can change all this. To sum up let me tell you that we’ve not had any pay rise since two years now (HM8).*

The cultural aspect is often neglected by leaders during organisational change (Bligh, 2006; Cartwright & Cooper, 1996; Kavanagh & Ashkanasy, 2006). Kotter (2008)
argues that leaders have to take into consideration the national culture as it is hard to separate them from the individual. The above comment indicates an erosion of trust which is in keeping with findings in the literature. Change processes come with promises in the form of psychological contracts that cannot be found on paper, and usually the acceptance or resistance of change depends on these contracts.

Some studies have demonstrated that line managers are the primary contract-makers for employees (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Stanton, Young, Bartram & Leggat, 2010). As such, aspects that contribute to effective leadership include being a role model, having integrity, having a clear vision, being oriented to excellent performance, acting as a good team worker, being decisive, being managerially competent, and being diplomatic.

4.3.3.2 Leadership at the Bank

Participants from the bank discussed the role of leaders in their everyday life and strongly believed that these people have a crucial role to play at the workplace. The reasons provided were that the behaviour of the leader affected their commitment and overall performance. The leader was expected to deal with ambiguity at the office, execute in a timely manner, have good communication skills, and build relationships and partnerships with all the stakeholders involved.

When questioned about the qualities they appreciated in their leaders, the bank employees identified the following aspects as very important for the success of a change management process: knowledgeable, very skilful including project management and conflict resolution skills, not too formal, capability of maintaining relationships, clear-cut and transparent in decision-making, good academic background and trustworthy.
One feature that the employees believed was crucial was ‘trust’ between each other in the workplace. This is consistent with the hotel case discussed earlier, but was more prominent in the bank data. The interaction between people at the office was thought to have a significant impact on the final outcome. The candidates talked about the role of trust in the workplace and believed that leadership style was one of its determining factors. However, views were different among the respondents. Some interviewees trusted their managers, and others did not: “My boss is the dictator type and he is just concerned about the job and figures (S7).”

The frustration level in this office was quite high and one female employee described her position as, “not dedicated and just do the job”, as she was always negatively criticised by him. On the other hand, some of them were very happy and trusted their supervisors to a large extent. For example, one interviewee commented that, “it is a real pleasure to work for a manager who trusts you as he always helps you (S12).”

Most of the participants explained that trust involved two-way traffic at the office and should never be abused to maintain a good relationship among colleagues. As these statements provided two different views, the element of trust seemed to depend on the type of relationship that employees had with their immediate managers. The respondents complained about a lack of empathy, compassion, fairness and encouragement in their interactions with their managers.

However, it was impossible to find all of these qualities in every leader. The role of the leader is to inspire employees and acting with honesty and integrity (Caldwell, 2003) by shaping a realistic and attractive future (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlesinger, 1994, 2008).
4.3.3.3 Leadership at the Authority

It became apparent that leadership was one of the main factors that could make a real difference during change and have great effect on the outcome of the process. Most of the participants at the authority agreed to some common qualities that they thought were vital, although there was a rich combination that came up at the end of the interviewing process. However, the following is a list of leadership traits that were most often mentioned by participants: role model, integrity, consistency in decision-making, fairness and transparency in actions, knowledgeable, supportive and trustworthy.

The authority participants talked about their experiences with their leaders during the change process, including the attitude of the managers towards the employees and the element of trust. The majority of interviewees acknowledged that trust was vital during a change process, but again there were two different sorts of views. Some had total trust in their leaders, and others did not feel they could trust their supervisors or their colleagues. For example, one participant claimed:

_Truly you should have belief in your employees. You have to trust them. The department has adopted a tradition with the change process to show its trust on the employees and this is done by electing the best officer each year. But the way it is done is really biased as it is unfair and there is no transparency_ (MR1).

A majority of participants believed that everything had changed and their leaders were reliable. They had total trust in them. One of the key attributes of successful leadership is the ability and willingness to behave in ways consistent with the changes that are being brought about in an organisation (Maccoby 1981). A minority of the respondents revealed a lack of guidance at times as everyone was worried
about his/her own position in the organisation and communication about the changes was not effective. One interviewee confirmed this point of view:

An appropriate behaviour contributes to the success of the change process. Similarly, awareness of the different policies and the different outcomes helps a lot. If the managers were able to communicate these aspects of the process, this would have eased its implementation and bring about more acceptance. Here I think that most of the managers had failed in their duties (MR4).

In this context, observers highlight the need for leaders to ‘walk the talk’ (Duck, 1993). In other words, they have to ‘practice what they preach’ (Beckhard & Harris, 1987), and also behave in new ways that indicate a strong commitment to the vision (Beckhard, 1989). The authority participants generally seemed to be of the view that their leaders had not achieved this.

4.3.4 Individuals

The change process is also dependent on the employees who most of the time execute the plan. Jones et al. (2005) suggest that when employees view the organisation as having strong human relations component, they are more likely to have a positive outlook towards proposed organisational changes. Hathaway (2003) suggests that employees do not necessarily support changes. This means that organisations should be prepared to build up the necessary commitment and competencies in employees to carry out the required level of change. As Buchanan and others (2005) advance, the topic of the individual also relates to the emotional preparedness and attitudes of individuals, and whether they can clearly identify what expectations they must meet to help achieve change. Therefore, leaders must have respect for individuals and their contributions, which form part of effective leadership (Darling & Beebe, 2007; Plettinx & Lenssen, 2007).
4.3.4.1 Individuals at the hotel

Respondents from this organisation affirmed that individuals are the ones who play a significant part in the success of the change process as one of the main stakeholders. Also, the efficiency of the hotel industry in the country was primarily dependent on its employees, as it is a labour intensive sector. However, previous studies have shown that most employees do not necessarily support change.

The respondents discussed how they changed in their inner and outer self when the change process occurred in their organisations. Most respondents agreed that change in their behaviour and personality was inevitable, and that change can happen in various aspects of the job. Again, the responses varied including both positive and negative experiences of the situation. As such, a group of interviewees were of the opinion that they had no choice other than to adapt to the situation unwillingly.

As the change process was also determined by factors like the level of motivation, type of management, and the level of involvement and participation, the interviewees indicated that acceptance of the process was a function of how efficiently and effectively these organisational mechanisms were undertaken.

Organisational change brings new opportunities for learning, better understanding, new perspectives and performance of diverse roles. These opportunities act as leverage for changes in behaviour and determine how motivated the employees are to get involved in the process. A vast majority of the respondents agreed that the organisation had a vital role to play in their overall personal development, including providing training. This was corroborated by one candidate:

*I have changed in the sense that I am more motivated and feel I am ‘partie prenante’ of the process. That is, my mindset has really changed and feel that I am living the whole process* (HO8).
The responses indicated that in workplaces where the change was conducted in a democratic way, employees were involved in the process. The employees received the required training, which helped them to develop new attitudes towards their work and the way they dealt with their job. This supports Burke’s (1987) findings, which emphasises the importance of involving individuals in the process of change as the key approach. Burke (1987) suggests that to increase effectiveness it was important to align individual needs with organisational goals. In cases where this was not happening appropriately, employees displayed resistance to change in an emotional manner, such as, through anger, fear and sadness, which was leading to a decline in morale at the workplace.

Organisations are believed to stimulate positive behavioural change by providing their employees with the necessary conditions and motivation. In turn, this would lead to encouraging and beneficial conditions that would boost the success of the organisation. One interviewee supported this important aspect of the business:

*Employees become more responsible and committed when you have feelings and consideration for them and look after them. For example, in our case this had a great impact on the service they provide as they are most of the time the first point of contact with our customers. We have also been able to cut down the rate of absenteeism drastically as they feel they are being looked after very well (HM3).*

It was important to gain the employees commitment so that they seize the new opportunities for learning, gain a better understanding, accept the new perspectives and undertake the performance of diverse roles. Employee involvement in organisational processes is perceived to be a best practice in change management (Rampersad, 2008, 2010).
Another important finding was that there was a lack of consideration from the management about the human aspects of the job. The participants suggested that the owners did not believe in investing in human capital. Most of the time fewer strategies were adopted to attract or retain good quality human resources including little being done to keep workers motivated.

One interviewee was of the view that his organisation was not investing in people and ‘deplored’ the lack of devotion from the part of the management:

_We get nothing apart from our pay. There is no extra incentive or other types of plan to motivate us. This is because our managers are concerned more about the operations of the hotel. In fact we are always short of staff and the turnover rate is very high. Our human resource team does not make any effort to retain its employees and whenever someone gets a better offer they just leave the company (HM9)._ 

The responses also indicated that in such cases there was a lack of commitment from the employees as the organisation was not able to create the necessary conditions. It was important to understand that human capital investment entails the development of skills required for the actualisation of organisational objectives. In turn, this generates worker responsibility and commitment where the implementation of the change process becomes much easier. Reina and Reina (1999, 2006) highlight the organisational consequences of ignoring the impact of change on employees.

4.3.4.1.1 Socialisation at the hotel

Interviewees had difficulty understanding this term, as some had never heard of it. According to the participants, the reason was that there was no proper socialisation process being undertaken in the organisations. There were different interpretations of the term and most of these related to groups of people socialising with each other, as commented by one respondent: ‘_We have a committee ‘d’entreprise’ [management

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committee] meets regularly to talk about these issues. We also have lunch with the team members, outings, excursions and end of year party (HM4).”

A majority of interviewees reported that people did not have enough time to carry out the process in a legitimate way:

This is a very competitive and very demanding sector and the nature of the job does not allow us to carry out the socialisation process in the way we would have liked. There is so much press to deliver the services at a really high standard where the operations of the organisation comes on top of our priorities, like sometimes it is a question of getting the job done at any cost (HM2).

Another participant then shared another critical view of the situation:

We cannot talk about socialisation when there is not even a proper training culture. And it is a fact that inductions means just giving the new employee some brief instructions and a set of uniform and tell him to just start working after half an hour. There is not even a session to make him understand and introduce him to the settings of the organisation (HM3).

4.3.4.1.2 Training at the hotel

In recent years, training has grown in importance and many organisations have identified it as one of their main priorities for providing a high quality standard and making progress in the field. As these companies are in the service sector, there is an awareness that training and providing opportunities for development of employees by updating their knowledge and skills will help to improve and perfect their abilities and output.

The participants from the hotel stressed the importance of training and development in any change program. However, as in other cases, there were differing views and also some disagreements about the issue. The results indicated that those working at
specific levels of the hierarchy, mainly those at the operational level did not feel that they had received enough training to improve themselves or their work.

One of the managers, however, did not agree with this view and insisted that employees were being provided with the adequate amount of training they required to progress and cope with the changes the organisation was undergoing. He revealed that there was a complete strategy for training needs that helped to undertake the process efficiently. According to another participant, the organisation had improved in this field:

*There is a policy at the organisation where training and development is undertaken in a more strategic way. We always do a training needs analysis and the actual performance appraisal system helps us to know who actually needs training in the organisation (HM7).*

As mentioned earlier, the reactions to this issue were mixed according to the experiences of the participants. A different perspective on this issue was provided by one candidate:

*Training was given just to do the job and not in any other field. For example it is sought to develop the commitment of the individuals or add value to their outputs or for their personal developments (HM3).*

Other participants added that even if many organisations recognised the need for training, it was hard to find any training culture among other organisations in the hotel industry.

4.3.4.1.3 Managerial behaviour

As discussed, managers should be the pioneers of change, and steering the effectiveness of the process is their responsibility. All the models of change indicate that managers should be acting as the champions of change and should always be
taking initiatives to ensure that it takes place properly. Most participants agreed that the acceptance level of the change process depended mostly on the attitudes of the managers. The majority of hotel participants agreed that the managers had been of great help.

In fact, on many occasions, the managers had been the initiators of the change program through their useful skill and talents. As reported by one interviewee: “most of our managers knew their jobs and were helpful enough to carry us safely throughout the transition period, and supported us till the very end (HM4).” Another participant supported this view and provided another perspective:

Our manager inspired us with the right attitude, trust and confidence. This was very important, as at some point of the journey, we were like in the middle of nowhere. And I think during these crucial moments he was the most important person to us (HM2).

Respondents who were part of the management in the upper level of the hierarchy emphasised the importance of training managers at all levels of the organisation during the initial stages for the change to take place smoothly. One of the managers specified that:

Even if we had the full support of most managerial staff, there are a couple of them who are still rooted in their old way of thinking, and with them it is a work in progress (HM9).

As in previous cases, some of the participants were more critical and had a very strong opinion about the issue, for example:

The whole education of the manager has to be done again, as no one sits to think about the human aspect of the situation. For example exit interviews are conducted just for the sake of doing it. No one analyses the outcomes of the interviews to know the real source of the problem as the turnover rate is quite high in our organisation. I would even say that
the managers do not do enough to retain employees desiring to leave the company (HM7).

4.3.4.1.4 Organisational Change program

Organisation change programs are meant to give the employees information about why and how the organisation is going to change and what the benefits will be. In most cases in the hotel a misunderstanding of the process led to a resistance to change, as people were not aware of the consequences because they were not well informed.

The participants observed that the best way to bring about change was to hold information workshops prior to initiating the process. The individuals acknowledged that at the initial stage of the process the organisation did try to organise such workshops. One participant, like many of his co-workers recognised this:

There was a couple of such campaigns where we had managers coming from various branches and even one of the regional managers came to hold such workshops. They tried to communicate ideas and the new strategies that were being implemented which was quite useful to everyone of us (HM7).

Some candidates also added that in addition to the senior managers from other branches helping, there were also external agents who came to the organisation to facilitate the process and make it happen:

We have management gurus who have worked in different part of the world and having dealt with various cultures, coming to communicate and inform our employees of the benefits of taking new directions and why it is essential to do so (HM3).

A group of participants regretted that the awareness campaigns stopped completely at some point in time, and one interviewee added that: “Afterwards everything just cools off and we are not made aware of what is happening (HM2).” This was
supported by another participant: “All the measures are then just imposed on us and we cannot give our views (HM14).”

4.3.4.1.5 Trust

As mentioned earlier, the sector was very competitive. Most participants agreed that they could not trust anyone completely. They accepted that, in order to work in harmony, they needed to have some trust in their colleagues which would facilitate their job. As one interviewee stated: “Trust is essential, but, it is always valuable to verify work processes to ensure that we are staying on track and going in the right direction (HM8).”

A group of managers believed they had no choice other than to rely completely on their employees, as this was the only way their work progressed. They also suggested that it was two-way traffic, for example: “There is mutual trust, I think I can trust my employees and they can trust me a hundred percent (HM3).”

A minority of participants (managers) observed that it was not easy to rely on people when it came to delegate responsibilities, as one interviewee commented:

*It is quite different to believe someone and trust someone. My experience, while conducting performance appraisal procedures, has shown me that verbally people accept everything, including responsibilities, but when it comes to really accounting for it, they run away from the commitments. Therefore, you have to be very cautious about to whom you can delegate your power or responsibility (HM 9).*

4.3.4.1.6 Conflict

One of the most difficult tasks in any organisation is managing the relationships between individuals. Managers need to be well prepared and equipped to deal with conflicts. Usually, it is difficult to find a balance between successful and ethical
business practices and a social purpose (responsibility)\(^3\) to keep harmony across the workforce. One participant suggested:

*Most of the time it is quite difficult to satisfy everyone working with you and finding a consensus is also very hard at times. But we have the choice between pleasing people or getting our job done in the right way (HM7).*

He also indicated that:

*Conflicts arose due to the fact that each individual has his own way of thinking taking into consideration his background and culture in which he has been brought up, but we have to find out which one is in line with good and ethical business practices (HM7).*

Finally, participants believed that most of the conflicts in the workplace were contained and controlled, and only when: *“We tried to please people a lot that we got stuck in the processes.”* The most effective way to resolve these conflicts involved effective communication and negotiating skills of managers.

**4.3.4.1.7 Rewards**

There are various ways to motivate employees and one of these is by providing appropriate rewards. These rewards might be intrinsic and extrinsic. Extrinsic rewards are usually financial, and are the tangible rewards provided to employees by managers, such as, pay raises, bonuses and benefits. They are called extrinsic because they are external to the work itself, and other people control their size and whether or not they are granted. In contrast, intrinsic rewards are usually psychological and gained from doing meaningful work and performing it well. Intrinsic motivation comes from inside a person, and includes a sense of

\(^3\) Recognition and acceptance of the consequences of each action and decision one undertakes including caring towards others and acceptance of individual and cultural diversity (Polk, 2002)
achievement, responsibility, job satisfaction, purpose, involvement, empowerment and ownership. These aspects make an employee feel that what they are doing makes a difference in their lives and in the organisation itself. If employees feel that what they are doing is insignificant, they will feel insignificant. In turn, if they feel that their work is valued, they will feel valued.

Most participants believed that changing processes and strategies requires extra efforts from the workers to meet the new challenges. However, no-one wants to work harder or learn new skills without being remunerated or without any incentive. One participant explained the efforts made by his organisation to reward people:

*We use different means of incentives to reward individuals. For example we have devised schemes like employee of the year, employee of the month, or the employee with the least number of absences. So these people get rewards like an extra bonus for the extra effort they make.*

Participants observed that due to the global economic situation, organisations are aware that rivalry and competition has intensified during the past few years. The need for change is ever-present and vital for survival. As one participant commented:

*We are compelled to increase organisational effectiveness and need to motivate our employees so that they do more than what they are intended to do and think they can do. Therefore, we need to provide the appropriate incentives and reward them accordingly (HM7).*

However, the majority of hotel interviewees were not happy with the return for their efforts to meet new work standards. One participant explained the situation:

*We would prefer receiving a more substantive type of incentive than a mere certificate. For example a sort of monetary reward would be more encouraging and I believe would push us to give our best.*
The role of rewards in motivating employees during a change process is complex. According to Lussier (2006) recipients of change seem to react positively to rewards and help leaders create win-win situations related to change.

4.3.4.1.8 Morale

The interviewees discussed another highly evaluated aspect of their job, namely, morale in the workplace. According to the hotel participants, high morale fostered teamwork and increased motivation among the workforce. It was the job of the managers to keep it at a level that would engender high confidence and commitment among the employees. Most of the interviewees placed a high importance on this issue, as one candidate explained: “I believe that morale directly affects our attitudes, motivation and our performance level (HM3).”

Participants at different levels of the hotel, however, did not have the same opinion about morale. For example, some believed that it was at its peak: “Morale in our offices is quite high, very high even. It reflects in our results and achievements (HM3).” Those at the lower levels of the hierarchy had a contrasting viewpoint and one participant claimed that:

Morale here is down. The management tries to get the maximum out of the employees without giving back anything extra. The employees do not have any choice as even if they go elsewhere they will get the same treatment. It is like the same type of culture in the industry along different organisations (HM1).

As discussed earlier, interviewees were of the view that the style of management of the hotel did not foster or care for its employees. The respondents indicated that there was little consideration given to employee welfare as doing the job at any cost was more important than anything else. According to the participants, this lack of consideration for the human aspect of the job led to a low level of employee morale.
4.3.4.2 Individuals at the bank

The individual is one of the elements of the organisation that is most affected when there is any change. Some of the bank employees considered themselves very fortunate and had attained job satisfaction during periods of change. Whereas other employees believed that they had much to lose in situations of organisational change. As stated by one respondent: “There is always some people who gain so much and many others who lose everything during a change process (S3).”

The interviewees suggested that it was difficult for someone to remain unchanged during any transition period. Obviously, not everyone benefitted from the outcomes, and some came out very frustrated and lost interest in their jobs. One participant who was in such a situation revealed that:

I have surely changed and lost all the dedication I had for my job and I don't care about anything and just come and do my job just for the sake of doing it (S11).

Those who were affected negatively suffered from very low job satisfaction, which also affected their commitment level. Respondents at the bank consistently identified a lack of consultation about change processes as a major issue. One participant voiced her frustration on this matter:

The management team does not feel it right to involve us in any kind of decisions and makes us feel that some of our managers do not trust us. And our needs are never considered important and this kills off our commitment to the job (S10).

As the research included responses from the various levels of the organisation, the managers also discussed their role as motivators and leaders of change. Managers categorically affirmed that the bank, including themselves, was doing its best to put
into practice the most effective ways to make employees participate in the change process. This view was supported by the following respondent:

*We are committed to give employees greater responsibility and accountability. We are also training and educating them adequately so that they understand where and why change is necessary. Thus, we are empowering them with the skills necessary to implement the change process (SM6).*

According to some participants, the organisation through its leaders was creating the proper work environment and supporting and encouraging the workforce to go in the right direction and attain organisational objectives. The managers also talked about the communication process through which they shared information, such as, the vision and strategy of the organisation. One interviewee at the managerial level, offered the following:

*We are an organisation with an open door policy. So, our employees are welcomed to come and share their difficulties with us and we will be very happy to help them through assistance and counselling (SM6).*

The interviewees described the role of the organisation as a catalyst in their personal and professional development. The majority of participants suggested that the organisation needed to care about its employees, as they spent a significant amount of time at the workplace, as stated:

*The organisation should be able to create the desire to come to work again and again, otherwise we are de-motivated and have no drive to come back to the office (S8).*

Others candidates discussed the importance of the professional side of the job:

*The organisation has to train people to change in a positive way ... in my case it has helped me to change my behaviour in many ways like the way I talk to people and dress myself ... it has given me the necessary communication skills to cope with my job and helped me adopt the right attitude (S1).*
The following section addresses the elements that affect the individual in terms of conditions of work and job satisfaction at the bank.

4.3.4.2.1 Socialisation

Organisational socialisation was not a term that was talked about very often in the bank. The majority of candidates were confused with the terms ‘socialisation’ and ‘social work’. For examples, one interviewee who was not aware about the socialisation process stated:

Well I'm not sure, but we participate in many social works like blood donation or socialising with families and groups or informal meetings like a family dinner or social welfare meetings (S4).

Again, there were no proper socialisation tactics even though the leaders were aware of its importance. There was a feeling that there were small informal groups that existed in the sections and socialisation could be informally occurring through these.

4.3.4.2.2 Training

Major training sessions in the bank were conducted in-house and related mostly to new services or products. Usually, before any such change was brought about, the employees were provided with the necessary training and information. Such training related to the immediate needs and the day-to-day running of the organisation. The data indicated that individual employees spent their own money on personal/professional development as this was not provided by the bank. Most

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4 Socialisation is defined as the process by which newly-hired employees (newcomers) learn about, adapt to, and come to identify with the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). It focuses on enculturating new employees such that they develop pride in their new organisation and internalise its values (Cable, Gino & Staats, p.1, 2013)
employees felt that their organisation had left the onus on them, as the more trained
they would be, the more opportunities would be presented to them.

4.3.4.2.3 Managerial behaviour

The participants described the behaviours of the managers as varying, depending on
their personality. Some were supportive and helpful, and others were bossy and
always tried to impose their decisions. One interviewee indicated that:

*The manager has his own pressure emanating from the higher levels of
the hierarchy. Many decisions are really imposed. Sometimes you do not
even know where the policy comes from ... there is no consultation and
corporate level managers always have the final word (SM6).*

As the organisation had a tall structure, most managers did not have much freedom to
decide for themselves due to a restricted delegation of powers.

4.3.4.2.4 Change programs

The participants identified that very little was known before a change was
implemented. The interviewees were unanimous that they had no participation in the
decisions relating to any change process. The individuals at the lower levels of the
organisations indicated that they did not experience any form of informative
campaigns or change programs. However, they were aware that their managers were
invited to several pre-implementation meetings, while their involvement was limited
to meetings at the branch levels. One participant supported this view:

*Yes, we have group discussions, but we do not go to any seminars or
workshops. However, our opinions are noted down by our manager who
uses it for discussions during the consultations and conferences before a
change is brought about (S9).*
4.3.4.2.5 Trust

The relationships that the employees shared with each other were one of the strongest features in this organisation. The interviewees suggested that most of the time they could trust their colleagues, as well as their supervisors. The majority of respondents felt that an element of trust could be the reason why there was a high level of teamwork at the different levels of the organisation. Although the rules and regulations were quite strict, this factor enhanced organisational processes and helped the employees. This view illustrated thus:

*The confidence with which we rely and trust each other helps to enhance the other tasks and processes in the organisation like performance appraisal where we can entirely trust our supervisors. Thus we believe that every process is carried our diligently and in a fair manner (S2).*

4.3.4.2.6 Conflicts

The process of implementing change is characterised by similarities and differences that give way to consequences, such as, conflicts. The individuals in the organisation indicated that situations of conflict were isolated and usually contained and managed easily. According to the participants, conflicts during periods of transition are normal in any place of work, as explained by one participant:

*This is a normal outcome in any workplace as everyone’s opinion about issues and individuals is not similar. The way we do the job is different some times and brings about conflicting situations. But this is logical and not unusual as everyone does not think and react in the same way to situations (S8).*

4.3.4.2.7 Rewards

The interviewees discussed the rewards process in the bank. There appeared to be confusion about how the mechanism was actually carried out, as the process was not very clear. One participant explained the confusion:
It’s not 100 per cent and some decisions about rewards are kept confidential although we are promised so many things initially. It also very dependent on our immediate supervisor and we heard that it is a very lengthy process (S3).

From another perspective, a senior manager provided his opinion about how rewards were handled in the organisation:

It really is a lengthy process and we have to give recommendations and give justifications which goes through various levels before being approved. It is sometimes very frustrating as process (SM2).

However, the general feeling was that if you perform well you will eventually be rewarded.

4.3.4.2.8 Morale

Another important factor that was raised by the participants was morale in the workplace. There was a mixed feeling among respondents and an interesting phenomenon was noted. The majority of respondents working in the branches reported a high level of morale, whereas in head office the levels were lower. One group of participants even described the morale to be below average. The respondents attributed this to the conditions of work. Ultimately, they believed that there was too much work and pressure at head office.

4.3.4.3 Individuals at the authority

The participants discussed the role of individuals during change and described them as the other important pillar of the process, as one of the main stakeholders. In discussing the way they affect or are affected by change, the respondents talked about the change in their inner and outer self. Most interviewees believed that they had changed either in a negative or positive sense. As expected, there were mixed feelings. Some agreed that they had to change to keep pace with new organisational
settings, and others did not share this point of view. One observation for this difference in the response was age difference, as stated by a younger participant:

Yes, I have obviously changed, could be due to the fact that the status of the organisation has increased in popularity and also partly due to the training that we now receive (MR6).

In other words, the respondents were receiving more training after the change. This type of training helped the individuals to develop new attitudes towards their work and the way they deal with their job, as one candidate claimed: “People have to think differently due to the way things are going in the organisation (MR4).”

Another crucial point raised by the interviewees about their behaviour was that the employees had changed their attitudes and had become more accountable for their work. This fact was confirmed by an interviewee who also talked about the change in the management style of the organisation:

Before we could leave the office at any time but now you have to account for your movements and you cannot leave the building without the management knowing as we have swipe cards through which everything is monitored. And as the head of the department is not a local, matters are handled differently. Well with a local you could go into his office and explain your case as he would know who you are, but now it is so different, you can’t even get to the Director's office easily. I don't think he will show any empathy as he doesn't even know our names. So we have to be more cautious (MR12).

Some participants also identified emotional changes due to the pressure from their workload and a difference in the realities at the workplace. These respondents believed that: “The stress and frustration at the office is more than ever and also unbearable at times.”

Respondents also discussed the role of leaders in the organisation. Most interviewees suggested that the way they embraced the change depended to some extent on other
factors, such as leadership and management styles, which acted as catalysts for changes in their professional identity. The respondents talked about the roles of managers in the whole process and one participant observed that:

*Individuals can either accept or reject any sort of change, it is therefore the job of the managers to create this positive behaviour in individuals by informing or coaching them. They have to create the right feelings and emotions so that people accept the whole idea of change (MR7).*

Another interviewee confirmed this view: *“In creating the right attitudes by using the talents positively managers should induce the willpower for change in individuals (MR6).”*

Participants at all levels identified the importance of having experienced guides to help them throughout the process and bring about positive but professional development in their self-identity. It was obvious that strong working relationships between managers and employees helped to bring about a positive attitude towards organisational change. Participants also shared how training and development opportunities provided by the organisation had an impact on their views, mentality and self-identity.

The respondents indicated that training and development opportunities had increased intensely after the change had been implemented. They indicated that they felt this training should have been offered before the change process to help with insecurities. One participant stated that:

*Training and development had helped to boost up our confidence and feel more comfortable at the workplace. The uncertainty and insecurities that comes with any type of change where we have to adapt to new or modified workplace adjustments created huge struggles in our confidence (MR9).*
The respondents also discussed how other factors had an impact on their acceptance or rejection of the change process including the conditions of work, trust, managerial behaviour and rewards. The respondents unanimously agreed that the organisation’s role was vital in their personal development, as supported by the following observation:

_I believe that the organisation should create the proper environment, for individual change to occur. This should include changes in behaviour including cognitive and non-cognitive changes, for example employees should be provided with training and other sorts of interventions to get to the relevant behaviour_ (MR1).

Most of them emphasised the fact that the organisation should provide a sound environment and discussed its importance in their daily life. One interviewee believed that:

_The firm has a great role in motivating the individuals, as highly motivated employees perform well. Motivation should be in terms of promotions, rewards, conditions of service etc., that is recognising the welfare of the staff_ (MR13).

Finally, one group of interviewees expressed their frustration about their work environment, as they found a different reality from the ideal conditions they had imagined or were promised before the change process.

4.3.4.3.1 Socialisation

Most of the employees had not heard about this term and some confused this term with informal meetings or something to do with social work. However, those who were aware of the term explained that the socialisation process could now be observed, but happened in an ad hoc manner.
4.3.4.3.2 Managerial behaviour

Most employees were uncertain, and even the managers were not fully aware of the plans for change. The respondents agreed that everyone was just worried about their own position in the organisation and communication about the changes was not effective. One interviewee confirmed this perspective:

*In our case none of the managers ever encouraged us to accept the change. They were just indifferent and were more concerned about themselves (MR4).*

A vast majority of the interviewees agreed that in such a situation support from superiors in the hierarchy was important as it helped to bring about positive attitudes by changing the behaviours of individuals. This view was shared by a respondent:

*An appropriate behaviour contributes to the success of the change process. Similarly awareness of the different policies and the different outcomes helps a lot. If the managers were able to communicate these aspects of the process, this would have eased its implementation and bring about more acceptance. Here I think that most of the managers had failed in their duties (MR6).*

A group of interviewees pointed out that this type of behaviour was widespread and they had to understand their managers also, as explained by one participant:

*There was a period of adaptation and I believe that the managers were in the same situation as us. As some of them were under contract, were held ‘hostage’ of the situation. So, they were condemned to go in line with the contract and to obey everything that was imposed upon them (MR9).*

Some respondents voiced a belief that the managers were forced to act in this way and sometimes they needed to step out of this role to make some people happy and to keep their jobs. One participant in a similar situation explained his case:

*We work more for the job contract than to achieve the objective of the change. We are forced to act in this way and some of our supervisors*
take advantage of the situation. Sometimes, I wonder if it was not a tactical plan to implement the change by all means (MR11).

4.3.4.3.3 Change programs

Most employees could only recall one informative workshop that they were invited to attend. Consequently, most participants agreed that this was one of the important shortcomings of the process. Several statements supported this opinion:

*There was little or no change program or any type of information campaign. It was just a brutal transition where we had to respect a time bar. We were just dumped with no choice or job offers or preparation etc (MR10).*

Workshops prior to the implementation helped to bring about some acceptance and overcome part of the resistance that built up in the initial stage of the change program. One participant claimed however that:

*Organisation change programs would have helped a lot, but unfortunately with the exception of one or two workshops which had turned chaotic at times due to the inability of the organisers to explain in details the facts and the attributes of the process (M12).*

These workshops appear to have been poorly executed. The participants felt that because most employees were against the change, it would have been useful to come up with an information campaign that would explain the importance and the desired outcomes. The respondents indicated that there appeared to be no plan to manage resistance.

4.3.4.3.4 Trust

When asked about trust, most respondents could not give a clear answer. There were obviously mixed feelings with both positive and negative answers. The results showed a tendency towards more negative views: “*You cannot trust anybody just like*
that. You do not have any close friend. This has been one of the negative impacts of the change process (MR8).” Some of the participants were less sceptical:

I can trust my colleagues to some extent, not possible to trust anyone completely, not even your supervisor as they change their colour at any time, that is, they swim with the tide and are really scared for their jobs (MR13).

As the above statement indicates, erosion of trust was clearly related to job security.

4.3.4.3.5 Conflicts

According to some respondents, there were fewer conflicts now compared to before. One candidate revealed that:

I believe that there are less conflicts due to the fact that people are scared of punishments which are harsher now and they do not want to lose their jobs (MR1).

Other participants explained that employees were not free to give their opinions or express their feelings, as everything was imposed upon them. As indicated by one interviewee:

There still is much difference of opinion and the way we work has really changed now. And there is not much you can do as if you do not do whatever you are asked, it might have an effect on the performance appraisal at the end of the financial year (MR9).

4.3.4.3.6 Training

Most participants believed that training was important for the building of teams, which would help to attain the goals and objectives of the organisation, however, to attain these objectives, the training mechanism should be well managed. Most candidates pointed out that some training was essential prior to any change program so that employees are equipped to face the change process. Various statements supported this view:
Yes we have to train people at all levels so that they accept the changes. For example as there was much confusion about job security, a little bit of training would have given assurance to these employees. This is another way the organisation could have avoided resistance (MR2).

Most participants suggested that there were no training programs held before the process of change was implemented. Like many, one candidate was unhappy about this issue:

Everything was happening after the change had been implemented. It was not undertaken before to prepare people to change (MR13).

The respondents revealed that the training occurred after the process was launched, and a minority of respondents believed that this was a deliberate strategy or policy. One interviewee stated that it seemed as though the management wanted to catch up:

Training was given amply after the implementation stage. Other forms of training and development opportunities were also being offered. For example scholarships and workshops in relative fields were made available to many employees (MR1).

Comments which emerged from the interviews also illustrated a concern on the part of the employees about the qualities: “The people giving the training were not up to the standards, for example they lacked experience” and whether it would have been worthwhile “no, didn’t think the training would have helped as the nature of the job remained the same.”

4.3.4.3.7 Rewards

The topic of rewards was very sensitive and there was much frustration expressed throughout the organisation. One interviewee acknowledged the rewards:

There are rewards such as compensation and recognition for hard work, outstanding performance or for exceeding targets. In our organisation, rewards are in the form of both monetary, like productivity bonus, and non-monetary, like promotion (MR6).
Participants discussed the way rewards were allocated and only a minority of participants had a positive attitude towards the process. One interviewee expressed his appreciation of the efforts that he thought management were making: “The management had been fair enough and tried a lot to reward the efforts and creativity of the employees during the implementation stage (MR6).”

Most comments on the reward system, however, were negative: “Those not deserving are getting rewards. There is no meritocracy and very often people complain about the system (MR9)” with one interviewee reporting that there was no reward policy in the organisation:

*The department is no more reward oriented. You are not rewarded for the effort you make. If there is a one-off system sometimes, it is wrongly managed. The process, the way it goes does not motivate anyone (MR8).*

Another candidate believed that: “*Rewards still exist, but are most of the times non-monetary. However, the process is not carried out in the right or fair way (MR7).*”

### 4.3.4.3.8 Morale

When the interviews were conducted, the frustration level appeared to be very high in the organisation. As this has had a significant impact on the morale of the employees, most of the responses obtained indicated that morale was low. The majority of interviewees indicated that the attitudes of employees and the motivation level were not positive in the organisation. In most of the cases, the responses obtained included the words: ‘low’, ‘very low’, or ‘below average’.

### 4.3.5 Knowledge Management

One of the most strategic resources for organisations in the current dynamic global environment is knowledge. Knowledge possession, and its proper and efficient
management and planning, is critical for survival and competitive advantage. Many organisations have taken knowledge management to another dimension. As Zack (1999) suggests, a conscious management of this strategic resource is required. This view is supported by Nonaka (1991, p. 96) who states, “that in an economy where the only certainty is uncertainty, the one sure lasting competitive advantage is knowledge.” There are several ways to undertake knowledge management, including organisational and individual learning. Organisations use their vital resources, such as, money, time and energy, to invest in their employees through ongoing training for consistent development and advancement.

4.3.5.1 Knowledge management at the hotel

Most hotel respondents believed that knowledge management played an important role in the progress of the organisation helping it to compete in the market. Murray (1998) explains that knowledge management is a strategy that turns an organisation’s intellectual assets (the talents of its members) into new productivity, value and increased competitiveness. The participants also believed that it was essential to manage the knowledge management process effectively, as it helped employees understand the benefits of the change process and assist in its implementation. Moreover, according to the interviewees, knowledge management facilitated the change process by generating acceptance among employees. One interviewee suggested that:

Adequate knowledge, helps to change the attitudes of employees and with the required training people start believing and accepting change (HM5).

This view was supported by a participant who added that:
Every development in the individual should be in line with the vision and the mission of the organisation, if someone is not aware of the basis for the whole process then no type of education or development will be worth its cost (HM13).

Tiwana (2000) asserts that knowledge drives strategy and strategy drives knowledge. Knowledge management was considered to be a normal part of the organisation’s policies and top management sought to carry it out effectively, as developed higher levels of motivation among the employees. Kiem and Tin (2003) suggest that the goals and strategies of knowledge management should reflect those of the organisation. However, various factors, such as, high workload pressure and a lack of human resources left the organisations struggling to achieve respective targets and objectives. The participants believed that there was a lack of interest by the leaders to invest in this area when they were able to achieve short term objectives by placing additional pressure on available resources.

### 4.3.5.2 Knowledge management at the bank

The environment in the banking industry requires organisations to be up-to-date, in terms of knowledge and skills. According to the participants, change in this industry was important to remain competitive, to adopt more effective and efficient means of operation, and to remain stable to maintain credibility in the market.

Other areas where knowledge acquisition was deemed important by the participants included business and economics, market trends, human behaviour and decision processes. One interviewee advised that:

Knowledge is very important together with skills and experience and if the qualities of the employees are valued, then it is a real advantage. As our people form the backbone of our company, those with better ability increase our competitive edge and place us in a better position so that we can compete with confidence. This is because modern business requires greater and different knowledge (SM7).
Candidates suggested that to compete effectively in the banking industry it was important to be innovative and have a cutting edge, which resulted from a combination of knowledge, skills and the experiences of the workforce. However, expertise was linked to the overall strategy of the organisation and it was difficult to separate knowledge from strategic planning. One participant described the importance of knowledge from a more strategic angle:

*The modern condition of the knowledge economy has changed the existing relationship to the importance of human resources in organisations, such that the human capital is considered to be a very strategic resource of modern organisations* (SM2).

According to Bell and Jackson (2001), knowledge management has become an important aspect of organisational competitiveness. Hendriks and Vrien (1999) suggest that the knowledge assets possessed by a company create a possible competitive advantage. According to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), a company that manages knowledge effectively will have a better chance of long-term survival than a company that does not.

The participants believed that although knowledge was considered a key factor in the progress of the bank, this remained a neglected asset.

**4.3.5.3 Knowledge management at the authority**

Individuals in the authority talked about learning from experienced officers, as well as the use of conferences and training. According to some authors, knowledge involves creating a learning culture that continuously creates, shares and uses knowledge for the purposes of developing new opportunities (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Senge, 2006). The respondents believed that such a strategy would help them acquire the skills needed to progress to another level of professional development.
and identity. Learning was considered to be a continuous process that assisted an individual’s career. For example, one candidate affirmed this view and strongly believed that:

*Knowledge is very important as it helps employees to cope with new problems with greater confidence and morale. This is because it helps them to nurture new beliefs and understandings and acquire new skills, competencies and behaviours. I also believe that it reduces doubts and frustrations as it creates awareness of the current situation. Knowledge management is as important as any other process in any organisation. For example, it reduces the fear from the change through training and development, and therefore reduces resistance to change (MR8).*

Although knowledge management was afforded great importance, there was still much to be achieved in this area. The interviewees maintained that they were keen to increase their knowledge, but that there were few opportunities offered to them, which frustrated many of them.

For example, interviewees explained that they had to spend their own money to acquire further education, which was one of the reasons some participants were indifferent and did not bother to increase their knowledge. As one candidate stated: “*What difference would that make to my current situation as I would get the same pay and enjoy the same benefits as the others.*” (MR3)

Respondents also revealed some irregularities in the way opportunities and facilities for training were handled. Participants affirmed that: “*unfortunately the same persons always get the training opportunities.*” Employees were quite unhappy and frustrated about this issue.

**4.3.6 Resistance to change**

There are various reasons why employees develop resistance to change. Resistance is normally categorised as a natural primary response to change (Davidson, 2002). This
issue is a major component in the change process. Many authors have observed that the reasons for the failure of many change initiatives can be found in resistance to change (Lawrence, 1954; Strebel, 1996; Waddell & Sohal, 1998). Moreover, Judson (1991) argues that resistance to change by those affected is often the single most formidable obstacle to its successful realisation. Another reason why this aspect of the process should be considered carefully is that it introduces costs and delays in the change process (Ansoff, 1990).

4.3.6.1 Resistance at the hotel

According to the hotel participants, employees would never agree whole-heartedly to any change process. The participants also suggested that there was only a minority of employees who would try to actively resist. The reason for this is that organisations have to bring about change at any cost as it is the means for survival and to gain a competitive advantage over its rivals in the market. One interviewee observed that: “The most effective way was to communicate with the employees, that is show them the benefits of the change program” (HO8). He also added that: “The employees were not sure of what was going to happen in the future which was causing lots of anxiety.”

Therefore, Kotter and Schlesinger (1991), and Cummings, Waddell et al. (2014) argue that individuals and groups resist change because of fear of the unknown, and that communication, information and education can be effective methods of reducing resistance. Participants were also of the view that effective communication would enable leaders to manage resistance and encourage employees to accept evolving trends in a positive way. However, the participants also revealed that in some cases the organisation used coercive techniques and employees were simply asked to leave.
the organisation if they could not agree with the new measures. The employees were frustrated with the way resistance was managed and knew that, even if they were unhappy, they could not do anything as any type of resistance would leave them with no other choice than leaving the organisation.

Moreover, the interviewees believed that most of the time those resisting were from the bottom levels of the hierarchy and were simply ignored if they made themselves heard. According to Mintzberg (1990), that happens when strategy formulation is separated from strategy implementation as those who created the vision may have overlooked as important set of issues.

The most common sources of resistance were misunderstanding, fear of the unknown and lack of trust. Some interviewees also identified cultural differences and lack of commitment as factors that lead to increased resistance.

According to the interviewees, those at the operational level were less educated, and it was difficult to make them understand the significance of the change process. Therefore, they resisted any type of change that was being implemented. This could be attributed to the psychological model of resistance, which claims that individuals by nature challenge any type of change and that the sources of resistance to change reside in basic human characteristics, such as, perceptions, personalities and needs.

A key issue is the management of communication and a lack of willingness by the leaders of the organisation to allow effective input into the change process. The candidates revealed that most of the time the opinions of employees were not considered. The attitudes of the trade union members were believed to be another source of resistance. For example, one interviewee observed that:
Our trade unions are also at fault, they just want to get some credit, they are most of the time not credible, they are even too weak, as they are still in their old and conservative way of thinking. And they always pick up the negative aspects of any type of change that the organisation tries to bring about (HM3).

4.3.6.2 Resistance at the bank

Given that the settings of the bank were very rigid, all decisions and policies were always enforced by people located at the higher levels of the hierarchy. The respondents revealed little resistance, as according to them, the managers always used their coercive powers to impose any sort of change. There was not much that they could do about this, and one participant described his frustration:

There is practically no resistance. Not because we are happy about everything, but due to the fact that we don't have any choices. Most of the decisions and policies in regard to the banking framework are monitored by the central bank. When it comes to our organisation level, we are never made aware in advance, so every decision seems to get through very smoothly as we just have to abide to it (S9).

According to the participants, the different sources of resistance were: lack of information, job security, loss of acquired rights, inertia in thinking, planned redundancies, fear of the unknown, and unwillingness to take additional responsibilities. The different approaches that were suggested to combat or overcome resistance were: consultation and negotiation, education and training, effective communication, participation and support.

4.3.6.3 Resistance at the authority

The results showed that interviewees occupying different posts at various levels of the hierarchy of the authority responded differently. Those employees working at the lower levels of the organisational structure firmly believed that change was imposed upon them without any strategy to manage resistance. Whereas those at the higher
levels explained in detail how resistance to change was managed. The statements below illustrate these perspectives. One interviewee observed that:

Resistance was never managed and the management was indifferent about how we felt about it as we were given the choice either to join or just leave. The change was wrongly implemented and people resisted strongly with actions like strikes (MR1).

One member of the management team stated that:

Resistance was mainly managed by providing the employees with sufficient information about the process of change. Like it would be beneficial to them. We also came up with a reward system which motivated the employees to adopt change positively. Another important factor was communication. Here all the managers were encouraged to mix up with the employees to champion the change initiative. I think the communication flow was very effective with well trained and supportive managers. Finally education and training of the employees was also important (MR3).

Finally, according to the participants, the following elements could be possible sources of resistance: customs and traditions, lack of knowledge to learn new ways of working, fear of the unknown/uncertainty, decrease in revenue, job security, increased responsibility, loss of acquired rights, unfavourable and unattractive conditions of work, benefits, stubbornness, orthodox thinking, and corruption.

The respondents believed that the following approaches could be used to better manage resistance: training, compensations and rewards, creating commitment through education and training, participation and involvement in goal-setting, working hand-in-hand with unions, motivation strategies, active listening, setting up a change management team for a specific period of time, information and communication, and championing the change.
4.3.7 Partisanship

In keeping with the methodological approach for this study, key themes not anticipated at the outset, or explicitly articulated in the interview framework were sought in the data. One very important theme which emerged has been termed partisanship. This term is applied to a range of terms related to and identified as the social issue of partisanship. Interviewees used terms such as favouritism, nepotism, ‘clientelism’ and patronage. ‘Clientelism’ refers to the relationship between leaders with access to resources that they trade for political support, that is, benefits are exchanged for votes (Kitschelt & Wilkinson, 2007; Stokes, 2007). Various studies on extremes of this behaviour including work on corruption have recently emerged, and the findings reveal that important organisational processes, such as, employee selection and performance management, are affected by such behaviours (McCourt & Ramgutty-Wong, 2003).

From the perspective of the interviewees, it was assumed that partisanship (although the participants used various terms to describe this) has existed for a long time, across generations, and is mostly attributed to the deep-rooted ethnic and political system in the society. Eriksen (1998, p. 15) states that, “the very construction of the social person is based on ethnicity.” Minogue (1992, p. 646) describes how political interference has influenced the public service in Mauritius:

“Political interference seems especially marked in the public and parastatal sectors, especially in terms of recruitment and promotion of political nominees, often either inexperienced or nearing retirement but close to the ruling regime and seen as ‘cronies’ with political backing, leading to low motivation and poor service among technically qualified staff”.

Minogue (1976, p. 160-166) even describes the jobs in the public service as the, “raw material of patronage.” More recently Ramgutty-Wong (2004, p. 59) concluded that:
…despite the use of a diverse mix of recruitment and selection techniques, such methods are often seen to be a cover for the predetermined appointment of someone with political or ethnic backing. And linking pay to performance remained contentious because of the continued realities of the political interference, favouritism, nepotism and backing.

The following sections detail the occurrence of the phenomenon of partisanship as witnessed by the participants in this study.

4.3.7.1 Partisanship at the hotel

Given that the hotel sector is highly labour-intensive, there was a high turnover rate among employees. According to some respondents, the way the processes are handled could be a reason. For example, respondents indicated that family ties and social relationships could be factors that interfere in a genuine selection process, thus favouring family members and people with connections over more competent workers for access to good jobs.

The first element identified by some participants was ‘skin colour’, which is at times ‘racist’ but is a harsh reality in the sector. One interviewee explained this element, which was supported by many participants:

Your skin colour plays a great role as to where you reach during the course of your career in this sector. It is a genuine fact that most of the hotels in Mauritius are owned by white people [the respondent is referring to the franco-mauritians] and most of the managers are from families who own the business. So there is no way that you will be above these people in the hierarchy no matter how hard you work (HM1).

Skin colour (racial segregation) is one of the elements used to exercise power and this determines who manages the organisations. This creates deep frustration and people working in the sector are compelled to accept this fact. One participant elaborated on this aspect in relation to recruitment, selection and promotion:
So whatever would be his educational background, he would come back and manage the family business and you can’t do anything as either he owns it or is the major shareholder and this is the case with many hotels in the country (HM7).

The respondents indicated that this behaviour occurs at the higher level in the organisations, which makes it very difficult to bring about change. This is because the people at the top of the organisation remain the same all the time. Another respondent commented that:

> Of all the changes proposed only a few minor ones are implemented as it is very difficult to get away from the old thinking of people who have a strong grip in the main parts of this sector. Hence for these people bringing about a change is like to getting away from their values and principles. And this is the reason why so many of the hotels have gone through some shaky periods (HRM3).

The recruitment and selection process was highly criticised in this sector, as it was very often marked with cases of favouritism. As one interviewee commented:

> My boss is quite young and sits at the helm of the organisation. His families have been a pioneer in the sector which is the main reason why he is at his actual position in the organisation. But is that enough to manage such an organisation? Well most of my colleagues do not think so. As there so many things he is not aware of due to a lack of experience and exposure to the local conditions. There are several cases like his where they land in the organisation after their tertiary education without any background or know-how in the sector. This guy sat in his father’s office for some time and was appointed Director. So, it is not easy to rely on such types of leaders and bringing change is quite impossible as they are guided by their old people. This is how recruitment is carried out at the top level in many cases. And I bet that all the other directors in the hotels around the country are related to each other in one way or another (HR5).

A group of candidates also indicated some political interference:

> How can we possibly change or bring about change when these people even dictate the parliamentary members. Many of the decisions taken at the government level are influenced by these people. They have great
bargaining power as they own investments in various projects in the country (HR2).

4.3.7.2 Partisanship at the bank

As in the previous case, in the banking sector there was also much frustration with various management processes. The first process that the candidates discussed was the recruitment and selection of employees. Most respondents agreed that this process was not carried out in a transparent way, as one interviewee suggested:

>This is the most frustrating part of the job and promotion and recruitment is highly politicised. We get to read so many values and missions projecting statements related to a fair practice. But this actually is just an eye-wash (SB1).

Participants indicated that every time there is a change in the political party ruling the country it affects the leadership of the bank:

>Most of the managers at the top of the organisation are political nominees and any change at the head of the country leads automatically to a change at the corporate level of the bank.

This is the reason why participants thought that political interference was one of the factors that had an impact on any change process as it most of the time reflected the ideas and strategies of political parties rather than the main interest of the bank. This was one of the points that was raised by a candidate: “So any policy that is adopted reflects the ideas and the views of the political agents to whom these managers or directors have a belongingness” (SB2).

Most of the interviewees mentioned that the posts at the top of the organisations were very competitive in the sense that these were highly politicised. In this context, a participant raised another important characteristic of the recruitment policy of the organisation:
The top of the hierarchy is crammed with some people who have retired from other sectors and some of them do not even contribute to the advancement of the organisation. Like they are there to fill in their pockets as they had helped the ruling party during the last elections and this is a way to reward them (SB5).

The employees were not happy with the attitudes of the managers as they believed that these people were not doing their jobs properly, and that any attempt to bring about change would consist of imposed decisions without any proper feedback to improve the process. As such, one interviewee stated that, “These people always act as ‘yes man’ and have no other options but to obey to everything that are being imposed upon them” (SB2).

The participants also believed that there was no point fighting against these people as they had the authority and power to exert pressure on anyone. According to respondents, this type of favouritism breeds: “Resentment, mistrust, destroys employee morale and creates disincentive” and that “there was more benefits from being in these managers good book rather than giving a good job performance.”

In addition, another candidate felt that some of the top positions had become like a family inheritance and were marked by the “ethnic belongingness” (SB5) of the candidates occupying it.

Another participant, who was in a senior position in the bank and had been there for a long time, referred to corruption in the system:

Corruption is like a widespread phenomenon and I think that it is really difficult even impossible to get rid of it in the organisation. Most of it could be due to the very existence of ourselves and the values we hold and this has been transferred to us by our ancestors and will continue to exist (SB7).
Most of the participants agreed that any nomination or filling of a vacancy at the top of the organisation was strongly related to ethnicity, community or family. One interviewee talked about a certain culture that exists in the organisation:

*People might think that we live in harmony in a multi-racial society which is true, but when it comes to the nomination of higher level posts, we have to acknowledge that the minorities will remain the minorities with very little options and rights. Hence some people try to take advantage of such situations because of selfish desires and an unfair advantage over their peers (SB3).*

A majority of respondents were of the opinion that ethnic bias formed the basis of the ‘partisanship’ that existed in the organisation, and was believed to be against organisational change and development.

According to the participants, those at the top of the leadership and those holding the political power feel indebted to each other, as the following statement describes:

*The employees who are nominated unfairly have to abide to the politicians to be able to hold to their positions in the organisation. Whereas those in power have to listen to the person or his ethnic group to be able to be elected once more and retain the power at the top of the country (SB7).*

Again, the candidates suggested that it is extremely difficult to come up with any genuine change process. According to the interviewees, the actual problem is that any policy or decision is strictly monitored by politicians and observed by one participant to be annoying and disgusting:

*You can’t get away from it, any change proposed gets amended, even overturned or twisted sometimes and till it reaches its implementation it becomes like part of the political agenda. All this to tell you how politicised the organisation is (SB6).*

Another participant suggested how the political interference and the desire to control the activities were linked to the change management process:
Most of the members of the political parties have got their own businesses and investments, and it is very important for them to have good relations with the banking institutions as they often have to seek help from financial institutions for the proper running of their business. And very often they twist and turn the normal banking procedures with the help of those at the top of the banks to have access to these financial helps. This is therefore the main reason why they would never allow any proper reform in this sector to take place, as they have too much to loose (SB3).

4.3.7.3 Partisanship at the authority

Among the three organisations, the authority was the one where the signs were the most significant. As a revenue department, this organisation was often seen as the most corrupt because its employees had the most access to opportunities for corruption. In fact, the participants were very critical about some important incidents that they had experienced during the change process. One of the purposes of the change was to depoliticise the decision-making processes in the organisation by reducing opportunities for political interference of any kind. One interviewee shared his view about one of the most important aspects of the change process:

*The very base of the process was wrongly undertaken. The management had chosen three persons to conduct and monitor the transition process. However, everyone was aware that these people had never been involved in any change process. They were even very unpopular at the department and very few people had trust in them* (MR1).

The participants indicated that the whole process encountered deep resistance from the employees and one of the major issues was the people managing it. As mentioned above there was a lack of trust. Most participants believed that the process was biased and lacked fairness and transparency:

*It was really scandalous to find out that these three persons were in charge of the change, given that they had no experience and the only reason they were there was that they were always hanging around with the director* (MR3).
The participants also complained about the fact that the process was one-way in which they had very little opportunity to contribute. One participant acknowledged this issue:

*We did not have anything to say as all the decisions and policies were imposed upon us. Therefore we tried to resist to the changes in every possible ways we could.*

The general feeling about the process was that it appeared to be biased from the start and the employees were feeling being treated unfairly, as observed by an interviewee who shared this view:

*Everyone was frustrated and angry when they came to know how much funding was actually dedicated to the project and the remuneration the persons responsible for it were allocated. This created more feelings of mistrust and resistance among the employees (MR2).*

These feelings led to industrial action at the very start of the project, as per the following statement from a participant:

*With the help of our trade union we started actions of protest like strikes to avoid the change taking place. We were feeling very unsecure as we were never consulted or informed. The communication process was very poor and all types of rumours were going around which never helped anyone. On the other hand, this lead to more frustrations as we were feeling like being left out in the whole process because our voices were not being heard (MR4).*

According to participants, the other phase where the theme of corruption emerged was during the recruitment and selection process, which left many employees disappointed and frustrated. One participant stated that, “the change was brought in a way so that the political parties could place their people at the different parts of the authority.” Another participant agreed with this and stated that:
With the change everything was happening contrary to what everyone was expecting, that is, there was much more corruptive actions or behaviours and the phenomenon had increased in intensity rather than being reduced (MR7).

In addition, another interviewee commented on the recruitment process and how it affected the job:

Favouritism leads to the recruitment of less capable managers who are not able to deliver the goods and cope with the pressure or even support their subordinates in difficult situations. It is sometimes funny to see them being 'camouflaged' by management in offices where they have the least amount of decision-making or contact with the public (MR3).

The participants believed that this was one of the factors that probably acted as a hindrance to the change and affected its effectiveness and credibility.

The next element the participants talked about was the performance appraisal system. Most of the candidates commented that they were not satisfied with procedures used for the performance appraisal system. One interviewee made the following observation:

Considering the purpose why the change was brought about, we had thought for better methods and regulations that would help us in a way. But things have worsened and it seems like this change is just a cover up as we can’t find the PA practiced was as transparent as we had expected.

Another candidate agreed with this statement:

It is more of a situation where supervisors bribe their subordinates and more of a give and take situation where you have to negotiate a lot. And this often is at the expense of others (MR7).

From the responses obtained it was very obvious that many employees were not happy with the performance appraisal process as it lacked credibility and this was mostly due to unclear objectives and direction. In this context, an interviewee added:
The appraisal is really ambiguous as we hardly understand what the supervisors want us to do or how to improve. Therefore the main problem here, according to me, is wrongly chosen and managed parameters as we feel that there is no transparency at all (MR3).

This feeling of frustration created conflicts among the employees and the managers, and it also turned violent sometimes as indicated in the following statement, which is about an incident that happened just after a performance appraisal process:

Sometimes the pressure and the frustration is unbearable and you get emotional. This is what happened with one of our colleagues who slapped his supervisor one morning. The reason was that he was not awarding any financial increment after the PA process, whereas some of his colleagues even if they did perform as well as him were rewarded. So this made him feel that he was not treated fairly (MR3).

These incidents have created a sense of injustice and many participants believed that the management team had to work hard to clear away this perception about the performance appraisal. Another observation from an interviewee discussed the way the process was conducted:

There is more of a bargaining and negotiation going between the appraiser and the appraisee. There is no one acting like a moderator to ensure impartiality and fairness ... actually the situation is like the managers are in possession of huge umbrella and take those whom they like under it by favouring or protecting them (MR4).

The findings also indicated that leaders with a high profile status were chosen not only on their merits or qualifications, but also on their political, ethnic and religious affinity. This subject of partisanship is further discussed in the next chapter.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented an intra-case analysis of the three organisations under study. At first it provided a profile of each of the organisations and thereafter an analysis of the themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews conducted as part of the
three case studies. As the purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the change management practices of private sector organisations in Mauritius, a modified grounded theory approach was used to move beyond description and to discover a theory (Creswell, 2012).

Each case study is described separately and the intra-case analysis is grounded in the views and opinions of participants who have either led change or followed the leadership of others during a change effort. The participants from the three organisations provided numerous examples based on their experiences, the associated feelings, and the reasons for such feelings and emotions. Individual themes from the recollections of the participants were highlighted in the quotations and the most meaningful results have been presented.

The findings from this chapter related to the phenomenon of organisational change in the study organisations will be taken up in the next chapter. The next chapter, therefore, provides an inter-case analysis and compares and analyses these findings to identify similarities and differences in ‘change management practices’ in the three organisations. The six major themes that emerged from the review of the literature in the field of organisational change management will be discussed in addition to the emergent theme, partisanship.
Chapter Five: Inter-Case Analysis and Link to the Extant Literature

5.0 Introduction

This chapter synthesises the data from the three different case studies and discusses the themes in the light of the extant literature. The discussion aims to contribute to an understanding of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius. The seven major themes which were identified in the data include the theme of partisanship which emerged from the data, and has previously received limited attention in the organisational change literature. The themes are discussed in the same order in which they were presented in the previous chapter: structure, culture, leadership processes, individuals, knowledge management and partisanship.

5.1 Organisational Structure

An analysis of the results showed that there was little or no involvement of employees in determining appropriate structures to facilitate change. The case study organisations used a mixture of the different forms of organisational structures, including standardisation, formalisation and centralisation, for the proper running of their business. A summary of the results is shown below in the Table 5.1.
Table 5.1: Types and features of organisational structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bank</th>
<th>Hotel</th>
<th>Authority</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of structure</strong></td>
<td>Tall</td>
<td>Flat</td>
<td>Flat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Setting</strong></td>
<td>Bureaucracy</td>
<td>Open door policy</td>
<td>Bureaucracy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Features**   | – Authoritative management style  
                 – Little delegation of power  
                 – Centralised decision-making | – Open communication  
                 – Delegation of power  
                 – Employee involvement | – No delegation of power  
                 – Slow decision-making process |

Both the hotel and the authority had a flat organisational structure, whereas the bank was hierarchical with a high level of control and centralisation. The management style was different in each case, although there were high ‘directive tendencies’ in all the organisations, which can be attributed to the high power distance culture in Mauritius (see the profile of Mauritius in Chapter Two). The management style of the authority and the bank had several similarities, with both adopting a bureaucratic and a top-down approach in the change implementation process. On the other hand, the hotel had a more ‘democratic’ style of management, including more open flows of communication with reduced barriers for individuals and staff members to meet their superiors.

The bank and the authority demonstrated little or no delegation of power with a centralised decision-making process involving numerous procedures and formalities. One explanation for such a structure would be the use of a clear and well-functioning hierarchy to maintain the control and direction of organisational objectives. Other common features of these two organisations were strict orders, strict hierarchy of authority, formal rules and procedures, and a very low level of employee
participation. The high level of centralisation also indicated that most of the authority and power was focused at the higher levels of the organisation and change initiatives proceeded through a top-down approach. This resulted in a very low level of employee involvement in the planning of the change process contributing to a very high level of resistance to change. Participants also revealed that there was very little communication with the mechanisms seen as one-way message delivery flowing from management to employees. Being a hierarchical organisation meant that the distribution of information was undertaken through the chain of command, rather than directly to each employee.

The hotel had adopted a flat structure with all the aspects and features of a modern democratic organisation with evidence of a more participatory decision making style and communication approach. One possible reason to explain for the differing structure of the organisations in the case thesis would be the effort to fit the style of management to the contextual factors. Organisational performance is enhanced when there is a good ‘fit’ between management style and various contextual factors (Greenwood, Oliver, Sallin & Suddaby, 2008a, 2008b; Hargrave & Van De Ven, 2006; Keller & Price, 2011; Khandwalla, 1973, 1995; Lorsch & Morse, 1974; Reay & Hinings, 2009; Thornton, Ocasio & Lounsbury, 2012).

For each of the organisations, the market and the competition level differed in terms of intensity, as the structures were designed to suit the business environment and compete effectively. For example the hotel had a number of features evident in the internal environment, including: i) high employee turnover; ii) high casual and seasonal employment; iii) a prevalence of lower skilled workers; iv) a dependence on information technology; v) low paid workforce (mostly at the lower levels of the
organisation); and vi) a lack of resources. These features are completely different to those in the other two case organisations where the workforce is comprised of more academically qualified staff looking for stability and a long-term career in the sector.

Today’s dynamic business environment requires organisations in Mauritius to have structures that are highly responsive to environmental changes and demands. This is because flexible organisations better enable the development and implementation of change and the creation of new competencies. This would also facilitate movement towards new opportunities and effectively adjusting to constant change in the environment.

For example, to cope with the contextual factors mentioned above, flexibility in the hotel was important as a means of assuring that systems, processes and people make sound decisions to be able to respond appropriately to different situations; fewer detailed rules and procedures enable quick decision-making; greater autonomy and encouragement of initiative leads to greater innovation; the customising of employment relationships to include job-sharing; and lifetime employability rather than lifetime employment are hallmarks of this flexibility. As Mullins (1995) claims, various factors create an increasingly volatile environment for hotels, such as, uncertain economic and political conditions, changes in social attitudes, fierce competition, take-overs, acquisitions, technological developments and governmental interventions. Consequently, hotels can only perform effectively through flexibility and responsiveness to change.

Furthermore, change managers in the hotel were more concerned with agile organisational structures than their counterparts in the authority and the bank, as they are more exposed to the global business environment than the other two cases. As
many interviewees identified, the hotel is very competitive (see Chapter Four) and, in order to react quickly and adapt to external environmental challenges, hotels must be flexible to remain competitive. The trend toward flatness in hotel organisations has been directly related to their survival in the business (e.g. Cravens & Piercy, 1994).

The results indicated that organisational structure was also related to leadership styles, and the taller the structure the more ‘traditional’ was the management style. The authority and the bank had leaders that believed in well-documented rules where procedures and formalities had real importance. In contrast, in the hotel there was a need for close interactions and relationships between the employees and managers. This phenomenon led to a change in the skills required by leaders in the sector. Consequently, changes in the hotel had led to recruitment of leaders who can balance a sense of discipline with one of flexibility, thereby, easing many of the processes of the organisation. This type of structure also made possible employee involvement and participation as the communication flow was a two-way process. Go and Pine (1995) state that rapid and unpredictable changes in customer attitudes and information technology create a need to manage inevitable change, and the ability to manage change is the key to the long-term survival of hotels.

The leadership style in the bank and the authority, on the other hand were more about imposing actions and decisions without any consultation or the consent of any employees. Subsequently, delegation of power was non-existent, although there was some freedom in decision-making. Most of the procedures were automated and employees had no choice but to obey the orders flowing from the top of the organisation. As a result, both organisations had the following attributes: task-orientation, vertical structure, high degree of specialisation, traditional performance
appraisal, large control scope, high degree of formalisation, and decision-making centralisation.

Based on the experiences of participants, the analysis revealed that a flat and flexible organisational structure enables the development and implementation of a change process, and also allows organisations to be more responsive and to adjust effectively to new changes in the environment. The relationship between structure and leadership was highlighted by the participants, and included developing relationships naturally through flat organisations and providing opportunities to connect with senior management, which consisted of reliable feedback, and open and honest communication. The data suggests that the hotel was more agile in this regard.

5.1.1 Organisational structure in the extant literature

The findings relating to organisational structure indicated that the latter influences the success of the change management process in private sector organisations in Mauritius. This evidence supports the claim that more flexible organisational structures facilitate the successful implementation of the change process. This is consistent with the findings in previous research (Damanpour, 1996; De Canio, Dibble & Amir-Atefi, 2000; De Sanctis, Glass & Ensing, 2002).

The majority of the literature on organisational structure has revealed that mechanistic and organic structural forms are the most prevalent distinction for describing fundamental differences in organisational structure (e.g Burns & Stalker, 1961; Damanpour, 1991; Kang & Snell, 2009; Sine, Mitsuhashi & Kirsch, 2006; Slevin & Covin, 1997; Stopford & Baden-Fuller, 1994; Youndt, Subramaniam & Snell, 2004; Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005). Theoretical support for the importance of organisational structure and design is mentioned consistently in multiple fields,
ranging from engineering and economics to sociology, which has been reinforced in the literature (Burton & Obel, 1998; Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Iles & Sutherland, 2001; Mintzberg, 1979; Nadler & Tushman, 1988; Rajan & Wulf, 2006; Amin & Robbins, 1990; Stein, 2002).

The evidence from the data suggested that organisations used different forms of ‘hybrid structures’ and would use more than one particular aspect of the existing models. The early stages of the analysis hinted at the use of structural models, such as, organic or mechanistic ones. However, going deeper into the analysis suggested that other features in addition to these models were being used. There was a combination of the different forms that would be most appropriate for the organisations and the environment in which they were competing. As some studies have shown, external pressures and competition forces organisations to abandon mechanistic organisational forms and design more flexible structures, and the need for organisational flexibility to accommodate a changing world is well understood (Bjornstad, 2011; Englehardt & Simmons, 2002; Hatum & Pettigrew, 2006).

Some authors have also viewed flexibility as a variety of organisational capabilities to respond to organisational change and uncertainty (Aaker & Mascarenhas, 1984; Liebskind, Lumermen, Oliver, Zucker & Brewer, 1996; Moldoveanu & Dobrin, 2007; Pasmore, 1994; Volberda, 1996; Vakola, 2013). In a consistent manner, the data also indicated that there existed a certain relationship between organisational structure, culture and management style (Ashkanasy & Kavanagh, 2006; Chen, 2001; Chen & Francesco, 2000; El Kahal, 2002; Miroshnik, 2002). The way the organisations were managed affected the type of structures being used. According to the data, organisations with cultures that focused on factors, such as authority, span
of control and hierarchical positions, tended to have a taller structure (Dalton, Tudor & Porter, 1980). This aspect was also reflected in the way these organisations were managed, and their approach to change.

The flexibility of the organisational structure constitutes a second characteristic. An organic organisational structure facilitates employee discussions about the risks of change, which leads to better solutions to problems and an increased understanding of the change process (Covin & Slevin, 1989; Damanpour, 1991; Khandwalla, 1976/1977; Sine, Mitsuhashi, Kirsch, 2006). Although there had been many changes in the economy, in political systems and business processes, the analysis demonstrated inertia in thinking in at least two of the three cases where the managerial beliefs had remained the same. In other words, although these organisations had adopted or designed new structures, the stark reality was that they still used the old methods to achieve their aims and objectives. Changes do not appear to have been sustained long-term. This implied that other factors were related to the structural dimension of the organisation, and considering this as isolated criteria would lead to biased conclusions and implications.

The results from this study suggest that the best structure is likely to be one with possibilities of flexibility and adaptability to the environment. In this context, Pasmore (1995) stresses that being flexible means being able to simultaneously change everything. According to Ionescu, Cornescu & Druica and (2012), a flexible organisation is one that understands the essence of change. In addition, recent research has shown that flexibility is important to achieve competitive advantage and is a major instrument in the change management process (Alpkan, Kaya & Yilmaz, 2007; Ionescu, Cornescu & Druica, 2012; Spicer & Sadler-Smith, 2006). There is
considerable consistency between the data and the extant literature on organisational structure. Other factors, however, such as organisational culture and the management or leadership style, have to be considered alongside organisational structure. This research confirms that organisational structure is one of the key dimensions for organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius.

5.2 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture is another key dimension and an important part of the recipe for the success of a change process. Most participants were of the view that the appropriate culture always facilitated the desired change. Participants believed that organisational culture was vital to make organisational change successful, effective and long-lasting. Table 5.2 below summarises the differences and similarities in the three organisations under examination.

Table 5.2: Cultural attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bank</th>
<th>Hotel</th>
<th>Authority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of culture</strong></td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Features</strong></td>
<td>Culture ever-present</td>
<td>New culture, new vision and mission</td>
<td>Culture came after the change process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hofstede’s dimensions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Power distance</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Masculinity</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Collect / individualism</td>
<td>Collectivism</td>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>Individualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One similarity among the three organisations was that the culture varied due to differences in age groups. Older workers represented a subset with a form of subculture within the organisational cultures explored in this study. Most of the time,
this category of workers were not supportive of the change process. The results indicated that there was a difference in the values and attitudes of workers from different age groups, in particular, older workers.

The results revealed that the authority had a weak organisational culture compared to the other two organisations, which both had stronger cultures. This difference in culture was characterised by individuals from the bank and the hotel having a higher level of commitment to the organisation and greater teamwork among employees. The authority had a weak culture and one of the possible reasons was the grouping of various departments together where there was lack of co-operation and teamwork among the employees.

The evidence from the data suggested that a strong and positive organisational culture creates harmonious working relations between employees and increases their commitment to the change process. Moreover, the participants from the authority indicated that there was a lack of trust among the employees with an ‘individualistic’ mentality which had developed at the workplace, and had weakened the organisational culture and led to the erosion of important values, such as working in groups or teamwork.

Another finding was that the leadership of the organisations had an impact on the organisational culture. The importance of leadership skills in relation to a strong culture was also demonstrated in the bank and the hotel. The bank with its authoritative and highly controlled style of management had a culture that was believed to be ever-present and closely monitored by those at the top of the organisation. Thus, any new employee joining the organisation had to fit into the prevailing culture.
The hotel was allocating and spending the resources required to bring about the appropriate culture. This culture change was initiated around three years ago by the leaders in the organisation, including a change to the mission and values of the organisation. In the case of the authority, the amalgamation of the departments had led to a shift in power, leadership and culture.

According to Bush and Anderson (2003), organisational culture stands as the backbone of any firm. The organisation’s prevailing culture determines the extent to which any change process is accepted or rejected by the individuals. Moreover, the change process is highly dependent on the leadership aspects prevailing in an organisation’s culture (Komives, Lucas & McMohan, 2007, 2009). This would explain the level of resistance to change expressed by the employees in the case study organisations with the authority facing a higher level than the hotel and the bank. That is, a weak organisational culture at the authority would have led to a high level of resistance.

5.2.1 National culture analysis

Table 5.2 above also shows the differences among the three organisations in relation to the four dimensions in Hofstede’s (1984, 2001) model. There was a prevalence of a high individualism culture where employees only thought of their personal interest. The role of national culture as an influence was demonstrated in the data.

5.2.1.1 Power distance

Power distance dimension refers to dealing with inequalities. The power distance is defined as the degree to which the less powerful members of an institution and organisation that are placed within a country look forward to and accept the power that is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1984, 2001).
The case study organisations were characterised by high power distance. This high power distance tends to reinforce the vertical structure in the change process where most of the initiatives were developed by those at the top of the organisations. Generally, employees accepted the vertical distribution of power and they rarely uttered disagreements or differences to their superiors. They acknowledged that all the decisions were forced upon them and their participation in the processes of decision-making was very low and in many cases voiced a fear of being fired. In the case of the bank and the authority, the tendencies were more obvious due to the centralisation of power, authority and the hierarchical structure. The data also indicated that those managing the organisations did not interact with the employees or motivate them to participate in decision-making and discussions.

5.2.1.2 Collectivism / individualism

According to Oyserman, Coon and Kemmelmeier (2002) the collectivism / individualism dimension explains how people define and value themselves, and how their relationships with other people are defined and valued. Hofstede (2001), and Hofstede and Minkov (2010) define this as the extent to which people within a society work for their own benefit (individualism) or for the benefit of their family, organisation or other group (collectivism).

In the hotel and the authority, although there were some inconsistencies, the general tendency was towards individualism as respondents were of the view that people were obsessed with success. In the case of the bank, the outcomes depicted a strong collectivist culture. The employees strived to maintain consensus and harmony, and had a greatly developed sense of team spirit where the team effort was considered more significant than the personal credit. The prevalence of a high rate of
competition was a popular reason advanced by participants that automatically led to concern with their own personal interest.

5.2.1.3 Masculinity
According to Hofstede (2001, p. 297), masculinity refers to a society in which social gender roles are clearly distinct. All three organisations in the research had a high masculinity dimension where managers used their power and authority to resolve problems and issues in the workplace. In some cases, such as, the authority, the leaders made use of coercive strategies to bring about changes and confronted those who were against the decisions. There were also significant distinctions between gender roles in all the organisations where there was tendency towards fewer female leaders in top jobs. For example, some of the jobs were considered unsuitable for women due to societal values and beliefs.

5.2.1.4 Uncertainty avoidance
The fourth dimension considered by this study is uncertainty avoidance, which is defined as the degree to which people feel threatened or experience discomfort with uncertain or unknown situations (Hofstede, 1991). The trend across the three cases was similar and characterised by high uncertainty avoidance. The results revealed that the individuals preferred to be allocated to particular roles, and occasionally evaluated ideas to minimise the chaotic and uncertain situations in the business. As a result, the overall outcomes showed that employees were inclined to favour structured environments.

5.2.2 Organisational culture in the extant literature
The research identified the cultural interconnection as another factor that has an impact on the change process. Schein (2010, p. 18) defines organisational culture as
the “basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of the organisation.” That is, organisational culture is characterised by shared assumptions, beliefs and values that help to shape and guide behaviour (Ott, 1989, 1998; Schein, 2010; Victor & Cullen, 1987). Whereas Ott (1989, p. vii) believes that organisational culture is a system of organisational symbols, beliefs, values and shared assumptions, and “is a social force that controls patterns of organisational behaviour by shaping members’ cognition and perceptions of meanings and realities.”

Given that there are cross-cultural value differences, attention is drawn to what determines these values differences. Based on previous research (Chow et al., 2002; Ju, 1993; Ralston et al., 1997; Ralston et al., 1999; Shieh, 1996; Schwartz, 1999; Tung, 1981; Tung et al., 1986; Verburg et al., 1999; Yang & Bond, 1990), several potential determinants can be identified, namely, employee ethnic origin, parent company nationality, and different cultural exposure experiences. However, looking deeper at the origin of organisational culture, there are vital factors that contribute to the genesis of the culture. In this study, the various features of the country, such as, multi cultures, ethnicity and history, have emerged as major determinants of organisational culture.

As a multi-racial country, Mauritius has a population with different religious beliefs and ethnic backgrounds, which are of great importance to many in the workforce. The organisational culture in Mauritius is rooted in a mixture of several discrete national cultural groups that reflect the island’s colonial heritage. As Fenton (1999) suggests, Mauritius can be described as a typical plural society, which not only comprises many cultures, but also historically lacks any strong impulse towards social and cultural integration. Given the increasingly diverse nature of
organisational culture, some obvious cultural differences could be noticed among the employees inside the organisations, which could also be categorised according to factors such as age difference.

The study presented adequate evidence for the argument that age difference determined the common or shared values and beliefs of specific age groups of employees and also their acceptance of the change process. This difference in values and thinking led to the existence of various subcultures in the same organisation. Many researchers suggest that age is an important factor in subsequent adaptations to a new environment because the older an employee is, the more difficult it is to adapt to a new setting (Gravett & Throckmorton, 2007). This meant different levels of commitment, motivation and acceptance of the change process. According to Ferraro (2002), businesses can be viewed as mini-cultures that operate within the wider national cultural context, as well as cultures in their own right.

Therefore, this analysis identified a set of reciprocal interactions between the process of change, culture, age groups, commitment and motivation level. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002, p. 475) define commitment to a change as, “a mindset that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative.” This mindset:

“…can reflect (a) a desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits (affective commitment to the change), (b) a recognition that there are costs associated with failure to provide support for the change (continuance commitment to the change), and (c) a sense of obligation to provide support for the change (normative commitment to the change) (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, p. 475)”.

Job motivation is an energising force with implications for behaviour (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004) and also influences attitudes. In particular, it has
implications for employee commitment to organisational change. There is a growing body of literature that supports the positive relationship between job motivation and employees’ attitudes toward change (Coopey & Hartley, 1991). Paton and McCalman (2000) contend that organisational success is generated by motivated people. Accordingly, the greater the job motivation, the greater is the likelihood of employee commitment to the organisation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Randall, 1990; Riketta, 2002; Thorsurd, 1972).

Another finding related to organisational culture was that the grouping of organisations together opened up the possibility of change in the culture of an organisation. Organisational change is a lengthy and complex process, and practitioners often do not have time to consider its effect on organisational culture when various departments are grouped together. The result is a newly formed culture that generates new attitudes, behaviours and conditions that may affect the performance of organisations. The emergence of ‘cultural differences’ during mergers and acquisitions is mentioned in the literature (Ahammad & Glaister, 2011; Appelbaum & Glandell, 2003; Chatterjee, Lubatkin, Schweiger & Weber, 1992; Dackert, Jackson, Brenner & Johansson, 2003; Datta, 1991).

Ashkanasy and Holmes (1995) support this view, highlighting the need for management to take account of human and cultural factors in mergers and for management to adopt a proactive approach to reintegration following mergers. As Schein (1990, p. 117) suggests, “unfortunately, when organisational cultures merge, whether the merger is hostile or friendly, ‘cultural compatibility’ is rarely discussed.” In addition, “groups do not easily give up some of their basic underlying assumptions
merely because external events or new members disconfirm them” (Schein, 1990, p. 116).

The ultimate effects of the change process in one of the organisations where several departments were grouped together ‘disrupted’ the culture of the organisation. The consequences of such a change initially resulted in a change in management and leadership style, which led to the emergence of a new culture. In addition, when employees from different organisations were grouped together to work, they usually brought with them their own different cultures, which differed from the original culture of the organisations. Several recent studies provide further evidence on how an organisation’s culture is affected by change strategies, such as, merging or grouping organisations together (Angwin & Vaara, 2005; Dackert et al., 2003; Schweiger & Goulet, 2005; Stahl & Voigt, 2008; Velliquette & Rapert, 2001; Wart, 2003).

Evidence in previous literature suggests that the merging of two cultures, whether similar or dissimilar, creates the potential for an unpredictable organisational culture as a result of new membership, roles, processes, expectations and procedures (Cohen, Birkin, Garfield & Webb, 2006). Similarly, Cartwright and Cooper (1994, 1996) suggest that the integration of organisations is related to the cultural perspective, and argue that the integration of two organisations is dependent upon the cultural dynamics during the merger process (Cartwright & Cooper, 1994, 1996).

According to Lorsch (1986), there are five aspects of culture that impact on the strategies of organisations: direction, pervasiveness, strength, flexibility and commitment. The direction of the culture refers to the way the culture drives the employees to attain organisational goals. According to Lorsch (1986), the degree to
which members share a culture (pervasiveness) is an indication of its prevalence throughout the organisation. The strength of the culture refers to its impact on members and their level of organisational attachment. For example, a strong culture acts as a compelling force for members in some organisations.

Given that the business world is full of changes, flexibility refers to the adaptability of organisational culture to changing conditions. Cultural flexibility enables the integration of culture and strategy. According to Lorsch (1986), a strong culture will bring about high levels of commitment. Hence, employees who are highly committed to the organisation give their best to achieve the organisation’s objectives.

According to Bush and Anderson (2003), organisational culture, is the backbone of any firm, and should be ever-present and closely monitored by those at the top of the organisation. The interactions between the individuals in the organisation from the different levels and hierarchy of the organisation lead to certain types of behaviour that gradually turn into the cultural features of the organisation where people understand each other. This research has provided evidence that the environment in which an organisation operates compels the leaders to adopt an appropriate culture, for a competitive advantage over their competitors. Theorists, such as, Burke (1987), Kotter (2012) and Senge (1990), have identified that culture has a specific role to play during change, mostly at the end of the process.

Ultimately, management assumptions, organisational structure and functions are influenced by national culture (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 1990), and previous studies have revealed that such cultures have significant impacts on managerial styles (Westwood & Posner, 1997) and individual behaviour (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Miroshnik, 2002). The evidence in this study is that in all three organisations,
management assumptions, organisational structure and functions are influenced by national culture (Hofstede, 1980, Hofstede et al., 1990). The specific features in relation to the national culture are discussed below.

5.2.2.1 Power distance

Lee-Ross (2005) suggests that the leadership and management style in Mauritius is influenced by its cultures and colonial heritage collectively. This study has indicated that the historical background of Mauritius has an influence on the value that individuals attach to the power distance dimension in their respective organisations. These results confirm the findings in previous research on national culture in Mauritius, which attribute a high power distance to the country (Lee-Ross, 2005; Ramgutty-Wong, 2004). As such, the history of the nation shapes the way the organisational structure is designed and the way organisations are managed. There was a strong connection between power distance and the strategies used in the change management process.

In this study, the existence of high power distance meant that employees expected change initiatives and planning to be initiated from the top of the organisation. This particular culture also implied that the employees expected the leaders to be solely responsible for initiating and later developing appropriate strategies for the implementation of any change process.

The high power distance also meant that individuals accepted inequality and a lot of importance was given to the leader. This implied that strong leadership skills were required for the process to occur effectively, which was also true in organisations with flat organisational structures as witnessed in the hotel in this study.
Traditionally, a high power distance promoted organisations with vertical hierarchical structures with less employee involvement, and high levels of centralisation and standardisation. These features are in line with Hofstede’s (2001) framework and confirm the high power distance dimension attributed to Mauritius.

Moreover, as witnessed in this study, most of the procedures had to be written down for proper communication to occur effectively, where departmental orders were considered the most appropriate and reliable means. Hence, employees saw managers as the line of authority, and leaders gave orders to lead the organisational processes. That is, the communication also followed a top-down approach.

Therefore, this study provided evidence that the historical background of Mauritius, defined by colonial rule, multi-racial and multi-cultural values, was a major factor in shaping the leadership and management style of the organisations and the way organisational change was being managed. In defining culture, Pajupuu (2000) includes the influence of historical events and defines it as a combination of religious, political and aesthetical criteria handed down by historical heritage.

5.2.2.2 Masculinity / femininity

Further evidence that the historical background of Mauritius, defined by colonial rule, multi-racial and multi-cultural values, determined the organisational change strategies was the prevalence of the masculine style of management. Ramgutty-Wong (2004), asserts a medium masculinity score for the country. The findings in the current study are consistent with Hofstede’s (2001, p.297) typology, where “the manager in a masculine culture will seek to resolve conflicts by fighting them out, whereas the manager in a feminine culture will seek conflict resolution through compromise and negotiation.”
Previous studies have related a high masculinity score to the history and context of the country. In fact, the cultural or ethnic bias existing among the population was attributed to the patriarchal and autocratic style of management (Lee-Ross, 2005), which dominates the nation. Changing the organisational culture takes many years. The national culture, which is related to the history of the country, remains deeply rooted in the social settings of the population and the workplace. The leadership style is under the influence of the country’s past history (Day-Hookoomsing, 2000). An autocratic, masculine or ‘command’ management style is the result of the legacy of the earlier colonial past of the country (Lee-Ross, 2004).

5.2.2.3 Collectivism / individualism

According to Hofstede (2006), individualism emphasises rights more than duties, an anxiety for oneself and the direct family, self-fulfilment and personal autonomy, and basing identity on one’s personal achievements. In addition, individualism entails the expression of open emotion and the achievement of one’s personal objectives, which are significant sources of life satisfaction and well-being (Sabetti, 2007; Welzel & Inglehart, 2007)

The collectivism / individualism dimension of national culture is perceived as the most frequently studied cultural dimension (Hofstede, 1980; Kagitcibasi & Berry, 1989; Triandis, 1995). The prevalence of high individualism in this study is consistent with Ramgutty-Wong’s (2004) findings, but inconsistent with Lee-Ross’ (2005) study, which attributes a low ranking in this dimension.

The research indicated a difference between the organisational culture and the societal culture (family values). As such, there was evidence showing that the prevailing organisational culture, as compared to the societal culture, was rather
individualistic. The collectivistic nature of individuals seemed to reflect towards their family, but not at the workplace.

Hofstede (1980) suggests that people from collectivist cultures place greater emphasis on job security and good working conditions, whereas people from individualistic cultures value autonomy and task variety. This dimension cannot be interpreted similarly for the Mauritian employees in this study, as the organisational culture was predominantly individualistic and job security was a major preoccupation for the individuals. This may be a product of the fact that organisational change was being investigated and therefore uncertainty avoidance prevailed.

5.2.2.4 Uncertainty avoidance

The national culture of the country showed a high level of uncertainty avoidance. As change is mostly associated with uncertainties, employees were generally never psychologically prepared to accept it willingly. The work culture supported Hofstede’s (2001) theory was the main reason for extensive standardisation and formalisation in the organisations, as it gave assurance to both the employees and the employers that they were moving in the desired direction. The findings in this study reflect and confirm the results from previous studies (Lee-Ross, 2005; Ramgutty-Wong, 2004).

This study shows that the national culture can influence the organisation’s culture, leadership style and individual behaviour. Hofstede’s (2001) cultural dimensions do provide an effective framework for determining the national culture. Consequently, it also indicates that national cultures are stable over time, and cultural values and practices change very slowly (Hofstede, 2001).
5.3  **Leadership Processes**

Leadership provides a key impetus for change, as the philosophy and managerial style of the person at the head of the organisation plays a dominant role. In the quest to attain competitive edge by organisational development, leaders play a vital role by determining the extent of emphasis on strategic, structural and cultural aspects of the organisation. Therefore, in a time of transition, this factor can determine the likely success of the efforts put forward in the whole process. Table 5.3 below summarises the leadership styles of each of the organisations in the study.

**Table 5.3: Leadership styles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bank</th>
<th>Hotel</th>
<th>Authority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership style</strong></td>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
<td>Authoritative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Features</strong></td>
<td>High formalisation and centralisation of decision-making, everything goes through the proper channel</td>
<td>Open door policy, free communication between leaders and subordinates</td>
<td>Strict, lack of trust, top-down approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudes towards leaders (employee perceptions)</strong></td>
<td>Supportive but authoritative, very business minded</td>
<td>Very supportive</td>
<td>Lack of trust, some not knowledgeable enough, therefore not reliable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most common leadership style among managers in the hotel was a democratic style based on power sharing, whereas in the bank and the authority the tendency was towards a more autocratic style. The difference in the leadership approach was also based on the specific context of each organisation, whereby a democratic leadership style enabled the hotel to take advantage of greater levels of effort and commitment (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006). On the other hand, the bank and the authority had a vertical structure, making it more difficult for leaders to interact with employees.
Participation and involvement from the lower level of the hierarchy was almost non-existent and most of the decisions relating to changes were imposed. This leadership style supported the high power distance dimension discussed earlier and indicated the tendency for the individuals to accept the differences in power and authority.

5.3.1 Leadership processes in the extant literature

This study shows that certain managerial skills and behaviours positively influence the successful execution of change initiatives and are critical to the success of the process. The evidence from the findings indicated that a leader’s change management skills has a direct relationship on how effectively the process is planned and implemented. Subsequently, these findings are consistent with previous research and have confirmed the view that a leader’s set of change management skills is directly related to the success of an organisational change process (Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolphe & DePalma, 2006). Kotter (1990) suggests that the primary function of leadership is to produce change. Consequently, this study indicated that leadership produces change by setting a direction, aligning people, and motivating and inspiring.

Leadership is one of the most influential predictors of employee performance (Jung, Chow & Wu, 2003) and is one of the key drivers of the implementation of organisational change (Herold, Fedor & Caldwell, 2008; Higgs & Rowland, 2005, 2010, 2011; Liu, Zhu & Yang, 2010). Hence, the influence of the leader will differ according to the type of power used by the leader on his/her subordinates (Mullins, 1998). Employee attitudes towards, and acceptance of, change is influenced by leadership effectiveness during the process (Choi & Ruona, 2011; Dent & Goldberg,
1999; Oreg, 2006). This concept would explain the high level of resistance in the authority in relation to employee attitudes and skills during the process.

As mentioned above, this study has provided evidence of a link between the national culture, organisational culture and leadership style, which was influenced by the high power distance in the country. The autocratic style of leadership was predominant in the country (Lee-Ross, 2005; Ramgutty-Wong, 2004). This style was reflected in the bank and the authority; however, was not consistent with the style in the hotel. The present leadership style at the hotel seemed to adopt the style identified by Erkutlu and Chafra (2006); which however, was not consistent with Day-Hookoomsing’s (2000) study of the leadership model in Mauritius. One possible explanation for such behaviour would be the adoption of transactional or transformational leadership. According to Tracey and Hinkin (1994, 1996), senior managers in hotels have a tendency to practice a transactional leadership style. However, further research is required to identify more fully the type of leadership adopted by managers in the hotel in the actual change situation.

Furthermore, the findings indicated that managers acted as ‘enablers’ of the process and were mainly responsible for enhancing successful change by motivating, communicating and interacting with employees exposed to the change (Dulewicz, 1992; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005; Dulewicz & Wren, 2005; Dulewicz & Young, 2005). As such, managers with inadequate leadership skills had problems dealing with their subordinates and responses from the data revealed that some acted as ‘demotivators’ of change. This view is consistent with the literature where a lack of understanding of change implementation techniques and inappropriate management style are
referred to as barriers for successful change (Bossidy & Charan, 2002; Gilley, 2005; Gilley, Quatro, Hoekstra, Whittle & Maycunich, 2001; Pfeffer, 2005).

Bass and Avolio (1990) observe that the paradigm of leadership impacts directly on individual, team, and organisational change and development. Subsequently, a non-supportive culture and leadership creates greater resistance to a change project. The findings indicated that managers without training found the implementation of change initiatives particularly difficult and time consuming as they were not well equipped. Battilana, Alexander, Gilmartin, Pache and Sengul (2010) support this finding. These authors examined leadership competencies (traits) for implementing a planned organisational change, and related the effectiveness of trait theory of leadership to successful change. The skills of leaders have an impact on the outcome of the change process, and a lack of skills can lead to an inability to deal with the complexity and ambiguity of change. In this study, the main leadership problem was the lack of employee involvement in the decision-making process, which was interpreted as a lack of trust and respect, and led to resistance and declining morale among employees.

The study also provided evidence of a relationship between the nature of the business and the style of leadership. The following examples supported this finding:

- The hotel industry, which requires and depends upon a lot of labour for the smooth running of its operations, adopted a democratic leadership.

- The authority faced a lot of resistance and used a coercive style of management to bring about the changes.
The bank had a lot of implications, which directly affected its day-to-day existence due to tough competition in the market.

Although different leadership styles (whether autocratic or democratic) have the ability to impact on employee behaviour and commitment in various ways, the identification of the most appropriate leadership style remains hard to define or decide. In autocratic styles, the findings revealed that decisions were imposed upon the employees with leaders using coercive power to manage people. There was very little communication about the change process, due to the fact that in some cases the managers lacked the appropriate skills. This mostly developed into strong negative feelings against those implementing the change process during the initial stages.

According to this study, the leadership traits that were vital for a successful change process were role model, integrity, consistency in decision-making, fairness and transparency in actions, knowledgeable, supportive and trustworthy. As such, leadership was one of the key determinants of the change process and its relationship with the national culture was clearly established. In most of the organisations, the high power distance and masculinity features were reflected in the leadership and management styles.

5.4 **Individuals**

In any situation, changes bring new opportunities for learning, better understanding, new perspectives and the performance of diverse roles for all those engaged in the change process. For individuals in organisations, they have to face the situation in terms of opportunities, threats, possibilities and responsibilities, and also be receptive to the changing times and the collective reasoning and approach.
The human factor is the most critical source in any change process, and its management is much more difficult and delicate, and many managers are not able to undertake it effectively. As such, the human factor is involved in the planning of the change, which also involves the individuals who would implement and execute the plan.

The respondents indicated that there were specific factors that had an impact on how the employees would react to the change process. These factors, including the level of motivation, the management style, and the level of participation and involvement in the process, had a real impact on the attitudes of employees. Table 5.4 below shows the actual state of the different factors in the three organisations.

Table 5.4: Factors affecting employee attitudes towards change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bank</th>
<th>Authority</th>
<th>Hotel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management style</td>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee participation and involvement</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of motivation</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>No trust</td>
<td>Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morale</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows the different features of the three organisations in relation to the various organisational processes that determined the way individuals were treated in the particular organisations. All of these aspects originate from the style that the organisation adopts to manage its employees.
The hotel had many aspects of a modern and open organisation with appropriate practices and effective patterns of communication, employee participation and involvement, and empowerment. The authority and the bank had several similarities, and the change process was conducted through a top-down approach. In these two organisations, the employees were of the opinion that they were not valued and appreciated enough to warrant them putting in extra effort towards their work.

The hotel employees were involved in the different stages of the process, and communication and training programs formed part of the strategies of the organisation. This differed in the bank and the authority, where the employees revealed that their intrinsic values had been neglected by those implementing the change, which led to a decline in their morale.

Increasing employee involvement in decision-making would have built a sense of ownership and empowerment. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979, 2008) suggest upgrading education and communication, boosting the participation and involvement of individuals at all levels, and facilitating and supporting negotiations as a means of dealing with resistance. Making use of these strategies would have helped to increase the level of employee morale and commitment.

Given that the interests of employees were not taken into consideration or even believed to be of any importance, they were of the opinion that management was only concerned with the bottom-line profit outcome for the company than their employess performance. Employees felt unappreciated, which negatively affected their morale.
5.4.1 Trust

The participants at the bank and the hotel revealed that shared trust was one of the strongest features of their organisation, whereas in the authority the perception was more negative due to a lack of communication, which affected the element of trust. As such, trusting and relying on each other helped to improve teamwork and facilitated the operations of the organisations. A high level of trust helped employees to believe that the changes would be beneficial to them and increased their level of commitment.

Another finding was that leaders had significant impact on the attitudes of the employees and affected their level of trust in the change process. Hence, leaders had the responsibility to maintain an ‘emotional contract’ with the employees, which acted as momentum for employee performance. According to Kiefer (2004), leaders need to be particularly adept at discerning the emotional reactions of employees to change and provide the necessary support, especially given the uncertainty and negative emotions that accompany many changes.

For example, in the case of the hotel, the managers indicated that maintaining trust had been their main objective as the organisation was highly dependent on the employees for its main activities. The managers were of the opinion that perceptions of the trustworthiness of managers had influenced employee responses to change and minimised resistance. The success of the change process is affected by the way people perceive the situation emotionally, which is dependent on factors, such as, trust in the leadership of the organisation (Burt, 2001, Kanter, 1977)). In the case of the authority, the style of leadership had a negative impact on the emotional and
behavioural aspects of the individuals and led to a low level of trust (Bachman, 1998; Burt, 2001; Kanter, 1977; Kiefer, 2004).

5.4.2 Conflict

Conflict is an inevitable part of organisational life because the goals of different stakeholders, such as, managers and workers are often incompatible (Deutsch & Coleman, 2000). Mehlum (2003) argues that the work environment during a change process is often characterised by poor cohesion, conflicts, bullying and other psychosocial challenges. There are various factors that have been related to conflicts during organisational change. Van de Vliert (1998) emphasises organisational, relational and individual factors as potential antecedent conditions leading to conflicts in an organisation.

Although conflicts were common in all of the cases and the reasons for its occurrence were similar, the way it was dealt with differed between organisations. In the hotel, the managers suggested that the most effective way to resolve these conflicts was by good communication and appropriate negotiating skills. On the other hand, in the bank and the authority the leaders made use of their power and authority to deal with conflicts.

5.4.3 Rewards

According to Kessler and Purcell (1992), the elevation of incentives during the change process is very important in an organisation. A key aspect of a successful change process is the recognition of the contributions of employees through intrinsic or extrinsic systems, such as, a simple announcement or an integral comprehensive reward system. Goodstein and Burke (1991, p. 17) suggest that, “change can be
symbolised through structural modifications, like new reward systems and work procedures.”

The results indicated that none of the organisations had a culture that promoted a reward system. Most of the participants in the study believed that change processes and strategies required extra effort from the employees to meet the new challenges. The participants revealed that learning skills without being remunerated or without any incentive had been frustrating.

5.4.4 Morale

According to the participants, a high morale fostered teamwork and increased motivation among the workforce. They also suggested that it was the responsibility of managers to keep it at a level that would create high confidence and commitment among the employees.

The results revealed that both the bank and the authority had a low level of employee morale, whereas in the hotel the level was generally high. The responses indicated that contextual factors, such as, leadership or job satisfaction, had an effect on the morale of employees. For example, the respondents at the bank suggested that the work atmosphere in the branches and in the head office of the organisation was different. The interviewees suggested that due to high work pressures and increased levels of stress, the morale was low in the head offices, whereas employees seemed to be working in a more ‘stress-free’ environment in the various branches of the bank. As such, the context differed in two sections of the same organisation, which led to a difference in morale.

In addition, the respondents from the authority showed the highest level of frustration, compared to the other two sectors, and the lowest level of ‘employee
morale’. The factors that contributed to this aspect were the leadership style, the work environment and inter-relationships with other employees.

5.4.5 Individuals in the extant literature

The evidence in this study suggests that the individuals in an organisation form the major determinant for successful organisational change, and employee participation and involvement is a critical factor in the change management process. The literature supports this view, identifying a positive connection between participation and successful organisational change (Saksvik et al., 2007; Choi, 2007; Lines, 2004).

A key assumption in change management literature is that employee support for the implementation of organisational change is not only dependent on what changes (the content of change), but also on the process of change through which organisational change comes about (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Armenakis, Schaeder & Self, 2007). Organisations that value people as an important asset provide them with opportunities to express themselves and to take part in the processes of the organisation, such as, decision making. As such, these organisations endeavour to understand what motivates people and try to reinforce those behaviours.

This study provides evidence that neglecting the intrinsic needs of individuals, including their views, emotions and the values, leads to resistance (for example at the authority). However, such behaviours and management styles are to be expected in high power distance cultures where managers wield influence through sanctions and assertion of authority rather than through bargaining and reasoning (Hofstede, 2001). The hotel was more democratic in managing its employees, which fostered empowerment and participation in change management processes. According to
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), participation and involvement transforms employees to be more committed to the success of the organisational change process.

From the perspective of the employee, organisational change can be perceived as a ‘psychological battle’ that the individual has to go through, where personal interest and feelings play an important part before the process is finally accepted or rejected. As such, organisations are urged to involve the employees, to gain their commitment and reduce the risk for resistance. For example, the hotel used a facilitative and supportive management style, including more open communication and employee involvement (Denning, 2005; Williams, 2001).

The findings in relation to the hotel are not consistent with previous research in the hospitality industry in Mauritius (Lee-Ross, 2005), which reveals a more autocratic style of management with little or no delegation of job tasks and responsibilities. However, the findings in relation to the bank and the authority were consistent with other studies in the country (Day-Hookoomsing, 2000; Lee-Ross, 2005; Ramgutty-Wong, 2004).

The literature in this field (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006) suggests that there are attitudinal reactions to psychological contract violations related to organisational commitment (Lemire & Rouillard, 2005, Lester & Kickul, 2001; Freese, Shalk & Croon, 2011; Pate Martin & McGoldrick, 2003, Shore and Barksdale, 1998,), work satisfaction (Sutton & Griffin, 2003), job security (De Meuse, Bergmann et. al. 2001), Kramer & Schmalenberg (2005), motivation (Kikull & Lester, 2001), and stress (Elangovan, 2001, Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003). This aspect in the literature relates to the unfulfilled promises or contracts that were made with individuals during the change process (for example, in the authority and the bank).
Similarly, fulfilment of the psychological contract is related to particular organisational outcomes, such as, trust in the organisation, employee satisfaction, job performance and turnover (Ho & Levesque, 2005; Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Turnley, Bolino, Lester & Bloodgood, 2003). Burke (1987) focuses on the alignment of individual needs with organisational goals, and argues that such an approach would increase organisational effectiveness and involve the individuals impacted by the change process. This study identifies a strong positive correlation between individual intrinsic factors, such as, motivation, commitment and morale, and organisational factors, such as, management style, participation and involvement, trust and rewards (Gillley, Gilley & McMillan, 2009).

Therefore, the findings showed that dealing with the above factors appropriately would lead to increased motivation and morale among employees, which would then facilitate the change process. These factors can also be related to the readiness for change, as an ineffective management would affect employee acceptance or willingness to undertake the process. The findings also demonstrated that there are three major elements, closely related to the individuals in an organisation, which are the major determinants in the acceptance of the change process: trust, rewards and employee morale. These three elements are discussed below.

**5.4.5.1 Trust**

Trust in management is driven mainly by how employees perceive fairness and the management of change within an organisation (Fard, Rajabzadeh & Hasiri, 2010; Saunders & Thornhill, 2004). As such, trust functions as a substitute for other more explicit controls (Larson, 1992), and is thus a source of efficiency (Arrow, 1974). In this research, the findings suggest that trust was one of the most important factors
impacting on the decisions of the individuals in relation to organisational change. For example, Kiefer (2004) demonstrates that negative emotions during periods of change lead to reduced trust in leaders.

It was commonly understood that trust was positively related to the decision-making of employees and was perceived as a means to facilitate the change process. This finding is consistent with the literature. Kanter (1977), Burt (1992, 2001), and Lane and Bachman (1998) emphasise the importance of trust during organisational change, particularly focusing on trust as a factor that facilitates change or that positively moderates the relationships between facets of the change process (for example, participation and communication) and successful change. The literature also recognises the ability of leaders to drive change and motivate followers to higher levels of performance. For example, leadership styles have been associated with organisational change, such as, transformational leadership (Bass, 1999; Yukl, 2010) and charismatic leadership (Conger, Kanungo & Menon, 2000; Yukl, Mahsud Hassan & Prussia, 2013; Yukl, 2010).

These studies emphasise individual concerns about trust and fairness. Inconsistencies in management behaviour or perceived broken promises affected individual trust in management. This study revealed that individuals watched for ‘fairness’ in how people were informed, how decisions were made, and who received rewards or punishment. Ultimately, trust seemed to depend mostly on the type of relationships that existed between the employees and management (Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2002; Erdogan, Liden & Kraimer, 2006). Other workplace factors also impacted on this phenomenon, such as, procedures, judgements and social processes. A positive perception of these factors led to higher levels of trust in the organisation.
5.4.5.2 Rewards

Reward is another element that relates to the individuals in the organisation and affects their decisions towards the change process. An employee’s attitude and behavioural intentions, including job satisfaction and intentions to leave, may hinder how the employee feels and reacts while performing required duties and job responsibilities, as well as his/her willingness to engage in extra duties for his/her work group, department and organisation (Organ, 1988).

None of the organisations involved in this research had a culture that rewarded change efforts, although promises were made at the initial stages of the process (thus contributing to the loss of trust discussed above). LeBoeuf (1985) suggests that rewarding the efforts in implementing the change process emphasises the importance and the need for change.

Employees should be provided with the necessary incentives and motivations to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Rewards can be intrinsic or extrinsic, but the most important aspect is that both forms provide a sense of satisfaction to the individuals in the organisation. In other words, rewards are an important part of organisational change and, when ignored, affect the outcome of the process negatively.

5.4.5.3 Morale

Bowles and Cooper (2009) define morale as the state of individual psychological well-being based upon a sense of confidence, usefulness and purpose. According to Mendel (1987), morale is a feeling, a state of mind, a mental attitude and an emotional attitude. Low morale is characterised by high absenteeism, labour turnover, and unresolved grievances or strikes, which consequently impede the

Previous research has shown that employee morale affects the productivity of organisations and is also one of the major determinants of any change process. Therefore, it is imperative that management effectively decide what changes will be implemented to raise employee morale and motivate them to work together towards the success of the organisational change. In this study, a lack of consideration for the ‘human aspect of the job’ led to a low level of employee morale.

The results indicated that morale was low in both the bank and the authority, which affected the change process. Employees in the authority expressed their frustration through high resistance, whereas employees in the bank participated in the process without any commitment and ‘passively’ resisted the process. The literature in this field supports a positive relationship between job satisfaction and motivation, and employee attitudes to change (Beggs, Jernigan & Kohut, 2002; Coopey & Hartley, 1991; Corderly, Sevastos, Mueller & Parker, 1993; Miller & Walker & Drummond, 2002; Cummings, Dunham, Gardner & Pierce, 1987; Guest, 1987; Yousef, 2000). Job satisfaction and motivation of employees is positively related to morale, which in turn affects the organisational change process.

5.5 Knowledge Management

The respondents revealed that the leaders of the organisations were not keen to promote a ‘knowledge culture’. Neither the bank nor the authority had any plan or strategy in place about knowledge management. In fact, the results indicated that the
leaders of these organisations were not even aware of the strategic implications of managing organisational knowledge. However, the hotel had developed the skills and expertise of its employees prior to the change program. The training and development strategies enhanced employee understanding of the change process, so that they adopted the appropriate attitude with the necessary skills. Yun (2004) and Gronau (2012) emphasise the importance of knowledge management in the hotel industry, in terms of learning and improving the quality of service.

The results also revealed that training programs were conducted in the bank and the authority, but were limited to meeting the needs of job requirements. For example, the training program in the bank responded to the top management requirements to improve the knowledge, abilities or attitudes of the employees of new products or services. However, a real knowledge creation mechanism was absent. The current programs did not distinguish needs resulting from the performance of job functions or future organisational needs.

Another finding that emerged from the results was the relationship between the knowledge management process and the style of management in the organisation. Effective knowledge management occurs when an organisation’s culture supports and promotes certain values that are non-existent in an authoritative style of management. Hence, in democratic organisations, such as the hotel, the managers believed in learning and invested in the development of their employees.

The general perspective, in the authority and the bank, was that there was more to be achieved in this area. It was quite clear that an organisation with an autocratic style did not believe in managing or adding to the knowledge of their employees. Rastogi (2000) supports this view and argues that knowledge management cannot be
accomplished in the absence of a social environment that is built on trust, cooperation, sincerity, goodwill, help and care, shared values and vision.

5.5.1 Knowledge management in the extant literature

Knowledge management is defined as the set of activities adapted by an organisation to create, identify, represent, distribute, utilise and share experiences of employees, in order to improve its overall effectiveness (Kakabadse, Kouzmin & Kakabadse, 2001). Human resources are the key to organisational success in today’s world, as most of the organisational knowledge is located in the workforce. Bringing change through the development of the organisation mostly depends on human knowledge and skills.

This study revealed that successful change is dependent on factors, such as, training and development. This finding is consistent with the literature. For example, Lakos and Phipps (2004) state that organisational learning is necessary for organisational change, and Knight and Pye (2004) even define change as learning. Rampersad (2004, p. 43) further describes the relationship between change and knowledge in the workplace:

“…organisational change is a learning process. Change oneself can occur after learning new things and unlearning others. Individual learning must then be converted into collective learning, ultimately leading to organisational change”.

In addition, adequate training and development are very important, as they enable employees to gain confidence and trust in the change process, and thus reduce possibilities of resistance. Research reveals that loyal employees want to contribute and see the results of their effort, and they can do so through learning (Teare & Rayner, 2002). As mentioned above, knowledge management was related to the style
of management in the organisation. The literature in the field supports this finding and discusses the relationship between an organisation’s culture and knowledge management. Gupta and Govindarajan (2000), Gummer (1998), Knapp and Yu (1999), and Martin (2000) agree that, above all, organisational culture holds the key to successful knowledge management.

Lack of training and development led to resistance as employees were not prepared for the transitions, which developed sources of dilemmas and uncertainty (see Chapter Four, The Authority). The study indicated that providing training and development was one way to generate knowledge, as it enhances the employees understanding of the change process and enables the adoption of the appropriate attitude with the necessary skills.

Therefore, change managers should embed knowledge management in their corporate strategy, as it aids continuous learning and keeps employees updated with the appropriate skills and expertise. As identified above, this implies that employees are engaged in the change process while having the proper skills and attitudes, which helps them in decision-making processes.

There was also evidence of a link between the organisation’s style of management and leadership, and the culture for knowledge management. Organisations with an autocratic leadership style did not believe in managing or adding to the knowledge of their employees. These organisations did not have any strategies to help employees understand the importance of learning. According to Skyrme (2002), efficient knowledge management is absent in authoritative organisations. As such, there was evidence to show that organisational structure, the management and leadership style affected the knowledge management process. Santoro and Gopalakrishnan (2000)
suggest that organisational structure and corporate culture are interrelated, and both are identified as necessary elements for successful knowledge management initiatives.

5.6 Resistance to Change

A change process, whether it is negative or positive, unsettles people and moves them away from their comfort zones. Given that people look for stability and security in their jobs, a change process is often the last thing that they would want to experience in their daily working environment. The methods that the organisations used to manage resistance differed from one organisation to another, and depended on the management and leadership style.

The results showed that the authority had the highest level of resistance to the change process. The participants in the hotel suggested that only a minority of employees (those at the lower levels) provided some resistance, whereas the bank had not witnessed any resistance. Thus, managing resistance to change involved training employees, giving emotional support, open communication and employee involvement. The communication strategies used by the hotel, such as, the open door policy, worked effectively, and the employees understood the importance of bringing about the change process.

Communication was the key to reducing resistance. Although the bank had a vertical structure, the managers were able to communicate effectively with their subordinates as mutual trust existed between the managers and the employees. Hence, the style of management and the leadership ensured respect and discipline, and the settings of the organisation were quite rigid with decisions and policies being imposed by the higher levels of the hierarchy.
This explained the high level of resistance in the authority where there was a lack of relevant communication channels and an absence of campaigns to share information about the process. The respondents believed that such a deficiency created a lack of trust and insecurity.

5.6.1 Resistance to change in the extant literature

There is support in the literature for communication and training programs as a facilitator of the change process. For example, Otteribacher and Howley (2005) argue that in the hotel industry changes must be implemented by training employees, giving emotional support, open communication flows and employee involvement, which helps manage resistance to change. Okafor and Bode-Okunade (2009, p. 138), in their study of the banking sector, suggest that:

“…the changes in the banking sector exist at a quick lane and to adopt such changes the management must enhance capability to sense and managerial confidence, implement and articulate employee friendly programs and policies that would develop the work surroundings and boosts better industrial relations”.

The analysis emphasised the challenges that organisations faced while managing change and resistance to change among employees. Hence, a sound knowledge and an effective plan helped to improve the change process by avoiding delays and conflicts during the implementation phase. There was evidence to indicate that the way resistance was managed in an organisation was related to its management style. The level of resistance was related to communication about the change process. The more informed the employees were, the less they resisted change.

Hence, there was sufficient evidence to relate resistance to a lack of information and knowledge. There was a certain culture where the management commonly used a lot of coercion and manipulation to implement the change process. Research in the field
of communication and change management suggests that information and communication play important roles in overcoming resistance to change. Barrett (2002), Bovey and Hede, (2001), and Michael, Harris, Giles and Field (2005) provide evidence of the relationship between these two factors.

The findings revealed that a top-down approach could also lead to resistance and a lack of commitment from middle managers and employees. This is consistent with studies by Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, and Topolnytsky’s (2007), and Yousef (2000) who contend that the affective dimension of organisational commitment had the most influence on acceptance of change.

There was also evidence to suggest that resistance was suppressed using coercive and manipulative actions. The organisations reduced resistance to change by threatening job security and applying strict contracts when employing staff in middle and upper managerial levels, which could have inhibited resistance or complaints. Otobo (2000) recognises that in authoritative organisations employee resistance to change may threaten job security and, as such, this was one strategy used by management to deal with the situation.

### 5.7 Partisanship

Partisanship emerged as a new dimension of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius, and this study suggests that it represents a major determinant for organisational change success. This theme was not identified in the literature review in Chapter Two as a major determinant of the organisational change process; however, it emerged as a result of the data analysis using a modified grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 2008).
This study suggests that partisanship affected the change process through its impact on leadership, knowledge management, performance appraisal and the reward systems of the organisations in the private sector in Mauritius. As discussed in Chapter Four, partisanship was present in the cultures of all three organisations. For example, the nomination of the leaders in the organisations was related to political endeavours and favours, which affected the policy and decision-making process, and ultimately the implementation of the change process.

Therefore, this study suggests that partisanship represents a major determinant for organisational change success. Partisanship was found to have a pervasive and overarching influence on the various mechanisms and processes of the organisations under study. Consequently, it was recognised as a critical part of the organisational culture and formed the basis of the networking process of individuals in the private sector organisations.

While all three organisations witnessed this phenomenon, the degree of occurrence varied across the organisations. The authority was most affected, and the main objective of the initiators of organisational change in the organisation was to reduce the level of these practices. Partisanship was deeply embedded in the cultures of these organisations and individuals seemed to have ‘adopted’ this in their immediate work culture. The focus of the change process in the authority on reducing the influence of what has been labelled ‘partisanship’ in this study, reveals the importance of this factor in organisations in Mauritius.

5.7.1 Partisanship in the extant literature

Despite widespread analysis of the organisational change literature, the researcher could not find any study that has attempted to understand the links between what has
been termed ‘partisanship’ and change management. There is no evidence of partisanship in the literature as a factor for change management, although it was relevant for the three cases. However, there is literature relating corruption to organisational change and authors have drawn on major theories in ethics, sociology and management to develop a theoretical framework for understanding how organisational change can sometimes generate corrupt practices (Martin, Johnson & Cullen, 2009). According to these authors, organisational change through the anomie theory (Dukheim, 1951) leads to de-institutionalisation, which encourages an ethical climate mix that may foster corruption and allow its normalisation (Ashforth & Anand, 2003).

Organisational change is mostly dependent on the capacity and skills of leaders to change. Therefore, the politics of reconciliation (affiliation to certain parties, cronies and ethnicity) and compromise are dominant factors in organisations, and can lead corruption and patronage. These issues impact on the organisational processes such as recruitment, and the skills and competence of senior leaders, thus causing distortions and disruptions in the organisational change process.

The following chapter discusses the partisanship dimension in detail and shows its impact on the change management process in the three organisations under study. The chapter also elucidates the role of partisanship in the theoretical model of organisational change in the private sector in Mauritius.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an inter-case analysis, and has attempted to elucidate organisational change through interviews and the perceptions of individuals within
private sector organisations in Mauritius. The main objective of this analysis was to disentangle the complex nature of organisational change by comparing the findings from each case.

The researcher has also used the existing literature on change management and the related findings from previous research to provide a critical reflection through this inter-case analysis. The data presented has been used to support the focus of this study and answer the research questions. The key research constructs and the specific areas where the research findings converge and diverge from this analysis will be used to support the formulation of an emerging theory of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius. The following chapter provides more details on this grounded theory of organisational change in the country and explains how the key dimensions involved interact with each other to influence the process in private sector organisations.
Chapter Six: A Grounded Theory of Organisational Change in the Private Sector in Mauritius

6.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines a theory of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius developed from a modified approach to grounded theory. A diagram of the theoretical model of the change process has been constructed from the findings in this study. The diagram describes the relationships between the key dimensions of the model and explains how these work together to arrive at the theory of the management of organisational change developed from the organisations under study.

As discussed in Chapter Three, this qualitative research did not use grounded theory in its pure form. As such, it was guided by a modified form of the grounded theory approach (Birk & Mills 2011; Charmaz, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Sterk, Theall & Elifson, 2000; Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

This study has respected the major steps required to satisfy the key tenets of grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). Using the modified grounded theory approach, data was collected by means of semi-structured interviews with a theoretical sample comprising participants who had experienced change processes in private sector organisations. The data was then coded and analysed using the constant comparison method, and this produced an emerging substantive theory of the change management practices of private sector organisations in Mauritius.
As a result of the research findings, partisanship has been added to the key dimensions identified in Chapter Two. This new dimension may be unique to the context in Mauritius and influences significantly the process of change in private sector organisations.

This study suggests that the change process cannot be analysed by isolating the various parts of the model. A holistic view is essential during the change process, and during its analysis. Figure 6.1 below illustrates the relationships between the organisational change process and the major themes in this study. A circular model is presented, where the key dimensions are interrelated in a collective web of interactions, processes, relationships and activities.

The final sections in the chapter explain how partisanship has been inculcated in the culture of organisations and gained acceptance by those involved. Partisanship is viewed as a social and cultural phenomenon that includes favouritism, nepotism, ‘clientelism’ and patronage and at times can be considered to include elements of corruption, although these are beyond the scope of this study. This has an impact on the decision-making processes in organisations and affects the organisational change process.

6.1 Theoretical Model including Partisanship

The theoretical model presented in Figure 6.1 below, modified from the model presented earlier (Figure 2.3), shows that to understand the change process managers need to consider the contextual factors, including organisational structure, organisational culture, leadership, size, products, customers and competitors, which might influence the way in which change needs to be managed. As can be seen from
the model partisanship feeds into this model at the outset, and is an integral part of
the context in which change takes place.
Figure 6.1: Model of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius

History and contextual factors, such as, ethnicity and religion

Culture

Leadership

Knowledge

Management style

Structure

Change process

The organisation

Individual reactions to change

Accept

Embrace

Resist

Manipulate

Supportive measures to enhance implementation

Corrective measures, communication or coercion by organisations

Resistance to change

Change outcomes
6.1.1 Partisanship as a key dimension for organisational change

The review of the literature in Chapter Two identified six key dimensions that influence organisational change in the private sector in Mauritius: organisational structure, organisational culture, leadership processes, individuals, knowledge management, and resistance to change. The findings from the research confirmed that these factors significantly impacted on the change management process of the organisations under study.

In addition to the factors listed above, partisanship was identified as another key dimension that has an impact on organisational change in Mauritius. Partisanship emerged as one of the most influential elements of the change management phenomenon that needs to be considered when implementing change in these organisations as shown by the model above.

6.2 Theoretical Proposition

Drawing on the discussion in Chapter Five, an integrated theoretical model of change management in private sector organisations in Mauritius is illustrated. This model presents the key dimensions and their impact on the change process resulting from the findings of the research. As a guide, this study used the recommendation by Strauss and Corbin (2008, p. 22): “a theory is a set of well-developed concepts related through statements of relationships, which together constitute an integrated framework that can be used to explain or predict phenomena.”

The seven key dimensions derived in the study are as follows:

- Organisational structure.
- Organisational culture.
- Leadership processes.
- Individuals.
- Knowledge management.
- Resistance to change.
- Partisanship.

Therefore, to make a theoretical contribution, this study provides further evidence and perceives organisational change as:

- Multi-dimensional: various factors interact with each other during the change process and affect the final outcome, such as, cultural values, beliefs, leadership, motivation and other organisational factors including organisational structure.

- Multi-directional: it applies to the entire organisation and flows in various directions, and can be initiated by and directed at any level of the organisation (not solely hierarchical or top-down).

- Evolutionary: an organisation’s environment (internal and external) is characterised by ever-changing needs and requirements of the factors and stakeholders involved, which creates the impetus for change.

This grounded theory of change management suggests that change in private sector organisations in Mauritius is a dynamic process. The primary force of change in the organisations under study stemmed from the top level of the hierarchy. As a multi-dimensional process, the supporting and enabling factors mostly interact with each other under the control and authority of this driving force throughout the process.
Consistent with previous research on change management, this study identified distinct relationships between the various organisational processes and factors, and found that change was dependent on the interrelation of various key dimensions. In other words, the key dimensions are not isolated, and a holistic approach is essential for an effective change process.

The multiple dimensions, such as, cultural values, beliefs, leadership, motivation and other organisational factors including organisational structure, have an impact on change management and interact with each other during the change process. Decision-making in organisations is influenced by the particular cultural and historical context of the country.

Change is also multidirectional, as it applies to the entire organisation and flows in various directions. Change can be initiated by and directed at any level of the organisational structure. As such, change may be multi-directional and may include approaches, such as, from-middle-both-directions, bipolar or multiple-nucleus (Porter et al., 1976; Mohr, 1997). Another vital component of any organisational change initiative is that communication must never be uni-directional, but rather multi-directional (downwards, upwards and sideways). The multi-directional aspect of change is related to important aspects of the organisation, such as, the culture, communication and process of knowledge transfer.

Change is also an evolutionary process. Van De Ven and Sun (2011) suggest that change is an ongoing and never-ending process of organisational life. An organisation’s environment (internal and external) is characterised by ever-changing needs and requirements of the factors and stakeholders involved. In other words, the inner and outer context of an organisation is ever-changing, thus, creating impetus
for change. Cameron and others (2001) describe the ‘outer’ context of change as the social, economic and political environment outside the organisation, and the ‘inner’ context as the dimensions within the organisation, such as, culture, politics and structure (Girginov & Sadanski, 2008; Stockdale & Standing, 2006). None of these elements remain in a status-quo situation, and as such, the change process in the latter is affected by the former in the way it unfolds and evolves.

The change process consists of different levels and develops through the interaction of its stakeholders who are involved in various events and actions, including meetings and processes, such as, negotiations, consultations, persuasion efforts and communication programs. Subsequently, change affects groups and individuals within an organisation who experience their own change processes (Gordon et al., 2003). Therefore, it is important to consider all of the stakeholders within an organisation, including individuals and groups, before making decisions related to a change program, in order to reach the desired outcomes.

Change involves the interplay of the various elements in the process and requires an effective communication mechanism. Communication is considered to be the key mechanism for constructing meaning, and for increasing understanding and acceptance of the change (Armenakis and Harris, 2002; Armenakis et al., 1993; Axley, 2000; Daly et al., 2003; Dennings, 2006; Mohr, 1997; Shaffer, 2011; Smith, 2006).

The meaning constructed comprises cognitive and affective responses, which create attitudes to change that may contain positive and negative elements (Hollander & Einwohner, 2010; Lamm & Gordon, 2004; Piderit, 2000), and will be influenced by a range of factors, including perceived favourability and fairness of the outcomes,
and the processes of decision-making and communication (Cropanzano & Weiss, 1999; Fisher, 2002; Matheny & Smollan, 2005; Paterson & Hartel, 2002; Weiss, 2002). When participants view change, it is filtered through their personal preferences and is accordingly appreciated and accepted, or resisted (Dibella, 2007). Therefore, productive and desired outcomes are only obtainable when all of the essential elements are embedded in the strategy for bringing about change within an effective communication process.

During the change process, the supporting structures undergo a simultaneous change. The data showed a certain porous or fluid relationship between the effects of the change effort monitored during the process and the interactions of stakeholders with the structures and change process.

### 6.3 Partisanship

Partisanship clearly emerged as a key dimension of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius. This dimension played a major role in the way business was conducted in the organisations studied and consequently played a critical role in the change management processes. Partisanship was a means by which individuals influenced the decision-making process in the organisations. This was considered a major element in the social layer and also formed part of the culture in conducting business.

This study has described partisanship as a set of unique pervasive behaviours of some individuals in Mauritius. These behaviours include political interference and favouritism, and engagement in activities where power and authority are used for personal gain. These behaviours do not include fraud or extortion, or any activities
that use force, threat, violence or blackmail. In this study, partisanship is considered an unintentional act that is accepted by the society at large.

There is a grey area beyond these types of behaviours that might be perceived as corruption or as inconsistent with integrity. However, at its core, partisanship is not intentionally dishonest, but rather a product of socialised behaviours. The term ‘partisanship’ was selected to refer to specific behaviours, as it formed part of the culture, which individuals seemed to have accepted in the management and conduct of businesses.

Subsequently, in this thesis, partisanship has been used to label particular activities undertaken by organisations, groups or individuals to favour other organisations, groups or individuals. This is a social and cultural phenomenon, and includes favouritism, nepotism, ‘clientelism’ and patronage, but excludes fraud, extortion and criminal offences.

Although Mauritius espouses a merit-based bureaucratic system, there is a perception that ethnicity-based nepotism, client-based patronage and political favouritism are pervasive (Ramgutty-Wong, 2004). The ‘partisan culture’ has existed for a long time, across multiple generations, and is mostly attributed to the deep-rooted ethnic and political system across the society. Eriksen (1998, p. 15) states that, “the very construction of the social person is based on ethnicity.” From a political perspective, Minogue (1992, p. 646) explains that, “Mauritius politics is overwhelmingly the politics of ethnic competition and ethnic groups are largely endogamous.”

Over time, partisanship has been accepted in Mauritius and has become part of the societal culture and therefore the culture of organisations. Although people associate wrong-doing or bureaucratic malfunction with corruption, it is not this simple.
Partisanship is mostly related to the cognitive, corporate and societal behaviours and attitudes of individuals in organisations. Ultimately, it is embedded in the business environment in Mauritius and is not conscious criminal behaviour.

6.4 Partisanship in the Literature

Partisanship is a concept that has been specifically used in the political arena, and literally refers to prejudice in favour of a particular cause. A partisan is a committed member of a political party, and partisanship affects the political behaviour of citizens, particularly voting decisions. This concept has been discussed extensively in political literature and a body of research has focused on conceptualising the behaviours of individuals in relation to political parties.

Converse, Campbell, Miller and Stokes (1960, p. 121) define partisanship as “a psychological tie to one party or the other, and this tie is of central importance in shaping both their attitudes and behaviour.” Greene, Palmquist and Schickler (2002) suggest that partisan identification is a form of social identity. Much of the research on partisan political behaviour has been conducted in the United States of America where the political arena is dominated by two major parties. Scholars have found ample support for the idea that source cues can shape public opinion (Goren, Federico & Kittilson, 2009; Greene et al., 2002; Lau & Redlawsk, 2006; Sniderman, Brody & Tetlock, 1991).

In the literature, partisanship has most often been investigated in relation to public sector organisations. For example, Cohen (1993) suggests that public sector organisations are used as a means to achieve partisan objectives, leading to inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Partisanship has also been linked to the media, which is used by politicians as a tool to influence the public. For example, Schudson
(1995) documents that political participation in the United States of America flourished during the era of the partisan press. Some authors have also discussed the impact of partisan press on individuals. For example, as commented by Jonas, Schulz-Hardt and Frey (2005, p. 978):

“…the information search that is clearly biased in favour of a preferred alternative leads to the preservation of the information seeker’s position, although this position may not be justified on the basis of all available information”.

6.4.1 Relationship between partisanship and change management

Despite widespread attention given to the literature on organisational change, the researcher could not find any studies on the relationship between partisanship and change management. Although there is no evidence of research on partisanship as a factor for change management, it was relevant for the three organisations in this study.

In the literature, partisanship was mostly identified as an impediment, although it could act as an enabler for the change process. Evidence from this research suggests that partisanship is a pervasive factor that influences the change process. It was ever-present and influenced the major processes of the organisations, including rewards, performance management, training and development, and the decision-making processes. These factors are identified in the change management literature as key factors in successful change management.

The majority of the literature addressing partisanship was dominated by corruption and ethics in business. One author had conducted several studies in the field (Napal, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2011), and the findings suggest that individuals perceived the features of the phenomenon as part of the culture, which clearly had an adverse
effect on the implementation of new strategies and policies. This ‘partisan culture’ acts as a powerful binding force, which also affected the other key dimensions of change in this study.

Literature on the relationship between change management and corruption is also very limited. One perspective, from sociological theory, argues that organisational change may encourage the onset of corruption. Durkheim (1951) cites the anomie theory, which suggests that conditions resulting from organisational change may provide an incubator for corruption. In organisations, anomie focuses on the notion that trying to achieve the expected economic goals that dominate most organisations is impossible and people resort to illegal or immoral means to do so (Martin, Johnson & Cullen, 2009).

Martin et al. (2009) used ethics theory, anomie and organisational change theories to develop a theoretical framework for understanding how organisational change can sometimes generate corruption. These authors extended the anomie theory and ethical climate theory to articulate the deinstitutionalisation of the normative control system, which refers to the mix or combination of ethical climates in an organisation, as perceived by its members (Lange, 2008). Martin et al. (2009) argue that through this deinstitutionalisation, organisations have the potential to become incubators for corruption.

### 6.5 The Role of Partisanship in the Mauritian Culture

The Mauritian culture is characterised by complex cultural dynamics, and has been referred to as a ‘mosaic’, a ‘rainbow’ or ‘poly-ethnic’ culture, rather than a ‘melting pot’ culture (Eriksen, 1992, 2002; Ng Tseung, 2006). Although outbreaks of ethnic conflict in Mauritius are rare, ethnic or communal differences are significant in the
daily social and professional lives of Mauritians (Darga & Joomun, 2005). This feature makes the society very complex, and discrimination takes many forms and is evident in a diversity of spaces, including schools, the workplace, shopping centres and families (Boswell, 2014).

These aspects together with the ethnic and political systems in the country contribute to the prevalence of partisanship in the cultures of organisations. Therefore, it is linked to organisations and the individuals within organisations. Given that partisanship has never been studied as part of organisations in Mauritius, the next section focuses on corruption, which dominates the literature in the field. In the literature, irregularities in organisational sectors, such as, bribery, favouritism and fraud, have most often been reported as corruption.

6.5.1 Corruption as a social and cultural phenomenon?

Research in Mauritius has primarily focused on the issue of corruption in relation to ethnicity and political interference. Minogue (1992, p. 646) claims that:

“Political interference seems especially marked in the public and parastatal sectors, especially in terms of recruitment and promotion of political nominees, often either inexperienced or nearing retirement but close to the ruling regime and seen as ‘cronies’ with political backing, leading to low motivation and poor service among technically qualified staff”.

According to Napal (2006), corruption is common in Mauritian culture. She further adds that different segments of the population get involved in corruption and this situation has become a way of life. Napal (2001, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007) has conducted several studies on corruption in Mauritius, and much of this research has centred on particular themes, such as, culture, ethics and corruption (Napal, 2001, 2003, 2004).
Ashforth, Gioia, Robinson and Trevino (2008) suggest that corruption seems to be everywhere, afflicting profit and non-profit organisations, including educational and religious organisations. Researchers in the field have provided various definitions of corruption. For example, corruption can be defined as, “the misuse of entrusted power for private gain” (Transparency International, 2014), which has been adopted by several international institutions, including NGO Transparency International, the Danish Development Agency and PRME (Principles of Responsible Management Education). The definition of corruption varies from country to country, although it is very similar in legal terms, and depends on factors, such as, the legal and moral standards or norms of a particular country, including its society and communities.

From an economic perspective, however, corruption is defined as the misuse of a position or title of authority for private/personal or group/institutional gain, and this misuse typically connotes a breach of legal norms (Misangyi, Weaver & Elms, 2008). Similarly, corruption involves the pursuit of individual interests on behalf of the organisation by misdirecting resources or subverting organisational policies, programs or routines (Lange, 2008). Subsequently, corruption is believed to take different forms and has been categorised into three main categories: fraud, nepotism, extortion and bribery (Alatas, 1999; Luo, 2004). According to Luo (2004), the different forms of corruption can be described as follows:

- **Bribery** is considered the primary form of corruption and involves payment (in money or kind) that is given or taken in a corrupt business relationship.

- **Fraud** is described as an economic crime that involves trickery, swindling or deceit.
- Extortion involves corrupt practices, exchanges or transactions in which money or other items are extracted sometimes violently from unwilling individuals by persons who have the power and authority to occupy certain positions.

- Favouritism is described as a highly biased distribution of group or organisational resources not minding how the resources were originally acquired, and is a misuse of public or organisational responsibilities for personal or group interests and desires.

6.5.2 Partisanship as part of the business culture?
As discussed earlier, partisanship is considered a social and cultural phenomenon, and seems to have gained acceptance by individuals in the business environment in Mauritius. Subsequently, as a cultural factor, partisanship is linked to other social issues and is assumed to be a significant element in the Mauritian culture. As such, the behaviours of individuals are influenced by this social norm, which then appears in the various levels of the business context. The extent to which business practices are imbued with this ‘partisan norm’ is difficult to affirm.

Partisanship is evident elsewhere in Mauritius. For example, political parties are financed during elections by private sector organisations in the country. This has led to a tradition of privileging loyalties to friends, associations, religion and ethnic groups, which has gained more acceptance by individuals in the society. Therefore, partisanship has an impact on various organisational processes, including change management. The following section discusses the role of partisanship in organisational change management in private sector organisations in Mauritius.
6.6 Partisanship as a Key Dimension for Change in Mauritius

Partisanship affects change management processes in Mauritius in several ways. As discussed earlier, the key dimensions of organisational change identified in this research are interrelated. Responses from the interviewees provided evidence about the role of partisanship in the change process.

Partisanship was a prominent and powerful factor in the change process as it influenced the other dimensions of organisational change. Its prevalence through features, such as, favouritism, nepotism, ‘clientelism’ and patronage, had a major impact on organisational processes, such as, leadership, recruitment and selection, performance management, knowledge management, and training and development. Ultimately, in this study, this new key dimension of organisational change was discovered in all three organisations; it had a pervasive and overarching influence on the change process.

Partisanship affects organisational change through its influence on the recruitment and selection of leaders. In many cases, leaders are chosen according to their ethnicicity, religion or political affiliation. Ramgutty-Wong (2004) contends that sometimes the selection process of candidates in these organisations is just a cover to include someone who has political backing or belongs to a particular ethnic group. For example, respondents indicated that family ties, racial segregation, political affinity and social relationships were factors that decided the selection and recruitment processes in the organisations.

Subsequently, partisanship is one way in which individuals influence the decision-making process in organisations. Most of the interference occurs at the higher level of the organisations, which makes it very difficult to bring about change. Chapter
Four provides details about the recruitment and selection processes of leaders in the organisations. There is evidence to suggest that organisational leadership is always controlled by a group or, at times, the ruling political party in the country. For example, most often a change in the political arena also leads to a change in the leadership of many organisations.

Ultimately, this feature became part of the culture and formed the basis of the partisanship phenomenon which has existed for decades in Mauritius. For example, the Local Corporate Governance Code (2004, p.113) published in Mauritius reveals that, “a common public perception is that employment and promotion within the private and public sectors are linked to the community of the employee and that of the company’s shareholders.”

One significant impact of such ‘tradition’ is that some of the sectors are dominated by a specific community in the country (Hirschmann, 2011). Hirschmann (2011, p. 426), suggests that communities dominated the sectors through:

- financial influence, having easy access to those in power and influencing decisions through the two main governing bodies of the private sector, the Joint Economic Council and Mauritius Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

Such ongoing traditions reflect the ‘partisan culture’ and influences the leadership in some sectors (for example, the hotel industry in this research). Consequently, the management and the culture of the organisations also remained static, which acted as barrier to organisational change. This was the reason why participants thought that political interference was one factor that impacted on the change process, as it usually reflected the ideas and strategies of political parties rather than the main interest of the organisations. The cronies of political parties are often at the
leadership of these organisations (Ramgutty-Wong, 2004), and changes in policies reflect political agendas rather than strategic decisions.

The decision to employ individuals with a lack of appropriate leadership skills and competencies also leads to ineffectiveness in the organisational change process (Woodward & Henry, 2004). In several cases, the senior leaders were not able to handle the process and were forced to adopt coercive measures to reduce resistance to change (Abbasi et al., 2008; House et al., 2004). In such cases, the change practitioners used their authority and power to exert pressure on the employees and impose changes within the organisations (Klein & Knight, 2005; Fulop, Linstead & Liley, 2009).

Partisanship is also related to resistance to change as it is perceived as the root cause of a lack of trust, frustration and low employee morale (Abbasi et al., 2008; Baird, 2010; Caldwell, 2009). A high level of favouritism or nepotism leads to employees not believing their leaders (Abbasi et al., 2008). For example, the authority showed the highest level of resistance due to a lack of trust in the change process and the leaders of change. Most participants believed that the process was biased, and lacked fairness and transparency. Lack of trust undermines change management processes (Boomer, 2008); however, partisanship as the source of lack of trust has not been established in the literature in those terms.

In addition, other organisational processes were related to the ‘partisan culture’ of organisations, including knowledge and performance management processes. These were viewed as ineffective, unfair, and lacking consistency and meritocracy. As partisanship is related to the cultural and ethical ideologies of organisations, these processes were often biased and employees expected malpractices, which created
negative perceptions and resistance to change. According to Ramgutty-Wong (2004, p. 63), “linking pay to performance remained contentious because of the continued realities of the political interference, favouritism, nepotism and backing.”

Therefore, in addition to the resistance associated with performance management, there is a further link to lack of trust (Baird, 2010). In this study, a majority of the participants from the three organisations indicated their apprehension about organisational processes, such as, performance management, due to the negative influence of this culture on people’s thinking. Consequently, employees considered these mechanisms as accompanied by a ‘fait accompli’ approach and in some cases showed concern for the ethical climate (for example, in the authority). From the responses obtained, it was very obvious that many employees were not happy with these processes, which lacked credibility and had unclear objectives and direction. The resulting feelings of frustration created conflicts among the employees and managers, which occasionally turned violent (for example, in the authority).

6.7 The Emergence of the Seven Key Dimensions

The findings from the research confirmed that the seven key dimensions have a significant impact on the change management process of the organisations in this thesis. The previous sections in this chapter presented a theory of organisational change and a model derived from the findings of the study. As discussed earlier, the findings from the research confirmed the significance of the six dimensions identified during the literature review. Partisanship emerged as another key dimension for change in private sector organisations in Mauritius. As such, partisanship is unique to the context of Mauritius and is considered a societal phenomenon, impacting on decision-making processes in the business environment.
However, the question is whether these findings can be generalised or extrapolated to other small island economies. The following section addresses this question.

### 6.7.1 Generalisability of the findings

Although this study investigated only private sector organisations from three different sectors, the use of modified grounded theory and theoretical sampling ensured that the research findings could be extended to the population at large in Mauritius. Generalisation from qualitative research findings is widely accepted and there is reasonable support in the literature in the change management field. Subsequently, when findings are applied more generally, it is recognised to be valid and reliable (Falk & Guenther, 2006).

In this research, generalising from the sample findings to a more general context is deemed acceptable and plausible due to the contextual factors faced by most of the organisations in the country. Hence, organisational change was considered a social phenomenon experienced by individuals under similar conditions. This similarity formed the basis for understanding these situations (Stake, 1980), and justified the application of the research findings to a larger population or sample (Ryan & Bernard, 2000).

According to Neusar (2014, p. 182), “if we analyse and generalise appropriately we should present enough material to enable the readers to understand our position and analytical viewpoint.” For Payne and Williams (2005) to generalise is to claim that what is the case in one place at one time, will be so in another place at another time. Other authors suggest that generalisability refers to the degree to which research findings are applicable to other populations or samples (Polit & Hungler, 1991; Ryan & Bernard, 2000). Mason (2002) argues that there are two types of generalisations:
empirical generalisations, which is often used in quantitative research where the sample has to closely resemble the population in order to be generalised for the whole population; and theoretical generalisations, which cannot be as easily defined and is more suitable for qualitative research. Onwuegbuzie, Slate, Leech and Collins (2009) identify five main types of generalisations that researchers can make:

1. External (statistical) generalisations, where predictions on data obtained from a representative statistical sample are made to the population from which the sample was selected.

2. Internal (statistical) generalisations, where inferences or predictions are made on data obtained from one or more representative or elite participants (for example, key informants, politically important cases and sub-sample members).


4. Case-to-case transfer generalisations, where inferences are obtained from one case to another case.

5. Naturalistic generalisations, where the readers of an article make generalisations entirely, or at least partly, from their personal or vicarious experiences such that meanings arise, and are modified and reified by repeated encounters.

Furthermore, it is possible through a theoretical sampling process to build theory, so that patterns of behaviour are predictable, and thus, generalisable across a range of
scenarios (Charmaz, 2006). The uncovering of causative agents facilitates theoretical generalisations (Yardley, 2008).

This research identified a theory that is relevant for the context of Mauritius. Given that Mauritius forms part of the category of small island economies, which is a distinct analytical category sufficiently similar in political and economic character, the theory developed may be applied to other small island economies with similar settings. Maxwell (1992) argues that the generalisability of qualitative data occurs through the development of theory from the data, in particular a theory that can be applied to similar persons in similar situations.

6.8 Profile of Small Island Economies

There is no specific definition of small island economies. Small island nations are extremely varied in their nature and location (Tisdell, 2009). However, most of them are low-lying coastal countries that share similar sustainable development challenges, including small but growing populations, limited resources, remoteness, susceptibility to natural disasters, vulnerability to external shocks, excessive dependence on international trade, and fragile environments. Their growth and development is also constrained by high communication, energy and transportation costs, irregular international transport volumes, disproportionately expensive public administration and infrastructure due to their small size, and little to no opportunity to create economies of scale.

According to Bertram (2004), most of the small island nations have historic and ongoing ties to former colonial powers. These connections include trade (especially imports), migration access, citizenship, currency, aid, consumption aspirations (tastes) and language (Bertram, 2004). He further argues that the small island states
and territories of the Caribbean, Atlantic and Indian Ocean continue to display inherited links to the various colonial and post-colonial powers. Therefore, it is possible to postulate that the findings from Mauritius can be applied to other small island economies.

6.9 Partisanship in Small Island Economies

In the literature, partisanship has been used in conjunction with other terms, such as, ‘clientelism’ or patronage, to describe weaknesses or failures in the existing forms of governance in various countries. The term has been related to favouritism and nepotism in much literature on African countries.

Some authors have linked these behaviours to a certain culture. In previously colonised countries, it has been considered part of French organisational culture where one needs positive relationships to achieve a high level of professional cooperation. According to D’Iribarne (1989), and Hall and Hall (1990), personal contacts (professional, and also social connections and informal relations) maintain a significant place in French management practice.

Furthermore, in many developing nations, bureaucrats are increasingly politicised, and their careers, promotions and postings depend on their allegiance to political masters (Jamil, Askvik & Hossain, 2013). Partisanship occurs when these political masters favour their ‘protégé’ by offering the latter facilities, such as, important positions in key sectors of the economy. Ultimately, ‘clientelism’ and partisan behaviour may then become important ingredients of administrative culture, with different camps vying for influence through increased lobbying (Zafarullah, 2013; Jamil & Dangal, 2009).
The small size of these states has been identified as a significant disadvantage, as it forces different communities to co-exist and live in proximity to each other, which is the reason for high tensions in various countries. Premdas (1999, p. 104) argues that this particular feature, together with a predominant ethnic bipolarity in their demography, “establishes a particular virulent communal relations.” This is reflected in the politics of many governments of small island economies where these governments play ‘aggrandised roles’ in the economy and society, which can foster nepotism, cronyism, patronage and political clientism, even in the Commonwealth states (Baldacchino, 1997, pp. 69-70).

Cases of partisanship exist in most small island economies (Chene, 2010; Findlay, 2007; Larmour, 2009; World Bank, 2009), which are identified by different terms, such as, corruption or favouritism. Most of the criticism of small island economies is related to the way they are managed. That is, the pattern of administration is very traditional in most of these states. The public enterprises in these countries are characterised by unwanted interference from government in the management of organisations, the vagueness and multiplicity of goals, weak structures of accountability, absence of appropriate performance evaluation criteria, excessive emphasis on routine, rules, control and hierarchy, lack of appropriate managerial skills, massive corruption caused by poor accountability mechanisms, the politicisation of enterprises, and lack of commitment in organisational cultures (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1991; Larmour, 2009; Turner & Hulme, 1997; World Bank, 2009).

Consequently, most of the features mentioned above form part of the particular culture referred to in this study as partisanship. Various scholars have attempted to
relate the different features of partisanship to the cultures of communities in small island economies. For example, Larmour (2013) relates corruption in the form of ‘gift giving’ to the culture of individuals and organisations in the Pacific Islands. Larmour (2013, pp. 96-97) cites Alatas (1968) who argues that, “cultural practices are used for the purposes of corruption rather than being the cause of corruption.”

Larmour (2013) also mentions similar studies carried out by various scholars in this field in most of the Pacific Islands regions, such as, Dakunivosa and Singh (2001), Kun and Togomae (2004), James and Tufui (2004), Cain and Jowitt (2004), and Lameta, So’o & Unasa (2004). These studies discuss the complexity of culture in relation to the elements of partisanship, such as, favouritism, nepotism and cronyism. Ultimately, partisanship is part of many communities in the small island economies and is ever-present in the business environment of their organisations.

6.9.1 The role of partisanship in change management

Previous research on small island economies has tried to construct these as a conceptually ‘fixed’ category with similar features and vulnerabilities (Lee & Smith, 2010). Hence, international bodies, such as, the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organisation, European Union, United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and Regional Development Banks, have recognised small states as a distinctive category often with distinctive priorities (Lee & Smith, 2010).

According to Wignaraja, Lezama and Joiner (2004), small states face specific problems. Other authors, such as, Armstrong and Read (2003), Briguglio (1995), Feeny and Rogers (2008), Winters and Martins (2004), and Read (2008), have used similar conceptualisations in their analytic frameworks in their studies on small island economies. According to Kothari and Wilkinson (2013), these states are
comparable and form a distinct analytical category sufficiently similar in political and economic character to allow the production of generalisable conclusions.

The categorisation of small island economies, as witnessed in the statements above, indicate that this study and its findings carried out in the context of Mauritius can be applied and generalised for states with similar features and characteristics. The literature discussed supports the possible generalisation of findings in the field.

6.10 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the theory of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius using a modified grounded theory methodology (Strauss & Corbin, 2008). It has presented a theoretical framework and made theoretical propositions based on the contextual factors of the three organisations under study. This theoretical framework offers a snapshot of how the decision-making process during organisational change is influenced by the key dimensions, as it synthesises the qualitative findings and shows the roles played by these factors in the process.

Hence, seven key dimensions have been identified as influencing the change process, including the emergent factor of partisanship. Partisanship has been identified as a key dimension of change that is unique to organisations in Mauritius.

An interpretation of the findings suggests that change is a complex process and is not dependent on one dimension or factor. This study suggests that the change process in small island economies cannot be analysed by sections or levels. In addition, the key dimensions of change are interrelated and involve complex interactions between people. Most importantly, this study identified change as a multi-directional, multi-dimensional and evolutionary process. Other important features of organisational
change that were identified were communication and the cultural past of the
organisations.

Subsequent sections discussed the importance of partisanship in the business
environment in Mauritius and explained that this social issue has been embedded in
the cultures of organisations. The research provided evidence for the role that
partisanship plays in the business environment by influencing the various processes
of the organisations and its impact on change management. Then this chapter
discussed how the findings of the research can be generalised for the country as a
whole with reference to relevant literature.

The final sections presented a profile and the specificities of small island economies.
Small island economies have been identified as a fixed category with similar features
and vulnerabilities (Lee & Smith, 2010). Evidence from relevant literature on the
‘partisan culture’ that is central to small island economies was also included.
Subsequently, the role of partisanship as a key dimension of change in the general
context of small island economies was discussed.
Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research is concluded and implications for future research are identified. The research problem and approach, research questions and sub-questions, methodology, and key findings and theory are revisited to determine if they were successfully addressed by the research. The contributions and implications of the research, and directions for future research are also stated.

7.2 The Research Problem

The purpose of this study was to explore the phenomenon of change management in private sector organisations in Mauritius. The overarching research problem that has been addressed in this dissertation is as follows:

What is the unique contribution of factors that influence change management practices of private sector organisations in small island economy of Mauritius?

The topic of change management practices in small island economies has been neglected and rarely investigated by researchers in the field of change management. The inconsistency in the literature has shown that organisations face difficulties when trying to develop strategies for organisational change due to the lack of understanding of the phenomenon and the associated factors.

Significant research has produced a disparity of theoretical and practical proportions directed at increasing productivity through change and change management (Werr et al., 1997). However, there is not one methodology or theoretical framework that adequately addresses the solutions for the change dynamics at play in the evolution
of organisations. Meaney and Pung (2008), in their study of 3,000 executives, report that two-thirds of respondents indicated that their companies had failed to achieve a true ‘step change’ in performance after implementing organisational changes. In addition, Bouckenooghe (2010) concludes that over 90 percent of conceptual work on change attitudes has been conducted on either change readiness or resistance to change. The literature has also focused on managerial abilities and skills to indicate the limitations in their ability to plan, implement and influence changes (Ashkanasy & Kavanagh, 2006; Smid, Van Hout & Burger, 2006; Griffiths & Lai, 2003; McCleland, Swail, Bell and Ibbotson, 2005).

A review of the literature shows that little research has been conducted on change management in the context of small island economies such as Mauritius. To provide further insights, this study has examined the nature of change and the practices for implementing organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius. The characteristics and different aspects of the strategies and conditions contributing to change management have been studied by analysing the views and opinions of individuals who had experienced a change process during their career in the organisation. The study participants comprised of individuals who had either led change or followed the leadership of others during a change effort in the case study.

7.3 The Research Approach

As discussed in Chapter Three, this research used a qualitative approach to examine the change management practices in private sector organisations in Mauritius, and applied a modified form of grounded theory. This methodology was chosen as it enables an understanding of an area without requiring any pre-formed concepts of knowledge or reality. The ontology and epistemology adopted in this research accept
that knowledge is not static, but is always emerging and transforming, and is interpreted by both the observer and participant.

In this research, the use of a modified grounded theory led to the formulation of a model of change that can adapt to the present situation, and the findings can help managers in the field derive meaningful interpretations to improve the process. As such, an appropriate use of grounded theory ensures the emergence of a well-connected and comprehensive theory, grounded in the data from which it derives.

A simultaneous data collection and analysis process leads to the discovery of concepts and patterns that explain the phenomenon, such that the collected data usually drives the theory. Hence, the resulting theory reflects the data as the grounding process is implemented in a very systematic, recursive, meticulous and exhaustive style. The use of constant comparison and the memoing process (mind-maps, notes and diagrams) enables the researcher to connect the emerging concepts that explain the phenomenon. This iterative activity is enhanced by the use of theoretical sampling, which favours data collection around specifically occurring findings so that the scope of the study is narrowed. Finally, theoretical saturation is reached where the researcher builds a substantive theory that explains the phenomenon under study by selecting and using the core categories to integrate the concepts and describe the existing links between these.

7.4 The Research Questions

The interview questions that were developed were designed to acquire information from participants to answer the guiding research questions and sub-questions. The interview schedule comprised several open-ended questions (see the questionnaire in Appendix B). After the first phase of interviews, the interview questions were further
refined and other non-scripted spontaneous questions were added as the research proceeded.

The design of the interview questions was based on Patton’s (2002) suggestions, that is, to ask value questions that reflect on the issues and help answer the research questions, including questions about behaviours, opinions, values, feelings, knowledge, sensory, background and demography. Strauss and Corbin (2008, p. 29) suggest that the data collection process helps the researcher establish whether more interviews should take place, and if so, what types of questions should be asked.

The interview questions addressed general experiences, individual and organisational beliefs, attitudes and values, and critical incidents about change processes. Some of the questions also dealt with behavioural changes, which sought to gain an insight of how the process had affected the individuals. The interpretation and analysis of the responses from the questionnaires are described in Chapter Four and Chapter Five.

This study fulfilled the two main research questions by;

1) identifying a set of factors that influence the change management process in Mauritius, which the researcher argues are unique to the country.

2) providing a model that adds to the traditional change process applied by leaders and other practitioners as it reveals additional information about the key dimensions required to conduct the change process effectively. This model clarifies the practices adopted by organisations for implementing and sustaining change.
7.5 **Key Research Findings**

This research presents the findings from a qualitative study of three private sector organisations from different sectors in Mauritius, namely, the banking sector, the hotel industry and a privatised state-owned enterprise. The study used in-depth semi-structured interviews and a grounded theory approach for the data collection and analysis.

In total, 38 interviews were used to establish the key dimensions of organisational change in the case study organisations. Themes from participant responses were coded and synthesised to provide insights into the process of change in the organisations under study. The three case studies were used to confirm the key dimensions, as follows:

- Organisational structure.
- Organisational culture.
- Leadership processes.
- Individuals.
- Knowledge management.
- Resistance to change.

And to identify a new emerging dimension, that of

- Partisanship.

Partisanship emerged as a critical dimension for change in Mauritius as a result of the analysis in this study. As this thesis investigates organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius, as an example of a small island economy, the
findings provide meaningful insights for those orchestrating organisational change in other small island economies.

The emergent theory has confirmed that organisational change is a multi-dimensional, multi-directional and evolutionary process, and has identified that organisational change is influenced by the contextual and historical aspects of the country. In addition, this thesis provides a model of how the process of organisational change is undertaken in Mauritius. As a result, this model can be applied to other small island economies with similar historical, cultural or contextual features as Mauritius.

7.6 Contribution to Knowledge and Practice

The findings of this research and the theoretical framework developed in this study contribute to the existing body of literature on change management. This research provides a viable solution to the challenge by proposing a contextual model for change management that takes into account the unique situational factors in Mauritius. Subsequently, both theoretically and empirically, this research contributes to the understanding of how to develop, implement and sustain essential change outcomes and adds to the general development of theory in the field.

The original desired outcome of this study was to provide practitioners with a theory and a model that would improve decision-making during organisational change and make change efforts sustainable. The model provided by this research adds to the traditional change process applied by leaders and other practitioners as it reveals
additional information about the key dimensions required to conduct the change process effectively.

Although this study was conducted in Mauritius, the process of organisational change has general implications. The process can be applied to other countries with similar historical, cultural or contextual features as Mauritius, namely other small island economies. Consequently, this thesis provides a model of how the process of change is undertaken in small island economies.

Subsequently, this research has made important theoretical and methodological contributions by extending the literature on organisational change management in small island economies. The thesis adds to the body of literature by identifying the factors influencing organisational structure, organisational change, leadership processes, individuals, knowledge management, resistance to change and partisanship.

From a theoretical perspective, this study brings together the elements that operate within the same organisational field, including organisational culture, knowledge management and partisanship. Awareness of and effective responses to these situational factors can help managers maximise the change management process and minimise resistance to change in countries with similar specificities as Mauritius.

The findings have built on previous research and incorporate recent changes in theory in the broader field of organisational change management. The researcher has applied concepts derived in Western countries as the basis for the thesis and has utilised these insights to analyse the empirical findings collected in Mauritius. The theoretical model identified provides effective options to mitigate adverse change effects. Rather than viewing these theoretical positions as separate, the model
suggests that each key dimension plays a part in a dynamic process that guides individuals and organisations into a contextual construction of the process of organisational change.

As such, the present research has been designed to help advance knowledge in relation to change management in small island economies, as little research has been undertaken in the field. In addition, a series of theoretical implications are generated by the findings of the qualitative study. These findings add more detailed evidence about the role that the key dimensions play during the organisational change process. These also contribute to the literature on partisanship through detailed insights into the organisational culture in the private sector in Mauritius. Hence, this research has contributed to the literature on change management by extending the discussion from previously identified factors to a more socio-cultural perspective by offering evidence that partisanship plays a key role in the decision-making process during organisational change. This perspective has not been intensely examined in previous research.

Subsequently, the discussion in Chapter Six demonstrates the importance of partisanship in the context of private sector organisations in Mauritius. This study also revealed the role of partisanship in shaping the cultures of organisations, and ultimately its influence on the change management process. Evidence from previous research and literature has provided justification for generalisation in larger contexts, in this case, small island economies. Therefore, this study has also extended the literature and body of knowledge for this category of countries, and can be used for future reference in similar case studies.
The model and theory developed also have practical relevance for practitioners deciding to embark on change management processes in various ways. It provides an understanding about the complexities and the inherent nature of organisational change processes.

In this research, the investigation of the special paradoxes that exist in cultures of organisations in countries like Mauritius establishes a base for discussions in these organisations that can help leaders, practitioners and other stakeholders to examine the underlying values and assumptions of their work, and to determine whether these values should change in the future.

In fact, organisational leaders and their managers will be better informed about what the appropriate culture and the supporting structure needs to be to carry out the vision and the process of change in their organisations. An effective and flexible organisational structure based on factors, such as, the environmental conditions, its strategic goals or objectives and its culture, facilitates the process of change making it more likely to result in a positive and successful change.

This research also identifies the need for change practitioners to realise they have to pay more attention to the human factors while initiating and leading change processes. The appropriate measures facilitate co-ordination and communication where it is most needed, which may help individuals understand what is happening and how organisational change will impact roles and work patterns. An effective communication process between the various stakeholders is vital for a successful organisational change process, including direct communication, the management of information, active participation and implicit or non-verbal communication.
Ambiguity in change situations was found to develop resistance and result in a failure to initiate and implement change.

The model developed during this research also conveys an important message for change leaders about the training and development of employees. Organisations can equip themselves to prepare for leading the organisational change through the training and development of their employees and change leaders. Organisational learning is another aspect that should be included in the agendas of change practitioners, including building the capacity of the human resource base through training and development. The appropriate leadership skills are important, as in some cases leadership was identified as an impediment for the change process. Thus, leaders are seen as role models and help facilitate the process by supporting the actions of employees and creating work environments that nurture commitment.

7.7 Implications for Future Research

This research was conducted in private sector organisations in Mauritius and particularly investigated the way the change process is performed. The main motive for the existence of these organisations is profit-making with a high level of competition. Similar change efforts in the public sector might yield contrasting results as the performances of individuals in these organisations are not directly related to profit margins. Therefore, there are opportunities to broaden the insights from this study by conducting similar research in public sector organisations and not-for-profit organisations.

The initial objective of this research was to conduct a comparative study between organisations from Mauritius and another small island economy, namely, the
Seychelles Island, which is located in same region. However, due to the workload and the time frame, the researcher could only focus on one country. A future comparative study may generate results and obtain more accurate findings on change management practices in such economies, which could be generalised further.

In addition, studies examining change efforts in organisations other than those selected in this research could also yield contrasting results that would help to reveal the nuances of these industries. There is an opportunity to extend this research to other sectors, such as, textile and agricultural, which have undergone drastic changes during the last decade.

Further research on change management practices could also be conducted through the application of a different methodological approach. A quantitative approach could generate varying results and reveal other key dimensions for organisational change. For example, future studies could be conducted using a quantitative approach, such as, a survey, to test the findings provided by this research and their general application to small island economies.

7.8 Limitations

One of the main issues that usually arises in research concerns the limitation of making a statistical generalisation from the findings. Subsequently, there were a few potential limitations in this study. The first issue was that the sample studied was limited to individuals selected from the same sector (private sector) in the country and only three different organisations.

This might be a concern for the level of analysis and cause issues for generalising the results to the entire population. Further confirmation could be reached by selecting a
greater population for the sample, and including participants from various sectors and industries in the country. As mentioned above, a comparative study with another country in the same region or with a similar economy would help to confirm the findings of this study.

Another potential limitation concerns the perceptions of the individuals participating in the interviews. For example, those in the higher levels of the organisations were not as willing to participate and their feedback may have been a mere response to the request to participate in the interview. In such cases, there were more positive responses and agreement on the policies of the organisations, and there was no way to assess the actual occurrence of specific incidents due to the confidentiality element of the survey. In other words, some individuals may have felt constrained in their answers, in part due to the very dimensions which emerged from the study, in particular partisanship, and its relation to trust. Such concerns are not unusual in research of this type.

These limitations are, however, minor in nature and this study acts as a starting point from which to explore and map the change management practices of small island economies. As Yin (2009, p. 38) states, “when two or more cases support the same theory, an analytic generalisation will be possible”, and this study allows for an analytic generalisation. This study provides strong evidence on the practices of private sector organisations regarding change management, as supported by the results from the interviews.

### 7.9 Conclusion

This dissertation has presented a modified grounded theory of organisational change in private sector organisations in Mauritius. The research examined organisational
change processes during a period of three years (2005 to 2008) in three organisations that are inherently and contextually interesting and complex, and have not been previously studied by organisational researchers and practitioners.

Therefore, this dissertation aimed to identify and investigate the contributions of the key dimensions or factors of change unique to the context of Mauritius. These were compared with the theoretical elements in the extant literature considered to be necessary for effective change management. The qualitative research approach utilised in this study, involving semi-structured interviews of participants, was judged to be the most appropriate since it facilitated a deeper understanding of the change management phenomenon through the responses of the individuals who narrated their personal stories and shared their organisational experiences. A modified grounded theory approach was used to analyse data, alongside the extant literature, to identify the major themes. This research demonstrated the utility of using the literature to develop a thematic model of organisational change, and of employing a comparative retrospective analysis to look for patterns and multiple perspectives across the three organisations under study.

The analysis provided greater theoretical insight into the change management practices of the three organisations under study, and articulated an understanding of the organisational change process, including the nature of change, the role of various stakeholders and the role of leaders. The resultant theory led to the emergence of partisanship as another key dimension for change, unique to the context of Mauritius.

The central aim of this research was to develop a model and theory for change that could be used in the future by leaders and practitioners. The research revealed that organisational change is a multi-directional, multi-dimensional and evolutionary
process. The factors identified interact with each other throughout the duration of the change process. In addition, the emergent theory suggested that organisational change is dependent on the contextual and historical aspects of the country. It also revealed that there are distinct relationships between the various factors and organisational processes, which are inter-connected. This led to identification that decision-making was influenced by the historical context of the country, including the cultural factors to which the individuals are exposed.

Ultimately, this study makes a significant contribution to the understanding of organisational change in Mauritius, and may also contribute to understanding of other countries with similar features and characteristics, such as small island economies. It not only adds to the theory and practice of change management in Mauritius, but also contributes to the body of knowledge available to leaders and other practitioners in small island economies who might be considering such activities.

Finally, this research confirmed the extreme difficulty of organisational change for all individuals involved in the change process, including the leaders of change. This thesis also confirmed that the human side of change is often perceived to be ignored by organisations in their quest for change. The research has suggested that this aspect of the process deserves much more attention from researchers, practitioners and change leaders. Therefore, this thesis helps to inform improved decision-making, and makes practical suggestions for the development of better strategies to improve the process of organisational change in Mauritius and other small island economies.
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## Appendices

### Appendix A: Literature in the Field of Management in Mauritius

#### Published Research Articles in the Field of Management from 2011-2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Issues Considered</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Key Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kassean, Gungaphul, Murugasen</td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Consumer Buyer behaviour; the role of internet banking in Mauritius</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Factors important for internet banking; confidentiality and security, convenience and accessibility; ease of use of bank website. Barriers; high cost of communication settings, internet problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seebaluck</td>
<td>Total quality management</td>
<td>Reasons benefits and drawback of ISO 9000</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Benefits; efficiency improvement and quality system. Drawback; brings along lots of paper work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gungaphul, Kassean</td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Insight into the networking approaches of women entrepreneurs</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Findings would provide means to enrich social networks to ensure success and survival of business.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramseook-Munhurrun, Naidu</td>
<td>Tourism management</td>
<td>Residents attitude towards perceived tourism benefits</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Socio-cultural and economic impacts had positive influence on tourism development. Environmental impact had negative influence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramseook-Munhurrun, Naidu</td>
<td>Tourism management</td>
<td>The brand image of a small island destination: The case of Mauritius</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Brand image attributes linked to market positioning. Strong and weak brand image do exist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramseook-Munhurrun, Naidu</td>
<td>Tourism management</td>
<td>Perceived quality in restaurant services</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Evidence of Links between service quality dimensions, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polodoo</td>
<td>Finance management</td>
<td>Role of SMEs and bank profitability</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Bank profitability determined by credit risk. SMEs financing seen to be highly risky. SMEs constrained in terms of bank financing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rahman</td>
<td>Sustainable</td>
<td>Urban transport</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Sustainability of urban transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Field</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chin, Seebaluck</td>
<td>development</td>
<td>sustainability in Mauritius</td>
<td></td>
<td>is marginally moderate. Performance of sustainability indicators either moderate or poor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khadaroo, Ramlall</td>
<td>Sustainable development</td>
<td>Sustainability of current account deficit in Mauritius</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Deceleration in inward FDI Reduced capacity of the country to finance prevailing account deficit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seebaluck, Lai Wai, Vencataya, Teevengadum</td>
<td>Legal services</td>
<td>Improving quality of legal services</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Main finding: level of satisfaction of corporate clients low.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramlall</td>
<td>Sustainable development</td>
<td>Sustainable policies towards a greener economy</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Vigorous means required in view of greening energy consumption and production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peerally, Cantwell</td>
<td>Business studies</td>
<td>Innovation capabilities in the textile industry</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Product innovation capabilities are as crucial as process innovation capabilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khadaroo</td>
<td>Economics and statistics</td>
<td>Gender pay discrimination</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Gender discrimination is the major explanation behind gender pay gap for lower, mid and high earnings workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khadaroo</td>
<td>Economics and statistics</td>
<td>Multiple regime econometric model of inflation</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>LMRSTR model superior to the conventional ARDL model of inflation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khadaroo</td>
<td>Economics and statistics</td>
<td>Regime-switch, sustainability and reversal</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Switch from low surplus to high deficit equilibrium observed. Monitoring needed to achieve stability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramlall</td>
<td>Sustainable development</td>
<td>From financial modelling to traffic modelling</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Strong week end effects confirmed by dummy variables.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramlall</td>
<td>Sustainable development</td>
<td>Practical credit risk model, mortgage loan portfolio of banks</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>No evidence of relationship between age, arrears and repayment capacity. Bankers to be cautious over margin cover.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramseook-Munhurrun, Munhurrun,</td>
<td>Business studies</td>
<td>TQM adoption in a public hospital</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>TQM dimensions have significant impact on the perception of management and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Field of Study</td>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td></td>
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<td>---------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Panchoo</td>
<td></td>
<td>Management perceives TQM adoption as relevant and effective.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurren, Seetaram</td>
<td>Marketing studies</td>
<td>Marketing in the hotel sector</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tourist likely to be price sensitive and change their buying patterns during periods of economic hardship. Identification of marketing mix strategies.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurren, Durbarry</td>
<td>Marketing studies</td>
<td>Tourists perspectives of the brand image of Mauritius</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Brand image of Mauritius associated with sun, sea and sun, peaceful and relaxing environment and hospitality of Mauritius.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sornum</td>
<td>Legal studies</td>
<td>Arbitral seat for commercial and investment dispute resolution</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Highlights the salient features of Arbitration Act 2008.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iles, Wong, Yolles</td>
<td>Human resource management</td>
<td>HRM and knowledge migration across cultures</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Development of a model of ‘knowledge migration’ of HRM knowledge across cultures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurren, Seegoolam</td>
<td>Marketing studies</td>
<td>Visitor satisfaction and nature based attractions</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nature based tourism attraction can provide substantial economic gains. Identification of factors that influence visitor satisfaction.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: Interview Questionnaire

Section A: Organisational structure

Q 1. To what extent do you think organisational structures have an effect on change management?

Q2. How would you describe the structure of your organisation? For example flat, tall, matrix, bureaucratic, network, virtual, etc.

Q 3. To which of the following dimensions of organisational structure would you identify your company? Please explain why.
   1. Specialisation.
   2. Standardisation.
   3. Formalisation.
   5. Configuration.
   6. Traditionalism.

Q 4. Do you think changes in strategy, size, technology and environment should lead to change in organisational structure? Please explain why.

Q 5. Do you agree that a good or appropriate organisational structure is essential for effective performance and change management? Please explain why.

Section B: Organisational culture

Q 1. What is the impact of culture on change management?

Q 2. How would you evaluate the organisational culture of your company, that is, weak or strong? Give reasons to support your answer.
Q 3. How far would you agree with Hofstede’s dimensions of national culture in relation to the one existing in your organisation?

Q 4. A strong culture is said to improve organisational performance. How far do you think this statement is true?

Q 5. According to you, is it important to change an organisation's culture to bring a successful change management program?

Section C: Leadership processes

Q 1. What are the common traits or qualities of leadership that lead to successful change management?

Q 2. “To lead change the leader must believe without question that people are the most important asset of an organisation” (Joiner, 1987, p. 21), and “successful leaders of change trust people, their strengths and their contributions” (Barnes & Kriger, 1986). What do you think about these statements?

Section D: Individuals

Q 1. Does change management bring about ‘individual change’, that is, changes in behaviour and changes in both cognitive and non-cognitive individual difference characteristics? Please relate your answer to the following terms:

a. Individual behaviour.

b. Cognitive.

c. Affective.

d. Conative.

Q 2. What according to you is the role of the organisation in creating changes in individuals?

Q 3. What is your thought about the following terms;
a. Organisational socialisation.
b. Training.
c. Managerial behaviour.
d. Organisational change programs.

Q 4. Can you describe the following terms relative to individuals in your organisation?
   a. Trust.
   b. Conflict.
   c. Rewards.
   d. Morale.

**Section E: Knowledge**

Q 1. How important is knowledge to organisations:
   (a) in competing in a new environment?
   (b) in bringing a freedom from past organisation decisions and culture (inertia)?

Q 2. Can you describe the term ‘knowledge management’? Do you think it is important in a change management process?

Q 3. Does knowledge management form part of your organisation’s policy? If yes, please describe briefly how it is done.

**Section F: Resistance to change**

Q 1. How did your organisation manage or plan to manage resistance to change?

Q 2. Could you list some sources of resistance and explain how these were managed by your organisation?
Q 3. Could you describe some management approaches that managers can apply to manage resistance to change?
Appendix C: An example of the coding process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>A good communication channel prior to the change is very important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Another important factor was communication. Here all the managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>were encouraged to mix up with the employees to champion the change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>initiative and they also had a refresher course in communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>skills prior to the change process. I think the communication flow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>was more effective when the managers were well trained.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This was overcome by giving people information about the process and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the resultant benefits. We tried to convert resistance into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>Finally, education and training of the employees was also important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is worth noting here that most of the individuals who were close</td>
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<td>to retirement were adamant and did not want to hear about training.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Once more we provided enough support and training so that people</td>
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<td></td>
<td>feel competent and ready to take up the challenge.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>I would also train and educate the managers so that they are very</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>convincing when selling the whole idea to the employees</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Code</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management styles</td>
<td>- employees to be involved in the entire process</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- friendly and accessible</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- rules and regulations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- positive vision emphasising importance of people</td>
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<td>- good negotiation principles</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- participation from all levels of the organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership styles</td>
<td>- visionary</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- inspire team member, support efforts, collaboration</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- supportive skills, motivational skills, negotiation skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>- capacity building program put in place in a regular basis</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- building capacity of team members</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- enhancing team member capabilities</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- well organised training programs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Individuals</td>
<td>- key elements of success</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Communication</strong></td>
<td>- contribution at all levels</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>- managerial report mechanisms with</td>
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<td>- subordinates</td>
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<td>- constructive discussion with employees</td>
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<td>- discussion and consultation</td>
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<td>- communication help to survive, more competitive</td>
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<tr>
<td>- good communication achieve and spread</td>
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<td>- organisational goals</td>
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<td>- aspects of change discussed in details</td>
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<td>- organisation should define the change process</td>
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<td>- formal and informal means to communicate</td>
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<td>- lack of information led to lack of commitment</td>
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<td>- effective flow of communication</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Trust</strong></td>
<td>- trust is the key to achieve goals</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- is ‘primordial’ (very important)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conflicts</strong></td>
<td>- team members not collaborating</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- everyone has his own vested interest</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- conflicts inevitable in periods of transition</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Rewards</strong></td>
<td>- efforts and creativity rewarded</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- crucial to motivate employees to accept change</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- additional benefits in terms of financial rewards</td>
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<td>- better salary</td>
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<td><strong>Morale</strong></td>
<td>- encourage team members and boost employees morale</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- morale to a high level to keep them motivated</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- roots for problem or stepping stones for success</td>
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