

**Investigating Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients'
Resistance to Organisational Reorientation: A Saliency
Perspective**

**A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

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2015**

ABSTRACT

Drawing upon punctuated equilibrium theory, stakeholder salience theory and status quo bias theory, this research develops a framework for dealing with organisational change recipients' resistance to change. Due to the effects on the organisational environment of political, legal, and technological triggers, organisations need to change in order to survive, remain competitive and prosper. However, deploying a given organisational change, and in particular radical change, is challenging for change managers. A major reason for this is change recipients' resistance to change. Therefore, this research advances understanding of how to cope with change recipients' resistance in times of organisational change, and specifically radical planned change i.e. reorientation. To do so, this research develops a framework that incorporates the salience level of change recipients in relation to reorientation program, which has not been considered in prior studies, in association with the modes and causes of their resistance to change to identify relevant strategies that address their resistance to change.

The research methodology adopted for the research is qualitative case study. The findings are derived from 30 semi-structured interviews along with relevant documents from two cases (14 interviews from Case A and 16 interviews from Case B) that implemented an organisational reorientation program. The findings reveal that the three attributes of stakeholder salience theory (i.e. power, legitimacy, and urgency) are inadequate to identify the salience of change recipients in relation to change. In addition to these attributes, a further attribute is required, which defines the extent to which change recipients are affected by change namely the attribute of impact. Furthermore, the findings introduce seven strategies (negotiation and agreement, education, implicit coercion, persuasion by peers, two-way communication, facilitation, and rewards) that are effective for overcoming the resistance to change of recipients who belong to six salience classes and resist change for different reasons and to various levels.

These findings make a theoretical contribution to each of the theories employed in the research, punctuated equilibrium theory, stakeholder salience theory, and status quo bias theory, as well as the extant literature regarding strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to change. The findings have implications for practice by introducing a diagnostic tool that change managers can use to explore the modes and causes of change recipients' resistance as well as their levels of salience in relation to change.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All praise be to ALLAH, the Almighty, the Glorious, that without his support, I would not have been able to achieve any goal in my life.

The completion of my PhD study is a significant stage in my life and required a significant investment of time and effort. However, without the support of those from whom I gained help, the completion of this research would not have been possible.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my parents, who helped and supported me financially and emotionally to cope with all the barriers that I encountered during my study.

Special thanks to my wife, 'Latifah', brothers and sisters who have been helpful, supportive, and have experienced alongside me all the difficult times, with patience and reassurance.

My sincere thanks to my supervisor, Professor Ashley Braganza, who has been informative, supportive, and encouraging throughout my research journey.

I raise my warm thanks and gratitudes to the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Salman bin Abdulaziz –may God safe him- the King of Saudi Arabia, who sponsors the scholarship program for all those who want to study at universities in different parts of the world from which I benefitted.

PUBLICATIONS

- Alhezzani, Y. and Braganza, A. (2011) Social Networks and Organisational Change: How Online Social Networks Facilitate Radical Organisational Change Process. Proceedings of the 25 British Academy of Management Conference, Birmingham, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. (2011) The Role of Online Social Networks in Facilitating the Process of Radical Organisational Change. Brunel Business School Doctoral Symposium. 25th & 26th March, Brunel University, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. and Braganza, A. (2012) Applying Stakeholder Management Strategies for Organisational Change Recipients: A Framework for Development. Proceedings of the 26 British Academy of Management Conference, Cardiff, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. (2012) Towards a Framework for Managing Change Recipients: Stakeholder Management Perspective. Brunel Business School Doctoral Symposium. 27th & 28th March, Brunel University, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. and Braganza, A. (2013) Managing Change Recipients in Times of Radical Organisational Change. Proceedings of the 27 British Academy of Management Conference, Liverpool, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. (2013) Strategies for Managing Change Recipients in Times of Radical Organizational Change. Brunel Business School Doctoral Symposium. 20th & 21st March, Brunel University, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. (2014) When Resistance and Salience are Considered: Towards a Framework of Overcoming Change Recipients' Resistance to Organisational Reorientation. Brunel University Poster Conference, Brunel University, UK.
- Alhezzani, Y. and Braganza, A. (2015) Dealing with Change Recipients' Resistance to Organisational Reorientation: The Rest of the Story. Proceedings of the 29 British Academy of Management Conference, Portsmouth, UK. (Accepted)

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides introductory remarks on this research. The chapter commences by introducing the rationale and the significance of the research. The following section presents and justifies the employment of stakeholder salience theory as a theoretical lens for understanding the salience of change recipients in relation to an organisational change. Subsequently, the aim and the objectives of this research are reported. The last section outlines the structure of the research and provides a brief summary of the content of each chapter.

1.2 Research Rationale and Significance

In order for organisations to prosper and survive, they need to change. The challenges facing organisations are increasing (e.g. technological, legal, growth, and economic forces (Burke, 2014; Hayes, 2010; Nadler and Shaw, 1995; Nicholson, 1993)), and therefore organisational change is unavoidable (Armenakis et al., 1993; Oreg and Berson, 2011; Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Van de Ven and Sun, 2011; Ragab and Moriarty, 1977). Importantly, organisations need to be aware of the trade-off between change and stability since organisations that are overwhelmed by change can be distracted (Abrahamson, 2004). However, the majority of change programs are reported not achieve their desired objectives. Some scholars suggest that 70% of change programs fail (e.g. Beer and Nohria, 2000; Ford and Ford, 2010; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Helms Mills et al., 2009); however, they do not provide empirical evidence in support of their claim, as has been observed by Hughes (2011). A recent empirical study about the success rate of change programs revealed that only 20 percent of organisations are successful in managing change programs (Barrientos et al., 2014). This study was based on a survey of 1390 professionals from 48 countries and more than 20 industries responsible for creating, planning, or implementing change programs across their organisations including project managers, change managers, and change sponsors. The major challenges to success relate to soft factors (i.e. people issues,

including change recipients' resistance and involvement) rather than hard factors (i.e. technology and monetary resources) (Barrientos et al., 2014).

However, there are notable limitations in the study by Barrientos et al. (2014). For instance, the study does not identify the criteria used to judge how an organisation is considered as successful in managing changes. This is important because change success or failure is defined differently in the literature. Nutt (1986) defines an unsuccessful change program as one in which the change does not take place. For example, Nutt reports that a change which is about merging IT systems is regarded as unsuccessful when the merger does not happen. The study by Lapointe and Rivard (2005), meanwhile, refers to two information systems projects as unsuccessful when the two systems were withdrawn. A study by Jorgensen et al. (2008) regards a change program as successful when the program meets its objectives in terms of planned time, budget, and quality constraints. Additionally, the study by Barrientos et al. (2014) does not differentiate between types of change (i.e. incremental vs. radical). Nonetheless, Barrientos et al.'s study remains consistent with the assertion by many scholars of organisational change (e.g. Balogun and Johnson, 2005; Burke, 2014; Hayes, 2010) that managing change, in particular radical change, is a challenging endeavour. While perceptions of success and failure are set out in the literature, the temporal aspect of 'when' the change is deemed a success or failure is problematic. For instance, the merger of RBS and ABN AMRO Bank was deemed a success when it first took place in early 2007 (Arnold, 2015) and after the 2008 financial crash was considered a complete failure (Treanor, 2012). The issue of measuring timeframes within which success and failure is to be measured is beyond the scope of this thesis.

However, even when organisational change initiatives fail, invaluable lessons can be learned. Edmondson (2011) and Helms Mills et al. (2009) assert that successful organisations are those that learn from failures they experience by critically analysing, reviewing, and exploring the roots of failures that are often difficult to discover.

However, not all change recipients' resistance is necessarily negative for their organisations and need be considered by change managers as a main reason for change failure. There are many possibilities for resistance to have a positive impact on organisations. One possibility

is that resistance may be a response to unethical or unfair actions in organisations and therefore change recipients' resistance is regarded as positive in terms of informing decision makers of such misbehaviours (Piderit, 2000). Also, the rationale for a given change may be mistakenly diagnosed by change managers and in this case any resistance exhibited by change recipients is productive to prevent changes that undermine organisations' performance instead of improving it (Oreg, 2006). This is referred to by Samuelson and Zeckhauser (1988) as a net benefits related reason for resistance. A further possibility is that change recipients might have experienced similar changes in the past and thus are aware of potential risks and other implementation related issues and therefore they try to avoid change failures (i.e. regret avoidance) (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988). Moreover, resistance is not necessarily exhibited by followers especially in bottom-up change programs when those at the top (e.g. senior managers) are likely to show great level of resistance (Nadler and Tushman, 1995). Additionally, resistance may be an indication that it is necessary to involve in change those recipients who can make a valuable input to improve the quality of planning and or implementation of the change (Lines, 2004). Therefore, change managers need to be cautious when assessing change recipients' resistance. Not every resistance exhibited by change recipients should be regarded as negative because sometimes organisations can benefit from resistance rather than be harmed by it.

Organisational change is a complex process involving both intended and unintended outcomes (Balogun and Johnson, 2005; Whelan-Berry and Somerville, 2010). In addition, By (2007) has developed a conscious and unconscious change management model, and asserts what Burnes (1996) reports, which is that there is no one ideal approach that can be applied in all situations. Depending on the environment, resources and experience, change can be managed in a variety of different ways (By, 2007; Hayes, 2010; 2002; Pettigrew and Whipp, 1993). This is consistent with contingency theory (Freeman, 1995). Furthermore, implementing change in organisations is very difficult (Lines, 2007; Nadler and Tushman, 1995). The lack of a universal ideal and the complex processes involved in organisational change necessitate different - or even bespoke - management approaches in different circumstances.

Scholars (e.g. Buchannan and Body, 1992; Dacin et al., 2002; Hayes, 2010; Levy and Merry, 1986; Meyer et al., 1990; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985; Weick

and Quinn, 1999) distinguish between two types of organisational change. Incremental organisational changes are small changes that do not alter the core activities or mission of organisations, but rather improve the way the organisations function. On the other hand, radical organisational change, which is also referred to as discontinuous change (e.g. Nadler and Tushman, 1995), is a change in the primary components of an organisation, such as its strategy and structure, and it involves major redirection of the organisation (Dacin et al., 2002; Meyer et al., 1990; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985; Weick and Quinn, 1999). Radical change is about doing things differently or even doing different things (Hayes, 2010). Gersick (1991) provides a clear distinction between radical changes and incremental changes by introducing punctuated equilibrium theory. The theory posits that the major alteration of an organisation's deep structure components (i.e. strategy, structure, culture, distribution of power, and control systems) is considered as radical change; otherwise the change is regarded as incremental. Therefore, these authors emphasize that radical change is more challenging to conduct in organisations than incremental change. The deep explanation of the types of changes and the definition of radical change in this research are reported in the literature review chapter.

Change managers encounter difficulties not only because implementing change, and particularly radical change, is challenging, and can be approached in a variety of different ways, but also because the resistance of those who receive the change is a primary obstacle of change success (Clegg et al., 2004; Ford and Ford, 2010; Shin et al., 2012). This is also asserted by a recent report (Prosci, 2014), which points out that change recipients' resistance to change is a major barrier to the success of change projects. Resistance to organisational change is not a new term. It was first investigated in the 1940s by Coch and French (1948), and the possible ways to overcome resistance are still being studied (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013; Prosci, 2014). Resistance to change has a positive relationship with the intensity of organisational change. In times of radical organisational change, Strebel (1994) shows that change recipients' resistance becomes more challenging to tackle compared to incremental types of organisational change. This is also asserted by Armenakis et al. (1993), who postulate that change recipients are less ready to change in the case of radical organisational changes than with incremental changes. Therefore, the force of change recipients' resistance in times of discontinuous change (i.e. radical organisational change) is stronger than in sporadic and continuous change (i.e. incremental change) (Strebel, 1994) as depicted in Figure 1.1 below.

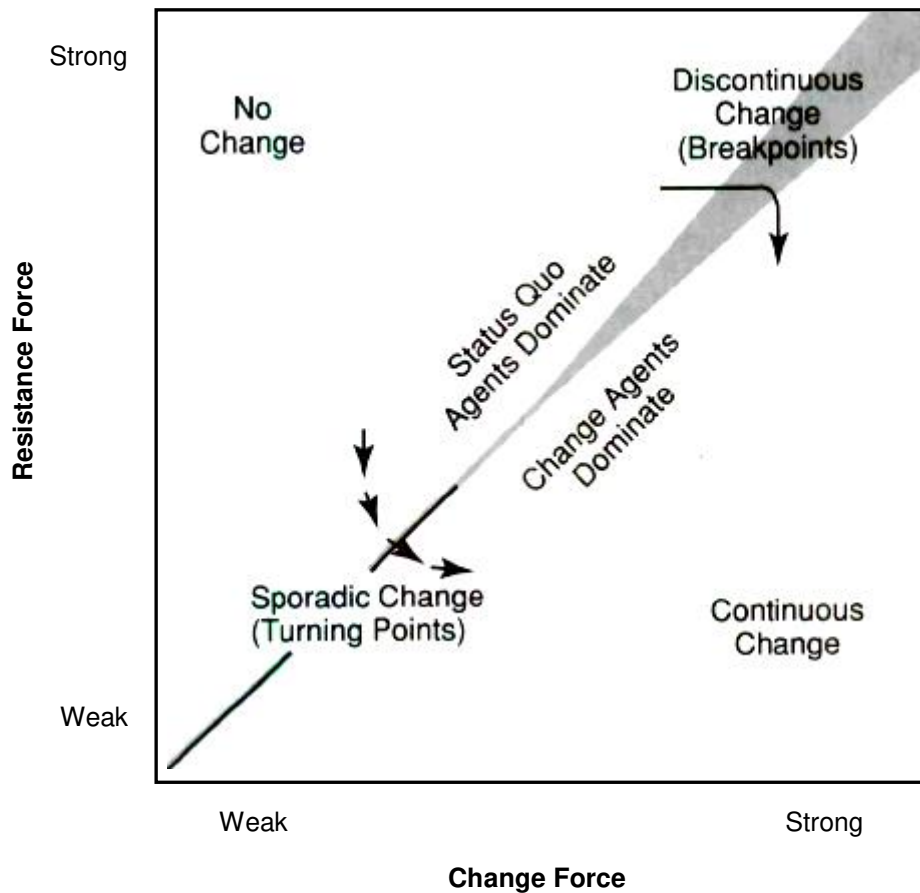


Figure 1.1: Change arena (Source: Strebler, 1994, p. 32)

Consequently, change managers should not underestimate the impact of change recipients' resistance to organisational change as some change recipients who resist a given change are able to derail the change (Battilana and Casciaro, 2013; Judson, 1991; Strebler, 1996). Therefore, investigating the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance, and in particular to radical organisational change, is fundamental in advancing understanding of how to minimise the impact of their resistance to organisational change and enhance the possibility of change success.

1.3 Organisational Change Recipients' Salience in Relation to Change

Understanding organisational change recipients in terms of their salience in relation to change has received little attention from existing studies. Change recipients are defined in

the literature as an individual or group of people who the organisation must influence to initiate change (Mondros and Wilson, 1994; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). As will be elucidated in the literature review chapter, most of the literature on change recipients' resistance to organisational change considers the causes of the recipients' resistance (e.g. Alvarez, 2008; Lapointe and Rivard, 2007; Nesterkin; 2013), their modes of resistance (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Goldstein, 1988; Hultman, 1998), the strategies to cope with their resistance (e.g. Barton and Ambrosini, 2013; Nutt, 1998; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012), and the type of organisational change (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977).

However, there is a scarcity of studies that incorporate the salience of change recipients in relation to change when addressing their resistance to change. The literature on dealing with change recipients' resistance places greater emphasis on situational factors such as time availability (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008) rather than factors related to change recipients per se. In other words, when change managers decide to force change recipients to adopt a given change, the extant literature on strategies to manage resistance remains mute on the question of whether or not it is appropriate to employ coercive methods (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008) with change recipients who have different levels of salience. For instance, coercion can be sufficient to overcome the resistance of those who have low salience to the change; however it may be ineffective in dealing with those who have high salience. A further example is that involving change recipients in a given change is an effective strategy to cope with the resistance of those who have a high salience level in relation to change whereas it is costly to employ for those who have a low salience level, when it may be more effective to adopt an inaction strategy (Rivard and Lapointe, 2012).

Therefore, this research investigates the strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance to organisational change, in particular radical change, with reference to the salience of the recipients in relation to change. In terms of current theories that provide a theoretical basis for identifying the salience of change recipients, there is a lack of relevant literature. There are studies (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Morris and Raben, 1995; Piercy, 1989) that consider the influence of change recipients on change; however, the authors do not specify what high influence means or what attributes identify a particular recipient as having high influence.

In the literature on stakeholder management, there is some theoretical provision for identifying change recipients' salience in relation to change (Freeman, 1984; Mitchell et al., 1997; Savage et al., 1991). Stakeholders are those who are able to influence or can be influenced by the fulfilment of an organisation's goals, such as employees, shareholders, and customers (Freeman, 1984). As with stakeholders, change recipients can be customers, suppliers, stockholders, managers, employees, and so forth. Moreover, change recipients can be internal (e.g. employees) and/or external (e.g. customers) to an organisation (Kanter et al., 1992). Therefore, change recipients are regarded as stakeholders of an organisational change but this does not necessarily imply that every stakeholder group is considered a change recipient. In this regard, theories of stakeholders can be borrowed to understand the salience of change recipients in relation to organisational change.

Freeman (1984) and Savage et al. (1991) introduce two by two matrices for assessing stakeholders' salience to an organisation that have received great attention in the stakeholder management literature. The dimensions of the matrices are the level of stakeholder influence and level of stakeholder cooperation within the organisation, where both levels range from high to low. The level of the stakeholder cooperation dimension is considered in this research in the form of modes of change recipients' resistance, ranging from neutral to aggressive resistance (Coetsee, 1999) as well as the causes of their resistance. This will be explained in the literature review chapter. In terms of the level of the stakeholder influence dimension, the level of influence is determined by the amount of power a stakeholder possesses over an organisation, which represents only one attribute of the three specified in a theory by Mitchell et al. (1997) as will be reported next.

A more comprehensive theory in stakeholder management literature that assesses the inference of stakeholders on organisations is stakeholder salience theory. The theory was developed by Mitchell et al. (1997). Stakeholder salience theory posits that stakeholders vary in terms of their salience to an organisation, and therefore, the way the organisation interacts with its stakeholders needs to differ accordingly. Mitchell et al. (1997) define stakeholders' salience as the extent to which managers give weight to the claims of stakeholders and accordingly, pay more attention to them. Within the salience theory, the salience of a stakeholder can be determined by three stakeholder attributes in relation to an organisation: namely power, legitimacy, and urgency. Mitchell et al. (1997) postulate that the more of these attributes a stakeholder possesses the more salient the stakeholder is in relation to an

organisation. Although these attributes may overlap, Mitchell et al. (1997) assert that the attributes remain distinct. For instance, a stakeholder may have power to influence a decision made by an organisation although the stakeholder does not have the legitimacy to do so, which the authors refer to as illegitimate power.

Scholars have developed the attributes of the theory using methods that are quantitative (see for example, Agle et al. (1999)) and qualitative (see for example, Parent and Deephouse (2007)). Stakeholder salience theory has been employed by studies investigating the salience of stakeholder in relation to an organisation (e.g. Myllykangas et al., 2010), a project within an organisation (e.g. Boonstra and Govers, 2009), and a department of an organisation (e.g. Guerzi and Shani, 2013). However, this research will employ salience theory to assess the salience of change recipients to an organisational change and then to explore the appropriate strategies to cope with their resistance to change. For instance, reward strategy (e.g. Judson, 1991) may be effective to deal with change recipients who have a high level of legitimacy in relation to the change, but not effective or inadequate to cope with those who have a high level of power over the change. Likewise, facilitation strategy may be adequate to overcome the resistance of change recipients who possess a high level of urgency in relation to the change yet who lack power over the change, but not effective to address the resistance of those who have a high level of power as well as urgency in relation to the change. A deeper explanation of this theory will be reported in the literature review chapter.

Therefore, by considering the salience of change recipients in relation to change based on stakeholder salience theory (Mitchell et al., 1997), fruitful results are expected regarding managing change recipients' resistance to organisational change.

1.4 Research Aim and Objectives

Having reported and justified the rationale and the significance of this research as well as its originality, the aim of the research is to advance understanding of how to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational change. This will be fulfilled in the context of radical organisational change by employing stakeholder salience theory as a theoretical lens. In order to achieve this aim, six objectives of the research are formulated and met in the relevant chapters as shown in Table 1.1.

Objectives	Chapters
Critically reviewing existing literature on change recipients' resistance to organisational change	Two
Designing the appropriate research methodology	Three
Identifying the attributes of change recipients' salience in relation to change	Two , Three, Four, and Five
Identifying the modes and sources of change recipients' resistance to organisational change	Two , Three, Four, and Five
Exploring the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational change	Two , Four, and Five
Developing a framework that integrates the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to organisational change with reference to their salience level to change	Six

Table 1.1: The objectives of the research and the relevant chapters (Source: Author)

1.5 Research Content and Structure

This research involves seven chapters, including this one, and each represents a major part of the research. Like any research in the management field, the process of learning from and writing this research is iterative (Edmondson and Mcmanus, 2007), moving from reporting existing literature, formulating an aim of the research, designing a field research methodology, collecting evidence from the field, discussing the results, to concluding as shown in Figure 1.2.

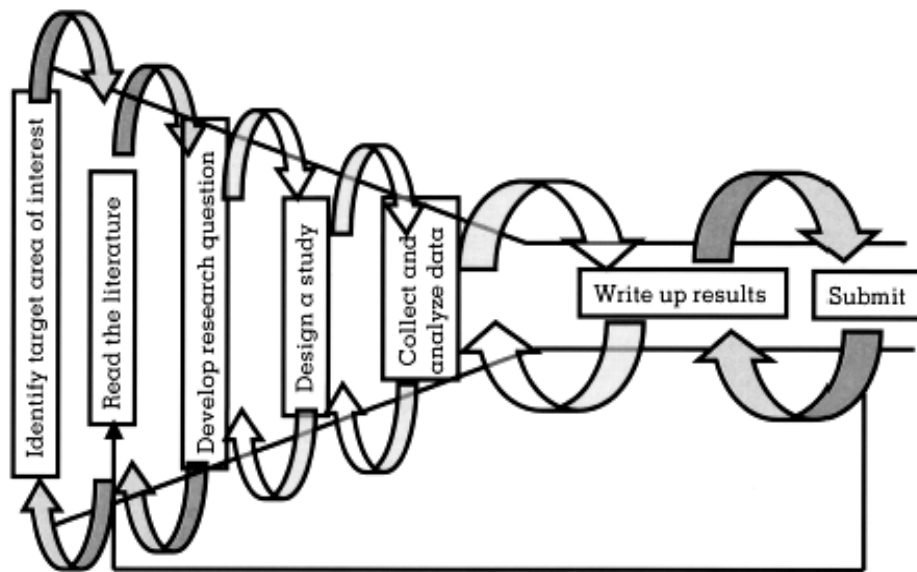


Figure 1.2: Research field as an iterative cycling learning journey (Source: Edmondson and Mcmanus, 2007, p. 1174)

The next chapter reports the reviewed studies that are relevant to this research. This includes the theories of organisational change, such as punctuated equilibrium theory, which provides an explanation of the radical change that this research is concerned with. In addition, the chapter elucidates the stakeholder salience theory introduced in this chapter, including the three attributes of the theory, which are power, legitimacy, and urgency. Also, change recipients' resistance to organisational change will be explained with further concentration on the modes and sources of their resistance to change. The chapter concludes by introducing the theoretical framework as well as discussing the research gap around which the research question is formulated. As will be illustrated in Chapter Two, the theoretical framework combines the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change from the extant literature, the salience of change recipients in relation to change based upon stakeholder salience theory, and the modes and the causes of change recipients' resistance to change in the context of radical organisational change.

Chapter Three presents the research methodology adopted in this research, which depends mainly on the research question formulated in chapter two. A qualitative case study is the methodology of achieving the aim of this research. Two case studies have been conducted in two organisations that have adopted a radical change. Besides relevant documents about the

cases, 30 semi-structured interviews (14 interviews from Case A and 16 interviews from Case B) are the method of gathering evidence. The criteria that underpin the quality of case study design (i.e. validity, reliability, and transferability) are, therefore, discussed. Prior to collecting the data, a pilot study was conducted to assess the readiness of the research design and the interview questions. Lastly, the data was analysed through a thematic analysis method in three stages: organising, interpreting, and concluding.

Chapters Four and Five present the findings of this research from Case A and Case B respectively. These chapters share a structure as follows. At the beginning of each chapter, the data sources of the relevant case are identified. This consists of semi-structured interviews with change agents and change recipients as well as relevant documents about the cases. Subsequently, the context and the explanation of the content of the change in the cases are introduced, including why the selected cases are relevant to the unit of analysis defined in Chapter Three. Next, the change recipients of the relevant case are reported, including their salience in relation to the change, which includes their levels of power, legitimacy, and urgency. After this, the modes and the causes of each change recipient group to resist the changes are presented. The last section reports the strategies that were employed to cope with the change recipients' resistance to organisational change.

Chapter Six is the discussion of the findings of the research obtained from Chapters Four and Five in relation to the extant literature. The theoretical framework introduced in Chapter Two has been developed further and therefore, the revised framework is presented. The developed framework integrates change recipients' level of salience in relation to change, and their modes and the causes of their resistance to the relevant strategies that are effective in coping with their resistance to organisational change.

Lastly, Chapter Seven sets out the originality of the research in terms of theory and practice. The chapter concludes by reporting the limitations of the research, which are acknowledged by the researcher, and recommendations of avenues for future research. Figure 1.3 represents a road map of this research by relating the major steps of the research to the relevant chapters.

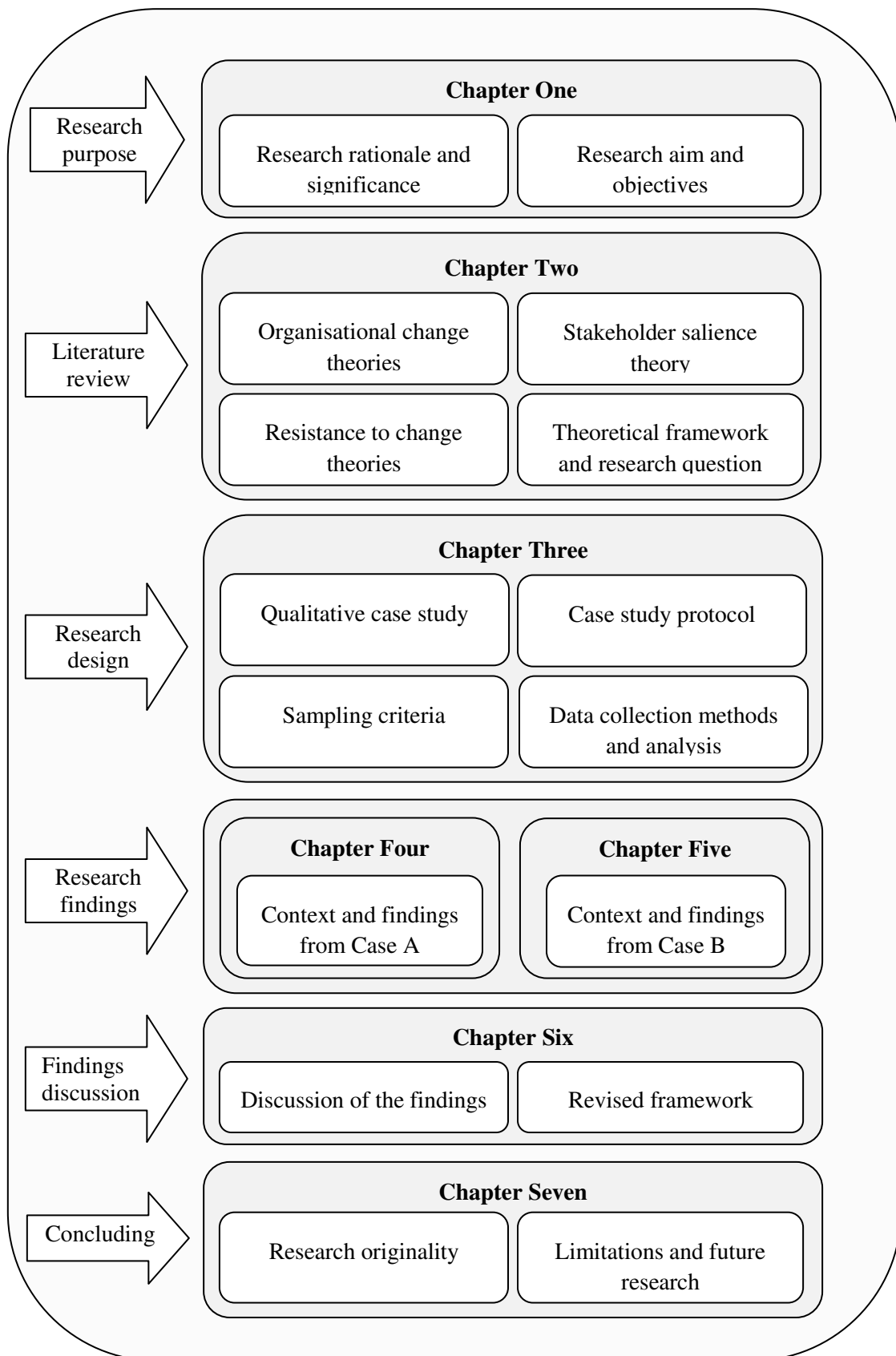


Figure 1.3: Research structure (Source: Author)

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Reviewing existing literature is a fundamental part of any research process in order for researchers to explore what is already known and unknown, to build their work on existing studies and to establish a niche for it (Yin, 2011). The review process is iterative and involves essential steps, namely obtaining the relevant literature, evaluating the literature, and note-taking and recording (Saunders et al., 2007). Moreover, criticality is vital when conducting a review of the literature. Jesson et al. (2011) assert that a good review is not only listing studies and/or relevant authors in order, but rather it is original and analytical. Therefore, a systematic approach of reviewing the literature is adopted in this research.

Prior to introducing the relevant studies and theories for this research, this chapter commences by explaining the methodology of reviewing the literature. This includes the criteria for including and excluding studies, the relevant journals and databases, and the outcomes of the review, in which the theoretical framework is established. Subsequently, the main components of the framework are defined and introduced. Firstly, the context of the research, which is radical, planned organisational change, is explained from the literature including the relevant theories and definitions of types of organisational change. The second component is change recipients' salience in relation to change, for which stakeholder salience theory serves as a theoretical basis for including three attributes of power, legitimacy, and urgency. Thirdly, change recipients' resistance to organisational change is defined and an explanation of the different modes of change recipients' resistance to change is provided. Status quo bias theory provides an explanation for the sources of change recipients' resistance to change. The last component represents the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change, where again relevant studies are reviewed and presented. Finally, drawing upon the components of the theoretical framework, the research question is developed.

2.2 Methodology of Reviewing the Literature

Approaching the literature in social sciences research can take two forms namely traditional (i.e. narrative) and systematic review (Gough et al., 2012; Jesson et al., 2011). A traditional literature review is a form of written work that provides what is already known about a certain topic with no prescribed methodology, but rather is based on a personal selection of resources (Jesson et al., 2011). Systematic literature review is ‘a specific methodology that locates existing studies, selects and evaluates contributions, analyses and synthesises data, and reports the evidence in such a way that allows reasonably clear conclusions to be reached about what is and is not known’ (Denyer and Tranfield, 2009, p. 671). Systematic review in the management field has been reported for more than ten years. It has been clearly articulated by Tranfield et al. (2003), and employed by many scholars (e.g. Nijmeijer et al., 2014).

Each of the two methods of reviewing the literature has advantages and limitations. Traditional review is not limited by the specific criteria of inclusion and/or exclusion of studies associated with systematic review. Unlike systematic review in medicine, the heterogeneity of studies in management makes it challenging for researchers who employ systematic review to specify the boundaries of their research topic. This leads to the situation where some studies may be overlooked. However, traditional review is more flexible in enabling researchers to consider various studies including those that may seem irrelevant when a systematic review is conducted (Jesson et al., 2011). Also, the traditional review method is more iterative than systematic review. Traditional review enables researchers to later consider sources that they were not aware of at early stages of the review. However, in systematic review, researchers are not able to include any source (e.g. journals) they have overlooked once the review is completed (Denyer and Tranfield, 2009). But, along with its limitations, there are advantages of employing systematic review in management. The explicit criteria of inclusion and exclusion of studies in systematic review enhances transparency and replicability of the review. On the other hand, since there is no prescribed procedure for reviewing the literature in traditional method, the review cannot be accurately replicated. Furthermore, the time researchers employing systematic review consume in planning the review enables them to be aware of potential relevant studies in terms of identifying appropriate keywords, search strings, journals and databases. This builds

rigorousness for the review that may be lacking in traditional review method (Tranfield et al., 2003). For this research, systematic review is employed as elucidated in the next subsection. However, this research does not solely rely on systematic review. As shown in later sections of this chapter, traditional ‘selective’ review is also used to overcome the limitations of systematic review reported previously.

The review process, in this study, is divided into three stages of the systematic review: planning, executing, and reporting (Tranfield et al., 2003).

2.2.1 Planning Stage

Prior to identifying the relevant journals and the key subject terms of the study, a scoping study was conducted to assess the relevance and the domain of the literature (Denyer and Tranfield, 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003). Consequently, the research focus emerged, which enabled specifying relevant keywords and search strings (see Appendix 1) by considering differences in terms of language such as ‘s’ and ‘z’, and singular and plural.

In respect of choosing the appropriate search platforms, the journals that are relevant to the research were selected to guide to the appropriate search platforms rather than searching in search platforms that may not include the relevant journals. This has reduced the number of unrelated studies, which eventually will be excluded. In terms of relevant journals, there are 1401 journals that are classified according to their star rating within a range from 1-5 (5 indicates the journal has international recognition) (Association of Business Schools, 2010; Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2015). This study is based upon journals that are rated 3-star to 5-star; this selection criterion narrowed the number of journals to 430. Each of these journals was reviewed in terms of its title, aims and scope and the relevance to the research scope of this study. Consequently, the number of the journals that covered the scope of this research is 42. However, there are three journals namely *Journal of Change Management*, *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, and *Strategic Change* with ratings between 1-2 that were included in this study due to their very high relevance to the scope of this research (see Appendix 2). Therefore the total number of journals is 45. There was no restriction for the date of publication and both empirical and conceptual studies are included.

2.2.2 Execution Stage

Following the first phase, search platforms that contain the specified journals were identified. If a journal exists in two search platforms, then the platform in which the journal appears for the longer period of time was selected. These platforms are EBSCO host, ProQuest, and Scopus. The execution of the systematic review began with the development of a search query, which enables searching for multiple search strings in different journals at the same time. For journals, searching by using ISSN was used to yield accurate results rather than the name of the journals. To maximise transparency, the syntax of query details that were used in each search platforms is shown in Appendix 3. As indicated in Figure 2.1, the combined result yielded studies (n=1051) that seemed relevant. The number of the studies was reduced by including articles that contain the word ‘resistance’ in the abstract or keywords of the articles (n=153). Finally, the remaining articles were reduced further (n=52) by excluding studies that are duplicated (n=2), short (e.g. editorials, call for papers) (n=8), and unrelated to change recipients’ resistance to change (n=42) (see Appendix 4). The selection of journals in the relative search platform helped to reduce the duplicated articles significantly. The retained studies (n=101) are discussed in the next section.

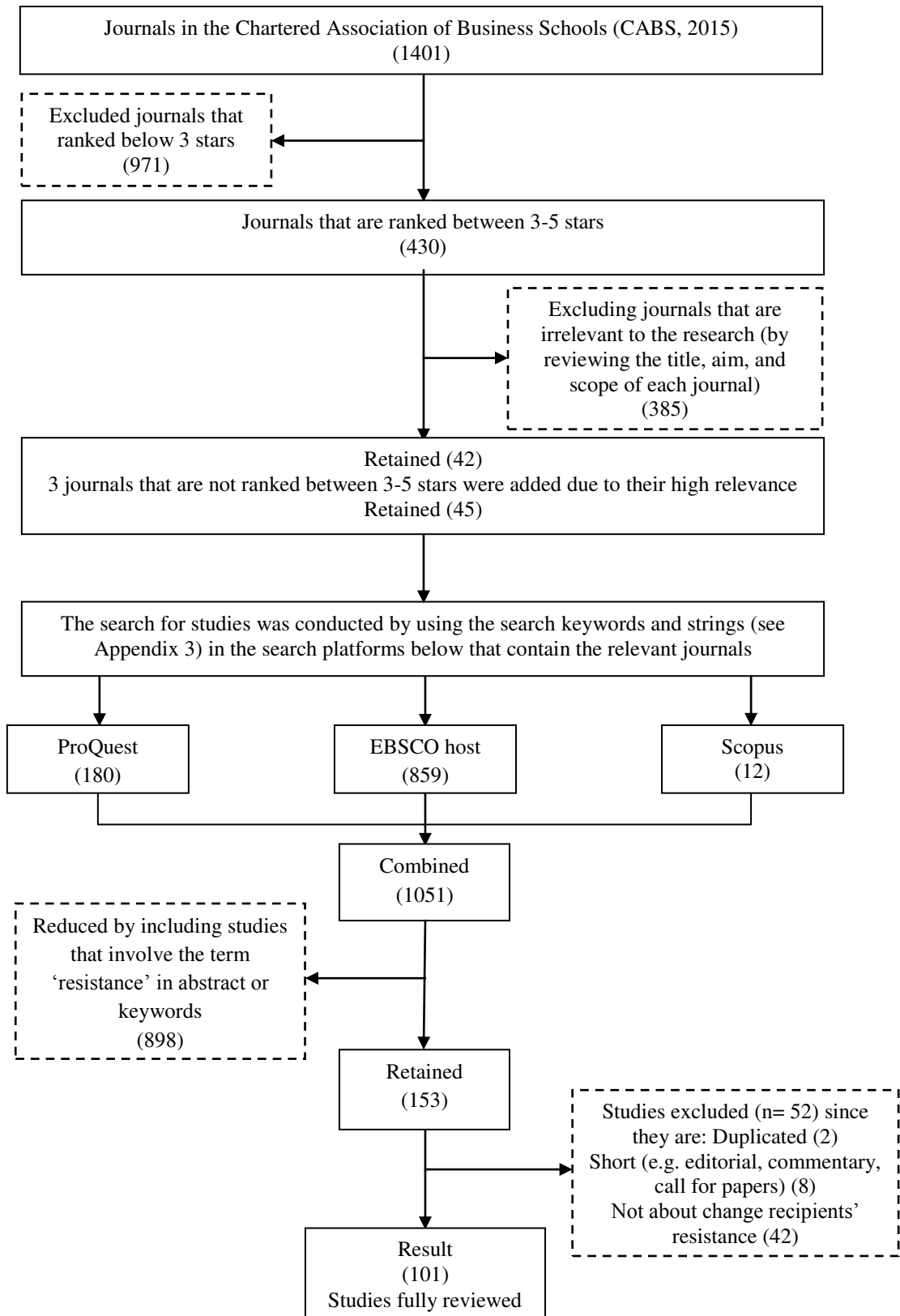


Figure 2.1: Systematic review scheme (Source: Author)

2.2.3 Reporting Stage

As reported by Tranfield et al. (2003), for the management field, meta-analysis (that is absolute positivist (Jones and Gatrell, 2014)) is unlikely to be appropriate due to the heterogeneity of the field. This is the case in this research. Therefore, narrative synthesis, which is a common form of qualitative research synthesis (Denyer and Tranfield, 2006) adopted by management scholars (e.g. Nijmeijer et al., 2014), is conducted in this research. The review will be presented in two forms. First, each study of (n=101) was classified in terms of the main types of change (radical vs. incremental), theoretical perspective, methodologies conducted, and level of change (team, organisation, or industry level). The second form of presenting the results of the review is the focus of the studies and these are classified into different categories: sources of resistance to change, strategies to overcome resistance, the attributes of change agents, and the nature of change recipients' resistance to change. Appendix 5 illustrates the details of the studies reviewed (n=101) which are summarised in Table 2.1.

A) Classifying the Literature

Of the total studies that investigated change recipients' resistance to change (n=101), numerous articles specify radical change (where studies mention radical, transformational, or strategic change) as the type of change under investigation (n=20). Some of these studies concern radical changes that are planned (n=2), while the remaining studies do not specify whether the change is planned or unplanned (n=18). The number of studies that consider incremental change are (n=3 of 101). However, there are studies that do not clarify the type of change under investigation in terms of radical or incremental (n=80 of 101) in which some of them focus on planned change (n=3) while others on unplanned change (n=1).

In respect of theories employed in the reviewed studies, there are a considerable number of studies that employ theories as their basis (n=19 of 101), while the remaining did not define theories as a theoretical foundation. The theories employed in studies include: technology acceptance theory (n=3); two studies each for identity theory, social network theory, status quo bias theory, institutional theory; and one study each for coping theory, agency theory, equity theory, expectancy theory, actor network theory, procedural justice theory, theory of psychological reactance, and referent cognitive theory.

In terms of methodological perspective, the majority of the studies (61 of 101) are empirically based while the remaining are conceptual (n=40). Of the 61 empirical studies, 25 are qualitative, 26 are quantitative, and the remaining employ mixed methods (n=10).

The reviewed studies were also analysed in terms of the level of the change. The vast majority of the studies concern changes at organisational level (93 of 101) where the organisational members are the recipients of the changes. Of the 101 studies, some studies investigated changes at industry level (n=6), where the organisations as entities are seen as targets of change. Finally, only 2 studies of 101 consider changes at team level where the members of a team are regarded as the change recipients.

Type of change	Theoretical bases	Methodology	Level of change
Radical: n=20	Technology acceptance: n=3	Qualitative: n=25	Organisational
Incremental: n=3	For each (identity, social	Quantitative: n=26	level: n=93
Planned: n=5	network, status quo bias, and	Mixed methods: n=10	Industry level: n=6
Unplanned: n=1	institutional theories) n=2	Conceptual: n=40	Team level: n=2
Not specified n=80	For each (coping, agency, equity, expectancy, actor network, procedural justice, psychological reactance, and referent cognitive theories) n=1		

Table 2.1: Summary of the studies concerning change recipients' resistance to change in which (n) represents the number of studies (Source: Author)

B) Findings from the Review

The second form of analysis is analysing and presenting the reviewed studies (n=101) into four main categories. These are the sources of change recipients' resistance to changes, the strategies to overcome their resistance, characteristics of change agents in dealing with change recipients' resistance, and the nature of the recipients' resistance. Each of these categories is explained next.

Sources of change recipients' resistance to change

Of the 101 studies, 45 investigated the factors that trigger recipients of change to resist, where the changes are at organisational level (n=40), industry level (n=3), and team level

(n=2). Regarding the organisational level, several causes of change recipients' resistance were found. These can be divided into four main categories.

Self-interest: Numerous studies report a relationship between change recipients' self-interest and their resistance to change. Clemons and Hann (1999), Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), Nesterkin (2013), Powell and Posner (1978), and Rusaw (2000) postulate that an organisation's members resist changes that impact their self-interest, such as losing power in their organisations, even though they may perceive the changes to be beneficial for their organisations. Lapointe and Rivard (2007) interviewed 43 physicians, nurses, administrators, and project managers in three hospitals and found that the shift of the physicians' power due to the implementation of clinical information system (CIS) was a main reason for their resistance. Likewise, the result of Alvarez's (2008) survey reveals that the resistance of student representatives to Enterprise Resource Planning system (ERPs) was due to the diminishment of their roles and responsibilities, which affected their status in the university. Fox and Staw (1979) found that job insecurity is a reason for employees' resistance. Trader-Leigh (2002) discovered that self-interest was an impetus for employees' resistance to a development change of an American state agency. Based upon status quo bias theory, Polites and Karahanna (2012) found that the transition costs (i.e. time and effort required by a change recipient) have a negative effect on the users' acceptance of a new information system.

In relation to self-interest, several studies found a relationship between change recipients' identities and their resistance to change to be common in merger and acquisition types of changes. Drawing upon social identity theory, Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009) investigated two law firms that had undertaken a merger program with other equal partners and found that the change in employees' work identities, including leaders of the organisations, was a source of their resistance to the merger program. This is also demonstrated by Ezzamel et al. (2001) who discovered that employees resisted the acquisition of a plant by an outside company due to the change it caused in their identities. A further two empirical studies (Beech and Johnson, 2005; Mahadevan, 2012) found change in identity to be a source of resistance to change. Two non empirical studies (Bouchikhi and Kimberly, 2003; Sidle, 2006) postulate the positive relationship between change in the identity of an organisations' members and their resistance to change.

Misperceptions between change agents and change recipients: Numerous studies report change recipients' resistance to be related to misperceptions between change agents and the recipients. Labianca et al. (2000) found that employees tend to resist a given change when their expectations of the change are higher than the outcomes. Differences in perception can also result from different professions' expectations. Doolin (2004) investigated the implementation of a new information system (IS) in a hospital and discovered that the physicians' resistance stemmed from the lack of clinical benefits in the new IS, while the management considered the new IS as financially positive. Darragh and Campbell (2001) interviewed managers from eight different change programs and indicate that employees' resistance emerged from two misperceptions about the change. First, the employees may not see an issue that change agents are attempting to resolve. Secondly, the employees can see the issue, but do not consider it as important as the change agents do.

The misperception between change agents and recipients may be caused by the lack of the agents' knowledge about the recipients' work, as is demonstrated by Nord and Durand (1975). Moreover, Pieterse et al.'s study (2012) of the implementation of a new information communication technology (ICT) in an airline corporation shows that the non-aligned discourse interactions between different professions leads to misinterpretations that ultimately cause resistance. A further form of the misperception is the lack of perceived benefits of the change by the recipients. By examining the resistance of the middle managers to a radical, planned change in an Italian corporation, the survey by Giangreco and Peccei (2005) demonstrates that the managers who perceived greater costs than benefits exhibited higher levels of resistance compared to those who perceived greater benefits of the change. Likewise, two more studies (Nov and Schecter, 2012; Tummers et al., 2012) show that the lack of perceived benefits of changes leads to resistance. The former study explores the physicians' resistance to electronic medical record systems (EMRs) while the latter concerns professional willingness to implement a public policy.

Lack of organisational support: Change recipients may resist a given change due to lack of organisational support such as providing training, and availability of time to adopt the change. Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) examined the users' resistance to a new enterprise resource planning (ERP) implementation and discovered a negative relationship between the organisational support and the users' resistance. By studying middle managers' resistance to a planned, radical change (privatised organisation), Balogun (2003) illustrates that the lack

of time and support from the top management was the reason for the middle managers' resistance rather than factors related to the change per se. The result of a study by Anderson (2006) which investigated academics' resistance to a change undertaken in a university indicates that space and time were the major sources of the academics' resistance. The negative impact of poor management support on resistance to change was also found by Trader-Leigh (2002).

Self-efficacy: Studies of change recipients' resistance to change indicate that the recipients may resist a change due to their lack of confidence in their abilities to adapt to new ways of working. The result of 49 interviews with managers in an organisation by Nord and Durand (1975) shows that the lack of confidence felt by employees about their ability to adopt the development program in their organisation is a reason for their resistance. Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) and Nov and Schecter (2012) found a negative relationship between self-efficacy and resistance to change. The former study concerns users of a new enterprise resource planning systems (ERPs) while the latter considers physicians' resistance to new implementation of electronic medical record systems (EMRs). Likewise, Nov and Ye (2009) and Nov and Ye (2008) found that student perceptions of the difficulty of using the new library information system has a negative effect of their resistance. Hardgrave et al. (2003) discovered that perceived complexity is positively associated with resistance of developers of information systems. One conceptual study (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008) suggests that the lack of employees' ability and skills can be a hindrance to change.

Other sources of resistance: There are also other reasons for change recipients' resistance that do not belong to the four categories above. These reasons are: broken agreement between employees and their organisation (Strebel, 1996), poor economic environment (Macri et al., 2000), competing commitments (Kegan and Lahey, 2001), learned helplessness (George and Jones, 2001), lack of trust in leadership (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Lofquist, 2011), uncertainty (Powell and Posner, 1978), lack of fit between the culture of an organisation and a given change (Dobosz-Bourne and Jankowicz, 2006; Klein and Sorra, 1996), embedded routines (Longstrand and Elg, 2012), the level of a CEO stock ownership in a takeover change (Butchholtz and Ribbens, 1994), and the extent of divergence between merged firms (Larsson and Finkelstein, 1999).

In respect of changes at an industry level, in which organisations are considered as recipients of change, three empirical studies investigated the sources of the organisations' resistance to industrial change. Smith et al. (2010) conducted an action research study in 89 government agencies in Australia which were required to implement a national information system security (ISS) approach. The lack of fit between the implementation strategy and the agencies' culture and norms was the reason for the resistance that caused 59 agencies a delay to implement ISS. By interviewing executives and senior managers from two banks that had to comply with major changes in the bank industry, Fox-Wolfgramm et al. (1998) found that the organisations whose identities are inconsistent with the institutional pressures are likely to resist the change. Marquis and Lounsbury (2007) indicate that acquisitions by banks outside the U.S community are more likely to be resisted than acquisitions by local banks.

Finally, in terms of changes at a team level, there are two studies - one empirical (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001) and one conceptual (Kirkman and Shapiro, 1997) - in which the authors define 'team' as self-managing work teams. The result of the survey by Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) shows that team cultural values can be a source of individuals' resistance to work within the team. Likewise, Kirkman and Shapiro (1997) speculate that the less the similarity of values between change recipients and the agents, the more likely the recipients will resist the agents' attempts to implement team-related change.

Strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance to change

The second category of the studies regarding change recipients' resistance is the strategies to cope with their resistance to change. Of the 101 studies, 48 concern the strategies to deal with the recipients' resistance, of which 45 focus upon changes within organisations and 3 on changes at an industry level. With regard to the organisation level, the strategies are classified as education, communication, facilitation, involvement, persuasion, and coercion.

Education: Numerous studies emphasise the role of informing and explaining the change that is being undertaken to change recipients. Connell and Waring (2002) interviewed 61 people from three different Australian organisations that had conducted a change program and found that explaining the rationale behind the changes was vital in coping with the employees' resistance. This is consistent with a study by Rothenberg (2007). Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) found that educating users of strategic information systems by

introducing the benefits of the change is effective in coping with their resistance in particular when the recipients do not perceive the change as necessary. Mumford (1965) investigated clerks' resistance to new technology and indicates that explaining the impact of the change on the clerks diminishes their resistance, particularly in situations when they will not lose personal goals. A survey by Reichers et al. (1997) in a manufacturing organisation reveals that educating employees with honesty about the necessity of the change has a positive impact on reducing their resistance. Several conceptual studies postulate the effectiveness of education about the change in reducing employees' resistance (Ford and Ford, 2009; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Lawrence, 1954; Martin, 1993; Neal and Tromley, 1995; Sidle, 2006).

Communication: Reichers et al. (1997) found that in order for the change to be effectively communicated to its recipients there needs to be a two-way exchange between the change agents and recipients. With a focus on radical change, Auster and Ruebottom (2013) and Pendlebury (1987) postulate that two-way communication and feedback from the recipients are essential in coping with their resistance. Ford and Ford (2010) and Jarrett (2004) emphasise the necessity for managers to not underestimate the feedback from change recipients, arguing that it is a fundamental consideration in dealing with their resistance. Moreover, Fidler and Johnson (1984) suggest that the communication of a change needs to be compatible with the levels of complexity and risk associated with it.

Facilitation: Any form of support from managers to change recipients, such as providing training, time, and emotional support is regarded as facilitation (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Roberto and Levesque, 2005). Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) found a positive relationship between management support and reducing users' resistance to ERP systems. Likewise, the result of Rivard and Lapointe's study (2012) of users' resistance to new information systems illustrates that the facilitation method is effective in addressing the users' resistance as long as it is compatible with their requirements (e.g. providing training for those who lack specific skills or emotional support when fear and anxiety exist). Focusing on middle managers' resistance, the result of a survey from 701 high tech firms in the UK by Barton and Ambrosini (2013) shows that top management support has a negative relationship with cynicism to change. Schiavone (2012) found facilitating the learning process in technology innovation related changes diminish resistance from the recipients. From an equity theory perspective, Joshi (1991) postulates that the facilitation method

reduces change recipients' resistance by decreasing their input costs to the change to make them relatively less than the benefits of the outcome.

Involvement: Involving those who are affected by a given change in decision-making is considered by many studies as effective method for reducing their resistance. Two survey studies on radical change (Giangreco and Peccei, 2005; Lines, 2004), the former concerning middle managers, reveal a negative relationship between involving change recipients and resistance to change. An observation study and a survey by Mallinger (1993) and Reichers et al. (1997) respectively show that involving change recipients is effective in reducing their resistance only if they have an opportunity to express their emotions and their opinions are respected. Moreover, Martinsons and Chong (1999) surveyed managers from 60 organisations in East Asia and demonstrate that involving HR specialist in information system related changes enhances to decrease users' resistance. A further two empirical studies (Johnson, 1974; Nutt, 1998) assert the role of involving change recipients in eliminating their resistance. In contrast with the studies above, a survey by Barton and Ambrosini (2013) on middle managers from the UK high tech industry shows no relationship between involving the managers and reducing their resistance. Various conceptual studies speculate on the role of involving change recipients in decision making (Armenakis et al., 1993; Hall et al., 1993; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Mccarthy et al., 2008; Sidle, 2006), while others emphasise that involvement needs to be across the organisation in radical changes (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013). Other studies identify the influence of fair procedure in terms of involvement (Joshi, 1991), and the provision of assurance that employees will not be dismissed (Heath et al., 1993).

Persuasion: Several studies indicate a negative relationship between persuasion and resistance to change. Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) found persuasion by peers has an influence in reducing users' resistance to ERP systems. Likewise, Rivard and Lapointe (2012) reviewed 89 studies on information systems changes and found that persuasion is not adequate to cope with users' resistance without credibility in the message. The result of reviewing 378 cases of implementing strategic decisions in different organisations by Nutt (1998) reported that persuasion has a moderate effect in reducing recipients' resistance. Two conceptual studies, Armenakis et al. (1993) and Goldstein (1988), speculate on the role of persuasion in overcoming change recipients' resistance, specifically in the latter when the level of their resistance is not high.

Coercion: Coercion is a method in which managers exert force on their subordinates to compel them to comply with the change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). It can be effective, particularly when the time to implement the change is limited (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). Rivard and Lapointe (2012) demonstrate the use of coercion associated with credibility of the message is effective in eliminating users' resistance to ERP systems. Nutt (1998) found that the use of edict in gaining recipients' compliance is moderately effective. The results of the survey of 220 MBA students by Tepper et al. (1998) unveil that coercion methods are more effective in addressing resistance when they are associated with soft tactics (e.g. organisational support) than when they are employed alone.

Other strategies to overcome resistance: In addition to the studies reported in the six categories previously, there are studies (from the 45 studies) concerning other strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) suggest cooptation as a method to reduce resistance. The authors define cooptation as conferring influential change recipients a status or monetary rewards not because of their eligibility but rather to obtain their compliance. Battilana and Casciaro (2013) discovered that affective cooptation (i.e. based on emotion rather than monetary or status benefits) is effective in reducing change recipients' resistance in incremental types of change but not in radical ones. In the context of family business, Konig et al. (2013) postulate that the level of influence the family has on their organisation has a positive impact in reducing employees' resistance.

Furthermore, to overcome physicians' resistance to a strategy change, Lee (2010) suggests that the new strategy needs to be compatible with patients' requirements. Ford and Ford (2009) and Ford et al. (2002) emphasise the necessity of dealing with the negative reputations of previous changes in order to diminish resistance to new changes. Focusing on external change recipients in innovation related changes, Garcia et al. (2007) discovered that when the purpose of the innovation yields benefits to the industry, the optimal strategy to cope with resistance is collaboration with competitors (horizontal collaboration); otherwise the strategy needs to satisfy suppliers and/or distributors (vertical collaboration). In addition, there are studies concerning further methods to deal with recipients' resistance; for instance, negotiation and agreement (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008), rewards (Joshi, 1991; McCarthy et al., 2008; Reichers et al., 1997), and the use of psychoanalysis (Kersten, 2001). Further studies emphasise exploring an organisation's culture by using network analysis methods (Johnson-Cramer et al., 2007), compatibility between employees' skills (Roberto and

Levesque, 2005), and procedural justice (Barton and Ambrosini, 2013; Folger and Skarlicki, 1999) in which the latter study asserts the three forms of justice (distributive, procedural, and interaction). Also reframing the recipients' identities in times of organisational identify related changes were speculated as an effective method (Fiol and O'Connor, 2002; Fiol, 2002).

In terms of changes at industry level, three studies were found. Sutanto et al. (2008) investigated the implementation of smart card systems in public transportation in Singapore and the result of the survey shows that the communication among top management in the affected organisations is essential to overcome resistance in the organisations. Ginsberg and Abrahamson (1991) studied strategic regulation changes in the US bank industry and found that change in the top management team by promoting or hiring new executives is an effective method of coping with institutional resistance to strategic change. Finally, Lee and Clark (1997) speculate that educating traders about the benefits and rationale in the case of introducing market electronic systems is essential to cope with their resistance.

Characteristics of change agents in dealing with change recipients' resistance

Several studies (n=7) focus on change agents' attributes in dealing with change recipients' resistance. A survey by Lines (2007) of a radical change in a telecommunication firm reveals that, unlike change agents with a position of power (e.g. hierarchy), the participation and sense-giving methods used by change agents who have expert power have a positive effect in reducing change recipients' resistance to change. Moreover, Lines (2004) asserts that change agents with expert power are more likely to employ participation and sense-giving methods than change agents with a lower level of expert power. Oreg and Berson (2011) surveyed 75 school principals and 586 teachers and suggest that leaders' openness to change is negatively related to employees' resistance, while leaders' dispositional resistance to change is positively related to employees' resistance to change. Enns et al. (2003) examined the methods that chief information officers (CIOs) can use to cope with the resistance of their peers (top management group) to strategic information systems. The result shows that rational persuasion and personal appeals (e.g. loyalty and friendship) by CIOs have a positive relationship with eliminating resistance, while exchange (e.g. promises to share benefits) and pressure (e.g. threat and frequent check) have a negative relationship with reducing resistance.

Moreover, Ginsberg and Abrahamson (1991) found that external management consultants are more influential than new members of a top management team in persuading top executives of an organisation about new changes. The results of a survey by Ferres and Connell (2004) on 448 employees from different hierarchical levels in a public organisation show that leaders who are emotionally intelligent (based on self-awareness, self-regulation, social skills, motivation, and empathy) are less likely to encounter resistance from their subordinates than leaders with less emotional intelligence. Studies by DeCelles et al. (2013) and Oreg and Berson (2011) show a negative relationship between transformative leadership and resistance to change. Armenakis et al. (1993) postulates that selecting change agents (internal and/or external) who have a reputation relating to a given change enhances their credibility, which means that change recipients will be more likely to show acceptance.

Nature of change recipients' resistance to change

The last category concerns studies (n=7) about the nature of resistance exhibited by change recipients. Ford et al. (2008) speculate that in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of change recipients' resistance, three dynamic elements need to be considered: change recipients' actions (behaviours related to the change), change agents' sense-making (interpretations of the recipients' actions by the agents), and agent-recipient relationships (dealing with recipients' resistance). Lapointe and Rivard (2005) conducted multiple qualitative case studies at three hospitals that implemented a major IS project (Electronic Medical Record (EMR)) to understand resistance at group level. The authors developed a model which suggests that user resistance evolves as a result of interaction between the initial conditions (e.g. distribution of power between administrators and physicians) and the object (in this case the implementation of EMR) that users perceive as threat.

In line with Lapointe and Rivard (2005), Binci et al. (2012) and Selander and Henfridsson (2012) found that resistance is a dynamic process and that users' resistance may vary throughout the implementation of the change programme. Auster and Ruebottom (2013) suggest that the modes of change recipients' resistance ranges from negative sceptics who resist changes for personal reasons, positive sceptics, fence sitters, promoters, to sponsors. Binci et al. (2012), Ford et al. (2008), and Piderit (2000) insist that change recipients' resistance to a given change is not necessarily negative as it can represent a positive feedback for the agents. Piderit (2000) proposes that change recipients' resistance to change

consists of three dimensions, which are affective, behavioural and cognitive, all of which affect each other. Cunha et al. (2013) predict that changes in organisational structure such as shifting roles and minimising the structure, are positively associated with the spread of change recipients' resistance across their organisation.

In addition to the studies presented in the four categories above, two empirical studies were found that explored possible strategies that change recipients may use in reaction to change. Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005) conducted interviews in two banks that had implemented new information systems. Drawing upon coping theory, the authors identify four strategies that users to a new information system may use based on two dimensions, namely the possible opportunity from the system and the level of their control over the system. These strategies are: benefits satisfying, benefits maximising, self-preservation, and disturbance handling. Drummond (1998) identified tactics that change recipients may pursue to cause harm in order to derail a given change. The tactics include pretending compliance in order to direct the management to different direction that is intended, harnessing the vulnerability and weakness of the change, and giving biased information.

2.2.4 Implications of the Review

The aim of the systematic review employed in this research is to provide a comprehensive view of prior studies on change recipients' resistance to organisational change. Although, as shown previously in this chapter, there is a great deal of literature on change recipients' resistance to change there is a scarcity of studies that incorporate the attributes of change recipients per se. For instance, some of the reviewed studies concern change recipients who are middle managers (e.g. Barton and Ambrosini, 2013), physicians (e.g. Lapointe and Rivard, 2005), users of information system (e.g. Rivard and Lapointe, 2012), and academics (Anderson, 2006), while other studies (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013) do not specify a particular group of change recipients. However, it is not yet known the influence the change recipients can have on a given change in relation to their salience to change which in turn requires change agents to respond correspondingly. For example, from a stakeholder salience theory perspective (Mitchell et al., 1997) which postulates three attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) that determine the salience of a stakeholder, the current literature on change recipients' resistance remains mute in explaining what impact the existence of all or some of these attributes in change recipients has in the context of organisational change.

By considering the influence of change recipients on a given change in relation to the literature reviewed early in this research, several avenues for research (which are based on the four categories presented in the previous section) are proposed as follows.

In respect of the sources of change recipients' resistance to change, the reviewed studies identify many reasons related to self-interest (e.g. Lapointe and Rivard, 2007), misperceptions (e.g. Doolin, 2004), lack of support (e.g. Balogun, 2003), and self efficacy (e.g. Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009). However, the current studies do not provide information about the possible association between change recipients and the potential sources of resistance. For instance, those who have high power over a change may exhibit resistance due to reasons related to self-interest while those who hold a high level of urgency in relation to the change may resist because of reasons associated with lack of support and/or self efficacy. Therefore, investigating the relationship between change recipients' attributes and the reasons for their resistance is potential area for further research. This work could then facilitate the prediction of potential sources of resistance that are likely to trigger particular change recipients to resist a given change.

With regard to the strategies for coping with the recipients' resistance to change presented in the previous section, numerous studies were found. The applicability of the strategies is moderated by factors related to the availability of time (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008), type of change (incremental and radical (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013)), forms of employing the strategies, such as persuasion by peers (Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009), and the credibility of the message (Rivard and Lapointe, 2012). However, the current studies neglect to consider factors related to change recipients per se. For example, there are studies concerned with middle managers' resistance to change, however, the influence middle managers have on a change may vary from case to case. Giangreco and Peccei (2005) found a negative relationship between involving middle managers in the change and their resistance, which is not discussed by Barton and Ambrosini (2013). Consequently, it is necessary to investigate strategies by taking into account characteristics of change recipients that constitute their influence on a change. For instance, by drawing upon salience theory (Mitchell et al., 1997), it may be appropriate to employ coercion for particular recipients whose power are minimal but will backfire when it is used with those who possess high levels of power over the change. Involvement may be effective for those who have high legitimacy but it is unnecessary for those with low legitimacy. Facilitation may have a great

effect in diminishing the resistance of recipients who hold high urgency over the change but not those with low urgency. Therefore, there is a need to investigate strategies to eliminate change recipients' resistance to change by considering their attributes which have impact on a given change. The implication is that there is an alignment between the strategies to deal with the recipients' resistance with their attributes in relation to the change.

Several studies were found that consider change agents' attributes in dealing with change recipients' resistance to change including the level of expert power (Lines, 2007), transformative leadership (DeCelles et al., 2013) and external consultants (Ginsberg and Abrahamson, 1991). However, the current studies overlook attributes related to change recipients. For instance, as reported by Lines (2007), involvement methods by change agents who have expert power are effective in reducing change recipients' resistance. However, the author did not indicate the level of expertise the recipients have. The use of participation by expert change agents may be effective in dealing with the resistance of recipients who lack expertise but ineffective, at least to some extent, for those who have equal or higher levels of expertise than the change agents. Likewise, the role of change agents' emotional intelligence (Ferres and Connell, 2004) may be effective in reducing change recipients who have minimal power over the change but not those who have significant power. Therefore, examining the effect of the change agents' attributes in addressing resistance by taking into account attributes of change agents as well as change recipients is suggested for further investigation.

The last avenue for research discovered from the review is related to the nature of change recipients' resistance. Relevant studies shown in the previous section identify the different modes of resistance they exhibit (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013), and the useful feedback from their resistance for the agents (Binci et al., 2012; Ford et al., 2008; Piderit, 2000) can be expanded by incorporating the influence that change recipients have over a change. For instance, in a radical organisational change, Battilana and Casciaro (2013) found that affective cooptation was effective in reducing fence-sitter recipients but ineffective for those who were high resisters. Therefore, investigating the influence of change recipients on a change and different levels of resistance they exhibit will yield fruitful results. The results may inform current theories regarding the explanation of the potential association between change recipients and different levels of resistance; for instance, those who have high influence over a change are likely to show greater resistance while those with minimal

influence are probably fence-sitters. Furthermore, studying the influence of change recipients over change and their modes of resistance will inform change agents of the attention they need to pay to whom (i.e. who matters). For example, change recipients with significant influence, although they are fence-sitters, may warrant more attention from change agents than those who are highly resistant but have minimal influence. Also, investigating the attributes of change recipients will be informative in terms of the feedback they show from their resistance. Expert recipients may be more associated with beneficial feedback than less expert recipients in a particular change.

To conclude, all the research areas identified previously in this section fit under the larger area of change recipients' salience to organisational change. However, as reported in the introduction chapter, the concern of this research is with developing a framework about the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to organisational change by considering their salience in relation to the change. Therefore, the following sections will provide a review of the theory concerning change recipients' resistance to change. This comprises four main areas: organisational change, stakeholder salience theory, resistance to change, and strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance to change.

2.3 Organisational Change

The literature on change management involves a variety of theories and views regarding what change is and how it happens in terms of modes of change (revolutionary vs. evolutionary), and the number of entities under study (single vs. multiple units of change) (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995). In this section, the definition of organisational change employed in this research will be presented. However, prior to reporting existing theories of organisational change, existing debates about the revolutionary perspective of organisational change are outlined.

2.3.1 Revolutionary and Non-Revolutionary Debate

By considering change in organisation, it is essential to clarify the debate between non-revolutionary theorists (e.g. Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997), and revolutionary theorists (e.g. Plowman et al., 2007; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994; Gersick, 1991). Non-revolutionary view suggests that organisations can achieve a fundamental transformation by gradual changes in organisational characteristics over long periods (equilibrium periods) (Brown and

Eisenhardt, 1997). The authors argue that by changing continuously, organisations can compete; and therefore there is no requirement for a radical shift, which is risky. However, this view seems to be as case of particular organisations that are changing rapidly and continuously. As the authors state:

‘For firms such as Intel, Wal-Mart, 3M, Hewlett-Packard, and Gillette, the ability to change rapidly and continuously, especially by developing new products, is not only a core competence, it is also at the heart of their cultures. For these firms, change is not the rare, episodic phenomenon described by the punctuated equilibrium model but, rather, it is endemic to the way these organizations compete’ (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997, p. 1).

On the other hand, according to punctuated equilibrium theory (Gersick, 1991), scholars (Gersick, 1991; Plowman et al., 2007; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994), assert that organisations can change gradually; however, they will not achieve fundamental transformation without revolutionary episodes that punctuate periods of the equilibrium. Romanelli and Tushman (1994) state that:

‘[. . .] punctuated equilibrium theory depicts organizations 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)’ (1994, p. 1141).

Both views have their supporters although the evolutionary perspective is lacking empirical evidence relative to revolutionary view. However, since this research concerns strategies to manage change recipients’ resistance in revolutionary periods as will be reported next, the research is based upon revolutionary perspective.

2.3.2 Theories of Organisational Change

Van de Ven and Poole (1995) comprehensively investigate theories of change and classify them into four types of theories. The two dimensions used to classify the theories are the unit of change (single or multiple units) which can be individual, group, organisation or industry, and whether change is planned or constructive. The framework provides ‘theoretical

primitives' (1995, p. 532) that enable researchers to view and analyse a broad range of particular theories that otherwise may be overlooked.

Theories positioned in the quadrant where single entity and planned change meet are classified by Van de Ven and Poole (1995) as life cycle theory. This type of theory follows a sequence of cumulative and prescribed phases towards a predetermined goal. Similarly, teleological theory operates on single unit of change; however, the sequence of stages emerges rather than being prescribed based upon what was learned. It presumes that the entity has a purpose and is adaptive. On the multiple units of change dimension, dialectical and evolutionary theories operate. The difference between them is that the former theory assumes that the organisational entity lives in a pluralistic world where contradictory internal and/or external forces and values compete against each other. In other words, dialectical theory describes change in respect of the balance of power between competing entities. Hence, conflict and confrontation are main causes of the change. Evolutionary theory explains change that results from competition between entities for scarce environmental resources. Unlike dialectical theories, evolutionary theories view change as more planned rather than constructive.

However, classifying theories of change based on the unit of change (single vs. multiple units) is more obvious for researchers to explore than the type of change which is located in a spectrum (prescribed to constructive) that many types of change fall in between (Burnes, 2009). This is asserted by Van de Ven and Poole (1995) who report that although revolutionary change operates in teleological theory, it also can operate in life cycle theory.

Organisational development models such as five stages of innovation (recognising a problem, research on the problem, development, commercialisation, and diffusion and adoption) (Rogers, 1983) are example of theories that are located in the single entity dimension (Kezar, 2001; Ven de Ven and Poole, 1995). The order of this follows relatively logical sequence of actions or, at least, a prescribed aim to achieve (Ven de Ven and Poole, 1995).

Van de Ven (1995) list examples of theories that are positioned in the multiple entities dimension, including institutional theory (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983), population ecology (Hannan and Freeman, 1977) where the population of firms is the unit of analysis (Tushman

and Romanelli, 1985) and chaos theory (Gregersen, 1995). These theories explain change between two or more entities. The dominant theory in this category is institutional theory. This theory ‘emphasizes convergence around institutionally prescribed templates’ (Greenwood and Hinings, 1996, p. 1028) which DiMaggio and Powell (1983) refer to as ‘isomorphism’ (p. 149). The central idea of institutional theory is that organisations are changed by three forces that stem from their environment. These are: coercive (political influence), mimetic (uncertainty), and normative (professionalisation) isomorphism.

However, this is not to say that the two dichotomies (single and multiple entities) are mutually exclusive. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) emphasise that there are theories (e.g. punctuated equilibrium theory) that operate in both single and multiple entities.

A further view of categorising change theories can be made in terms of determinism. Kezar (2001) explains that single entity theories can be viewed through a voluntaristic lens; managers’ ability to influence change is high, as they can initiate the necessity of change. On the other hand, multiple entities theories are more deterministic, which implies that the main determining forces are outside of managers’ organisation and choices (Hayes, 2010). This is an implication of the interaction of entities outlined formerly by Van de Ven and Poole (1995); unlike change within a single entity, change among entities can constrain managers’ decisions and choices, which leads to determinism.

However, since this research focuses on change within an organisation, and particularly radical change, theories that explain change in single entity are appropriate in this regard. The theory that serves for differentiation between incremental and radical change is punctuated equilibrium theory (Gersick, 1991), which is explained next.

2.3.3 Punctuated Equilibrium Theory

Punctuated equilibrium theory is based on the revolutionary view that organisations are incapable of achieving fundamental transformation without a radical departure from the past (Gersick, 1991; Romanelli and Tushman, 1994). The term ‘punctuated equilibrium’ originates from the field of biological evolution (Gersick, 1995). The theory posits that organisations develop by long periods of incremental change (equilibrium) that are interrupted by short periods of radical change (disequilibrium) (Gersick, 1991).

Punctuated equilibrium theory consists of three components namely equilibrium periods, disequilibrium periods and deep structure (Gersick, 1991). The period of equilibrium is where the deep structure is slightly changed; whereas, disequilibrium periods alter the deep structure fundamentally (Gersick, 1991; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985). The deep structure, as defined by Gersick, is 'the set of fundamental "choices" a system has made of (1) the basic parts into which its units will be organised and (2) the basic activity patterns that will maintain its existence' (1991, p. 14). The deep structure is different from an entity to another (e.g. person to organisation) (Gersick, 1991). For example, the deep structure of a person's life is the person's relationships with the world, which usually includes marriage, family, and occupation (Levinson, 1986). However, in context of organisations, consist of five components, namely culture, strategy, structure, distribution of power and control systems (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985). The theory has been empirically tested by (Romanelli and Tushman, 1994) and employed by studies to investigate organisations that adopted radical changes (e.g. Silva and Hirschheim, 2007).

In this research, punctuated equilibrium theory serves as a theoretical basis for defining radical organisational change as shown in the next section.

2.3.4 Revolutionary Change: A Research Definition

Any change in organisations can be classified based upon two main dimensions that are not independent of one another (By, 2005). A change can be categorised by its rate of occurrence (continuous vs. discontinuous) (Buchannan and Body, 1992; Dacin et al., 2002; Levy and Merry, 1986; Meyer et al., 1990; Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985; Van de Ven, 1995; Weick and Quinn, 1999) and by how the change happens (planned vs. unplanned) (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985; Van de Ven, 1995; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977).

Prior to explaining the difference between each category, terminologies assigned to each category will be outlined. The terms evolutionary and revolutionary change have many synonyms as shown in Table 2.2. For the former, some authors (e.g. Buchannan and Boddy; 1992; Dacin et al., 2002; Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Van de Ven, 1995) use the terms incremental; Tushman and Romanelli (1985) use the term convergent; others (e.g. Levy and Merry, 1986; Meyer et al., 1990) employ the term first

order change. For revolutionary term, Buchannan and Body (1992), Dacin et al. (2002) and Nadler and Tushman (1995) use discontinuous; Van de Ven (1995) and Zaltman and Duncan (1977) use the term radical change; Nadler and Tushman (1989) and Tushman and Romanelli (1985) employ the term reorientation and recreation; Levy and Merry (1986) use the term transformational change as well as second order change (Meyer et al., 1990); Weick and Quinn (1999) refer to discontinuous change as episodic. In this research, the terms identified above will be used interchangeably to refer to the different types of change.

Scholars (Buchannan and Body, 1992; Dacin et al., 2002; Levy and Merry, 1986; Meyer et al., 1990; Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985; Van de Ven, 1995; Weick and Quinn, 1999) distinguish between incremental change and radical change. Incremental changes are small changes that occur during periods of equilibrium because successful organisations always need to make some improvement or modification of their work process, activities, technology, and so forth. In other words, incremental changes do not lead to fundamental shifts in terms of the organisations' strategy, distribution of power and the like. Radical change, on the other hand, is required in a time of a revolutionary changing environment. Therefore, organisations do not only improve the fit of their components and their environment, but in fact, they need to build a whole new configuration with new strategy, new work, new vision and the like. Radical change requires a major reconstruction of almost every element of the organisation. Therefore, the authors emphasise that radical change is more harmful, challenging, and demanding on organisations than incremental change.

Evolutionary change	Revolutionary change
Incremental Dacin et al. (2002) Nadler and Tushman (1995) Van de Ven (1995) Buchanan and Boddy (1992) Nadler and Tushman (1989)	Discontinuous Dacin et al. (2002) Nadler and Tushman (1995)
Continuous Weick and Quinn (1999)	Radical Van de Ven (1995) Buchanan and Body (1992) Zaltman and Duncan (1977)
First order Meyer et al. (1990) Levy and Merry (1986)	Reorientation Nadler and Tushman (1989) Tushman and Romanelli (1985)
Convergent Tushman and Romanelli (1985)	Second order Levy and Merry (1986) Meyer et al. (1990)
	Transformational Levy and Merry (1986)
	Episodic Weick and Quinn (1999)

Table 2.2: Synonyms of types of organisational change (Source: Author)

A change is regarded as radical change when the deep structure, which is a component of punctuated equilibrium theory, is fundamentally altered. Other scholars (e.g. Gersick, 1991; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985) acknowledge that modifying significantly the five components of the deep structure (strategy, structure, culture, distribution of power, and control systems) causes radical change. Gersick (1991) asserts that by stating ‘this deep structure is what persists and limits change during equilibrium periods, and it is what disassembles, reconfigures, and enforces wholesale transformation during revolutionary punctuations’ (1991, p. 12). In this research, discontinuous (radical, transformational, second order) change will be considered rather than continuous change, as the former has a higher negative impact on organisations in which resistance constitutes a major obstacle (Levy and Merry, 1986; Strebel, 1994).

The other dimension of classifying change is a matter of time (anticipatory vs. reactive) (Nadler and Tushman, 1995). All types of change lie on a planned-unplanned spectrum (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985; Van de Ven, 1995; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). The main difference between the two ends is that unlike unplanned change, in planned change managers have a deliberate intention to introduce the change by identifying a problem in advance and setting a goal to achieve (Seo et al., 2004; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). This research considers planned change as it currently prevails in organisations (Helms Mills et al., 2009; Nadler and Tushman, 1989). Although it is noted that even during a planned change, in particular a radical one, there is an element of ‘unplanned opportunistic action’ (Nadler and Tushman, 1989, p. 200) as asserted by Burnes (2009).

Organisational change is ‘an empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state overtime in an organisational entity’ (Van de Ven and Poole 1995, p. 512). In this research, change is defined as a period of anticipated (planned) organisational change (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995), where the deep structure (structure, strategy, culture, power, and control system) is fundamentally altered (Gersick, 1991; Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985). Hence, based on Figure 2.2 below, the type of change this research focuses on is reorientation.

	Incremental	Discontinuous
Anticipatory	Tuning	Reorientation
Reactive	Adaptation	Re-creation

Figure 2.2: Types of organisational change (Source: Nadler and Tushman, 1995, p. 24)

2.4 Stakeholder Salience Theory

The first time the term ‘stakeholders’ appears in the management literature is in an internal memorandum from the Stanford Research Institute in 1963 (Freeman, 1984). Freeman defines stakeholders as ‘any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the

achievement of an organization's purpose' (1984, p. 53). The author claims that stakeholders can be those who are within or outside the organisation; in other words, internal or external groups or individuals who can affect or be affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives. Clarkson (1995) includes governments and media in the definition of stakeholders formulated by Freeman (1984). In addition, Clarkson (1995) classifies stakeholders into two groups: primary stakeholders and secondary stakeholders. The former group is essential to organisational survival and includes shareholders and investors, employees and customers, in addition to governments and communities, which are defined as public stakeholders. The latter group, secondary stakeholders, are not necessary for organisational survival, and there is low interdependency between this group and the organisation. Examples include the media and special interest groups (Clarkson, 1995).

Mitchell et al. (1997) expand the understanding of the types of stakeholders that Clarkson (1995) and Freeman (1984) introduce. Based upon normative and descriptive components of stakeholder theory, Mitchell et al. (1997) develops a stakeholder typology framework based on three attributes of stakeholders. The three attributes are power, legitimacy and urgency. Based upon these attributes, Mitchell et al. (1997) classify stakeholders not only as primary and secondary (Clarkson, 1995), but rather into eight classes, ranging from definitive stakeholder to non-stakeholder depicted in Figure 2.3. The authors report that the more attributes stakeholders have, the more important they are to their organisation; this is what they refer to as stakeholder salience (Mitchell et al., 1997). Stakeholder salience is 'the degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims' (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 869). For example, a stakeholder who possesses all three attributes requires more attention from managers than another stakeholder who possesses only one or two of these attributes. However, Mitchell et al. (1997) assert that these three attributes are variable as they can be acquired as well as lost; in other words, stakeholder salience can vary from one situation to another and from time to time.

In order to validate the stakeholder salience theory proposed by Mitchell et al. (1997), the theory has been tested quantitatively (Agle et al. (1999) and qualitatively (Parent and Deephouse, 2007). Agle et al. (1999) surveyed eighty CEOs of large American firms to find who the important stakeholders are. Their findings have confirmed that the three attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) of the salience theory affect the degree to which managers prioritise their stakeholders. Although Neville et al. (2011) claim that urgency does not have

a direct role in identifying stakeholders, many scholars (e.g. Agle et al. 1999; Jawahar and McLaughlin, 2001; Mitchell et al., 1997; Parent and Deephouse, 2007) admit the direct role of the urgency attribute.

In fact, stakeholder salience is not only affected by existing stakeholder attributes but also by the relative strength of each of these attributes. For instance, Parent and Deephouse (2007) conducted two case studies to examine the most influential attribute of stakeholder salience perceived by managers. They found that a stakeholder's salience varies according to the type(s) of power they possess at a given time. The authors state that this also can be applied to legitimacy and urgency attributes. Moreover, they observed that utilitarian power is more influential than coercive and normative power. In addition, their result suggests that power is the primary attribute, with legitimacy and urgency in secondary position. In other words, for stakeholders to be identified by managers, power is more important than urgency and legitimacy.

From the earlier definitions of stakeholders, a stakeholder as an entity can be an individual, group or organisation who has power to influence the achievement of an organisation's goals. Braganza and Lambert (2000, p. 181) define stakeholders as 'individuals, groups, or organisations that are interdependent with the organisation's strategy'. Likewise, stakeholders are defined, in this research, as individuals or groups who are interdependent with a transformational program. Amongst these stakeholders are change recipients who are defined as individuals or groups of people whom the organisation must influence in order to make the change (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). Change recipients can be customers, suppliers, stockholders, managers, employees, unions, and the like. Hence, as with stakeholders, change recipients can be internal (e.g. employees) and/or external (e.g. customers) to an organisation (Kanter et al., 1992). They also can be purely recipients of change or recipients and agents of the change simultaneously (Braganza and Lambert, 2000; Bryant and Stensaker, 2011). Therefore, every change recipient is a stakeholder but not necessarily every stakeholder is a change recipient. In this respect, stakeholder salience theory provides a theoretical lens for understanding change recipients' salience to a change program.

As depicted in Figure 2.3, Mitchell et al. (1997) classify stakeholders into eight types. Definitive stakeholders are those who have a high level of power, legitimacy, and urgency.

Dominant stakeholders are the ones who have high levels of power and legitimacy, but not urgency. Dependent stakeholders are those who have high levels of legitimacy and urgency, but lack power. When a stakeholder has high levels of power and urgency but the legitimacy is absent, the stakeholder is regarded as dangerous. Those who have high level of only one power and lack the others are called dormant stakeholders. Discretionary stakeholders are those who have a high level of legitimacy only, while demanding stakeholders are those who have a high level of urgency alone. The subsequent subsections explain the three attributes of the salience theory.

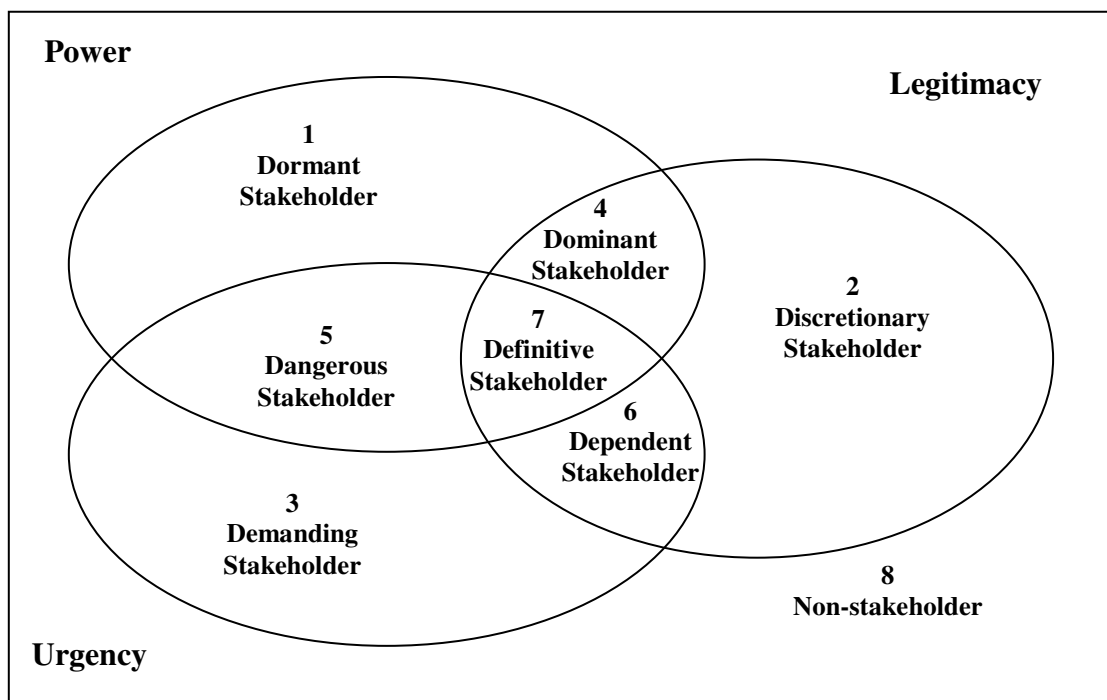


Figure 2.3: Stakeholder typology, one, two, or three attributes present (Source: Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 874)

2.4.1 Power

Mitchell et al. (1997) report that power is the primary attribute of stakeholder salience theory. The authors employ the definition of power by Dahl (1957, p. 203), which states 'A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do'. Mitchell et al. (1997) explain that stakeholder power can be in different forms as

reported by Etzioni (1964), namely, coercive, utilitarian and normative power¹. Etzioni clarifies that coercive power is related to the use of physical force, such as using a whip to threaten someone. Utilitarian power is based on the recourse to material or financial means, which enables the acquirement of goods and services. Normative power includes esteem, prestige and love. Other sources of power include the power of a stakeholder's position in the organisation, which can be formal (hierarchy) and/or informal (e.g. social network) (see Cross et al., 2002; Krackhardt and Hanson, 1993; Monge and Contractor, 2003; Rowley, 1997). The typology of power by French and Raven (1959) (expert, coercive, legitimate, referent, and reward) is dominant in the organisational literature (Mitchell et al., 1997). Therefore, the sources of power are various which leads to different meanings of power being reported by different scholars. However, this research is concerned with identifying the level of power recipients have over a change rather than the sources of that power. The next chapter explains the meaning and levels of power employed in this research.

Amongst bases of power defined by French and Raven (1959), legitimacy can be a source of power, however this is not always the case and power and legitimacy are distinct attributes (Mitchell et al., 1997) as explained in the next subsection. However, when power and legitimacy overlap, according to Max Weber, they constitute authority. Weber identifies three types of authority (i.e. legitimate power) namely legal (bureaucratic), traditional, and charismatic (Whimster, 2004). Legal authority is when an individual's power emerges from an established system of rules in which the individual is either elected or appointed. Unlike legal authority, traditional authority is based on common beliefs such as religious and cultural values that have been held for a long time. Therefore the authority of an individual

¹ The use of a gun, a whip, or a lock is physical since it affects the body; a threat to use physical sanctions is viewed as physical because the effect on the subject is similar in kind, though not in intensity, to the actual use. Control based on application of physical means is described as coercive power.

Material rewards consist of goods and services. The granting of symbols (e.g. money) which allow one to acquire goods and services is classified as material because the effect on the recipient is similar to that of material means. The use of material means for control purposes constitutes utilitarian power.

Pure symbols are those whose use does not constitute a physical threat or a claim on material rewards. These include normative symbols, those of prestige and esteem; and social symbols, those of love and acceptance. When physical contact is used to symbolize love, or material objects to symbolize prestige, such contacts or objects are viewed as symbols because their effect on the recipient is similar to that of "pure" symbols. The use of symbols for control purposes is referred to as normative, normative-social, or social power. (Etzioni, 1964, p. 59)

becomes socially accepted. Lastly, charismatic authority relies on an individual's unique personality, which gains respect and obedience from others. Therefore, this type of authority remains as long as the individual has the quality of personality that others admire.

2.4.2 Legitimacy

A comprehensive study of legitimacy was done by Suchman (1995). The author defines legitimacy as 'a generalised perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions' (1995, p. 574). Mitchell et al. (1997) employ this definition in their approach to identify stakeholders' salience. The authors assert that even though power and legitimacy sometimes overlap, they are distinct domains. They explain that a stakeholder can have a power over the organisation, whether or not the stakeholder has legitimacy. However, the power of a stakeholder over an organisation and its stakeholders can bring the stakeholder legitimacy, what Phillips (2003) refers to as 'derivative legitimate' (2003, p. 31). Likewise, another stakeholder can have a legitimate claim that is driven from moral and/or pragmatic bases of legitimacy (Suchman, 1995), regardless of the stakeholder's power to influence the organisation. For example, the consultants, in Boonstra and Govers (2009) study, are legitimate to the ERP project, yet have no power. Therefore, Mitchell et al. (1997) suggest that separate attention needs to be paid to legitimacy as an attribute of stakeholder identification.

2.4.3 Urgency

In addition to power and legitimacy as attributes of stakeholders, Mitchell et al. (1997) identify urgency as a third attribute. They define urgency as 'the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate attention' (1997, p. 867). They are 'mosquitoes buzzing in the ears of managers' (1997, p. 875). Mitchell et al. assert that urgency exists only when two variables are satisfied: time sensitivity and criticality. Time sensitivity is 'the degree to which managerial delays in attending to the claim or relationship is unacceptable to the stakeholder' (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 867). Criticality is 'the importance of the claim or the relationship to the stakeholder' (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 867). Mitchell et al. emphasise that urgency does not constitute an attribute of the stakeholder if at least one of these variables is absent. As is the case with power and legitimacy, Mitchell et al. (1997) report urgency is a

‘socially constructed perceptual phenomenon’ (p. 870) that may be perceived correctly or falsely by managers, the stakeholder or any other member of the organisation. In other words, a stakeholder’s claim may be regarded as urgent to managers while the stakeholder is not aware of its urgency, and therefore the stakeholder may not act on the claim.

2.5 Resistance to Change

The previous section describes stakeholder salience theory. This theory provides a theoretical basis for identifying change recipients’ salience to organisational change. This section will report the definition of resistance to change from prior studies, the different modes of change recipients’ resistance as well as the causes of their resistance to change based upon status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988).

According to Kanter (1985) ‘change is exciting when it is done by us, threatening when it is done to us’ (1985, p. 52). Since there is always some loss as a result of any change, not only for the losers of the change, but also for the winners, people resist it. The loss can be a loss of routines, comfort, the past, traditions and/or relationships (Kanter, 1985). In addition, change may require different behaviours and new relationships and, therefore, people are likely to resist it (Kotter and Schesinger, 2008). Therefore, resistance to change is regarded as a major factor that often prevents organisations from implementing their planned change programs successfully (Shin et al., 2012; Van Dijk and Van Dick, 2009).

2.5.1 Defining Resistance to Change

Many authors have defined resistance to change. For example, Zaltman and Duncan (1977) define resistance to change as ‘any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo’ (p. 63). Giangreco and Peccei (2005), Hirschheim and Newman (1988) define resistance to change as a negative reaction to a proposed change that manifests itself in different forms, from non-violent to active behaviours. Oreg (2006) defines resistance to change as ‘a tri dimensional (negative) attitude towards change, which includes affective, behavioural, and cognitive components’ (p. 76). In the context of information system change projects, Klaus and Blanton (2010) define resistance to change as ‘the behavioural expression of a user’s opposition to a system implementation during the implementation’ (p. 627). Resistance to organisational change is exhibited by those who

receive change (i.e. change recipients). They can be purely change recipients as well as change agents who also receive change (Braganza and Lambert, 2000) such as middle managers (Bryant and Stensaker, 2011). The change recipients may resist a change because of factors related to them, such as inertia and loss of power (Markus, 1983) and factors contributed by change agents (Ford et al., 2008), such as lack of trust and misunderstanding (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008).

To better understand resistance to change, Oreg (2006) and Piderit (2000) suggest resistance is viewed as multi-dimensional: including affective (emotional), cognitive and behavioural components. These authors argue that, although these dimensions are not independent of one another, they are distinct. Oreg (2006) clarifies that the affective dimension concerns how individuals feel about the change (e.g. anxiety, anger). The cognitive dimension includes what individuals think about the change, for instance, will it be beneficial or harmful. The third dimension – behavioural – involves individual's actions or intentions to act in response to change; such as, complaints about the change and non-participation in activities. Oreg and Piderit's research points towards the notion that these three dimensions overlap and diverge, that each dimension has a range from positive to negative and provide some insight into individuals' responses to organisational change.

Change recipients' resistance to change can be exhibited in different modes, as will be reported in the following subsection. These modes range from apathy (neutral), such as lack of interest, to aggressive, such as sabotage (Coetsee, 1999). Therefore, based upon the definitions of resistance to change mentioned in this subsection, change recipients' resistance to change is defined in this research as a negative attitude towards organisational reorientation including affective, behavioural, and/or cognitive dimensions (Oreg, 2006), whether the level of the recipients' resistance is apathy, aggressive or any level in between (Coetsee, 1999).

2.5.2 Levels of Change Recipients' Resistance to Reorientation

The different modes of resistance change recipients exhibit towards a given reorientation program are essential to consider to understand their resistance and deal with it. For instance, Lapointe and Rivard (2005) developed a framework that explains resistance to an information technology implementation program. They examined the implementation of

electronic medical records (EMR) in three hospitals. EMRs are information systems that enable access to patients' records from different locations (Lapointe and Rivard, 2005). For their study, the authors employed the taxonomy proposed by Coetsee (1999) which classifies resistance behaviours into four levels (modes) that are apathy, passive, active, and aggressive resistance. Lapointe and Rivard (2005) found that the aggressive resistance behaviour occurred at the two cases (hospitals) that did not succeed in implementing the EMR system. In addition, active resistance existed in all of the three cases including the one that implemented the system successfully. It is notable that in all three cases there was resistance to change; however, different levels of resistance were found in each case. Consequently, by having some classification of the levels of resistance to change, it is possible to have a clearer image of resistance that enables decision makers to set the practices that deals with each level. This is emphasised by Giangreco and Peccei (2005) who assert that in order for managers to gain a complete picture of resistance in their organisations, they need to consider various levels of resistance including the passive mode. In this research, the classification of resistance behaviour by Coetsee (1999) is employed not only because it is used by Lapointe and Rivard (2005) but also because it provides a clearer distinction between the four levels of resistance.

Other authors (e.g. Rivard and Lapointe, 2012) classify resistance into six levels to examine recipients' resistance. However, the classification is problematic to employ. For example, withdrawing is classified at level 3 of resistance and leaving the business unit is classified at level 4, which leads a researcher to ambiguity. Other levels of resistance are used by Frahm and Brown (2007) and Hultman (1998). These are two levels - neutral (apathy) and negative resistance - by the former author and passive and active resistance by the latter author. These two levels are limited while the classification by Coetsee (1999) breaks down levels of resistance into four levels that yield meaningful insights about recipients' resistance, which is explained in the subsection that follows.

Four levels of resistance to change are identified by Coetsee (1999). The author defines apathy, which is also referred to as ambivalence (Piderit, 2000), as the neutral zone (a transition point between acceptance and resistance) where people are informed of the change, but their emotions and attitude are neither positive nor negative toward the change. For example, inaction and lack of interest fit under the apathy level (Lapointe and Rivard,

2005). The next level of resistance, passive resistance, exists when people have weak forms of negative attitudes about the change expressed by voicing opposing views. In Lapointe and Rivard's (2005) study, passive resistance is exemplified by the physicians' refusal to accept responsibility and humour. The third level is active resistance, where resisters enact behaviours such as strong opposing views, delay tactics, protests and withdrawal. Voicing dissatisfaction and formation of coalitions are other examples of active resistance behaviour (Lapointe and Rivard, 2005). Finally, the fourth level is aggressive resistance (destructive opposition) when people enact destructive behaviours such as sabotage, strikes, boycotts and destruction. Lapointe and Rivard (2005) regard rebellion and subversion as aggressive resistance.

However, levels of resistance to change are dynamic to the extent that employees' reactions to change may evolve overtime. Piderit (2000) postulates that an employee's cognitive response to change may shift from negative to positive when the CEO announces the change proposal. Hence, those who are passive resistant may become active resistant (negative) or may accept the change (positive). The dynamism of the levels of resistance was noted by Boonstra and Govers (2009) and Lapointe and Rivard (2005).

Resistance to change which leads to these levels of resistance are derived from sources of resistance related to the change process e.g. social influence and trust in management and/or the change outcomes e.g. loss of power and job insecurity (Oreg, 2006). Dent and Goldberg (1999) note that people do not resist change per se, but rather the consequences that associated with the change such as loss of comfort and status. The subsequent subsection explains the causes of resistance that trigger change recipients to resist a given change.

2.5.3 Status Quo Bias Theory

The sources of change recipients' resistance to change are explained by theories from psychology literature such as equity theory (Walster et al., 1978). Also, as shown in the results of the systematic review, there are further theories that seek to understand change recipients' resistance to organisational change, including procedural justice theory employed by Barton and Ambrosini (2013) and expectancy theory incorporated by Lines (2004). However, these theories (e.g. equity, procedural justice, and expectancy theories) are limited in explaining reasons for individuals' resistance as they are focused primarily on a fairness

perspective and the expectations of individuals of what they are likely to gain from a given change. For instance, equity theory addresses resistance from a fairness perspective, while the latter concerns resistance from a current status standpoint. Equity theory posits that in any exchange relationship, individuals become 'distressed' (Walster et al., 1978, p. 6) when they are treated unequally, which can be in two forms. Firstly, where individuals perceive their inputs (e.g. effort) to a relationship (e.g. change program) to outweighing their outcomes (e.g. rewards). Secondly, individuals will be distressed when their outcomes of the relationship are less than other individuals' outcomes. Procedural justice theory (Greenberg, 1995) concerns solely the fairness of the way decisions are made. The less fairness individuals perceive, the more likely they are to show resistance to the decisions. Expectancy theory (Fossum, 1995) focuses on the individuals' prediction that their input (e.g. effort) will generate the expected outcomes, which influences their willingness to achieve the outcomes.

On the contrary, status quo bias theory by Samuelson and Zeckhauser (1988) is more comprehensive and provides an explanation of why individuals maintain their current situations. The theory was employed by Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) and Polites and Karahanna (2012) to explore a wide variety of reasons for change recipients' resistance to change. Status quo bias theory explains individuals' desires to maintain the current situation. It involves three main categories: namely, rational decision making, which involves net benefits, uncertainty costs, and transition costs; cognitive misperception, which contains loss aversion; and psychological commitment, which includes sunk costs, social norms, feel of control, and regret avoidance.

The net benefits category of the theory explains that individuals resist change to their current situation when they perceive that costs associated with changing to the new situation are greater than the perceived benefits. Uncertainty costs represent the ambiguity individuals face about the process or the consequences of change. Individuals who perceive a given change as costly in itself, such as loss of comfort (Kanter, 1985), are related to transition costs. For individuals who perceive losses, even minor ones, as major and therefore resist changing, the source of their resistance is explained by the theory as loss aversion. The sunk costs category involves costs that cannot be regained, such as loss of skills that are no longer required as a result of changing to new ways of working (Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009). Social norms category explains the reasons why some individuals are reluctant to change in order to conform to their community such as friends and colleagues. The inability of individuals to

cope with changing their current situation, such as lack of time and skills (Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009), is categorised by the theory under the control category. Lastly, the regret avoidance category of the theory concerns the negative experience individuals have about a particular change which makes them reluctant to adopt similar changes in the future. The status quo bias theory is more encyclopaedic than the theories reported above in its explanation of the reasons for change recipients' resistance to change, which accordingly then require change agents to adopt the applicable strategies to cope with the recipients' resistance.

2.6 Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' Resistance to Change

Drawing upon the studies about strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance identified in the systematic review section, further studies are found which are shown in Table 2.3, where each is defined. An education strategy is defined by the relevant authors in Table 2.3 as explaining and presenting facts about the change, its rationale, necessity, and consequences (benefits and drawbacks). Judson (1991), Reichers et al. (1997), and Zaltman and Duncan (1977) emphasise that education implies the unbiased presentation of facts; otherwise it is regarded as manipulation (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). The authors in Table 2.3 who studied communication as a strategy to address resistance define it as a method of exchanging information among people about a given change. Unlike education strategy which can be done once during the change, communication strategy is an ongoing process throughout the change (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013). Furthermore, education is about the overall feasibility and effects of the change while communication is about sharing details, giving up to date information about the change, and receiving feedback from participants. Some scholars assert that effective communication needs to be bidirectional (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; and Fiedler, 2010). Others emphasise the importance of the comprehensibility of communication in terms of language and jargon used (e.g. Judson, 1991).

Strategy	Studies
Education	Caruth et al. (1985); Coch and French (1948); Connell and Waring (2002); Fiedler (2010); Ford and Ford (2009); Judson (1991); Kim and Kankanhalli (2009); Kotter and Schlesinger (2008); Lawrence (1954); Martin (1993); Mumford (1965); Neal and Tromley (1995); Reichers et al. (1997); Rothenberg (2007); Sidle (2006); Zaltman and Duncan (1977)
Communication	Auster and Ruebottom (2013); Fidler and Johnson (1984); Fiedler (2010); Ford and Ford (2010); Hultman (1998); Jarrett (2004); Judson (1991); Pendlebury (1987); Reichers et al. (1997)
Participation and involvement	Armenakis et al. (1993); Auster and Ruebottom (2013); Caruth et al. (1985); Coch and French (1948); Falbe and Yukl (1992); Fiedler (2010); Giangreco and Peccei (2005); Heath et al. (1993); Hultman (1998); Johnson (1974); Joshi (1991); Judson (1991); Kotter and Schlesinger (2008); Lines (2004); Mallinger (1993); Martinsons and Chong (1999); Mccarthy et al. (2008); Morris and Raben (1995); Nadler (1993); Nutt (1998); Pardo-del-Val et al. (2012); Reichers et al (1997); Sidle (2006)
Facilitation	Barton and Ambrosini (2013); Caruth et al. (1985); Fiedler (2010); Hultman (1998); Joshi (1991); Judson (1991); Kim and Kankanhalli (2009); Kotter and Schlesinger (2008); Morris and Raben (1995); Nadler (1993); Rivard and Lapointe (2012); Roberto and Levesque (2005); Schiavone (2012); Zaltman and Duncan (1977)
Reward	Caruth et al. (1985); Joshi (1991); Judson (1991); Mccarthy et al. (2008); Morris and Raben (1995); Nadler (1993); Reichers et al. (1997)
Persuasion	Armenakis et al. (1993); Falbe and Yukl (1992); Goldstein (1988); Hultman (1998); Judson (1991); Kim and Kankanhalli (2009); Nadler (1993); Nutt (1998); Rivard and Lapointe (2012); Zaltman and Duncan (1977)
Negotiation and Agreement	Falbe and Yukl (1992); Judson (1991); Kotter and Schlesinger (2008); Morris and Raben (1995)
Manipulation	Battilana and Casciaro (2013); Kotter and Schlesinger (2008); Hultman (1998); Falbe and Yukl (1992); Caruth et al. (1985); Zaltman and Duncan (1977)
Coercion	Falbe and Yukl (1992); Hultman (1998); Judson (1991); Kotter and Schlesinger (2008); Nutt (1998); Rivard and Lapointe (2012); Tepper et al. (1998); Zaltman and Duncan (1977)

Table 2.3: List of strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change with relevant studies (Source: Author)

A further strategy to cope with change recipients' resistance to change is involving them in the change, which is also referred to in the literature as participation (Lines, 2004). It is defined by the studies in Table 2.3 as enabling change recipients to plan and/or implement a given change by giving them an opportunity to express their thoughts and/or have an active

role in the change. However, some authors emphasise specific elements of effective participation. Of these, some assert that participation needs to be across the organisation (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013), whilst others focus on fairness in the procedure of involving the recipients (Joshi, 1991), or the recipients' feeling that their participation is fruitful (Judson, 1991). The various forms of participation identified in the literature include partial (via representatives) and full participation (Nutt, 1986), formal and informal participation, and direct and indirect participation (Dachler and Wilpert, 1978).

Facilitating a given change is regarded as a strategy to overcome change recipients' resistance to change. In an organisational context, the word 'facilitation' means 'to make easy' (Stewart, 2009, p. 155). According to Schwarz (2005), the word facilitator in organisations refers to human resources experts, organisation development consultants, coaches, trainers, and any individual who has facilitation skills. Therefore, facilitation is a broad term and needs to be clearly defined. Heron (1999) and Schwarz (2005) assert that the purpose of a facilitator is to help a group to increase its effectiveness, for example by providing high quality customer service, or by entering a new market. Heron (1999) and Schwarz (2005) focus on four elements of facilitation. These are: the facilitator, the facilitation target group, the aim of facilitation, and the form of facilitation. For this research, the former two are change agents and change recipients respectively, as will be further discussed later in this research. The latter two are explained next.

Since this research focuses on dealing with change recipients' resistance to organisational change, the aim of facilitation is to enable change recipients to adopt change. Literature on strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance defines facilitation strategy as making the implementation of the change easier for the change recipients (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). This takes a variety of forms, such as training (e.g. Schiavone, 2012), providing more time for the recipients to disengage from the status quo (e.g. Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009), emotional support (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008), and fixing problems associated with the new change (e.g. Rivard and Lapointe, 2012). However, some of the existing studies (e.g. Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008, Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) emphasise that the effectiveness of the facilitation strategy is limited by the time available for the change agents to implement the change and the available resources for the agents.

Rewarding change recipients is effective in coping with their resistance. Rewards can be monetary and/or non-monetary such as praise, promotions and awards (e.g. Judson, 1991). Studies in Table 2.3 assert the role of reward as a strategy to deal with change recipients' resistance, and some (e.g. McCarthy et al., 2008) emphasise that the absence of fairness in rewarding the recipients can escalate resistance instead of diminishing it.

Overcoming change recipients' resistance to change by providing logical justification for that the change is worthwhile in order to alter the change recipients' perceptions about the change and is regarded as persuasion strategy, as shown in Table 2.3. Persuasion can be performed by change agents and/or by the change recipients' peers (Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009). However, some authors consider persuasion strategy to be moderately effective when it is combined with other strategies such as involvement (e.g. Falbe and Yukl, 1992), while others (e.g. Goldstein, 1988) postulate that it is only effective when the mode of resistance is not high.

Negotiation and agreement is a further strategy to overcome change recipients' resistance to change. By employing this strategy, the change agents attempt to reach a compromise with the resisters by offering a benefit to the resisters in return for complying with the change (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Morris and Raben, 1995). Negotiation and agreement is effective when the recipients will lose something valuable and the agents have the willingness and resources to offer an exchange (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008).

Manipulation strategy is defined as the use of biased information (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) and/or biased behaviour (Caruth et al., 1985; Hultman, 1998) by change agents with the change recipients in order to eliminate the recipients' resistance. Co-optation is an example of manipulation in which the agents give the recipients a role in the change not for the recipients' knowledge or expertise but rather to make them feel they are important and not being neglected, and so to gain their commitment (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). Affective co-optation (Battilana and Casciaro, 2013; Falbe and Yukl, 1992) is a form of co-optation in which the agents attempt to overcome the recipients' resistance by refereeing friendship and loyalty. Manipulation is effective when the agents have limited time to implement the change (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008), or there is a low

perception of the necessity of the change amongst the recipients (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977).

The last strategy of dealing with the recipients' resistance to change shown in Table 2.3 is coercion. It is defined by the authors in the table as the practice of exerting force over the recipients, such as the threat of job loss, or job transfer, in order to gain their compliance. Two types of coercion change agents may employ are explicit and implicit (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008), however, the authors do not explain the difference between the two forms. Coercion is an effective strategy when the agents are limited in time (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977), but it requires the agents' ability to provide all the required resources for the recipients to adopt the change (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). However, some scholars assert that the effectiveness of coercion is moderate (Nutt, 1998), or that it needs to be combined with other strategies such as facilitation (Tepper et al., 1998), while others (Judson, 1991) report that for ethical reasons coercion should not be employed under any circumstances.

A sample of the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to change, including the description of the strategy they consider, the methodology employed, and the type and content of the change the studies refer to are shown in Table 2.4. A complete list of the studies shown in Table 2.3, including the methodology and type of change, are reported in Appendix 6.

Education strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Coch and French (1948)	The necessity of the change needs to be explained to change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Field experiment	Not specified
Reichers et al. (1997)	Explaining the necessity of the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Connell and Waring (2002)	Explaining the rationale behind the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Qualitative Multiple case, 61 interviews from three firms, Australia	Not specified
Rothenberg (2007)	Explaining the rationale behind the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Qualitative Multiple cases, 24 interviews from three firms	Type: Not specified Content: New product development
Ford and Ford (2009)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Communication strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Fidler and Johnson (1984)	Communicating with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Compatibility with the complexity of the change	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Innovation
Pendlebury (1987)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Reichers et al. (1997)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Jarrett (2004)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Fiedler (2010)	Two-way communication with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Auster and Ruebottom (2013)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Transparency	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified

Participation and involvement strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Armenakis et al. (1993)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: For planned change only	Conceptual	Type: Planned and unplanned change Content: Not specified
Mallinger (1993)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: The recipients' inputs need to be respected and appreciated by the agents	Qualitative single case, participant observation	Type: Not specified Content: Quality improvement
Lines (2004)	Involving change recipients in decision making Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey on large telecommunication firm	Type: Radical Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Giangreco and Peccei (2005)	Involving middle managers in planning and implementing the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 322 middle managers in an Italian firm	Type: Planned radical Content: Privatisation
Pardo-del-Val et al. (2012)	Involving change recipients in decision making Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 86 companies Spain	Not specified

Facilitation strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Caruth et al. (1985)	Allowing sufficient time Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Kim and Kankanhalli (2009)	Providing training and time necessary to adopt the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative Survey in a company that had implemented a new ERP system	Type: Radical Content: Enterprise resource planning system
Rivard and Lapointe (2012)	Rectification (e.g. training) Condition(s) of use: Congruent with the object of resistance (e.g. system features)	Mixed methods Case study survey	Type: Not specified Content: IS systems
Barton and Ambrosini (2013)	Top management support for middle managers Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of middle managers from 701 High Tech organisations, the UK	Not specified

Reward strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Joshi (1991)	Praise, promotion, and awards Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Information systems
Judson (1991)	Both monetary and non monetary rewards Condition(s) of use: The reward needs to match the needs of the resistor	Conceptual	Not specified
Morris and Raben (1995)	Formal and informal rewards Condition(s) of use: Rewards need to be during and after the change	Conceptual	Type: Incremental and radical change Content: Not specified
Reichers et al. (1997)	Reward Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Mccarthy et al. (2008)	Reward Condition(s) of use: Fair reward system	Conceptual	Not specified
Persuasion strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Judson (1991)	By assuring change recipients that some aspects of their job will remain the same such as they will not be made redundant Condition(s) of use: When the recipients are anxious and insecure about their jobs	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	Using logical arguments with the recipients that the change is worthwhile Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Armenakis et al. (1993)	Change agents sell the change Condition(s) of use: For both planned and unplanned change	Conceptual	Type: Planned and unplanned change Content: Not specified
Kim and Kankanhalli (2009)	Persuasion by colleagues Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative Survey in a company that had implemented a new ERP system	Type: Radical Content: Enterprise resource planning system

Negotiation and agreement strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Judson (1991)	Bargaining with the change recipients Condition(s) of use: Needs to be in advance before the change The willingness of managers to compromise	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	By exchanging implicit and/or explicit offers with the recipients Condition(s) of use: Moderately effective	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Morris and Raben (1995)	Bargaining with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Incremental and radical change Content: Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Negotiating with the change recipients in advance before the change Condition(s) of use: When change recipients will lose something valuable Requires money	Conceptual	Not specified
Manipulation strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Caruth et al. (1985)	Managers always need to show a positive attitude towards the change despite any negative feelings they have about the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	By using personal appeals such as friendship and/or loyalty Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Introducing biased information Cooptation Condition(s) of use: when limited time available	Conceptual	Not specified
Battilana and Casciaro (2013)	Affective cooptation via strong ties of change agents to resisters Condition(s) of use: For fence sitters, both types of incremental and/or radical changes work For purely resisters, works only in incremental type of change	Quantitative Survey of 68 change initiatives at NHS in the UK	Type: Incremental and radical change Content: Not specified

Coercion strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Zaltman and Duncan (1977)	Use of threat Condition(s) of use: Change recipients have a low perception of the necessity of the change Change agents need to be able to provide change recipients with the necessary resources to adopt the change	Conceptual	Type: Planned change Content: Not specified
Judson (1991)	Any form of coercion should not be used at all times	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	Threat, frequent check, and legitimating Condition(s) of use: More effective when it is combined with other strategies	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Nutt (1998)	Use force with the resisters Condition(s) of use: Its effectiveness is moderate	Quantitative A database of 376 strategic decisions in various types of organisations, USA	Not specified
Tepper et al. (1998)	Use force with the resisters Condition(s) of use: It is more effective when it is combined with a soft tactic such as facilitation	Quantitative A survey of MBA students	Not specified
Hultman (1998)	Using power to force change recipients to adopt the change Condition(s) of use: Can be used only when resisters do not provide an obvious reason why they resist	Conceptual	Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Implicit and/or explicit threat to resisters to adopt change Condition(s) of use: When limited time available	Conceptual	Not specified
Rivard and Lapointe (2012)	Force resisters to adopt Condition(s) of use: Credibility of the message	Mixed methods Case study survey	Type: Not specified Content: Information systems

Table 2.4: Sample of studies about strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to change (Source: Author)

2.7 Towards a Conceptual Framework of the Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' Resistance to Organisational Change

Having identified the relevant concepts and theories about the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance that emerged from the outcomes of the systematic review reported at the beginning of this chapter, in this section, the incorporation of these concepts and theories in order to develop a conceptual framework for investigation is introduced. Also, the identified gap in the extant literature around which this research question is formulated will be discussed.

2.7.1 Conceptual Framework

The function of a conceptual (theoretical) framework is to explain and inform 'either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied – the key factors, concepts, or variables – and the presumed relationships among them' (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 18). It is something that needs to be created by the researcher rather than found (Maxwell, 2013).

As shown in Figure 2.4, there are four main components: organisational reorientation, change recipients' salience in relation to change, change recipients' resistance to change, and the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance. The justification and deep explanation of these components are reported in the previous sections. However, the relationship between the components of the framework is the focus of this section. The dotted arrows represent the gap in the literature which will be discussed in the subsequent subsection. The arrows in the framework reflect the theoretical sequence of the research. As reported in Chapter One, the aim of this research is to investigate strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation. Likewise, the order of the components in the framework is as follows: strategies to mitigate resistance such as education and coercion; change recipients' salience in relation to change in terms of their power, legitimacy, and urgency; and the recipients' resistance to change which involves the reasons for their resistance as well as the modes of resistance. This order is necessary to show what component needs to be understood first in order to answer the research question before considering the subsequent one.

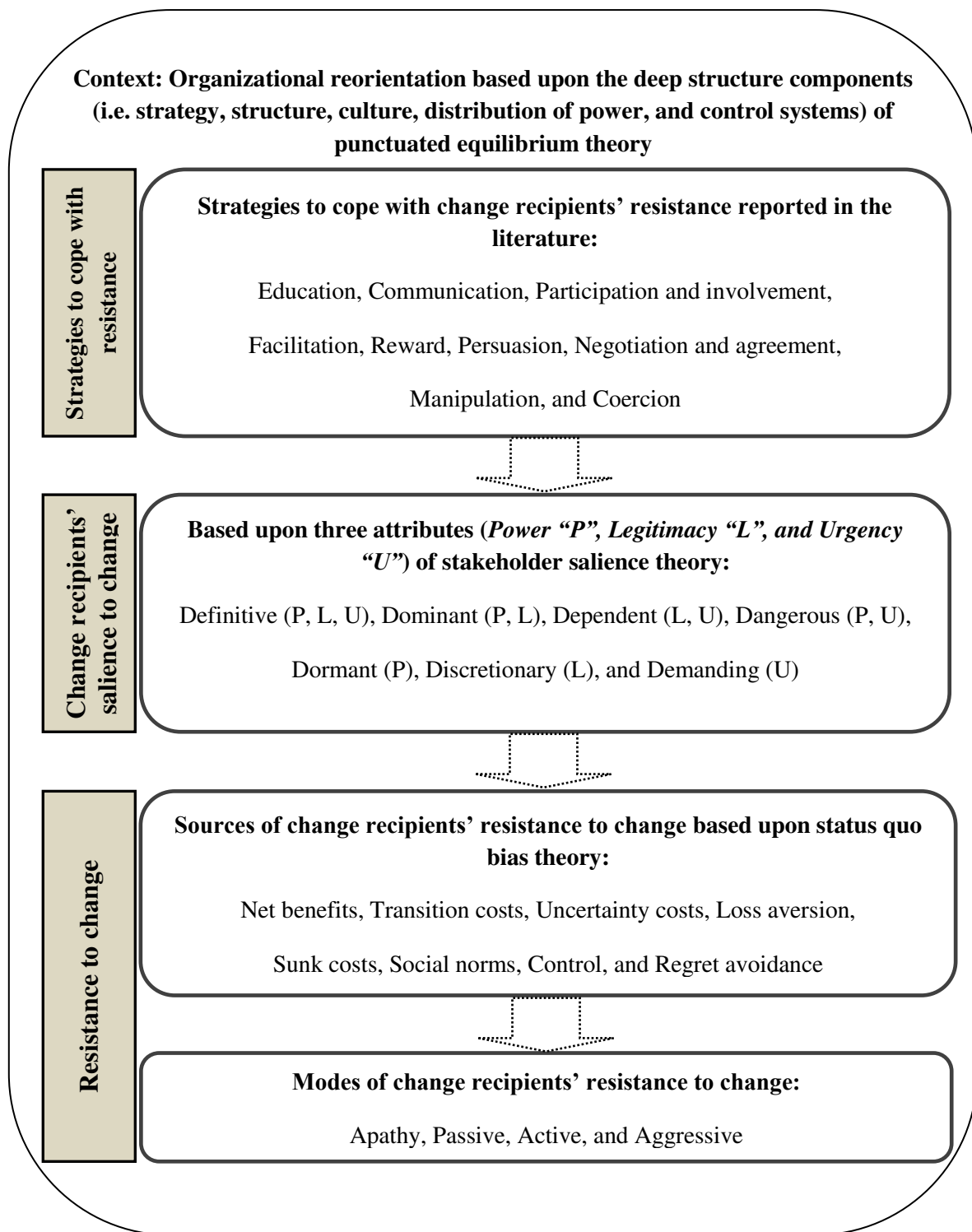


Figure 2.4: The theoretical framework of the research (Source: Author)

The organisational reorientation component represents the context with which this research is concerned. As defined in an earlier section in this chapter, and shown in Figure 2.2, organisational reorientation is a type of organisational change that is radical and planned (Nadler and Tushman, 1995). The radical nature of the change is defined in this research based upon the deep structure of the punctuated equilibrium theory (Gersick, 1991). According to this theory, the fundamental alteration of the five components (organisation's strategy, structure, culture, distribution of power, and control systems) of an organisation's deep structure is what characterises a change as radical. Also, in combination with radical changes, reorientation refers to planned change, where the change is investigated in advance and therefore a potential area in the organisation is identified for development (Burnes, 2009; Nadler and Tushman, 1989).

The strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational change represent a further component. As indicated in Table 2.3, various strategies have been reported previously in this chapter, including education, facilitation, persuasion, and coercion. The focus in this research is on understanding these strategies in relation to coping with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation by considering the recipients' salience in relation to change. In other words, which strategies are effective in addressing resistance of change recipients who have a particular salience level in relation to organisational reorientation. For instance, negotiation and agreement may be an effective strategy in reducing resistance of change recipients who are regarded by managers as highly salient to the change whereas other strategies may be more effective for those who have low salience to the change.

Change recipients' salience in relation to organisational reorientation constitutes a component of the conceptual framework developed in this research. Stakeholder salience theory (Mitchell et al., 1997) is employed to provide a theoretical lens for the definition of the salience of change recipients to organisational reorientation. This is based upon three attributes: power, legitimacy, and urgency. According to the theory, these three attributes classify the salience of stakeholders into eight classes, which are definitive, dominant, dependent, dangerous, dormant, demanding, discretionary, and non-stakeholders who have a minimal level of the three attributes. Based upon these classes, the change recipients' salience in relation to organisational reorientation are classified in this research, which then explores the strategies that can be employed to deal with the recipients' resistance.

Lastly, the framework involves the modes and sources of change recipients' resistance, both of which are incorporated into the framework as moderating factors, according to which the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance may vary. Regarding the modes of resistance exhibited by change recipients, the scheme by Coetsee (1999) offers a clear distinction between different modes of resistance. Coetsee classifies the modes of resistance into apathy, passive, active, and aggressive resistance. The definitions of each of are given in the resistance to change section. In terms of the causes of change recipients' resistance, status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988) provides an explanation of the possible reasons. The theory involves eight reasons for resistance (explained earlier in this chapter), which are employed in this research to classify the causes of change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation.

Having identified the theoretical framework and the components of the framework, the next subsection reports on the originality of the framework and formulates the research question accordingly.

2.7.2 Research Gap and Question

The results of the systematic review reported early in this chapter indicate that the extant studies about dealing with change recipients' resistance to organisational change neglect to consider the salience of the recipients' in relation to change. This section discusses this research gap in detail.

The extant studies, whether empirical or conceptual, about the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to organisational change are reported in the results of the systematic review section as well as in Table 2.3. The current studies that have been investigated consider factors such as the availability of time for change agents to implement the change (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008), the type of change (incremental and radical (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013), and specific groups of recipients such as middle managers (e.g. Giangreco and Peccei, 2005). However, the existing studies tend to have a holistic view of change recipients and do not consider the influence that change recipients have over a given change. As remarked by Kanter et al. (1992), there are change recipients who have minimal influence over a given change and there are others who are able to derail the

change. This suggests that considering the salience of change recipients in investigating the strategies to cope with them will yield fruitful results.

There are studies that refer to the type of change recipients, such as academics (Anderson, 2006), middle managers (Barton and Ambrosini, 2013), top management groups (Enns et al., 2003), and users of information systems (Polites and Karahanna, 2012). Yet, the influence of these change recipients on the change is not known as their influence may differ from one change to another. Also, the users of information systems may range from senior managers to junior employees. For example, as reported by Weber (Whimster, 2004), top management groups may possess power to stop a given change based on their legal authority. Similarly, users of an information system may have power to derail the change that stems from their expertise (i.e. expert power French and Raven, 1959) irrespective of their hierarchal position.

Therefore, there is a necessity to understand the influence change recipients have over a given change and accordingly which are the relevant strategies to cope with their resistance. The extant literature (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Morris and Raben, 1995; Piercy, 1989) asserts that change agents pay more attention to change recipients who have a high degree of influence on the change. However, these studies do not provide an explanation of what high or low influence means as they are subjective terms. For instance, coercion strategy may be effective in dealing with those who are unable to delay a given change but may yield unfortunate consequences when it is employed with those who can derail the change. As explained in the framework depicted in Figure 2.4, stakeholder salience theory is employed to identify change recipients' salience to organisational change based upon change recipients' power, legitimacy, and urgency in relation to change.

In association with identifying the salience of change recipients in relation to change, this research also incorporates the modes as well as the causes of the recipients' resistance to change. Some existing studies about strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance refer to the levels of resistance. For instance, Goldstein (1988) reports the persuasion strategy is effective when change recipients do not exhibit a high level of resistance, while Zaltman and Duncan (1977) remark that persuasion is effective to deal with those whose level of resistance is high. Moreover, Battilana and Casciaro (2013) found that affective co-optation is effective in dealing with change recipients who are fence-sitters while it is

ineffective in dealing with those who are purely resisters. However, high or low resistance are subjective terms that may be interpreted differently. Therefore, this research employs the scheme by Coetsee (1999), which classifies change recipients' resistance into the four levels explained earlier, so that each level has a meaning that can be distinguished from the others.

Furthermore, in relation to the salience of change recipients to change and their modes of resistance, the causes of the change recipients' resistance have received considered attention. For instance, Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) and Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) note that education strategy is effective when the lack of perceived benefits is the cause of change recipients' resistance. Judson (1991) speculates that facilitation strategy is effective to deal with change recipients' resistance when the sources of their resistance are related to a lack of confidence in their ability and skills to cope with new ways of working. However, this research considers the sources of the recipients' resistance in association with the level of salience they have in relation to change as well as the modes of their resistance, which has not been addressed before.

Having identified the gap in the extant literature and the research context (i.e. organisational reorientation) which this research investigates, this research question emerged as follows:

What are the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation in relation to their salience to change?

The definitions of the main keywords of the research that are included in the research question are shown in Table 2.5.

In respect of a research question and how it can contribute to existing knowledge, Corley and Gioia (2011, p. 26) state that 'what constitutes a theoretical contribution in organisation and management studies is a vexing question that cannot be answered definitively, although it does seem to have a conventional answer'. The research question in this research is both a theory-driven and a phenomena-driven question (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007), in which both dimensions (utility and originality) of a theoretical contribution are met (Corley and Gioia, 2011). As it is phenomena-driven it will yield 'practical utility' (Corley and Gioia 2011, p. 18), which is beneficial because many change programs in practice do not succeed and resistance is a major concern. Thus, it is more

interesting than a purely theory-driven question as it challenges existing theory (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011). However, the research question is also theory-driven and as such demonstrates ‘originality’ (Corley and Gioia, 2011, p. 16) because a gap has been identified: exploring strategies to deal with change recipients’ resistance by employing stakeholder salience theory as well as the different levels and causes of the recipients’ resistance. Therefore, the question rests in a context that is specified by theory (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) (i.e. punctuated equilibrium theory, stakeholder salience theory, and status quo bias theory), which brings ‘scientific utility’ (Corley and Gioia, 2011, p. 19).

Key word of the research	Literature definition	Research definition
Radical, planned organisational change (Reorientation)	Period of anticipated (planned) organisational change where the deep structure (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985) (structure, strategy, culture, power, and control system) is fundamentally altered (Nadler and Tushman 1995; Nadler and Tushman, 1989). Organisational change: ‘An empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organisational entity’ (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995, p. 512).	A period of anticipated (planned) organisational change where the deep structure (structure, strategy, culture, power, and control system) is fundamentally altered (Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Nadler and Tushman, 1989; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985).
Change recipient	Individual or group of people who the organisation must influence to initiate change (Mondros and Wilson, 1994; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977).	Individual or group of people who the organisation must influence in order to adopt radical, planned, organisational change.
Recipient resistance to change	Negative attitude toward organisational reorientation including affective, behavioural, and/or cognitive dimensions (Oreg, 2006) whether the level of the recipients’ resistance is apathy, aggressive or any level in between (Coetsee, 1999).	Negative cognitive, behavioural, and affective reactions exhibited by change recipients to radical, planned organisational change.
Change recipient’s salience to change	‘The degree to which managers give priority to competing stakeholder claims’ (Mitchell et al., 1997, p. 869).	The degree to which change managers give priority to competing change recipient claims.

Strategies for managing change recipients' resistance to change	Strategies to manage change recipients (see section 2.6) include facilitative, persuasive, educative, and coercive strategies (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Zaltman and Dunacan, 1977).	Same strategies as defined in the previous cell to deal with change recipients' resistance, based upon the recipients' salience in relation to organisational reorientation.
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Table 2.5: Definition of the key words of this research (Source: Author)

2.8 Summary

This chapter presented the theories and studies relevant to this research including punctuated equilibrium theory, stakeholder salience theory, and status quo bias theory. The chapter commenced by explaining the review process conducted for exploring the relevant literature for this research. Also, relevant literature on strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance was reported. The results of the review reveal a lack of studies that consider change recipients' salience in relation to change when investigating their resistance. It was observed that this is a significant weakness in the existing scholarship. Consequently, the research question was formulated which led to the development of the theoretical framework for this research, which investigates this relationship. This research question is fundamental in leading to the appropriate empirical research methodology (Maxwell, 2013), which is explained in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Having explored the literature about strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change and developed a theoretical framework for this research, the next step is introducing the research methodology. The purpose of a research methodology is to develop the most appropriate research design for the research undertaken (Remenyi et al., 1998). The starting point that guides researchers to the research methodology that best suits their research is the research question(s) (Maxwell, 2013; Yin, 2003). According to these authors, by linking the research question(s) to the appropriate methodology, the researchers are more likely to reach conclusions that best answer their research question(s).

This chapter commences by explaining the philosophical paradigms in social science research and the position of this research. Based upon the research question introduced in the previous chapter, this research is located in the interpretivist paradigm. Following this, the research methodologies relevant to the interpretivist paradigm are introduced in order to identify the most appropriate one for this research. Case study is the research methodology of this research. Hence the remaining part of the chapter is structured in alignment with the logic of Eisenhardt (1989) regarding designing case study research. This includes case selection (i.e. the unit of analysis), data collection methods, sampling procedure, quality of case study design, data analysis, and reporting. Lastly, the ethical issues associated with the empirical field of this research are considered.

3.2 Research Philosophy

According to Burrell and Morgan (1979) and Morgan and Smircich (1980) there are two polarised viewpoints on the social world, which are based upon the philosophical assumptions of science (ontology, epistemology, human nature, and methodology) that underpin approaches to social science (see Figure 3.1). These two viewpoints are objectivist and subjectivist. Burrell and Morgan (1979) and Morgan and Smircich (1980) assert that models of ontology, epistemology, and human nature lead social scientists toward different

methodologies laying in the spectrum of these two opposite views. However, it is important to assert that no view is superior or inferior to the other.

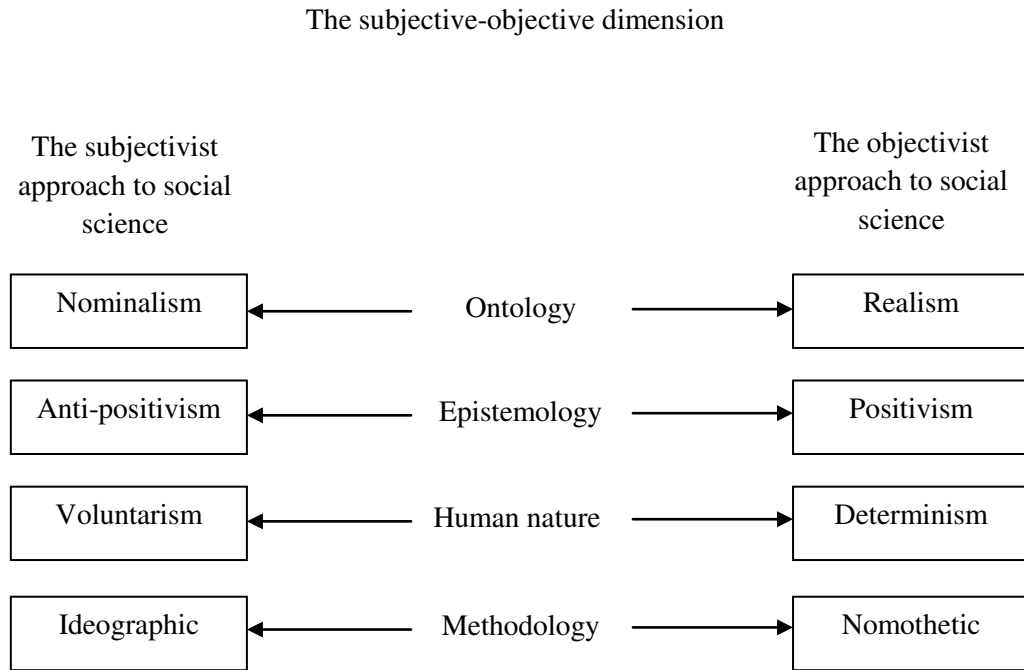


Figure 3.1: A scheme for analysing assumptions about the nature of social science (Source: Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 3)

Unlike the objectivist view, the aim of research stands within the subjectivist dimension as stated by Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 113) is ‘*understanding and reconstruction* of the constructions that people (including the inquirer) initially hold, aiming toward consensus but still open to new interpretations as information and sophistication improve’. This research topic concerns understanding change recipients’ salience to organisational change, their levels and sources of resistance, and the appropriate strategies to deal with them in a time of organisational reorientation. This requires involvement in the context in order to interact with participants and to grasp their understandings of the phenomena. For instance, different participants may refer a particular strategy by different names but these names may have the same meaning, which requires the researcher’s interaction with the participants in order to obtain and interpret what the phenomena mean to the participants. Moreover, the participants may inform strategies that are different from or new to the ones that are already reported in the literature.

Researchers with similar interests (e.g Boonstra and Groves, 2009; Lapointe and Rivard, 2005; Stoddard and Jarvenpaa, 1995) have conducted studies that are located in a subjectivist position. Boonstra and Groves (2009) approached their research from such a viewpoint to understand how stakeholders' attitudes and behaviours affect the outcome of enterprise resource planning implementation. The authors state that the research was suited to this subjectivist approach since each stakeholder has a different subjective view of the system and their context within it. Lapointe and Rivard (2005) investigated different levels of physicians' resistance to an information system project from a subjectivist perspective because the authors sought to understand why and how physicians react to the project, which required the authors to involve themselves in the situation. Stoddard and Jarvenpaa (1995) explored tactics for managing radical change for business process redesign projects. In doing so, the authors asked open-ended questions that facilitated interactions with participants (ideographic approach) in order to understand their experience and their understandings of how and why the tactics were used (anti-positivism) (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

Therefore, the relational aspect of this research, which is concerned with strategies to deal with change recipient's resistance to organisational reorientation by considering their salience, is appropriately reached from a subjectivist position.

3.3 The Position of the Research Relating to other Disciplines

According to Bates (2007), academic research disciplines are thought of on a spectrum between two cultures, the humanities (at the arts and humanities end), and science (at the natural science and mathematics end) (See spectrum A in Figure 3.2). According to the author, the two extremes are in contrast between the ideographic methodologies (the humanities culture), and the nomothetic methodology (the science culture). By relating to the two dimensions by Burrell and Morgan(1979) (see Figure 3.1), the humanities tend to be more subjectivist while science culture tends to be more objectivist. In the middle of the spectrum, the social and behavioural science discipline (in which this research is positioned) may be approached from the perspective of one or both of these cultures.

Spectrum B shows the applied professional disciplines (e.g. law, business, and finance) that match the research designs in spectrum A.

A. THE SPECTRUM OF THE TRADITIONAL ACADEMIC RESEARCH DISCIPLINES

Arts	Humanities	Social and Behavioral Sciences			Natural Sciences & Math		
Painting	Literature	History	Economics	Psychology	Biology	Geology	Mathematics
Sculpture	Languages	Archaeology	Political science	Anthropology	Chemistry	Physics	Logic
Music	Linguistics		Sociology	Geography	Biochemistry	Astronomy	Computer sci
Dance	Philosophy					Oceanography	
Theater	Religion						

**B. THE SPECTRUM OF THE APPLIED PROFESSIONAL DISCIPLINES
CORRESPONDING TO THE RESEARCH DISCIPLINES**

Commer- cial art	Writing	Law	Business	Clinical psych	Medicine	Agriculture	Geo engr	Accounting
Musical perf.	Translating	Genealogy	Public admin	Social welfare	Dentistry	Horticulture	Aero engr	Finance
Dancing	Ministry		Criminal justice	Public health	Pharmacy	Forestry	Civil engr	Elec engr
Acting			Industrial engr	Family science	Nursing	Wildlife mgmt		
Architecture						Applied chem		
Design								

Figure 3.2: Traditional disciplines and corresponding professional disciplines (Source: Bates, 2007)

3.4 Research Routes in Social Science

The choice of approaching a piece of social science research is based upon two streams, known as qualitative and quantitative approaches (Remenyi et al., 1998), both of which are led by the philosophical assumptions reported earlier in this chapter. Since this research is subjectivist, it approaches its aim via a qualitative route. However, prior to explaining the qualitative research methodology adopted in this research, a brief description of the quantitative and qualitative approaches will be outlined.

Quantitative routes in social research tend to follow similar approaches to the natural sciences (Robson, 2011; Stake, 1995). The focus is on behaviour rather than meanings (Robson, 2011). Robson (2011) asserts that the paradigm of quantitative research has been linked with positivism, which is a view of epistemology where knowledge is considered as

real, hard, transferable, and without interaction between the investigator and the research phenomena (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

On the other hand, the qualitative route is concerned with understanding meanings that people attribute to their words and actions (Yin, 2011); in other words, their subjective experiences (Fitzgerald and Dopson, 2009). Unlike quantitative research, which is more interested in objective data (numerical data), qualitative research involves methods that use or generate words (non-numerical data) (Saunders et al., 2007). Hence, qualitative methods require interactions between the researcher and the researched phenomena (Robson, 2011). Thus, a constructionist view, which is referred to as interpretivist or subjectivist, is the philosophical view where the qualitative stream is located (Robson, 2011). An interpretivist paradigm ‘is interested in the study of meanings that social actors attach to their actions’ (Fitzgerald and Dopson, 2009, p. 466). In respect of the two dimensions reported earlier in this chapter by Burrell and Morgan (1979), the qualitative approach tends towards the subjective dimension where knowledge is viewed as soft and experienced (anti-positivism), rather than hard and acquired (positivism), which is where the quantitative approach lays. The common research methodologies in social science and their philosophical stands are summarised in Table 3.1 below.

Research Methodology	Description	Subjectivism	Objectivism
Grounded theory	Seeks to generate a theory which relates the particular situation forming the focus of the study (Robson, 2011)	Strictly interpretivist	
Ethnography	Describes and interprets the social world in which researchers inhabit in the way they would describe and explain it (Saunders et al., 2007)	Strictly interpretivist	
Case study	Concerns understanding the dynamics present within single settings (Eisenhardt, 1989)	Have scope to be either	Have scope to be either
Survey	Collects large amount of data from a sizeable population usually is obtained by a questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2007)		Strictly positivistic with some room for interpretation

Action research	Combines both data collection and facilitation of change (Saunders et al., 2007)	Strictly interpretivist	
Field experiments	Experiment in natural settings where participants may not be aware that they are subjects in an experiment (Robson, 2011)	Have scope to be either	Have scope to be either
Laboratory experiments	Closely controlled research in highly artificial settings (Robson, 2011)		Strictly positivistic with some room for interpretation

Table 3.1: Research tactics and their philosophical bases (Source: Adapted from Remenyi et al., 1998, p. 59)

An essential difference between the two approaches (quantitative and qualitative) is the place of theory. In terms of the research process, quantitative research strategies are more deductive (theory to data), while qualitative strategies are more inductive (data to theory) (Hyde, 2000; Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2011). In terms of contribution to theory, Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) assert that inductive and deductive approaches complement each other. These scholars report that the inductive method is employed to produce a new theory while the deductive method is often used to test existing theory.

Research processes in the management field (which is a branch of social science research) are iterative in nature (from reading the literature, designing the study, collecting and analysing data, and writing up the results) (Edmondson and Mcmanus, 2007). However, qualitative research is more iterative than quantitative research (Robson, 2011; Yin, 2011). In qualitative research, the links between the research process steps are more interrelated since the research starts with an undeveloped theory and a framework that require more modification when the data are collected. Quantitative research is a more linear process because the theory needs to be fully specified prior to collecting any data (Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007). Hence, Robson (2011) refers to qualitative research design as flexible-design (e.g. ethnography, and grounded theory), and refers to quantitative research design as fixed-design (e.g. experiment, and survey). The following section explains research methodologies that belong to quantitative research, qualitative research, and/or both.

3.5 Research Methodologies in Social Science

In social science research, scholars (e.g. Harvey, 1990; Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007) distinguish between two terms: research methodology and research methods. The former concerns how research should be undertaken, such as ethnography and survey, while the latter refers to the techniques and procedures employed to gather and analyse data, such as interviews and questionnaires. Research methodology is viewed as an interface between theory, method, and epistemological underpinnings (Harvey, 1990). Hence, a research methodology may involve more than one method and a research method may belong to more than one methodology.

Each research methodology has its advantages and disadvantages, and thus researchers need to choose the design that is most appropriate for their study (Yin, 2003). Table 3.2 indicates the advantages and disadvantages of different research methodologies in social science research.

Research methodology	Advantages	Disadvantages
Grounded theory	Useful when theoretical approach to be selected is not clear or is non-existent (Robson, 2011)	Difficulty in determining when theory is sufficiently developed (Robson, 2011)
Ethnography	Enables researchers to understand culture of people in their natural environment (Robson, 2011)	Time consuming (Robson, 2011; Remenyi et al, 1998; Yin, 2003) Difficulty in coping with being full time member of social context as well as researcher (Saunders et al., 2007)
Case study	Different sources of evidence can be used (Remenyi et al, 1998; Yin, 2003)	Generalisability, in particular for single case study (Yin, 2003)
Survey	Generalisability to the population studied (Robson, 2011)	Uninformed answer (respondents may guess answers) (Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007) Dependability on respondents to reply (Saunders et al., 2007)

Action research	Combines both data gathering and facilitation of change (Saunders et al., 2007)	Time consuming (Remenyi et al., 1998)
Field experiments	The findings are more generalisable than those by laboratory experiments	Ethical issues (Robson, 2011) People may not be willing to participate since experiment requires control and manipulation of context (Robson, 2011; Yin, 2003)
Laboratory experiments	Provides a researcher a focus by including relevant variables and exclude irrelevant ones (Remenyi et al, 1998)	Same as above mentioned about field experiments Not feasible for many business and management research questions (Remenyi et al, 1998; Saunders et al., 2007)

Table 3.2: Advantages and disadvantages of different research methodologies (Source: Author)

Fundamentally, it needs to be acknowledged that there is no methodology that is superior or inferior to any other. However, the choice of methodology is about whether it enables researchers to answer their research questions and meet their objectives (Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2014). For this research, the subsequent paragraphs explain why case study research is the most advantageous methodology.

There are overlaps among the research methodologies (Yin, 2003). However, there are conditions that guide researchers to the most appropriate choice of research methodology. These conditions are: a) the type of research question(s) (Bryman, 2007; Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2014; 2003); b) the control of behavioural events (Yin, 2003); c) the focus on contemporary events (Benbasat et al., 1987; Yin, 2003); d) and the available amount of time and resources (Saunders et al., 2007).

The researcher's philosophical underpinnings explained earlier influence the research question (Saunders et al., 2007). As stated in the previous section, this research seeks to answer its question introduced in the literature review chapter from subjectivist viewpoint. Consequently, research methodologies that are more or strictly objectivist (see Table 3.1) are not appropriate for this research. Moreover, research questions that start with 'what', 'how',

or 'why' belong to the subjectivist view. They, therefore, can lead to research methodologies that are also subjectivist (Maxwell, 2013; Remenyi et al., 1998; Yin, 2003). This is the case with this research. Hence the choice of the methodology for this research is among the ones that serve subjective data as shown in Table 3.1.

Unlike field experiments, this research does not require any control over behaviours since it seeks to explore strategies to deal with those who were affected by a given change in a real life situation. Ethnography and participant-observation are less appropriate because observation is their main data collection method (Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2003), which is not required in order to meet the objectives of this research. Case study, on the contrary, involves a variety of data collection methods (e.g. interviews, documents collection, and observation) (Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Moreover, case study allows for the choice of many cases (multiple-cases) (Benbasat et al., 1987; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003), which enables the selection of many cases and permits replication logic (Yin, 2003). Therefore, case study is the most appropriate methodology for this research. The following section explains in details the type of case study that is conducted in this research.

3.6 Case Study Methodology

The term 'case study' is used both for teaching purposes and for research purposes (Yin, 2003). However, in this research, the term case study is used as a research methodology. Case study research focuses on understanding a contemporary phenomenon in its natural setting (Benbasat et al., 1987; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003), 'when the boundaries between phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident' (Yin, 2003, p. 13), by employing multiple sources of evidence to gather information from people, groups, and/or organisations (Benbasat et al., 1987; Yin, 2003). The evidence can be qualitative, quantitative, or both (Eisenhardt, 1989; Fitzgerald and Dopson, 2009; Yin, 2003). Thus, Dube and Pare (2003) remark that case study research can be used with any philosophical position, (subjectivist vs. objectivist).

Stake (1995; 1994) distinguishes between two types of cases, one with intrinsic interest, and the other with instrumental interest. Stake (1995; 1994) states that this distinction helps researchers to choose the method most appropriate for their research. An intrinsic case study

is preselected and stems from the investigator's curiosity to learn about that specific case. An instrumental case study is when an investigator has research question(s) that aim not only to understand the case under study, but also to understand similar cases to produce generalised results. The case study in this research is more instrumental and emerges from a set of processes, including reviewing the literature and formulating a research question. Therefore, the purpose is to learn from the selected cases in this research to understand phenomenon rather than simply the particular selected cases.

Whether implicitly or explicitly, every empirical research has a research design (Yin, 2011; 2003). The rationale behind making the design explicit is that it serves as a 'blueprint' that helps researchers to avoid the mismatch between the collected evidence and the research questions (Yin, 2003). Research design is 'the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions' (Yin, 2003, p. 20). Even though research questions may slightly shift as the research progress, they are essential for designing a study (Eisenhardt, 1989; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). It seems that research design represents a bridge that needs to be carefully developed so that research questions can be linked to the appropriate source of evidence to yield meaningful contributions. An important step in designing case study research is considering the theory employed in the research (Yin, 2003), which will be explained next.

3.6.1 The Role of Theory in Case Study Research

The term theory may mean different things to different people; in general terms, it provides an explanation of phenomena under investigation (Robson, 2011). Some academics and practitioners argue that the application of theory is limited, and thus it is not useful in real world business (Wacker, 1998). Therefore, theory needs to involve pragmatic views. As stated by Van De Ven (1989, p. 486) 'good theory is practical precisely because it advances knowledge in a scientific discipline, guides research toward crucial questions, and enlightens the profession of management'. Hence theory should improve knowledge in the relevant discipline, contribute in designing a research, and inform policy (Robson, 2011; Yin, 2003). However, prior to explaining how theory is related to this research, definitions of theory by scholars will be reported.

A theory is ‘a statement of relations among concepts within a set of boundary assumptions and constraints. It is no more than a linguistic device used to organise a complex empirical world’ (Bacharach, 1989, p. 496). Organising and communicating clearly are the two purposes of a theoretical statement (Bacharach, 1989). The main components of theory the author emphasises are constructs and variables. A construct represents ‘a broad mental configuration of a given phenomenon’ (1989, p. 500) such as performance, whereas a variable represents ‘an operational configuration derived from a construct’ (1989, p. 500) such as return on investment. Similarly, Wacker (1998, p. 363) explains that ‘theories carefully outline the precise definitions in a specific domain to explain why and how the relationships are logically tied so that the theory gives specific predictions’. Sutton and Staw (1995) contribute to the definition of theory by distinguishing it from what theory is not. The authors list five features that should not be considered as theories, such as data, diagrams, references, hypotheses, and list of variables and constructs if they are not connected.

The feasibility of deploying theory in a research is twofold. First, it has benefits for the research process and, second for the research outcomes. For the research process, the employment of theory prior to collecting any data is useful to the identification of the appropriate research design and methods to collect relevant data (Yin, 2003). Unlike research methodologies, such as grounded theory and ethnography, which do not define a specific theory prior to collecting data, employing theory in case study research is beneficial (Yin, 2003). The theories employed in this research are: punctuated equilibrium theory, which defines the unit of analysis of this research; stakeholder salience theory, which is employed before collecting data to help identify stakeholder attributes that in turn lead to the development of more precise empirical questions about change recipients’ salience to change; and status quo bias theory, which explains the reasons for change recipients’ resistance to change. With regard to research outcomes, deploying theory serves to generalise research results (Yin, 2003) as well as to make a contribution to the development of theory per se (Robson, 2011). Having pointed out the role of the theory in this research, the following subsections explain the design of this research.

3.6.2 Case Study Protocol

For anticipating potential problems that may occur when data collection process starts, and for focusing on the subject of the case study, Yin (2003, p. 67) suggests using what is called

‘case study protocol’, or what Stake (1995, p. 51) refers to as a ‘data gathering plan’. The protocol comprises the procedures to be followed for the purpose of data collection. For instance, the protocol includes definition of the case, sources of evidence, how data will be analysed, and intended reporting (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2010; Yin, 2003). It is also a means of increasing the reliability of case study research (Yin, 2003), which will be discussed in detail in a later section in this chapter. The case study protocol employed in this research is illustrated in Table 3.3 below. The details of each component are explained in the relevant sections in this chapter.

Case study protocol component	Description
Aim of the study	Understand the strategies to deal with change recipients’ resistance to organisational change by considering their salience to the change
Case selection	Radical, planned organisational change (reorientation) when at least three components of the organisational deep structure are altered (Gersick, 1991) (see unit of analysis section for details)
Sources of evidence	Semi-structured interviews with change agents and change recipients (list of questions are in Appendix 9) Documents relevant to the change under investigation
Sampling criteria	<p>Change agents: Based upon five criteria by Buchannan and Boddy (1992)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Setting the project’s goals (e.g. vision) - Setting the agents and recipients role specification (e.g. team building and networking) - Communication with the change recipients - Negotiation with the recipients (e.g. selling ideas) - Political issues with the recipients (e.g. identifying potential coalitions, and dealing with resistance) <p>Change recipients: Those who are affected by the change (Jick, 1990) in terms of</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - their job description - people they work with and/or - the way they perform their work
Analysis method	<p>Predefined categories, thematic analysis within case study based upon four main themes namely:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - organisational reorientation - change recipients’ salience in relation to change - resistance to change which includes modes and sources of change recipients’ resistance

	- strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance
Reporting	Case-ordered (Miles and Huberman, 1994), each case are presented in a chapter. Each chapter is structured based upon the main themes mentioned above

Table 3.3: Case study protocol of the research (Source: Author)

3.6.3 The Unit of Analysis

Besides research questions and objectives, a substantial component of designing case studies is defining the unit of analysis (Benbasat et al., 1987; Long, 2004; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003). A case can be an individual, group, organisation, programme, event and the like (Robson, 2011; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). The unit of analysis is 'related to the fundamental problem of defining what the "case" is' (Yin, 2003, p. 22). In essence, the case is the unit of analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994); as Long (2004, p. 1157) states, 'it is the subject (the who or what) of study about which an analyst may generalize'. For instance, Brown and Eisenhardt (1997) studied six firms (six cases) in the computer industry in USA, Europe, and Asia. The authors defined their unit of analysis in each company as strategic business units (some of hardware, and others of software) to examine how organisations engage in continuous change. A further example is the study of Lapointe and Rivard (2005) who investigated resistance to information system change projects at group level. Their identified unit of analysis was physicians who were affected by the project. Moreover, business process redesign projects are the unit of analysis in the three organisations Stoddard and Jarvenpaa (1995) considered in investigating the process of managing these projects. Defining the unit of analysis is essential for both designing the research and identifying the relevant methods for data collection. The research question(s) define the relevant unit of analysis, which therefore guides the researcher to the appropriate case (Yin, 2003).

To identify the case empirically for this research, the five components of the deep structure (organisational strategy, structure, culture, power distribution, and control systems) introduced by Tushmand and Romanelli (1985) and tested by Romanelli and Tushman (1994) will be used as theoretical criteria to define the unit of analysis. As explained in the literature review chapter, Gersick (1991) and Tushmand and Romanelli (1985) report that when the deep structure is fundamentally altered, the change is regarded as radical. In their study, Romanelli and Tushman (1994) considered three attributes of the deep structure -

strategy, structure, and distribution of power - in their investigation of companies that have been transformed. Likewise, the unit of analysis in this research is defined as an organisation that has undertaken a radical change when at least three components of the organisation's deep structure have been substantially modified. Table 3.4 below depicts an example of a study by Silva and Hirschheim (2007) who investigated a radical change based on the deep structure of the organisation.

Deep structure attributes	Deep structure before hospitals project	Target Deep Structure in Relation to the Strategic Information System (SIS)
Culture	Skepticism toward change, distance from the central level. Conservatism.	The Ministry wanted the public to change their opinion about public hospitals. The SIS was a key for such an objective.
Strategy	Centralised Operations IT seen and used as support tool. During dictatorship political time (elections) was not an issue.	The Ministry wanted to improve health services and to make more efficient use of resources. SIS was seen as fundamental for improving the efficiency of the services and the image of the government. They had to be finished before the elections.
Distribution of power	Concentration of power on highest authorities, although employees in hospitals with discretion on operations.	The SIS would maintain the power of the highest authorities and reduce the discretion of employees in hospitals.
Organisational structure	Hierarchical. Bureaucratic.	There were no attempts to change the organisational structure.
Control systems	Informal, based on confidence and influence.	IT-supported controls would be more formal and would strengthen the power of central authorities.

Table 3.4: The deep structure before and after a radical change project (Source: adapted from Silva and Hirschheim, 2007, p. 348)

The other factor in identifying a relevant unit of analysis for this research is radical change that is planned. As reported in the literature review chapter, the focus of this research is on the reorientation type of organisational change, which incorporates changes that are radical as well as planned. The term 'planned' is defined as anticipated, i.e. change agents identified organisational phenomena in advance and therefore they are able to plan and address them. In order to investigate whether a particular organisational change is in accordance with the unit of analysis for this research, relevant documents about the changes (i.e. Case studies A

and B) were gathered prior to conducting any interview with potential respondents. These documents are introduced in detail in section 4.3 in Chapter Four for Case study A and in section 5.3 in Chapter Five for Case study B. The subsequent subsection explains how the cases were approached by the researcher.

3.6.4 Access and Permission

The starting point of contact with the cases studies in this research was via a senior change manager from Case A, who then facilitated access to contact the program director of the change in Case B. The arrangement for contacting the senior change manager was facilitated by the supervisor of the researcher (Professor Ashley Braganza). The senior change manager received an introductory letter via email from the researcher, which described what the researcher was looking for (see Appendix 10) as well as the confidentiality of the research. This is an essential step for researchers who employ case study research (Stake, 1995). Once the senior change manager agreed to allow the researcher to conduct interviews with the senior change manager and other informants, the researcher received documents about the case from the senior change manager. This was necessary prior to starting any interviews in order for the researcher to examine the suitability of the case to under the criteria of the unit of analysis. The same process was followed for Case B. The next subsection describes the methods of collecting data about the case studies in this research.

3.6.5 Sources of Evidence

A distinction needs to be made between the unit of analysis and the unit of data collection. The unit of data collection enables researchers to gather information in order to investigate the unit of analysis. For instance, a unit of analysis can be an organisation or business unit while the units of data collection can be individuals (e.g. interviews), and vice versa. A unit of analysis can be individuals, whereas the unit of data collection can be an organisation (e.g. archival records) (Yin, 2003).

Similar to research methodologies, data collection methods are used for gathering qualitative data, quantitative data, or both. However, only data collection methods that are consistent with the methodology conducted in this research (a qualitative case study) are relevant here. Yin (2014) identifies six sources of evidence in case study research (besides films and photographs), and the strengths and weaknesses of each method, as shown in Table 3.5 below.

Source of evidence	Strengths	Weaknesses
Documentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stable: Can be reviewed repeatedly - Unobtrusive: Not created as a result of the case study - Specific: Contains the exact names, references and the details of an event - Broad coverage: Long span of time, many events, and many settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Retrievability: Can be slow - Biased selectivity, if collection is incomplete - Reporter bias: Reflects (unknown) bias of author - Access: May be deliberately Blocked
Archival records	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - (Same strong points as for the documentation) - Precise and quantitative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - (Same weak points as for the documentation) - Accessibility due to privacy Reasons
Interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Targeted: Focuses directly on case study topic - Insightful: provides Explanations as well as personal views (e.g., perceptions, attitudes, and meanings) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bias due to poorly constructed questions - Response bias - Inaccuracies Due to poor recall - Reflexivity: Interviewee gives what interviewer wants to hear
Direct observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Immediacy: Covers events in real time - Contextual: Covers context of event 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Time consuming - Selectivity: Unless broad coverage - Reflexivity: Event may proceed differently because it is being observed - Cost: Hours needed by human observers
Participant observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (Same points as for the direct observations) - Insightful into interpersonal behaviour and motives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (Same weak points as for the direct observations) - Bias due to investigator's manipulation of events
Physical artifacts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Insightful into cultural features - Insightful into technical Operations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Selectivity - Availability

Table 3.5: Sources of evidence for case study research (Source: Yin, 2014, p. 106)

The major strength of case study data collection is the opportunity to use more than one source of evidence (Fitzgerald and Dopson, 2009; Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2003). However, the methods needed to gather data in this research are interviews, and documentation, both of which will be explained next, including the reasons for choosing them.

A) Semi-structured interviews

Interview is the most commonly used method, especially for gathering qualitative data (Cassell, 2009; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2011). Interview technique is important for exploring aspects of this research that other data collection methods cannot provide, such as archival records and physical artifacts. For example, exploring the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to a given change can only be done by asking the recipients themselves as well as those who manage the change (i.e. change agents). Lapointe and Rivard (2005) investigated physicians' levels of resistance by asking the physicians and managers. For this research, different people affected by the radical change program, drawn from different hierarchical levels and business units to reduce interview bias (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007), were interviewed (see Chapter Four section 4.3 for Case A and Chapter Five section 5.3 for details). This leads to the issue of sampling, which will be explained in the following section.

Three types of interviews have been identified in the literature. These are structured, semi-structured, and unstructured (in depth) interviews (Cassell, 2009; Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007). Structured interviews, which are used to gather quantitative data, are in the form of a formal survey, meaning that the questions are structured prior to any interview, which may involve open ended questions. The purpose of semi-structured and unstructured interviews is to understand the respondents' explanations and meanings (Saunders et al., 2007), which is the type of knowledge that belongs to the subjectivist view (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In semi-structured interviews, the interviewer has a list of themes and questions to be covered besides some unplanned questions asked as interesting points are raised by the interviewee. Unstructured interviews are more informal and less planned than semi-structured interviews since the interviewer has a general area of concern with no predetermined list of questions or themes to let the conversation develop within the topic of interest (Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007). For this research, semi-structured interviews are the most appropriate type of interview since there is a set of predetermined questions to ask that are structured around themes but also provide some level of flexibility for elaboration on related points when needed. These themes, which are driven from the research question introduced in the literature review, are organisational reorientation, change recipients' salience, levels and sources of their resistance, and the strategies to cope with their resistance. A thorough explanation of the themes will be presented later in this chapter.

Interviews can be in many forms. They can be face to face, over the telephone, or via the internet (Cassell, 2009). The advantage of using the telephone and internet arises when the interviewer is unable to physically reach targeted people for interviews. However, since there was no issue with approaching interviewees in this research, the face to face method was preferable. This method allowed communication with informants whilst avoiding any electronic issues such as connections and so forth. All the interviews (for Case A and Case B) took place in the organisations. Besides taking some notes during each interview, recording devices were helpful to capture additional information that may not have been written down. Prior to each interview, researchers are required to ask informants for their permission to use a recorder (Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2011; 2003), and this was considered in this research, as well as other points such as the confidentiality of the interview content (see Appendix 7 for more details).

Since all the interviews were in a face-to-face format there are necessary skills suggested by Yin (2011) that were considered by the researcher. In qualitative interviews, researchers need to be listeners more than speakers in order to allow informants to speak more. Remaining neutral in terms of voice as well as body language is an enabler of reducing biases in the information given by informants. Moreover, politeness by avoiding words or conversations that may be considered as offensive by informants is vital in doing qualitative interviews.

The relationship between research question(s) and interview questions, as reported by Maxwell (2013), is illustrated in Figure 3.3. As mentioned earlier, the interview questions are relevant to the themes of this research depicted in the research framework in the literature review chapter, where the research question is formulated. As shown in Appendix 9, the interview questions consist of four categories, which represent the four themes of the research framework. The first category involves questions to provide background information about the change, including the effect of the change on the organisational deep structure (defined earlier in the unit of analysis section) and the recipients of the change. The second category is the salience of change recipients in relation to the change, which includes their power, legitimacy, and urgency, based upon stakeholder salience theory. The third category concerns the levels and sources of change recipients' resistance to change. The last category involves questions about the strategies employed to overcome change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation.

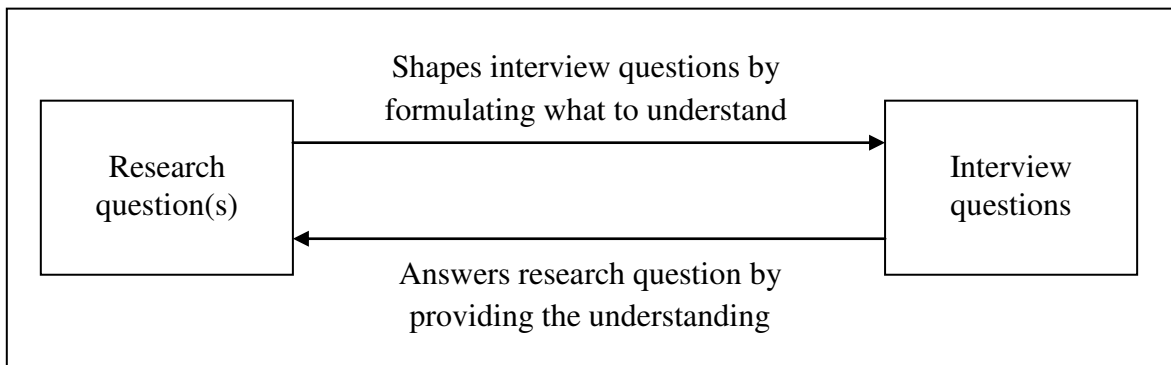


Figure 3.3: The relationship between the research question and interview questions as discussed by Maxwell (2013) (Source: Author)

After the interviews, the interviewees were contacted with follow up questions via phone or email to clarify any ambiguities in the data gathered so far from them. At the beginning of each interview, questions to identify whether the interviewee is a change agent, change recipient, both, or none, were asked, and this is the focus of the following subsection.

A) Documentation

Document collection is likely to be relevant to each case study topic (Yin, 2003). Documents include written reports of events, progress reports, letters, and administrative documents. Documents about the cases selected in this research are explained in detail in Chapter Four section 4.3 for Case A and Chapter Five section 5.3 for Case B. Importantly, gathering some relevant documents helps to reduce any bias that may result from interviews (Yin, 2003).

This collection of data constitutes triangulation, which helps to construct validity (Eisenhardt, 1989; Maxwell, 2013; Yin, 2003). Triangulation can be done by combining sources of evidence, methodologies, (Scandura and Williams, 2000; Yin, 2003), or investigators (Yin, 2003). Yin (2003) asserts that collecting data from multiple sources must support the same fact or phenomenon; otherwise it is not considered as triangulation. In this research, collecting documents besides the interviews enhance to support the validity of the gathered data. The issues of validity along with reliability and generalisability of this research will be introduced later in this chapter.

3.6.6 Sampling Techniques

For qualitative case study research, there are theoretical criteria for selecting the cases to investigate as well as choosing the potential informants (Eisenhardt, 1989). The criteria for considering a case as relevant are presented in the earlier unit of analysis section of this chapter. The criteria for targeting potential informants are explained in this section.

In respect of selecting informants for interviews, there are two main types of sampling, probability sampling (e.g. simple random, cluster, and systematic sampling), and non-probability sampling (e.g. purposive, and snowball sampling) (Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007; Yin, 2011). The former technique aims to collect quantitative data, while the latter seeks to gather qualitative data. For non-probability sampling, purposive sampling is when researchers use their judgment to choose participants that best answer research question(s) and meet the objectives (Saunders et al., 2007). Snowball sampling is when it is difficult for investigators to select potential participants; when they make an initial contact with one respondent, the respondent will be asked to identify further respondents who will be informative to the research (Saunders et al., 2007). For this research, purposive sampling was adopted.

As this research concerns strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to change, the agents and recipients of the change in Case A and Case B are the ones who were targeted for interviews in this research. The change agents are essential to interview as they provide information about what strategies they adopted to deal with change recipients' resistance. The change recipients are required interviewees since their views are necessary in evaluating the strategies used to cope with their resistance. A first point of contact in Case A and B is a senior change manager and the program director respectively, who were asked to nominate other agents and recipients of change for interview. However, it is possible to define change agents and/or recipients differently. Therefore, in order to ensure that the nominated informants are the right individuals to interview, the meaning of each was defined as follows.

A) Identifying change agents

Change agent may mean different things to different people. For example, Markus and Benjamin (1996) describe three models of change agent, and they state that:

‘. . . the advocate model differs sharply both from the traditional IS model, in which the change agent attempts to satisfy users' goals, and from the facilitator model, in which the change agent attempts to help clients realize their goals. By contrast, the advocate attempts to induce change targets — both individuals and groups — to adopt and internalize the change agent's views about what is needed to serve the organisation's best interests’ (1996, p. 397).

Therefore, defining clearly what change agent means in this research is essential prior to interviewing individuals who may have different understanding of the term change agent. Zaltman and Duncan (1977, p. 17) refer to change agent as ‘any individual or group operating to change the status quo in a system such that the individual or individuals involved must relearn how to perform their roles’. Caldwell (2003) defines change agent as ‘an internal or external individual or team responsible for initiating, sponsoring, directing, managing or implementing a specific change initiative, project or complete change program’ (2003, p. 139). Using this definition, the author specifies four models of change agency: leadership (e.g. leaders, and senior executives), management (e.g. middle level managers, and functional specialists), consultancy (e.g. internal and/or external consultants), and team models (e.g. employees, and consultants). The above definition is also employed by Wallace et al. (2011) in their investigation of how senior staff view themselves as agents of change. A further empirical research study that defines change agent is the study by Lines (2007), which examined the relationship between the power of the change agent and the implementation success in a time of strategic change. The author defines change agent as ‘individuals with special responsibility for the planning, implementation and outcome of strategic change’ (2007, p. 144).

In addition, one of the most comprehensive studies of the definition of change agent is that by Ottaway (1983). The author developed a taxonomy of change agents that involves ten types of change agents classified under three main categories, as shown in Table 3.6. However, Ottaway emphasises that only the first and second categories can affect the change process, which is the most important role of change agents (Buchanan and Body, 1992). Buchanan and Body (1992) remark that change agents’ roles fall into three agendas, namely the content of change (i.e. substance of the change such as software issues), the process of change (e.g. team building, managing resistance, and negotiation skills), and the control of change (e.g. scheduling, and budgeting). However, the authors assert that a time of strategic change (the concern of this research) is a ‘high vulnerability context’ (1992, p. 54) and hence

managing the process of change should be considered as the highest priority relative to managing the control or content of the change. Moreover, the process of change involves responsibilities relating to the concern of this research (i.e. dealing with change recipients' resistance), while the control and the content of change agendas may not necessarily be related to change recipients' resistance. Therefore, change agents who have roles related to the process of change were targeted to interview for this research.

Category of change agent	Subcategory of change agent
A) Change generators	Key change agents: those who first turn an issue into a felt need.
	Demonstrators: show their support for the change process.
	Patrons: generate financial and other support.
	Defenders: defend the actions of the earlier change agent in the change process.
B) Change implementers	External agents: those who are invited from outside an organisation to implement change.
	External/internal agents: department and/or group of the organisation who implement change in another group and/or department.
	Internal agents: implement change in their own group/department.
C) Change adopters	Early adopters: those who are first to adopt change; they link implementers and adopters.
	Maintainers: they adopt change while retaining their commitment to their work, even though their work roles change.
	Users: they use the outcomes (products and/or services) of the changed organisation. They are external users who are not member of the organisation while maintainers are members of the changed organisation (internal).

Table 3.6: Taxonomy of change agents as defined by Ottaway (1983) (Source: Author)

Consequently, in this research, change agents are defined as internal or external individuals from any hierarchal levels (e.g. leadership, and management) (Caldwell, 2003), whether generators or implementers of change (Ottaway, 1983), who have responsibility for managing the process of change (Buchanan and Body, 1992). Buchanan and Body (1992) identify fifteen attributes, categorised under five clusters, related to managing the process of change. These five clusters are 1) setting the project goals, 2) role specification, 3) communication, 4) negotiation, and 5) managing up. To do so empirically, these five clusters were formed in questions at the beginning of each interview to identify whether a particular

interviewee is a change agent according to the above definition and specified roles. The criteria used to identify change agents are listed in Table 3.7 below.

Interviewees who met the criteria defining them as change agents were asked the interview questions relevant to change agents, shown in Appendix 9. Otherwise, the interviewees were examined by the criteria designed to identify change recipients, which will be explained next. However, there were interviewees who experienced both change agent and change recipient roles during the change project. For example, an interviewee may be an agent of change and a recipient of the same change. When it is identified that an interviewee is also a recipient of change, the interviewee was informed that they have been both agents and recipients of change during the project, and then questions about change agents were asked and then questions about change recipients were asked as well. This is shown in Appendix 8.

<p>Criteria to identify change agents</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Setting the project’s goals (e.g. vision). b) Setting the agents and recipients role specification (e.g. team building and networking). c) Communication with the change recipients. d) Negotiation with the recipients (e.g. selling ideas). e) Political issues with the recipients (e.g. identifying potential coalitions, and dealing with resistance).
<p>Criteria to identify change recipients</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Change in job description. b) Work with different people. c) Work differently.

Table 3.7: Criteria to identify change agents and recipients (Source: Author)

B) Identifying change recipients

Scholars refer to an individual who is receiving change as a ‘change target’ (e.g. Mondros and Wilson, 1994, p. 142), a ‘change client’ (e.g. Zaltman and Duncan, 1977, p. 18), and a ‘change recipient’ (e.g. Armenakis et al., 2007, p. 482). However, a distinction needs to be made between a client of change and a change target (change recipient). Zaltman and Duncan (1977, p. 18) refer to the change target system as ‘the unit in which the change agent(s) is trying to alter the status quo such that the individual, group, or organisation must relearn how to perform its activities’. The authors define the change client system as ‘the

individual or group requesting assistance from a change agent in altering the status quo' (1977, p. 18). Therefore, change clients have fewer tendencies to exhibit resistance to a change they ask for. However, the change target (recipient) is challenging for a change agent to manage because of their potentially greater resistance (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). Therefore, this research focuses on the former definition, and employs the term change target or recipient to identify the recipients of change.

Jick (1990) describes how change recipients are affected by a given change. Jick reports that change recipients can be affected by change in their job description, change in the people or colleagues they work with, and/or change in the way they perform their work. Therefore, in order to identify whether an interviewee is a recipient of change or not, these three aspects of change in were employed as shown in Table 3.7.

Asking questions that identify whether a participant is an agent or recipient of change helps to ensure that the right participant is questioned, rather than realising at the end of an interview that the participant does not match the theoretical criteria defined in this section. The criteria needed to identify change agents and recipients as shown in Table 3.7 are formulated in the questions asked at the beginning of each interview (see Appendix 8).

3.6.7 Multiple Case Studies

A vital consideration in designing a case study is whether to select a single case or multiple cases. In general, a multiple case study, also called a collective case study (Stake, 1995), is more favourable than a single one (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). A single case study is feasible under a few circumstances. For example, a single case study is likely to be conducted when the case is unique, difficult to access, or a typical case (i.e. case to capture conditions of common place situation) (Yin, 2003). However, a multiple case study yields a more generalised, robust, and testable theory than a single case study (Benbasat et al., 1987; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1991; Yin, 2003). Thus, in this research, the case study employs multiple cases (Case A and B).

Unlike the number of respondents in a survey, which is based upon 'statistical sampling', the choice of selecting the number of cases in case study research is based upon 'theoretical sampling' (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). These authors

state that the aim of theoretical sampling is to expand or replicate the emergent theory. Yin (2003) emphasises that each selected case should either expect similar results (literal replication), or converse results but for predictable reasons (theoretical replication). For example, Stoddard and Jarvenpaa (1995) selected three cases (organisations) for theoretical replication purposes when investigating tactics for managing radical change. One organisation had incremental change, the second one had moderate change, and the third one had transformational change. The authors' goal was to understand the tactics that were used in the third case but not in the first and the second case. An example of literal replication is the investigation of Lapointe and Rivard (2005) into three hospitals that implemented the EMR system in order to understand resistance to the information system at group level. However, for this research, the type of replication is literal as the two selected cases have deployed the change successfully.

3.6.8 Time Horizon

A phenomenon can be studied at a particular time (snapshot or cross sectional) or over a given period (longitudinal), depending on the research question(s) (Saunders et al., 2007). For this research, the data about the selected cases were collected (semi-structured interviews and documents) at a particular time (cross sectional), at the late stages of the changes (see section 4.4 in Chapter Four for Case A and section 5.4 in Chapter Five for Case B). There was no need to collect evidence at more than one point of time, which longitudinal studies do, since the purpose of this research is to investigate the strategies employed to overcome change recipients' resistance to organisational change that can only be achieved by the completion of the change. Therefore, any data gathered at early or mid stages of the change may be misleading as the issues of resistance by change recipients are still not resolved.

3.7 Research Rigour

Judging quality, also known as trustworthiness, in qualitative case study research can be conceptualised into three criteria: validity, reliability, and transferability; and the methods to maximise quality are numerous with some overlaps between them. These criteria are important in reducing researchers' bias as well as informants' bias. Although the importance of these criteria to qualitative research varies (from most to least respectively are validity,

reliability, and transferability) (Bryman et al., 2008), many scholars (e.g. Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003) assert the role of each criterion in enhancing research quality. Table 3.8 demonstrates the methods employed in this research to enhance each of these three criteria and this will be explained next.

Methods to improve research quality	Validity	Reliability	Transferability
Members check: Respondents were asked to give their feedback on a summary interpretation of the interviews (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Maxwell, 2013, p. 126, Miles and Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995) (see Table 3.9).	√		
All interviews were audio recorded and fully transcribed which enhances descriptive validity (Maxwell, 1992)	√		
Data triangulation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Multiple sources of evidence were used: a) interviews, and b) documents (Yin, 36, Creswell and Miller, 2000) Interviewing both agents and recipients of change (Maxwell, 2013, 128, Ward and Street, 2010, Shenton.PDF, 4.4) 	√	√	
Case study protocol (Yin, 2003) (see Table 3.3)		√	
Establishing a chain of evidence (Yin, 2003)		√	
Using existing theories: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The theoretical criteria of the unit of analysis are based on a theory (punctuated equilibrium theory), which supports the transferability (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003) Linking the findings to existing literature as shown in Chapters Four and Five, which enriches the validity (e.g. using scheme by Coetsee (1999) of defining different modes of change recipients' resistance) (Eisenhardt, 1989; Shenton, 2004) 	√		√
Thick description: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Of the context enhances transferability (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Jensen, 2008; Shenton, 2004) and of data collection process enhances reliability (Shenton, 2004) It also improves validity (Creswell and Miller, 2000) 	√	√	√
Purposeful sampling by interviewing change agents and recipients who are closely associated with the change programs studied (Jensen, 2008)			√
Prior to each interview, all informants were assured that the information will be kept confidential and anonymous which encourages gaining honest answers (Shenton, 2004)	√		

Table 3.8: The criteria for the research design quality (Source: Author)

3.7.1 Validity

Validity refers to the ‘correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account’ (Maxwell, 2013, p. 122). Scholars divide the validity concept into internal and external validity (e.g. Yin, 2003; Yue, 2010), however the latter is a synonymous with transferability, which is considered as a separate criterion (Ondercin, 2004). Maxwell (1992) categorises validity in qualitative research into descriptive (what is said), interpretive (what it means), and theoretical validity (i.e. appropriateness of explanation as a theory). Alternatively, authors (e.g. Shenton, 2004) suggest ways to enrich the validity of qualitative research as a whole without referring to any type of validity.

For this research, several methods to enhance the validity were employed, as illustrated in Table 3.8. Every respondent in Case A and Case B received a summary of the researcher’s interpretation of their own interview to provide feedback on the research and comments where applicable. An example of a summary sent to an interviewee is shown in Appendix 11. However, not all informants have provided feedback on their interviews as Table 3.9 indicates. This method is called a ‘members check’ (Maxwell, 2013, p. 126), which many scholars (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Maxwell, 2013; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995) assert that it enhances the validity of qualitative research. In particular, the member check method improves the validity of qualitative research in terms of interpretive validity (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995) by ensuring that the interpretation of the researchers matches the ones of the informants.

Interviewees reference from Case A		Interviewees reference from Case B	
C1A1		C2A1	
C1A2	√	C2A2	√
C1A3	√	C2A3	
C1R1		C2A4R1	√
C1A4R2	√	C2R2	√
C1A5		C2R3	√
C1R3	√	C2R4	√
C1R4	√	C2A5R5	
C1A6R5		C2R6	
C1R6	√	C2A6R7	√
C1A7R7	√	C2A7	
C1A8R8		C2A8	√
C1R9		C2R8	√
C1R10	√	C2R9	
		C2R10	
		C2R11	√

Table 3.9: Interviewees from Case A and Case B who responded to their interview summary (Source: Author) (**Note:** √ indicates where relevant interviewees responded to their interview summary).

The other method employed to enhance the validity of this research is the use of an audio recorder. All the interviews in this research were recorded and transcribed (with prior permission from the interviewees), which enriches the descriptive type of validity (Maxwell, 1992). Maxwell reports that by recording interviews, researchers ensure that what they interpret is that which their interviewees reported.

Moreover, data triangulation such as using different sources of evidence and informants, is a method of improving the validity of qualitative research (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Maxwell, 2013; Shenton, 2004; Ward and Street, 2010; Yin, 2003). For this research, the data was triangulated in terms of the sources of evidence. As reported earlier in this chapter, besides the semi-structured interview as a method of gathering evidence, related documents about the cases were collected. Furthermore, the data was also triangulated in respect of the informants. The informants interviewed in this research are those who were change agents of the changes in the cases selected, and recipients of the change representing different levels in the organisational hierarchy and different teams, as reported in Chapters Four and Five. This

data triangulation also enhances the reliability of qualitative research, which will be explained in the next subsection.

Linking research findings to existing theories enhances the validity of qualitative research (Eisenhardt, 1989), particularly the theoretical type of validity to which Maxwell (1992) refers. Eisenhardt (1989, p. 545) states that ‘tying the emergent theory to existing literature enhances the internal validity, generalisability, and theoretical level of theory building from case study research’. For this research, the data given by the interviewees is defined and matched by relevant literature. For instance, the definition by the informants of the different modes of change recipients’ resistance they experienced is interpreted by the researcher based upon the scheme by Coetsee (1999). The link between the findings and existing theories and how the findings were interpreted will be explained thoroughly in the data analysis section in this chapter.

A further method that enriches the validity of qualitative research is what scholars refer to as thick description (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Jensen, 2008, Shenton, 2004). By providing as many details as possible about the case being studied, these scholars assert that the compatibility between the data gathered and the context where from which it is collected will be supported, which, therefore, enhances the validity of the data. For this research, as will be introduced in Chapters Four and Five, background information about the cases studied, the content and impact of the changes, and the recipients of the changes are explained in detail. Also, thick description supports the reliability as well as the transferability of qualitative research, as will be introduced in the subsequent sections.

Lastly, assuring informants about the confidentiality of the information they give is vital in enhancing the validity in qualitative research (Shenton, 2004). Shenton observes that informants are more likely to report real information and this reduces the level of bias in the data gathered from them. For this research, prior to each interview (see Appendix 7), every informant was assured that their names would be kept anonymous and the information they give would be handled confidentially.

3.7.2 Reliability

A further criterion of judging qualitative research quality is the reliability of the data collection process, which is also known as repeatability, and/or dependability (Miller, 2008). Scholars define reliability of qualitative research as the extent to which the results and conclusions from a case study can be reproduced if conducted by a different researcher (Miller, 2008; Ward and Street, 2010; Yin, 2003). For qualitative research, there are methods reported by scholars that enhance the reliability.

The first method is the triangulation of data, which is mentioned in the earlier validity section. This method, as asserted by a number of scholars (Maxwell, 2013; Ward and Street, 2010; Yin, 2003), enhances the reliability of qualitative research by reducing researcher's bias, which then makes the research more likely to produce similar results if conducted by other researchers.

Developing a case study protocol is also a method of increasing the reliability of research (Yin, 2003). As shown in Table 3.3 earlier in this chapter, a protocol of how the data was to be gathered was developed. By following the protocol, the possibility of other researchers reaching similar conclusions to this research is enhanced (Yin, 2003).

Also, establishing a chain of evidence (Yin, 2003) is a method of improving the reliability of case study research by enabling readers to trace the research from its question(s) all the way to its conclusions and vice versa. For this research, the following actions were performed to establish the chain of evidence Yin (2003) reports. Each item of information reported in the cases studied (Chapter Four for Case A and Chapter Five for Case B), was linked to a relevant reference, whether an interview or a document, which allows readers to follow the research from the report to the sources of evidence. The sources of evidence are explained in the relevant case report. The criteria of sampling the informants and the empirical questions they were asked are explained in this chapter. This was led by the research question introduced in the previous chapter.

The final method to improve the reliability of this research is writing a rich description in terms of the data collection process (Shenton, 2004). This method is called thick description as mentioned in the previous subsection. For this research, a deep description of the unit of

analysis, the theoretical sampling, and the empirical questions are all provided in this chapter.

3.7.3 Transferability

The last criterion by which to judge qualitative research design is the transferability of its findings. Transferability in qualitative research, also known as generalisability (Eisenhardt, 1989), and external validity (Yin, 2003), refers to the extent that the results of the research is applicable to other settings and situations (Jensen, 2008). Scholars report several methods that support the transferability of qualitative research.

The transferability of a qualitative research case study can be enhanced by employing a theory in defining the case (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). Yin (2003, p. 33) states that ‘the use of theory, in doing case studies, is not only an immense aid in defining the appropriate research design and data collection but also becomes the main vehicle for generalising the results of the case study’. For this research, the cases selected, which are organisations that conducted a radical, planned change, are defined based upon punctuated equilibrium theory as explained in the unit of analysis section of this chapter.

A further method employed in this research to improve its transferability is thick description (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Jensen, 2008, Shenton, 2004). These scholars assert that by providing rich description of the context in which the cases are studied, the results are more likely to be transferable. For this research, the use of thick description is explained earlier in validity and reliability sections

Including informants who are closely involved in the case under investigation is a further means of supporting the transferability of qualitative research (Jensen, 2008). For this research, informants, whether change agents or change recipients, were close to the cases studied. The selection of informants was based on theoretical criteria explained earlier in this chapter. This includes the program directors of changes in Case A and Case B, as well as the primary change recipients.

3.8 Pilot Study

An essential step prior to collecting any data is doing a pilot case study. Yin (2011; 2003) explains that a pilot study helps researchers to test and refine data collection plans in terms of both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed. In addition, a pilot study may provide some clarification for the research design. However, selecting pilot cases are based on the case accessibility. Importantly, pilot study reports need to be explicit about the lessons learned for both field procedure and research design (Yin, 2003). For this research, two studies (pre pilot and pilot studies) were conducted. Many lessons were learned from these studies, including identification of the cases (unit of analysis), identification of the informants, the interview process, documents collection, data analysis and categorisation, and conclusion drawing.

An interview with a change manager in an organisation in the UK was conducted as a pre pilot study six months prior to the real study. After conducting the pre pilot study, it was realised that there is a need to ensure that the cases selected match the theoretical criteria of the unit of analysis defined in this research. Thus, although the interviewee considered the change program in his organisation to be radical, the change was not so according to the defined unit of analysis. This revealed that people might have different understandings of what constitutes radical change. Therefore, prior to selecting a case, collecting documents about the potential cases was essential in order to examine whether the project is radical or not according to the definition of the unit of analysis for this research.

Moreover, conducting the pre pilot study was useful for the researcher to formulate criteria to identify change agents and recipients. It was recognised that by relying on the informants to identify themselves as agents or recipients of change, the researcher may not target the right informants, and therefore, the gathered data would be irrelevant. Consequently, by introducing questions prior to every interview in order to ensure that the informant is relevant to the case being studied was fundamental (see theoretical sampling section in this chapter for details).

Approximately three months after the pre pilot study and the reflective lessons learnt from it, a pilot study was conducted with two interviewees to ensure that the real study was ready to be conducted. Both interviewees are change managers who work in different organisations in

the UK. The study was beneficial mainly for analysing the data and drawing conclusions. In terms of the former, the study was useful for practising data analysis using the computer assisted qualitative data analysis software, NVivo10 (Silver and Lewins, 2014) as well as categorising data into the relevant categories. This was a necessary exercise in warming up and familiarising the researcher with categorising the data that would be gathered from the real study, especially the analysis of the data from the real study which needed to be performed as soon as the data is gathered (Saunders et al., 2007).

Additionally, the pilot study was useful in terms of formulating conclusions from the data collected. This is the most important purpose of conducting pilot study because if no conclusions can be drawn at this stage, which contribute to existing studies, then the same situation is likely to occur after gathering data from the real study. After the data from the pilot study was analysed, the findings were discussed in relation to the current literature in order to examine the potential contribution that could be made by the real study.

3.9 Data Analysis

For analysing qualitative data, Maxwell (2013, p. 105) states that ‘there is no cookbook or single correct way for doing qualitative data analysis’. In fact, the analysis process overlaps with data collection (Eisenhardt, 1989; Fitzgerald and Dopson, 2009; Miles and Huberman, 1994). However, scholars note that there are several common steps in analysing qualitative data. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that the steps are data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing. Yin (2011) reports five steps, which are compiling data, disassembling, reassembling, interpreting, and concluding. For analysing multiple case studies, Eisenhardt (1989) identifies two stages. The first is analysing within each case, which will be explained in this section, the second is cross case analysis, which will be introduced in Chapter Six. Within each case in this research, the steps to analyse qualitative data are organising, interpreting, and concluding as shown in Figure 3.4. However, these three steps of data analysis are iterative (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2011). Each of the steps is explained in the following subsections.

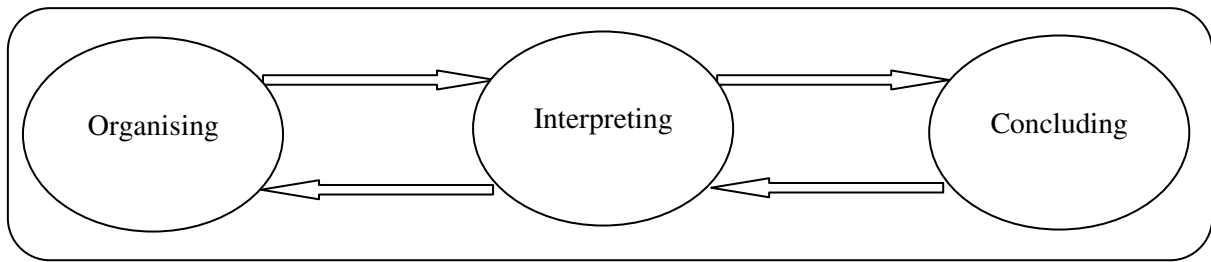


Figure 3.4: The three steps of within case data analysis for this research (Source: Author)

3.9.1 Organising

The first step of analysing data in this research is organising the data. As explained earlier in this chapter, each interview was audio recorded. Since there are large amounts of data (in the form of text) collected from interviews and documents, re-reading, re-listening, and transcribing the data, which also enhanced familiarity with the data, was the starting point (Eisenhardt, 1989; Robson, 2011). Each interview was fully transcribed as soon as it was completed using Microsoft Office Word. Both hard and soft copies of each document and interview were saved in secure places. As will be described in Chapters Four and Five, a unique reference has been assigned to each interview and document collected in order to establish an index for the sources of all the data gathered. Subsequently, the transcribed interviews, as well as the collected documents, represented the database of the research, which was regularly saved and backed up (Yin, 2011). This established a chain of evidence and therefore helps to enrich the reliability of the research (Yin, 2003) as explained earlier in this chapter.

Prior to the revolution of technology, the traditional method of handling qualitative data was using manual techniques (Yin, 2011). However, due to the difficulty of handling large amounts of data, the new technology provides assistive computer software for qualitative research in the form of Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) (Silver and Lewins, 2014). An example of CAQDAS is NVivo, a recent version of which was used in this research (NVivo10). NVivo software serves as a tool for undertaking and analysing qualitative data. It does so by enabling researchers to categorise and store data, manage ideas, query data, create graphical models of the concepts emerged, and report on the data (Bazeley, 2007). Any CAQDAS software can facilitate the analysis process, however, the analysis per se is the responsibility of researchers. As Yin states (2011, P. 180) ‘you have to do all the analytic thinking’. All the transcribed files and documents collected

for this research were imported into NVivo10 in order to handle the data effectively ready to start the interpretation process, which will be explained next.

3.9.2 Interpreting

The qualitative data gathered in this research is in the form of text, and therefore strategies for analysing text are applicable. Scholars report various strategies for text analysis. These strategies are grounded theory, discourse analysis, narrative analysis, and thematic analysis (Bernard and Ryan, 2010; Robson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2007). As the approach of conducting grounded theory research is inductive, the strategy of analysing the data by this strategy depends on open coding that the concepts and patterns emerge from the data without defining categories or themes in advance (Robson, 2011). This is in contrast with this research in which there are predefined themes and categories prior to gathering any data, as will be explained later in this section. Unlike the interest of this research, discourse analysis strategy is appropriate when the focus of the research is on the language rather than the meaning. This is what Robson (2011, p. 372) observes with regard to discourse analysis ‘the language itself is the focus of research interest’. Narrative analysis strategy, which is also known as story-telling analysis, is appropriate for research concerned with the sequence and consequence of events or activities experienced by people. Hence, this strategy of analysing qualitative data rejects the fragmentation of text into categories that thematic analysis follows (Saunders et al., 2007).

Thematic analysis strategy represents the way the data is analysed for this research. Thematic analysis produces a subjective interpretation of data by categorising chunks of text into categories and subcategories in order to reach meaningful conclusions (Saunders et al., 2007). For this research, the data are categorised under themes, which are called organisational categories (Maxwell, 2013), and then each theme is further divided into subcategories, which Maxwell (2013) refers to as theoretical categories. Coding is the essential process in thematic analysis (Lapadat, 2010). As there are themes that are defined prior to collecting data, the coding in this research analysis is pre-defined rather than post-defined (Bernard and Ryan, 2010; Miles and Huberman, 1994). Miles et al. (2014, p. 71) define codes as ‘labels that assign symbolic meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study’. The authors report that the codes are used to categorise chunks of data in order for the researchers to retrieve quickly the analysed data

that relates to a particular theme or construct. Figure 3.5 below represents the thematic analysis process conducted for this research. Qualitative data analysis software such as NVivo, which is the one used in this research, is appropriate for thematic analysis strategy (Gibbs, 2014).

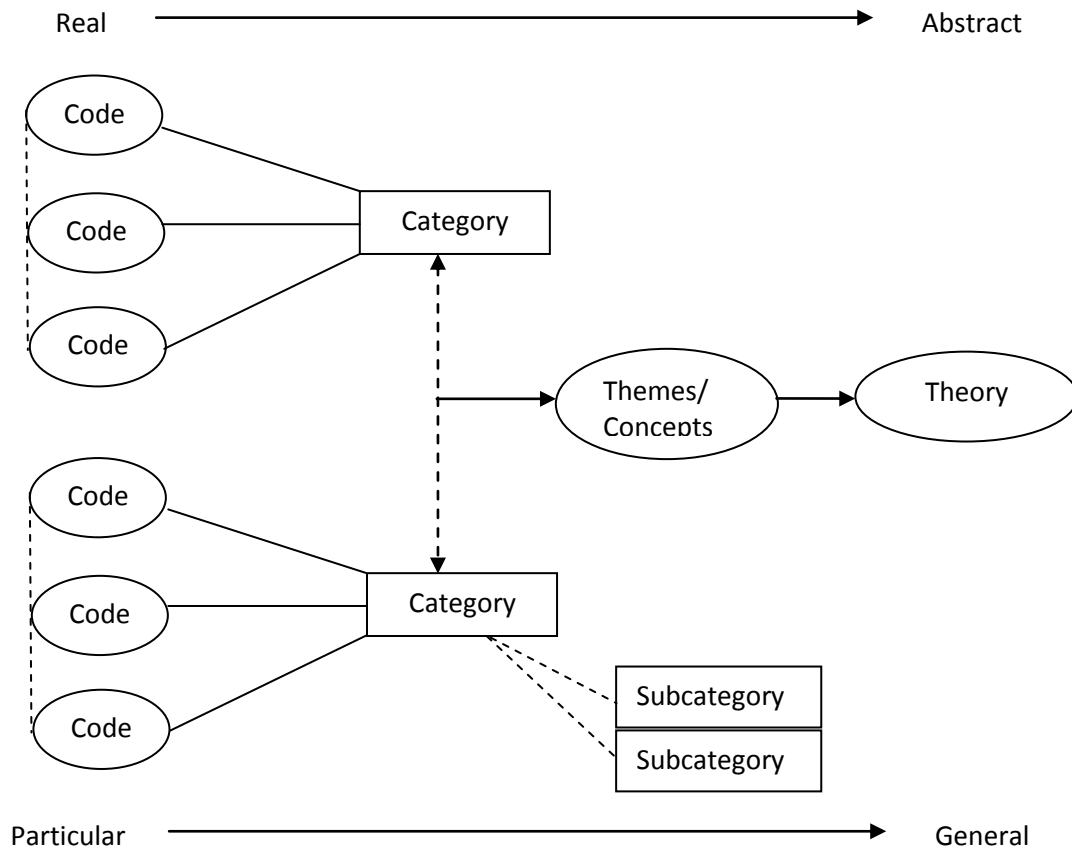


Figure 3.5: A streamlined codes-to-theory model for qualitative inquiry (Source: Saldana, 2013, p. 13)

For this research, every empirical question is related to a correspondence theme (see Appendix 9). These themes are organisational reorientation, the recipients of the change and their salience in relation to it, the modes and sources of the recipients' resistance to the change, and the strategies to overcome the recipients' resistance. The organisational reorientation theme is about the context of the change, which is defined in the unit of analysis section. This involves subcategories, namely the organisation's strategy, structure, culture, distribution of power, and control systems (i.e. the organisation's deep structure). The second theme involves the change recipients identified by informants as well as their

levels of power, legitimacy, and urgency in relation to the change. The third theme concerns change recipients' levels of resistance and the causes of their resistance. This theme involves subcategories related to the modes of the change recipients based upon the scheme by Coetsee (1999): apathy, passive, active, and aggressive resistance. Also, the same theme includes the sources of change recipients' resistance. These are categorised according to the status quo bias theory, which consists of eight categories of sources: loss aversion, net benefits, transition costs, uncertainty costs, sunk costs, social norms, regret avoidance, and control. The last theme is the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change. This involves strategies such as coercion, negotiation and agreement, facilitation, and persuasion. Table 3.10 below shows the main categories (organisational) and the subcategories (theoretical) of analysing the data within a case. Examples of these categories with the relevant sections of text from the interviews are illustrated in Appendix 12.

The deep explanation of the categories and how they have been formulated from the literature will be presented in the following section in this chapter.

Organisational category	Theoretical category
Organisational reorientation	Based upon organisational deep structure component of punctuated equilibrium theory: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strategy - Structure - Culture - Distribution of power - Control systems Planned organisational change
Change recipients' salience in relation to change	Change recipients Change recipients' salience to change, which involves their level of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Power - Legitimacy - Urgency
Levels and sources of change recipients' resistance to change	Levels of resistance: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Apathy - Passive - Active - Aggressive Sources of resistance: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Loss aversion - Net benefits - Transition costs - Uncertainty costs - Sunk costs - Social norms - Regret avoidance - Control
Strategies to overcome the recipients' resistance to change	Involves strategies such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coercion - Facilitation - Persuasion - Education - Negotiation and agreement

Table 3.10: Organisational and theoretical categories of data analysis (Source: Author)

The coding and re-coding process in this research was iterative. The texts were coded into subcategories and then categorised to the relative theme. This process is called disassembling and reassembling (Yin, 2011), which is also referred to as first cycle and second cycle (Saldana, 2013). The interpretation step stops when meaningful conclusions are drawn as will now be discussed.

3.9.3 Concluding

The analysis process continues until meaningful conclusions are drawn, therefore, Miles and Huberman (1994) and Yin (2011) regard concluding as the last stage of data analysis. For this research, the iteration between data interpretation and conclusion steps reached its end when fruitful findings were formulated that provide answers to the research question. The

full presentation of the findings will be introduced in Chapters Four and Five. However, the next paragraph will show an example of a finding through which the analysis reached a conclusion.

Figure 3.6 represents an example from Case B, which shows the relationships amongst the themes identified in the previous subsection (see Table 3.10). The figure shows the strategies employed to deal with change recipients' resistance from Case B. The analysis process continued until all the themes in the figure were fulfilled. The analysis of each relevant theme proceeded by linking texts to the relevant categories and subcategories as explained in the previous subsection.

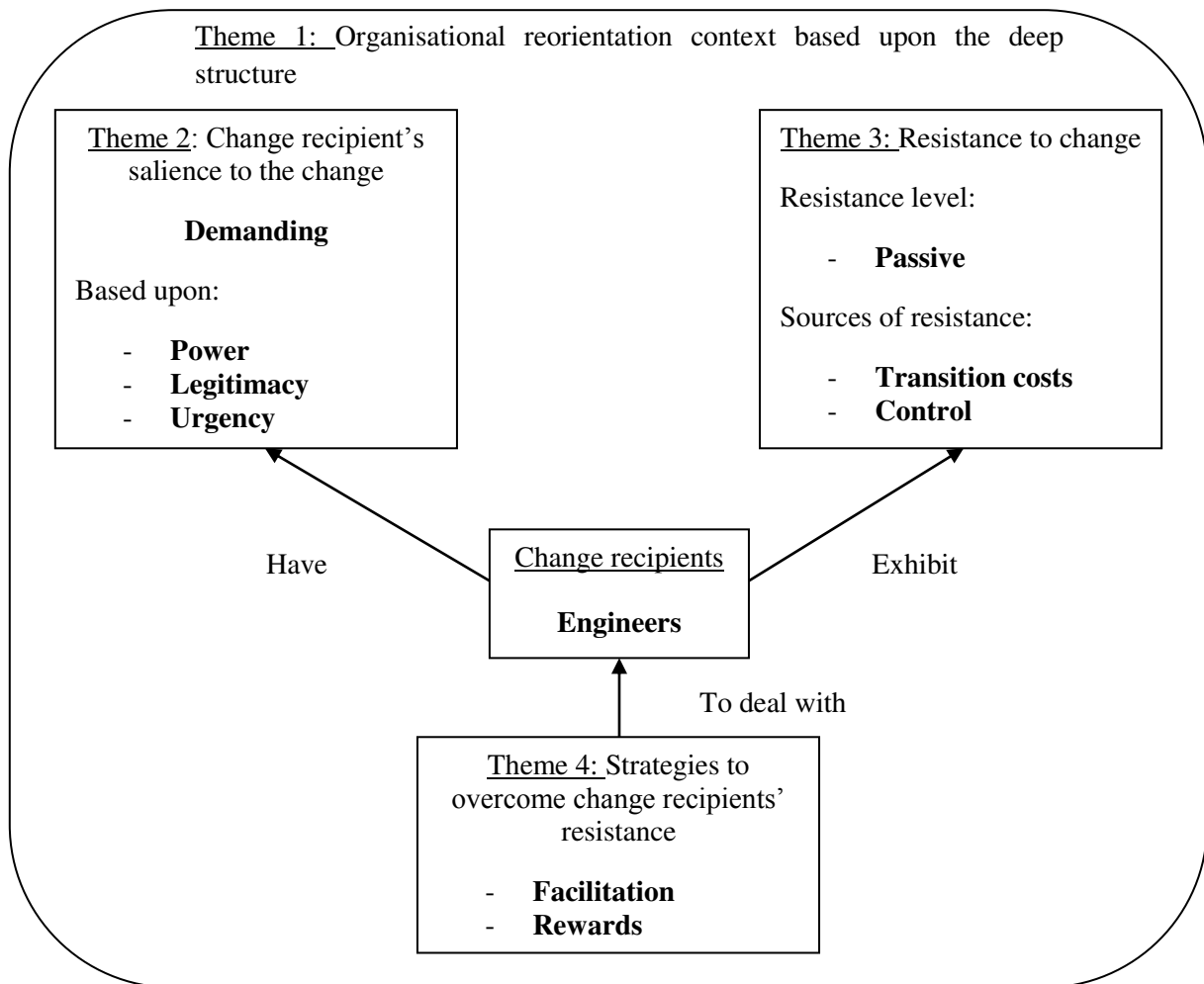


Figure 3.6: Example of a finding from the data analysis showing the relationships amongst the themes (Source: Author)

The conclusion step reached the end when all the required data were collected and fruitful conclusions about the research are formulated which the writing stage about the findings starts as will be explained in the reporting section in this chapter.

3.10 Defining the Themes for Data Analysis

The previous section reports that the themes the data are categorised into are organisational reorientation, change recipients' salience in relation to change, modes and sources of change recipients' resistance to change, and strategies to overcome their resistance. This section will show how these themes are defined from the literature by reference to which the data collected from the cases are interpreted and the empirical questions are developed, as shown in Appendix 9.

3.10.1 Organisational Reorientation

As defined in the literature review chapter, organisational reorientation is a type of organisational change that is radical and planned (Nadler and Shaw, 1995). The empirical definition of organisational change is when at least three components of the organisation's deep structure are altered. These components are the organisation's strategy, structure, culture, distribution of power, and control systems (Gersick, 1991). For this theme, as shown in Appendix 9, the informants were asked questions about the influence of the organisational change on each of these components. For instance, a change in an organisation's vision and/or mission is considered as a modification of the organisation's strategy (French et al., 2011). Moreover, downsizing and/or upsizing of an organisation's workforce is regarded as an alteration of the organisation's structure (Cameron and Orton, 1995). The organisational reorientation theme is further explained in the unit of analysis section in this chapter with an example of a study that investigated the deep structure component shown in Table 3.4.

3.10.2 Change Recipients' Salience in Relation to Change

Several studies have investigated the stakeholder salience theory at organisation level (e.g. Myllykangas et al., 2010; Agle et al., 1999), at project level (e.g. Boonstra and Govers, 2009; De Vries, 2009), and at a departmental level (e.g. Guerci and Shani, 2013). The salience theory attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) are a socially-constructed type of reality rather than an objective measure, because for example, being powerful in one situation does not necessarily mean being so in another (Mitchell et al., 1997). For this

research, both change agents and recipients were asked to specify the salience of change recipients to a given change based on the recipients' power, legitimacy, and urgency. The following subsections define the power, legitimacy, and urgency attributes employed in this research.

A) Levels of power

Power can be enforced by many sources outlined in the literature review chapter, such as a position in the organisational hierarchy. However, irrespective of the triggers of power, the concern in this research is with the level of power. Stakeholder power has been defined in studies that examine the stakeholder salience model by applying the same definition that Mitchell et al. (1997) employ (i.e. Dahl, 1957). For example, power is defined as the capacity of stakeholders to exert their will over a department (human resources) in an organisation (Guerci and Shani, 2013) and over a project (Boonstra and Govers, 2009). In this research, power is defined as the capacity of change recipients to exert their will over a change program.

With respect to the level of a stakeholder' power, it has been classified into three levels (e.g. Mayers, 2005; Savage et al., 1991) and four levels (e.g. Bourne, 2005). Bourne's classification of power differentiates between formal and informal power, which is less relevant to this research since power is considered as a separate attribute from legitimacy, as explained in the literature review chapter. In some situations, a stakeholder who has informal power can be perceived by management as occupying a higher level than another stakeholder who has formal power. Savage et al. (1991) categorise levels of stakeholder power into more, equal, and less than the management's level of power, but without defining what each level means.

The three levels of power used by Mayers (2005) were employed in this research because they are clearly defined to distinguish between different levels. Therefore, change recipients hold a high level of power when their power over the change program is such that it can stop the change, as found in studies by Lapointe and Rivard (2005) and Lofquist (2011). A moderate level of power is the extent that change recipients can cause difficulty for change agents to achieve the objectives of the change, such as delay it, without being able to stop the change. Otherwise, the power of change recipients is regarded as minimal (i.e. they can

neither stop nor delay the change). As Mitchell et al. (1997) explain, it is important to note that power in this research is independent from legitimacy. For example, although a change recipient may have the power to stop a change, the change recipient does not necessarily have the legitimacy to do so.

The three levels of power employed in this research to define change recipients' power over a given change are listed below:

- i) The change recipients' power can stop the change.
- ii) The goals of the change can probably be achieved against the change recipient's opposition, but not easily (i.e. they can delay the change).
- iii) The change recipient's power over the change is minimal.
- iv) Other please specify.

The informants were given a choice to explain the level of power that a change recipient holds if the levels defined above were not adequate to express their thoughts.

B) Levels of legitimacy

The definition of legitimacy in stakeholder salience theory (Mitchell et al., 1997) employs Suchman's (1995) definition of legitimacy. However, Suchman states 'it will operate differently in different contexts, and how it works may depend on the nature of the problems for which it is the purported solution' (1995, p. 573). For instance, in family firms, Mitchell et al. (2011, p. 244) define legitimacy as 'possessing status conferred by birth and/or relationship-based privilege,' which is inappropriate in general business cases. Stakeholder salience, including legitimacy, has been investigated in projects and change programs (e.g. Boonstra and Govers, 2009; Boonstra, 2006) within organisations. These studies employ Suchman's (1995) definition of legitimacy with reference to project or change programs. Suchman's definition is also employed in this research to define legitimacy. Locating the definition in the context of organisational reorientation will be explained in the subsequent paragraphs.

Legitimacy refers to the relationship between two entities (Suchman, 1995), which for the purposes of this study is between change recipients and a change program. In the context of organisational change, this relationship is about change recipients' participation in the

change. The rationale of participation has one or both of moral (humanistic) and pragmatic (instrumental) dimensions (Black and Gregersen, 1997), which are the two main bases of legitimacy (Suchman, 1995).

A conceptual framework of participation in organisations has been developed by Dachler and Wilpert (1978). They assert that of participation consists of the dimensions: the democratic (moral base) and productivity and efficiency (instrumental base). . Participation in organisations can take different forms: formal and informal participation, direct and indirect participation, and access to decision making (Dachler and Wilpert, 1978). In the context of organisational change, the last form of participation, which concerns participation in terms of the degree of access to decision making, is what matters most according to Judson (1991) and Lines (2004). Additionally, in comparison to other forms of participation identified in this subsection (i.e. formal vs. informal and direct vs. indirect participation), taking account of participation in terms of access to decision making provides clearer distinctions between the levels of participation in a change by change recipients. This enables the specification of levels of the recipients' legitimacy to a change program.

Levels of participation in decision-making can range from informing stakeholders to having final decision-making authority (Black and Gregersen, 1997). Change recipients who are not permitted to participate in the change at all (i.e. they are not provided information about the change) can be regarded as disinterested recipients. Nevertheless, they may still have power attribute. Therefore, the higher level of change recipient participation in the change, the higher moral and/or pragmatic legitimacy perceived by change managers, and therefore the higher the level of change recipient legitimacy. This research is concerned with the level of legitimacy a change recipient holds irrespective of what types (bases) of legitimacy are perceived by change managers.

Black and Gregersen (1997, p. 862) and Dachler and Wilpert (1978, p. 14) classify levels of participation to access decision making into six levels. These are 1) no advance information is given to employees about a decision; 2) employees are informed in advance; 3) employees can give their opinion about the decision to be made; 4) employees' opinions are taken into account; 5) employees can negatively or positively veto a decision; and 6) the decision is completely in the hands of the employees. However, levels one and six in the classification of Black and Gregersen (1997) and Dachler and Wilpert (1978) are unlikely to be present in

the context of radical change. With regard to the former, communicating with change recipients to provide awareness of the change vision and the like is fundamental for change initiators. For the latter, the final decision regarding change is in the hands of top management and/or change agents rather than the recipients. However, although this classification scheme is intended for members within an organisation (employees), the same scheme is appropriate for stakeholders (i.e. inform, consult, involve, collaborate, and empower (Bryson, 2004)), which includes change recipients.

The decisions that organisational members are permitted to participate in need to be specified (Cordery, 1995). In the context of organisational change, change recipients can participate in the formulation and/or implementation of change (Meyer and Stensaker, 2006; Morris and Raben, 1995). Consequently, the definition of legitimacy by Suchman (1995) is modified here and is understood as the participation of change recipients in the formulation and/or implementation of organisational change, where their participation is seen as proper/legitimate/permitted by managers. Subsequently, the four levels at which change recipients' are permitted to participate in organisational change are:

- i) Veto a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation change.
- ii) Have a vote in decision regarding formulation and/or implementation change but cannot veto.
- iii) Be asked to give their opinions about a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation change, but they do not have vote.
- iv) Be only informed about a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation change without giving opinions.
- v) Others please specify.

C) Levels of urgency

Unlike legitimacy, which may differ in its definition from one context to another (Suchman, 1995), urgency is more straightforward. Several studies (Boonstra and Govers, 2009; Bourne, 2005; De Vries, 2009; Guerci and Shani, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2009 Yang et al., 2011) have investigated stakeholder urgency in organisations. These studies employed Mitchell et al.'s definition (1997) of urgency, which was defined in the previous chapter. For instance, Boonstra and Govers (2009) and Nguyen et al. (2009) define stakeholder urgency as the degree to which the stakeholder's request needs immediate attention from the

project team. In this research, urgency is defined as the level to which the demands of a change recipient require immediate attention from change agents.

In respect of levels of urgency, Guerci and Shani (2013) and Yang et al., (2011) used an objectivist scale to measure the level of stakeholder urgency. Boonstra and Govers (2009) and De Vries (2009) consider the existence or absence of stakeholder urgency without distinguishing between its levels. Bourne (2005) classifies levels of stakeholder urgency into five levels, each of which has a definition. However, levels three and four are defined by reference to whether the planned action is needed in the short term or medium term respectively. These terms vary from one person to another as short term can be seen as one week by one individual, but this same time frame may be seen as medium or long term by another person. Level two is defined as urgent action is warranted within current work commitments. This level is very close to the first level, where immediate action is warranted irrespective of other work commitments, and therefore, respondents may hardly distinguish between them. To avoid this ambiguity, level two was slightly modified to include planned action is warranted instead of urgent action. The three levels of change recipients' urgency to a change are the following:

- i) Immediate action by change agents was warranted, irrespective of other work commitments.
- ii) Planned action by change agents was warranted outside routine communication.
- iii) There was no need for action by change agents outside routine communications.
- iv) Other, please specify.

Attribute level	Definition
Power	
High power	The change recipients' power can stop the change
Moderate power	The goals of the change can probably be achieved against the change recipient's opposition, but not easily (they can delay the change)
Low power	The change recipient's power over the change is minimal
Legitimacy	
High legitimacy	Veto a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change OR Have a vote in decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change but cannot veto
Moderate legitimacy	Be asked to give their opinions about a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change, but they do not have vote
Low legitimacy	Be only informed about a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change without giving opinions
Urgency	
High urgency	Immediate action was warranted for change agents, irrespective of other work commitments
Moderate urgency	Planned action was warranted outside routine communication
Low urgency	There was no need for action outside routine communications

Table 3.11: Definition of levels of power, legitimacy, and urgency (Source: Author)

Table 3.11 shows the definitions of different levels of power, legitimacy and urgency. According to Mitchell et al., (1997), a stakeholder is regarded as possessing an attribute if the stakeholder had a high level of that attribute. Likewise, in this research, those who have a high level of power, legitimacy, and/or urgency are considered under that attribute. Therefore, those who have moderate or low level of a relevant attribute are considered as missing that attribute. However, the classification of stakeholders by Mitchell et al. (1997) is criticised by Mainardes et al. (2012) who report that Mitchell et al. (1997) only consider high and low levels of the attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) neglecting to classify those

who have a moderate level of an attribute. Therefore, in this research, to differentiate between those who have a moderate level of power, legitimacy, and urgency and those who have a low level, the former are considered as expectant change recipients while that latter are regarded as latent. Table 3.12 illustrates the demarcation of different classes of change recipients.

Salience class	Definition based on power, legitimacy, and urgency
Definitive change recipient	All attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) are high
Dominant change recipient	Both power and legitimacy are high, but urgency is moderate or low
Dangerous change recipient	Both power and urgency are high, but legitimacy is moderate or low
Dependent change recipient	Both legitimacy and urgency are high, but power is moderate or low
Dormant change recipient	Power is high, but both legitimacy and urgency are moderate or low.
Discretionary change recipient	Legitimacy is high, but both power and urgency are moderate or low.
Demanding change recipient	Urgency is high, but both power and legitimacy are moderate or low.
Expectant change recipients	All the attributes' levels are moderate OR two of the attributes' levels are moderate and the other is low
Latent change recipients	Only one of the attributes' level is moderate, and the others are low OR all the attributes' levels are low

Table 3.12: Demarcation scheme of change recipients' salience to organisational change (Source: Author)

3.10.3 Modes and Sources of Change Recipients' Resistance to Change

In this section, the definitions from the literature of the modes and sources of change recipients' resistance employed in this research are explained. These definitions are important to interpret the data gathered from the cases studied.

In the literature review chapter, different categories of levels of resistance are identified from resistance to change literature. The taxonomy of the levels by Coetsee (1999) is employed in this research, as justified in the previous chapter, to classify change recipients' levels of

resistance. Figure 3.7 illustrates the four levels of resistance identified by Coetsee (1999), which have been applied in studies investigating resistance to change (e.g. Lapointe and Rivard, 2005). These levels are apathy, passive, active, and aggressive resistance.

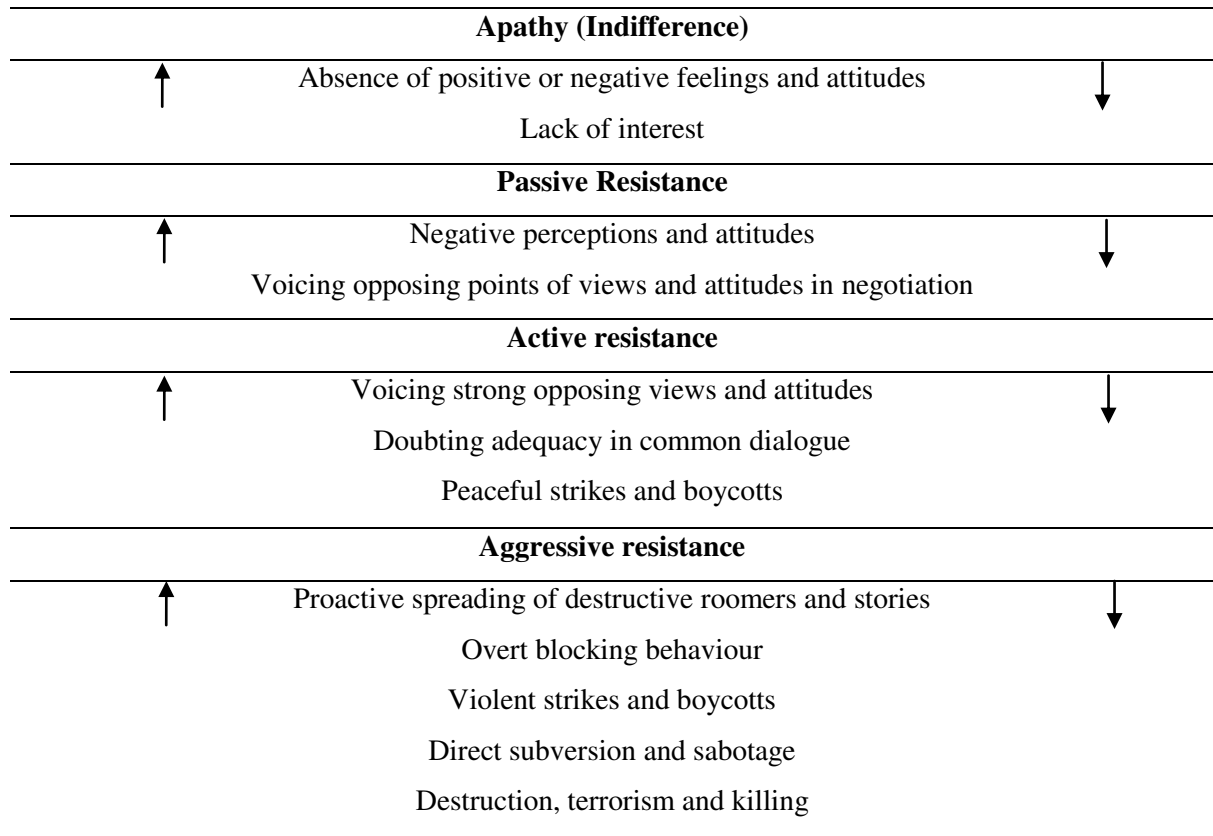


Figure 3.7: Nature of resistance to change (Source: Coetsee, 1999, pp. 207-208)

Informants were asked to describe the level of resistance exhibited by change recipients. Then, the description of the resistance exhibited by a group of change recipients was interpreted in relation to the modes shown in Figure 3.7. For instance, the level of those who are not enthusiastic about the change is regarded as apathy resistance while those who try to slow down the change are regarded as active resisters.

However, the resistance exhibited by change recipients was analysed not only in terms of the levels (Coetsee, 1999) but also with regard to the source of resistance. For instance, two groups of change recipients may exhibit the same level of resistance (e.g. passive resistance), but one of them resist the change because of uncertainty while the other may do so because of a lack of perceived benefits from the change. Therefore, strategies to manage the two groups can differ accordingly. Consequently, asking informants why change recipients

exhibited resistance to change was important to ensure that the sources and rationale behind the resistance was explored.

The status quo bias theory by Samuelson and Zeckhauser (1988) introduced in the literature review chapter provides a comprehensive explanation of why change recipients resist a given change, which is justified and explained deeply in the literature review chapter. The theory is employed to explore the reasons for change recipients' resistance. For instance, the lack of perceived necessity of the change by change recipients is classified under the net benefits category of the theory while the lack of ability and skills is classified under the control category. Table 3.13 shows the categories of sources of resistance that individuals may experience and the related definitions of each category.

Source of resistance category	Definition
Loss aversion	Individuals give higher weight to losses than gains
Net benefits	Individuals perceive the costs of change as greater than the benefits
Uncertainty costs	Individuals are uncertain about the change process or consequences
Transition costs	Individuals perceive the change as costly per se
Sunk costs	Individuals lose something valuable such as skills and prestige that cannot be regained
Social norms	Individuals resist change due to conformity with other individuals
Control	Individuals fear losing control over their situation such as their inability to perform with the new ways of working
Regret avoidance	Individuals try to avoid making decisions similar to the ones they have experienced as negative

Table 3.13: Definitions of the sources of resistance based upon status quo bias theory (Source: Author)

3.10.4 Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' Resistance to Change

The last theme by which the empirical questions are organised and the data gathered from the field is organised, is the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance. For this theme, informants were asked questions about the strategies employed to cope with change recipients' resistance to change. This theme is deeply explained in the literature review

chapter. However, the concern in this subsection is how the data about a particular strategy is interpreted.

The explanation of the strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance is introduced in the previous chapter (see Table 2.3). This explanation enables the researcher to match the data reported by informants to the relevant strategy. This is may be fairly straightforward. For example, data that involves the notion of persuasion such as 'convince' is interpreted as a persuasion strategy. A further example is that data that includes words such as 'force', 'pressure', and 'have to' is interpreted as coercion strategy. However, this is not necessarily always the case. Informants may not mention words that are synonyms or have similar meanings to the strategy they mean. Therefore, the explanation of the data about a strategy is considered. For instance, improving change recipients' skills and abilities in order to adapt to new ways of working is regarded as a facilitation strategy in the literature (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). Hence the meaning of the data is what links it to the relevant strategy even though this data may involve words that seem to be related to other strategies.

3.11 Reporting

The final report of the findings is presented when all the required data are gathered and analysed, and it is at this stage that a meaningful conclusion about the research is formulated. The iteration process between the data gathering and data analysis continues until the interviewees mentioned the same thing about the themes identified in the data analysis section. Unlike quantitative research, which is based on statistical sampling, in qualitative research the sampling criteria is theoretical, and therefore the ending point of gathering data is when learning from cases becomes minimal, a situation that is called 'theoretical saturation' (Eisenhardt, 1989; MacQuarrie, 2010; Sandelowski, 2008).

For this research, the data was collected until the theoretical saturation point was reached and no further theorising results were emerged. To increase the likelihood of reaching the saturation point, MacQuarrie (2010) suggests researchers should consider the level of sampling. According to the author, the more relevant the participants to the research under investigation, the more likely researchers can reach the saturation point, which is the case in this research. As will be thoroughly explained in the cases (Chapters Four and Five), the

participants were interviewed for this research, including the directors of the change programs, were of high relevance.

Following on from this, describing how the findings are presented is an important last step of any research design (Saunders et al., 2007). As reported in the case study protocol, Cases A and B are independently presented in the following two chapters respectively, which Miles and Huberman (1994) refer to as a case-ordered descriptive matrix. For each, the description of the case and the findings from it are reported. The structure of the report is based upon the themes by which the data was analysed. First, each chapter starts by describing the organisations and the context of the case. Next, the context of the case as well as why the case was considered in this research is reported (organisational reorientation theme). After this, the change recipients and their salience to the change are introduced (change recipients' salience to the change theme). Subsequently, the modes and sources of the identified change recipients' resistance to change are presented (change recipients' modes and sources of resistance to change theme). Finally, the strategies employed by change agents to cope with the change recipients' resistance are presented.

Since this research involves qualitative data, the use of quotes is essential (Sandwolski, 1994). According to the author, quotes represent evidence of qualitative research by supporting claims made by researchers. For this research, quotes with reference to the source (interviewees and/or documents) are reported by considering the confidentiality of the research, in which all the names including the organisations and the informants are kept anonymous. Punctuation marks and their description used in reporting the quotes from the case studies in this research are kept consistent with what is commonly written in standard English language (MLA Handbook, 2009), as shown in Table 3.14.

Punctuation mark	Description
Quotation marks “ ”	For quoting speech of what informants mention as well as what reported in a document
<i>Italics</i>	To distinguish the quote reported by the informants and/or documents, from other sentences
Square brackets []	To add words and/or phrases in a quote for explanation
Marks of omission . . .	Three spaced dots used to show a pause by the informants
Marks of omission between square brackets [. . .]	Three spaced dots between square brackets used to show something that has been omitted by the researcher in a quote that is irrelevant

Table 3.14: The punctuation marks and their description used in the reporting quotes (Source: Author)

3.12 Ethical Considerations

Since this research is empirical and obtains primary data, considering research ethics is fundamental (Yin, 2011). The ethical guidelines issued by Brunel University were followed, and an approval from the Ethics Group in the university was granted. The guidelines include forms, namely a company confidentiality form, as well as a participant information sheet. All the information about the cases studied, including the names of the organisations and the names of the participants was handled confidentially. As explained in the data analysis section, a reference number was assigned to each interviewee and document and the researcher is the only one who knows to whom these references belong. For instance, C1A1 represents change agent number 1 in Case A. The real names of the participants were written on the hard copy sheet kept with the researcher.

3.13 Summary

This chapter explains the research methodology employed in this research in order to answer the research question. The chapter starts by identifying the position of this research within a subjectivist philosophical paradigm. By defining organisational reorientation as the unit of analysis, a qualitative case study is adopted as the methodology of this research to understand the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation. Besides gathering documents about the change in the cases selected, semi-structured interviews are the sources of evidence. Both change agents and change recipients

are included in the sampling approach based upon criteria defined in the sampling section. The collected data were analysed by a thematic analysis strategy with the assistance of the NVivo10 software. The software was used to categorise data to make it more manageable for the researcher. However, it was the researcher's responsibility to read, interpret, and make decisions regarding the analysis and the themes under which the gathered data fitted. The criteria regarding the enhancement of the research design quality are reported as validity, reliability, and transferability and the tactics used to support these criteria are discussed. The subsequent chapters will present the findings from the cases selected in this research.

CHAPTER FOUR: CASE STUDY A

4.1 Introduction

Following the methodology chapter which explains the research design, including the unit of analysis, the data collection methods, and the sampling criteria, this chapter presents the findings of the first case (Case Study A). The chapter commences by introducing the case: an organisation that conducted a reorientation program recently. Subsequently, the reorientation program will be described, showing why the organisation was relevant as a case in this research. The terms transformation and change will be used interchangeably throughout this chapter and the following one to in relation to the reorientation programs in Case A and B. Next the data sources (semi-structured interview and documents) will be explained. The remaining sections are categorised by themes (change recipients' salience to the change, the levels and sources of their resistance, and the strategies conducted to deal with their resistance) derived from the theoretical framework developed in the literature review chapter. The last section summarises the findings from Case A.

4.2 Case Study A: Background Information

Case study A is a sub-organisation of a larger (parent) organisation that is responsible for offering local access network and last mile services in the UK, which consists of fibre and copper connections between exchange boxes and homes and businesses. The larger organisation employs approximately 30,000 people and consists of four main sub-organisations, of which Case study A is one. Case study B, which will be introduced in the next chapter, forms another part.

Case study A employs approximately 3000 people who plan the Copper, Fibre Next Generation Access (NGA) and Ethernet networks that enable telephony offerings by Communication Providers (CPs). The organisational structure in Case A consists of a director who is the head of the organisation. For each of the production units (Copper, Fibre NGA, and Ethernet networks), there are three tiers of management: a general manager, senior operation managers, operation managers, and a number of team members who are

network designers (but who were split into planners and surveyors after the change). A senior operation manager is responsible for a geographical region and his/her operation managers are assigned to a smaller geographical area. An operation manager leads about twenty team members who plan and survey copper or fibre networks.

The problems that the management in Case A experienced are clearly reported in documents such as C1D1 and C1D5 (see section 4.3 for details) that the researcher was given, by a senior change manager in Case A, before conducting the interviews. The situation of Case A prior to the transformation was described as turbulent. There were numerous issues in the Case A that can be categorised as: poor at managing people, inefficient processes, inappropriate data and technology, and unhappy customers. This is stated in document C1D5 below describing the main issues before the transformation:

“Poor knowledge management and knowledge transfer between teams [. . .] Poor customer service [. . .] Poor availability of data [. . .] Antiquated systems and tools in places [. . .] Inconsistent roles and responsibilities [. . .] Fragmented site strategy.”
(C1D5)

Although the work of network designers in different regions is the same, the procedures and practices varied in different regions, which undermined best work practices. There was a lack of knowledge management and transfer between team members. The management was facing difficulty in tracing end-to-end customer focus. Moreover, an overall strategy for premium customer service was absent. The software systems used in Case A were also outdated. Therefore, Case A was considered to have an inefficient operating environment. This, and the need for cost reductions, provided the impetus for the change. The background information above is from documents (C1D1, C1D5, and C1D6), which are explained in Table 4.4 in the next section. However, prior to explaining the transformation in Case A, the data sources gathered in relation to the case will be introduced.

4.3 Sources of Evidence

Semi-structured interviews (14 interviews) and relative documents (7 documents) about Case A are the sources of evidence for the case. All the interviews were conducted in a face-to-face mode. Four interviewees were classified as change agents, six as recipients of the

change, and four as both agents and recipients of the change. Table 4.1 shows the informants' profile in Case A, which involves an identification number that makes every respondent unique in this case as well as the next (Case B). The number indicates the case number (1 for Case A and 2 for Case B), and whether they were agents and/or recipients of the change. The interviewees were categorised as agents and/or recipients of change based on their responses to criteria that are derived from a taxonomy developed by Buchanan and Boddy (1992) for change agents (see table 4.2) and Jick (1990) for change recipients (see Table 4.3). Both have been explained in the theoretical sampling section in the methodology chapter (Chapter Three).

Respondent ID	Role in the organisation	Role in the change	Agent and/or recipient of the change
C1A1	Head of change for the parent organisation	The change design team leader	External change agent
C1A2	Change management consultant for the parent organisation	Program director	External change agent
C1A3	Senior business improvement manager for the parent organisation	Design team member	External change agent
C1R1	Fibre planner	None	Recipient
C1A4R2	Copper operation manager	Design team member	Internal change agent and recipient
C1A5	Senior change manager for the parent organisation	Change management team member	External change agent
C1R3	Fibre surveyor	None	Recipient
C1R4	Fibre surveyor	None	Recipient
C1A6R5	Fibre operation manager	Design team member	Internal change agent and recipient
C1R6	Copper planner	None	Recipient
C1A7R7	Copper operation manager	Team manager	Internal change agent and recipient
C1A8R8	Copper planner	Gold user	Internal change agent and recipient
C1R9	Copper surveyor	None	Recipient
C1R10	Copper surveyor	None	Recipient

Table 4.1: Respondents' profiles in Case A (C1 refers to Case A; A refers to agent; R refers to recipient) (Source: Author)

Unlike other respondents who are internal to Case A implementing the change, C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A5 are change agents who are external to the case in which the change was implemented; however they are internal to the parent organisation of Case A, which Ottaway (1983) describes as external/internal change agents.

Respondents	Criteria to identify respondents as change agents *				
	A	B	C	D	E
C1A1	Very high	Very high	High	High	Very high
C1A2	Very high	High	High	High	High
C1A3	Very high	None	High	Very high	Moderate
C1R1	None	None	None	None	None
C1A4R2	Very high	High	High	High	High
C1A5	Very high	High	Very high	Very high	Very high
C1R3	None	None	None	None	None
C1R4	None	None	None	None	None
C1A6R5	Moderate	Moderate	Very high	Very high	High
C1R6	None	None	None	None	None
C1A7R7	None	None	Moderate	High	Moderate
C1A8R8	High	Moderate	low	low	Low
C1R9	None	None	None	None	None
C1R10	None	None	None	None	None
* From Very high, High, Moderate, Low, to None, the interviewees' responses the following:					
A	Setting the project's goals (e.g. vision)				
B	Setting the agents and recipients role specification (e.g. team building and networking)				
C	Communication with the change recipients				
D	Negotiation with the recipients (e.g. selling ideas)				
E	Political issues with the recipients (e.g. identifying potential coalitions, and dealing with resistance)				

Table 4.2: The interviewees' responses to identification as change agents in Case A (Source: Author)

Respondents	Criteria to identify respondents as change recipients *		
	X	Y	Z
C1A1	None	None	None
C1A2	None	None	None
C1A3	None	None	None
C1R1	High	High	Very high
C1A4R2	Low	None	High
C1A5	None	None	None
C1R3	High	High	High
C1R4	High	Moderate	High
C1A6R5	None	High	High
C1R6	Very high	Very high	Very high
C1A7R7	Very high	Very high	Very high
C1A8R8	Low	High	High
C1R9	Moderate	Low	Moderate
C1R10	High	High	High
* From Very high, High, Moderate, Low, to None, the interviewees' responses the following:			
X	The job description of the respondent has changed		
Y	The respondent had to work with different people		
Z	The respondent had to do their work differently		

Table 4.3: The interviewees' responses to identification as change recipients in Case A (Source: Author)

To simplify the answers in the above tables, Figure 4.1 shows four quadrants in which four interviewees are agents of the change and are involved in deploying it, six interviewees are recipients of the change as they were affected by it without involvement, and four interviewees are both. People who fit in the quarter that is neither involved nor affected are not considered as they are not included in the theoretical sampling of this research.

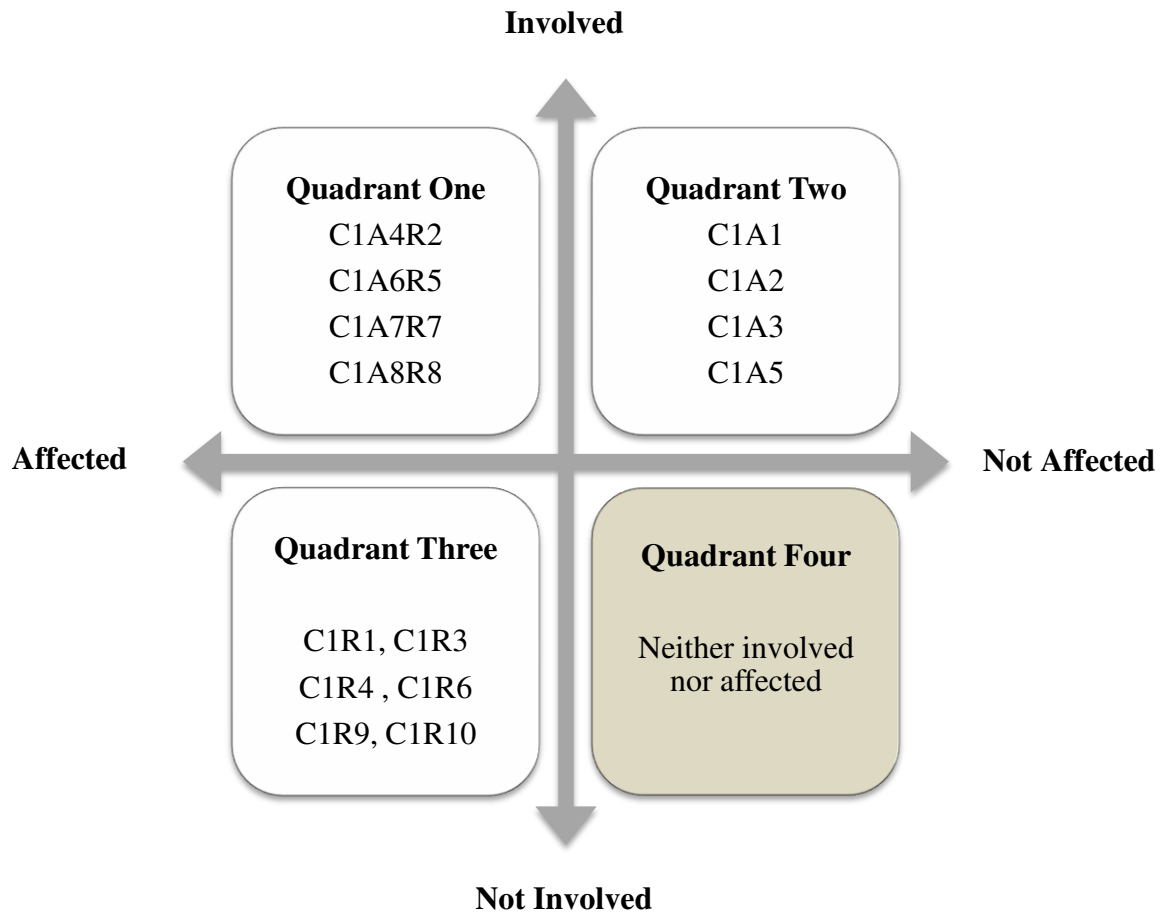


Figure 4.1: Informants' relationship to the change in Case A (Source: Author)

Besides interviews as a source of data for Case A, relevant documents were gathered. The description of each document including an assigned identification number is illustrated in

Document ID	Description
C1D1	A modified document (for confidential purposes) that briefly describes the Case A and why change was necessary.
C1D2	A guideline document which suggests how sponsorship should be spread at all levels in Case A.
C1D3	Describes how organisational members may respond to the change prior delivering it.
C1D4	Explains the compliance approach that should be used prior the change.
C1D5	Describes the situation in Case A prior to the change, why the change was necessary, and what the change is about.
C1D6	A web page of the parent organisation.
C1D7	Timeline of the vision and the implementation of the change.

Table 4.4: Description of the relevant documents from Case A (C1 refers to Case A, D refers to document) (Source: Author)

4.4 Reorientation Program and the Organisation's Deep Structure

4.4.1 Reorientation Program

After intensive investigation, the top management and the change agent team discovered an opportunity to transform the organisation (i.e. Case A) into new ways of working and therefore a new vision was created. This was achieved by a collaborative approach in planning the transformation. The change agents interviewed and surveyed numerous change recipients at all levels (the director, the general managers, the senior operation managers, the operation managers, and the team members) in order to gather information about what needed improvement. The main aims of the transformation in Case A were improving efficiency and reducing costs (C1A2, C1A6R5, C1A8R8, C1D5). The change commenced with a vision developed in June 2012 by a team of change agents and selective members of the organisation, including the operation managers and the team members, and the major completion was in March 2014. The interviews were conducted from July 2013 until February 2014. During this period, most of the change had been implemented, including roles of team members being split into two, downsizing, and the introduction of new information systems (C1A2, C1A5, C1A6R5, C1D7).

The transformation that Case A underwent is about a new operating model. Alongside this, several information systems were implemented to support the new model of working. Pre-transformation, the team members (i.e. network designers) used to do both planning and surveying work, which was considered a hindrance to the efficiency of their work. Therefore, the role of the network designers has been split into two, either planner or surveyor (C1A1, C1D5).

Furthermore, a network designer used to hold responsibility for a job (order) from the beginning to the end (from order initiation to customer, or closer). However, after the transformation which introduced standardised processes, planners and surveyors can pick up an order that has not been completed (by using relative software) and then complete it or do part of it (product oriented) (C1A5R6, C1R6, C1R10).

By improving the efficiency within Case A, several employees (about 400) from the levels of network designers, operation managers, and senior operation managers have been moved outside Case A, but remain within the parent organisation. Therefore, a smaller number of people now need to continue doing what was being done prior to the staff reduction. This means that operation managers and senior operation managers manage bigger patches (areas) compared to the situation pre-transformation (C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A6R5).

The above paragraphs describe what the transformation in Case A is about. The following subsection explains the impact of the transformation on the organisation's deep structure.

4.4.2 Organisational Deep Structure

As stated in the methodology chapter, the unit of analysis of this research is a radical change that altered at least three of the five components of the deep structure of an organisation (strategy, structure, culture, distribution of power, and control systems (Gersick, 1991)). This is compatible with the type of change in Case A as summarised in Table 4.5 next.

Deep structure component	Factor	Deep structure in relation to the change	References
Strategy	Organisational vision (French et al., 2011)	New vision has been developed	C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A5, C1D5
Structure	Work processes (Cameron and Orton, 1995)	Network designers' roles have been split into two (i.e. planners or surveyors)	C1A3, C1A4R2, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1R9, C1R10, C1D5
		Operation managers and senior operation managers have to manage bigger patches	C1A3, C1R6, C1A7R7, C1R9, C1R10
	Organisational size (Cameron and Orton, 1995)	Downsizing: About 400 employees were made redundant	C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A6R5, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R9, C1R10
Culture	Values and beliefs of organisational members (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985)	The culture has been shifted from: Job for life to career for life	C1A3, Doc 5
		Inflexible to flexible organisation	C1A5, C1R4, C1D5
		Siloed to networking environment	C1A4R2, C1R10, C1D5
Distribution of power	Power distribution among organisational members (Gersick, 1991)	Minimally impacted	C1A1, C1A2, C1R1, C1A4R2, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1A7R7, C1R10
Control systems	Process control (French et al., 2011)	Standardised work processes for team members	C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1R6, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1D5
	Output control (French et al., 2011)	New metrics have been created	C1A3, C1A4R2, C1R1, C1A6R5, C1R3, C1R4, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R10, C1D5

Table 4.5: The impact of change on the organisation's deep structure in Case A (Source: Author)

In respect of the organisation's strategy, a new vision has been developed. After investigating the situation of the organisation by conducting focus groups, interviews, and questionnaires with all levels of the organisation's members (C1D2), the change agents' team developed the future direction of the organisation (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A5, C1D5). The new vision statement is as follows:

“We help our customers grow and prosper by planning the UK's best networks, supporting our people to deliver tomorrow's service today.” (C1D5)

The structure of the organisation has been shifted to a great extent. The hierarchal structure remains the same, yet the work processes and the number of employees, which are components of an organisation's structure (Cameron and Orton, 1995), have been changed. Regarding the work processes, the network designers after the transformation became either planners or surveyors when they used to do both roles (C1A3, C1A4R2, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1R9, C1R10, C1D5), as reported by an operation manager:

“The structure of planning itself has completely changed. Whereas we had 90 individuals that all did their own thing, and all used to do everything on that one circuit, now we've split them. Now we've got 60 people specifically sat, office based, in front of two screens, doing the design and creating a solution for the end user, for the customer. And you've got 30 surveyors running round in vans, taking photos of boxes and holes and poles and cables, whatever, and customers' internal wiring. So the actual structure has changed dramatically, from how we used to know what planning was.” (C1A6R5)

Moreover, the network designers used to have ownership of their tasks. In other words, the network designers used to be responsible for an order from the beginning to completion. However, after the transformation, an order is completed by at least two members (i.e. a planner from the office, and a surveyor from the field), whereas the network designers used to do both office and field works (C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1R9, C1R10). A team member said:

“[. . .] the planner would then take ownership of the job completely, decide what needed doing, when we could do it, how much was it, how much money was involved,

whether the costs were applicable to the customer, or whether we should be doing it free of charge. All those decisions were made by the planner, who would then project manage the job from start to finish, and push the work to wherever he thought it appropriate.” (C1R6)

Alongside with the work processes, numerous employees (from team members, operation managers, and senior operation managers’ levels) have been made redundant. This has led the team members, the operation managers, and the senior operation managers to continue their work yet for larger patches (i.e. geographical areas) compared to pre-transformation (C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A6R5, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R9, C1R10). For instance, a team member noted:

“We’ve got three times the area than what we used to have and less people. There were eight and we’re down to two now.” (C1R9)

In terms of the organisational culture, some of the values and beliefs of the organisation’s members have been transformed. For example, pre-transformation it was embedded within the organisations’ members that they have ‘job for life’, that no one could ask any member to leave the organisation. Some employees had been working in the organisation for 30 years. However, as a consequence of the transformation, the ‘job for life’ culture has been shifted to ‘career for life’ (C1A3, C1D5). As mentioned in document C1D5:

“Given current and future resourcing requirements, we know that we will need to encourage a ‘career for life’ rather than a ‘job for life’. This will help to build a greater degree of flexibility in our overall resourcing strategy.” (C1D5)

In addition, there has been a shift in terms of the perception of the organisation’s members to their organisation. Unlike the period prior to the transformation, the transformation made the employees consider their organisation as more flexible in respect of achieving jobs. For instance, if a planner or surveyor goes on annual leave and has not completed the job, anyone in the country can take on that job (by using relative software) and complete it (C1A5, C1R4, C1D5). A team member pointed out:

“But, the problem was if we went on leave for a few weeks then it would get stuck in delay a little bit and it would be a bit harder to find the information. Whereas now anyone in the country can pick up a job and continue to work with it. [. . .] But, I think the idea that we are more flexible is certainly better for the customer and better for us in the long run.” (C1R4)

Also, the culture of the organisation has been migrated from a siloed to a networking environment. Unlike after the transformation, team members used to work locally in their areas without interaction with other team members. For example, as explained earlier, a network designer used to do both planning and surveying work and would complete a job from beginning to end. However, the work process after the transformation requires planners to do part of a job and surveyors to complete the other part. Furthermore, the planners and the surveyors can be in different regions (one in the north and the other in the south) and also from different teams. This enables team members to interact with each other nationally (C1A4R2, C1R10, C1D5). An operation manager remarked:

“[. . .] it's not so much a siloed environment, it's very much a networking, national environment whereas before it was very cocooned in that office, so you know they have to adopt and change these individuals to interact with a lot of different people now whereas they never before.” (C1A4R2)

With regard to the distribution of power in the organisation, the transformation had minimal impact on it. Notwithstanding the team members who lost ownership over their jobs, which is regarded as a loss of power, it has not been regarded as a major shift in power within the organisation (C1A1, C1A2, C1R1, C1A4R2, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1A7R7, C1R10). An operation manager commented:

“I don't think the distribution of power has really changed. The actual management structure as such hasn't changed. So you've still got our GM [General Manager], which is general manager, you've still got your senior operations managers, which are the Layer 5. And then, underneath the GM you'll have about four or five what we call SOMs [Senior Operation Managers], which is senior operations managers. The GM covers the whole of the country, then the SOM covers his region, so you'll have a Scotland one, a central one, a south and a London one, so there's four SOMs. Then

each SOM will have four or five operations managers which is what I am. So the actual distribution of power as such hasn't changed, it hasn't changed at all, it's just what happens underneath the operations managers that's changed.” (C1A6R5)

The final component of the deep structure is the control systems, which have been affected in terms of process controls and output controls (French et al., 2011). For the former type of control, the organisation standardised the work processes for the planners and the surveyors. For instance, pre-transformation the way the network designers used to do their work varied in terms of the templates they used to enter survey information. However, by dividing the network designer's role into two (i.e. planner or surveyor) and implementing new and updating existing information systems (e.g. E-Survey) to support team members, the organisation is now able to make the work processes of the team members standardised at a national level (C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1R6, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1D5). A team member stated:

“What happened previously was different surveyors had different job templates to fill in so there was no standard nationally so they've now implemented E-Survey in a bid to get everything standardised, so no matter which part of the country you work everybody's information they put on is standardised, so that's what E-Survey was aimed at.” (C1A8R8)

The standardised work processes enable the organisation to measure outputs differently (from informal to formal measures). The performance of the team members used to be left to their own managers (i.e. operation managers) who judged the performance of their team members based on how many orders the members completed. Conversely, after the transformation, new metrics of measuring the planners and the surveyors have been developed and standardised at a national level. For instance, a survey takes approximately four hours to complete, so if a surveyor works 36 hours per week, then the surveyor is expected to finish nine surveys minimum, otherwise the surveyor is considered as being ineffective (C1A3, C1A4R2, C1R1, C1A6R5, C1R3, C1R4, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R10, C1D5). This is reported by an operation manager:

“[. . .] before we just say, right, completions, that's it, how many completions have you done today. Now, yes we look at the completions but we also take into account how

effective they are over that 36 hours. So every task is then broken down into a time. So if they're doing a survey task it'll be four hours, for instance. If they do nine four hour tasks in a week, nine four are 36. That means they've been 100 per cent effective. If, for instance, they've done nine survey tasks, and they've taken their van in for service and picked the van up, and they'll get an absence of an hour for each time, that hour each time or the two hours for that, will get taken off their 36. So actually they've only actually been effective for 34 hours, but they've done nine surveys in 34 hours, so that makes them slightly more than 100 per cent effective. That's what we've gone to now.” (C1A6R5)

This is also asserted by a team member:

“Before when we were doing the job as a whole, there wasn't really anything in place in terms of direct performance. Now you've got like I say, for us it's the amount of surveys we do, the desk space planners it's so many key tasks within Cosmos [i.e. an Information System] so they have to do so many job packs or preliminary planning tasks, so they need to complete so many of those per week whereas we didn't really have that before the transformation.” (C1R3)

From above, it is noticeable that four components of the deep structure (strategy, structure, culture, and control systems) have been altered, which matches the definition of the unit of analysis of this research. However, a further criterion of the unit of analysis is change that is planned (Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Seo et al., 2004; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) as defined in the methodology chapter. The transformation in Case A was considered by change agents as a planned change, the decision for the initiation of which was decided in advance by evaluating the situation of the organisation and setting its future direction. The change agents' team worked with the organisation's director and members of the organisation to identify existing problems and opportunities for improvements (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1A7R7). As asserted by a senior change manager:

“When benchmarked to other similar organisations, we were in the lower quartile, so that created the burning platform, the urgent need if you like, so from that absolutely the change is planned and it was planned as not a short term intervention, small pieces of work. It was planned as a transformation with a capital T in that we need to work

out carefully what the vision is, decide on a manageable chunk of interventions that would take us on a first few steps towards that vision and then go and do the change interventions.” (C1A5)

Consequently, the type of transformation in Case A can be regarded as reorientation (Nadler and Tushman, 1995), which is the focus of this research.

4.5 The Change Recipients and their Salience to the Change

In this section, the change recipients of the change in Case A will be identified. Subsequently, the recipients’ salience to the change will be described, including their power, legitimacy, and urgency in relation to the change.

4.5.1 The Change Recipients

The recipients of the transformation were from every level in the organisation ranging from the director, the general managers, the senior operation managers, the operation managers, and down to the team members as shown in Table 4.6.

Change recipients	Aspect of change in job	References
The director	Work differently: The responsibility for the efficiency, costs, and productivity of the organisation.	C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1A6R5
General managers	Work differently: Reduction in number of people in their teams.	C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1A6R5, C1R9
Senior operation managers	Work differently: Reduction in number of people in their teams, yet manage larger areas. Work with different people: As a result of downsizing, some operation managers moved to work under different senior operation managers.	C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1R9, C1R10

Operation managers	<p>Work differently: Reduction in number of team members yet manage larger areas. Also, being managers of either planners, or surveyors.</p> <p>Work with different people: Reduction in number of team members and moving some of them under different operation managers.</p>	C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1R1, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R9, C1R10
Team members	<p>Job description: Split into two roles (either planner or surveyor).</p> <p>Work differently: Do only planning or surveying yet for larger areas.</p> <p>Work with different people: Planners and surveyors work together on one product.</p>	C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1R1, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R9, C1R10

Table 4.6: The change recipients of the change in Case A (Source: Author)

The director was considered as a recipient of the change as the figures and numbers produced about the organisation is the direct responsibility of the director to ensure that the organisation works at its best performance (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1A6R5). An operation manager reported:

“But the overall change does impact him [the director] in terms of his numbers, his you know costs, his efficiencies, his productivities [. . .]” (C1A4R2)

For the general managers, they were regarded as recipients of the change as they had to deal with the consequences of changes in their teams. The reduced amount of senior operation managers, operation managers, and team members has affected the general managers in terms of ensuring the work within their teams yields better performance but with fewer people (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1A6R5, C1R9). A change design team member mentioned that:

“[. . .] ensuring the processes and systems support the planning organisation to minimise the impact as the people leave, there are not gaps left behind.” (C1A3)

In terms of the senior operation managers, they are regarded as change recipients for two reasons. First, some of them were made redundant which affected the senior operation managers in terms of reducing their number in the organisation. Second, a number of the senior operation managers' teams (who are operation managers) were made redundant as well. Therefore, these two reasons meant that the senior operation managers became responsible for managing larger geographical areas with a fewer number of teams (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1R9, C1R10). A team member noted:

“As people leave the business, or leave the group, they will still have to get the same level of performance with a fewer number of people stretched over a greater area.”
(C1R10)

Similarly, the operation managers have been affected in the same way as the senior operation managers. However, the operation managers were additionally affected in terms of the type of teams they manage. In other words, the operation managers became responsible for managing either planners or surveyors, when they used to manage both roles. All respondents considered the operation managers as change recipients. As an operation manager remarked:

“Because since the transformation, we all had a team of mixed people, so you had design and survey. Now, I just concentrate on survey, so all my guys are all surveyors.” (C1A6R5)

Last but not least of the recipients of the change are the team members who were the most affected by the change (i.e. their job description has changed, have to work differently, and work with different people (Jick, 1990)). Alongside the operation managers, all respondents regarded the team members as recipients of the change. The team members were impacted in terms of their job description as they used to be called network designers who do both planning and surveying, but their jobs have been split into either planning or surveying. Consequently, the team members work differently; planners are required to work and interact with surveyors to complete each part of the job, which was not the case before the change. Moreover, in the same manner as senior operation managers and operation

managers, team members became responsible for doing their work for larger geographic areas than before. Two team members stated that:

“So the people that the change has happened to is obviously us as planners, we’ve been split into surveyors and what they call design planners which are the office based planners.” (C1R3)

“So sometimes you’ll get eight different hand-offs to the same job, so you get eight pairs of hands all touching the same job whereas previously we just do the job. There’d be one person dealt with it from when the job was born to when the job got put in the ground and the job was done.” (C1R10)

This subsection has identified the change recipients of the change in Case A. The following subsection explains the salience of each group of recipients in relation to the change.

4.5.2 The Salience of the Change Recipients

Based upon the three attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) of the salience theory (Mitchell et al., 1997), the identified change recipients were measured in terms of their salience to the transformation in their organisation, as explained in the methodology chapter (see Chapter Three Tables 3.11 and 3.12). Figures 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 show the levels of change recipients’ power, legitimacy, and urgency to the change respectively. However, some of the interviewees, in particular the operation managers, are not aware of the power, legitimacy, and urgency of some of the change recipients (i.e. the general managers, and the senior operation managers), and therefore the interviewees could not comment on this.

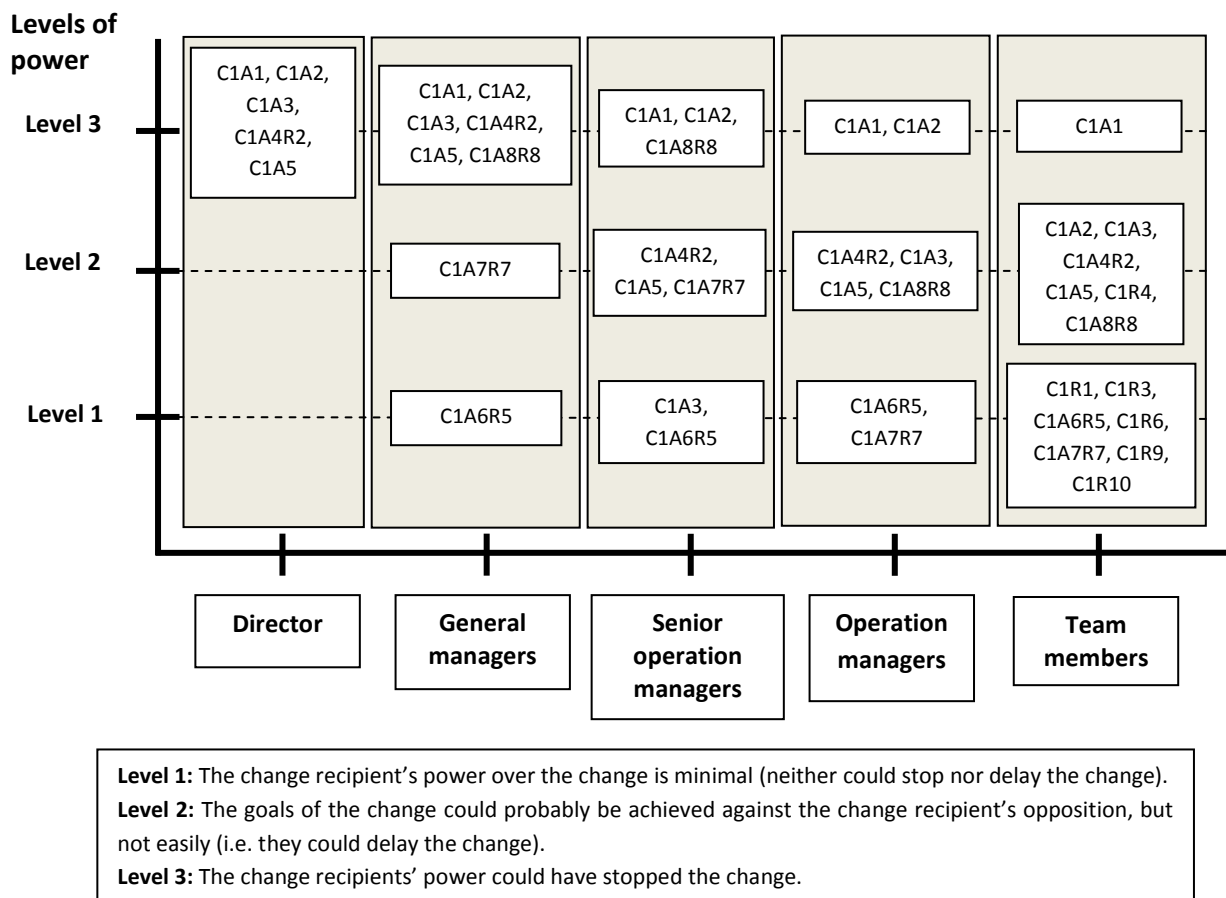
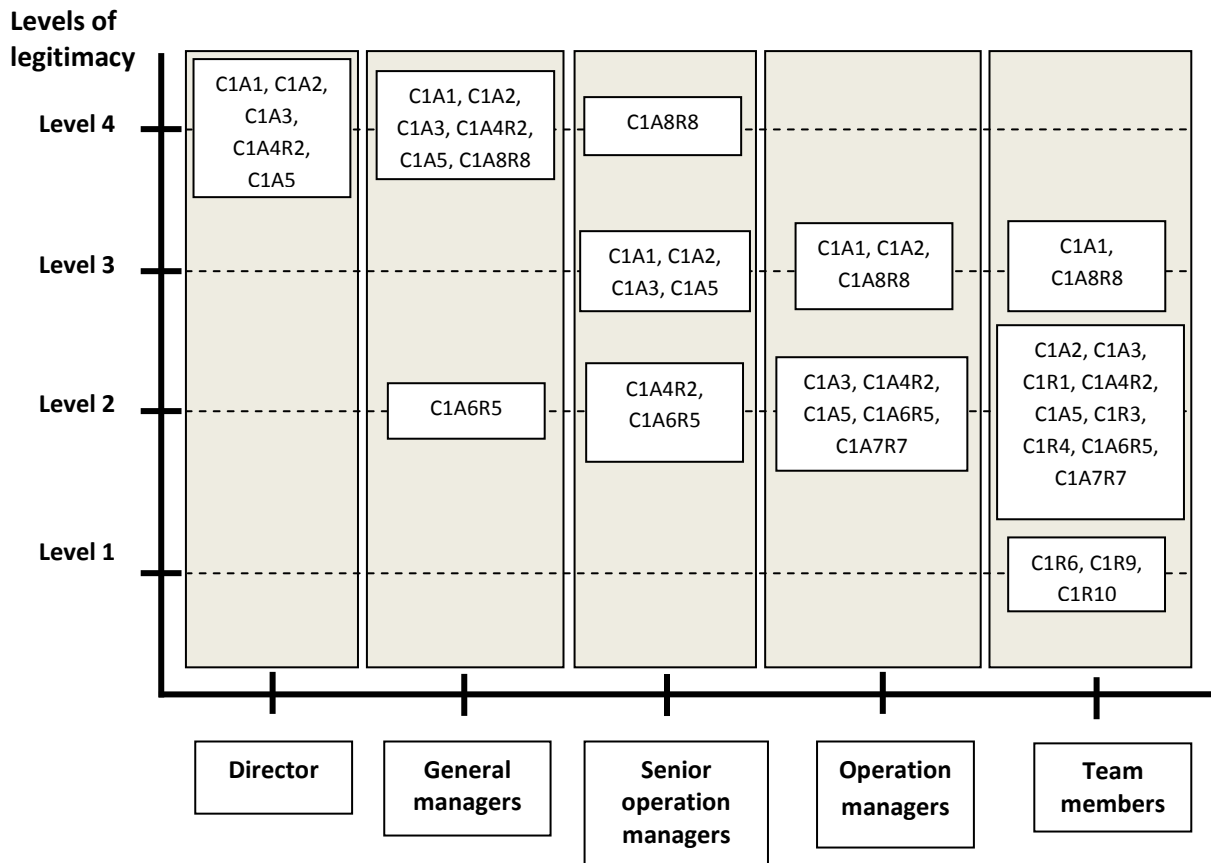


Figure 4.2: The respondents' responses to the change recipients' levels of power over the change in Case A (Source: Author)

As depicted in Figure 4.2, regarding the director and the general managers, their level of power over the change was high (level 3). The respondents' answers to the levels of power of the senior operation managers, the operation managers, and the team members varied. However, on the whole, the levels of power of the senior operation managers, the operation managers, and the team members are moderate (level 2).

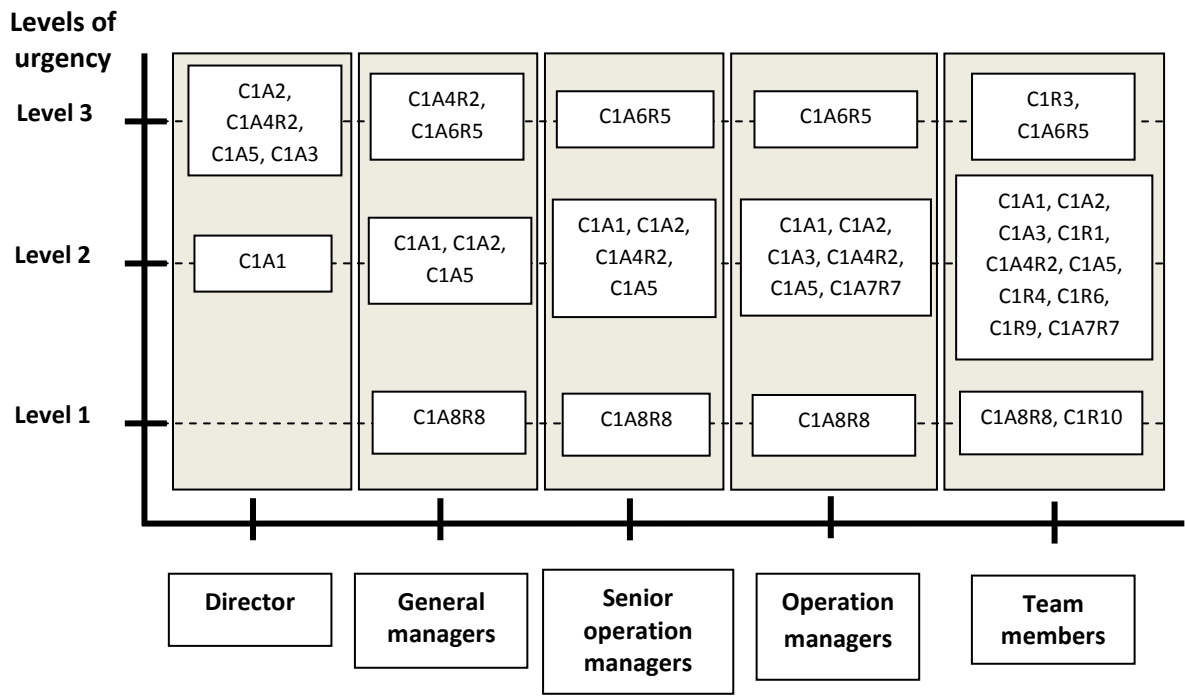
In respect of the legitimacy level of the change recipients, Figure 4.3 shows that the director and the general managers had a high level of legitimacy in relation to the change (level 4). The senior operation managers can be regarded as having had a high legitimacy (level 3). The legitimacy of both the operation managers and the team members leans more to the moderate (level 2).



Level 1: Be only informed about a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of change without giving opinions.
Level 2: Be asked to give their opinions about a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of change, but they do not have vote.
Level 3: Have a vote in decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of change but cannot veto.
Level 4: Veto a decision regarding formulation and/or implementation of change.

Figure 4.3: The respondents' responses to the change recipients' levels of legitimacy to the change in Case A (Source: Author)

The final attribute of the salience theory is urgency. As shown in Figure 4.4, for the director, the urgency of his demands regarding the change was considered as high (level 3). However, the remainder of the recipients' levels of urgency in relation to the change leans to moderate (level 2).



In respect of responding to the change recipients' requests and demands by change agents:
Level 1: There was no need for action outside routine communications with the change recipients.
Level 2: Planned action was warranted outside routine communication with the change recipients.
Level 3: Immediate action was warranted, irrespective of other work commitments.

Figure 4.4: The respondents' responses to the change recipients' levels of urgency to the change in Case A (Source: Author)

Table 4.7 summarises the levels of power, legitimacy, and urgency of each group of change recipients in relation to the change.

Change recipients	Saliency class	Power	Legitimacy	Urgency
The director	Definitive	High Level 3: Stop the change	High Level 4: Veto decisions regarding the change	High Level 3: Immediate action is warranted irrespective of other work commitments
General managers	Dominant	High Level 3: Stop the change	High Level 4: Veto decisions regarding the change	Moderate Level 2: Planned action is warranted outside routine communication
Senior operation managers	Discretionary	Moderate Level 2: Delay the change	High Level 3: Vote on decisions regarding the change	Moderate Level 2: Planned action is warranted outside routine communication
Operation managers	Expectant	Moderate Level 2: Delay the change	Moderate Level 2: Give opinions about the change	Moderate Level 2: Planned action is warranted outside routine communication
Team members	Expectant	Moderate Level 2: Delay the change	Moderate Level 2: Give opinions about the change	Moderate Level 2: Planned action is warranted outside routine communication

Table 4.7: The saliency of the change recipients in relation to the change in Case A based on their power, legitimacy, and urgency (Source: Author)

By referring the results shown in Table 4.7 to the demarcation of different classes in the methodology chapter (see Chapter Three section 3.10.2), change recipients will be classified according to the corresponding category. It is clear that the director had a high level in each of the three attributes, which are power, legitimacy, and urgency. Therefore, the director is classified as a definitive change recipient. Since both power and legitimacy of the general managers were at a high level with moderate urgency, they are regarded as dominant recipients of the change. With only a high level of legitimacy, the senior operation managers fit under the class of discretionary change recipients. However, all the attributes for the

operation managers and the team members are at moderate levels, which categorises them as expectant change recipients. Figure 4.5 depicts the change recipients and their relevant category of salience to the change.

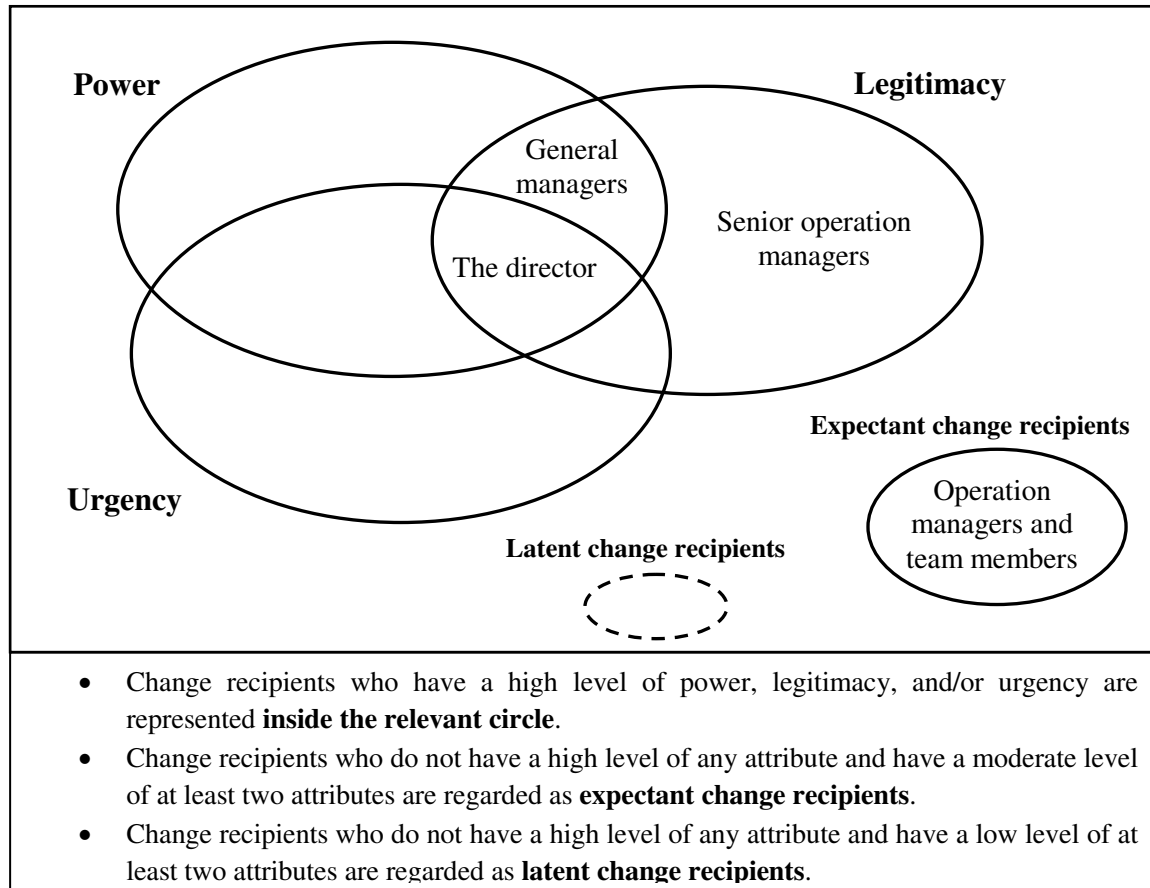


Figure 4.5: The power, legitimacy, and urgency of change recipients in Case A based on the salience theory (Source: Author)

From the figure above and based upon the salience theory, the director seems to be the most salient change recipient, followed by the general managers. However, according to both types of respondents (i.e. agents and recipients of change) the most salient change recipients are the team members and this is because they are the most affected by the change. Although some respondents (C1A2, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1R9, C1R10) consider all the change recipients as equally important, the majority (C1A1, C1A3, C1R1, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1A7R7, C1A8R8) regard the team members as the most important. The change design team leader remarked:

“So the most important to the change were the team members, the most junior people there's, they are the people that are doing the work on the day to day basis. And they are the ones that needed to change to make the success more than anyone else.”
(C1A1)

Also, two team members noted:

“I guess the team members are more important because they are the ones who are doing the work.” (C1R1)

“I think kind of like huge. They're the people that are, the surveyors and the planners that are changing, yeah it's critical that they are able to change and do what they need to do in an efficient way to make sure the whole process kind of keeps working really otherwise it's never going to get off the ground.” (C1R4)

An operation manager asserted that:

“Well they are key to the change. They're the people that have got to change the most. So the guys that are below me [Team Members], they're the ones that have had to change their skills and do, how can you say . . . they're the ones that had to change the most. I mean it's not an awful lot of change for me but for the guys below me, they're so used to doing the design, doing the survey, they were used to project managing the whole job all the way through.” (C1A6R5)

Therefore, by considering exclusively the three attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) of stakeholder salience theory, a false picture of the change recipient salience will be obtained. Hence, to gain the right view of the change recipients' salience to a change a further attribute is needed, which is the extent that a change recipient is affected by the change.

Finding 1: The extent to which a change recipient is affected by the change needs to be considered as an attribute (alongside power, legitimacy, and urgency) in the determination of the salience of change recipients of organisational reorientation.

To differentiate the change recipients who are affected by the change to different extents, they will be categorised into three categories. Primary change recipients are those who are affected by all the three factors identified by Jick (1990). These factors are employed in this research to determine whether an interviewee is a change recipient or not (see Table 4.3). They are change in the recipients' job description, change in the people (e.g. colleagues) that the recipients work with, and change in the way the recipients perform their jobs. Accordingly, for Case A, as shown in Table 4.6, the team members are the only change recipients who were affected by all three factors, and therefore they will be named *primary change recipients*. Those who were affected by two of the three factors will be called *secondary change recipients*, and in Case A these are the senior operation managers and the operation managers. The least affected change recipients will be named *tertiary change recipients*. They are the ones who were affected by only one of the three factors identified by Jick (1990). In Case A they are the director and the general managers. Table 4.8 below shows the change recipients and their defined classes of salience to the change.

Change recipients	Salience class
The director	Tertiary-definitive recipient
General managers	Tertiary-dominant recipients
Senior operation managers	Secondary- discretionary recipients
Operation managers	Secondary-expectant recipients
Team members	Primary-expectant recipients

Table 4.8: The change recipients and their salience class with regard to the change in Case A (Source: Author)

4.6 Levels and Sources of Change Recipients' Resistance to the Change

As in any change, the change agents encountered resistance to the change they were implementing in Case A. Apart from the director, every group of change recipients identified earlier in this chapter exhibited some resistance to the change. The levels of resistance will be defined according to Coetsee's (1999) scheme of modes of resistance, which was introduced in the literature review and methodology chapters (see Chapter Three Figure 3.7). The scheme was useful in defining what each level of resistance is. This was necessary in order to gain an exact picture of the situation as the respondents define level of resistance differently, for example high, passive and so on. In terms of the sources of the recipients'

resistance, status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988), which was introduced in the literature review chapter, provides an explanation of the sources of resistance exhibited by the recipients in Case A.

In respect of the general managers, their mode of resistance was apathy (fence sitters) and they displayed responses such as a lack of interest in the change (Coetsee, 1999). This was reported by change agents (C1A1, C1A2). For instance, the change design team leader stated:

“[. . .] there would be more general managers and senior operation managers who might be sitting there in front of their directors saying yes we agree that’s great. But in reality not necessarily doing what they are saying. And a lot of lip service. A lot of expressing this is the right thing to do, but when their go back to their desk actually carrying on in the way they used to behave.” (C1A1)

The reason for the general managers’ resistance was that they doubted the success of the change due to previous negative experience of changes in the organisation (C1A1, C1D3). As the change design team leader reported:

“I think in some instances, they’ve [General Managers] been there for a while. They’ve seen change happen not very successfully in the past and they think this is just the same thing.” (C1A1)

In relation to the status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988), the reason for the general managers’ resistance to the change is related to the category of psychological commitment, in particular regret avoidance.

Active resistance was the mode the senior operation managers exhibited in response to the change. According to the interviewees (C1A2, C1A3, C1A5), the senior operation managers’ behaviour was that of not supporting the change within their teams, which is a form of blocking regarded as active resistance (Coetsee, 1999). A senior change manager commented regarding the senior operation managers:

“[. . .] they wouldn't say I am blocking it, I am stopping it, they would just quietly not to do things that were expected of them, you know all those to the find the reasons why something else is more important.” (C1A5)

Fear of losing power (C1A5) and no perceived necessity of the change (C1A1, C1A3) were the sources of resistance of the senior operation managers. Regarding the former reason, a senior change manager noted:

“Usually because it [the change] was a threat to their own power base, that there is a bit of empire building thing, they ran their own little team and what we were doing made them conform more than they would like to, to sort of national sort of standard basically might mean anybody else could have their job next month, because there have all been vanilla-ized so they will be made the same looking, where as they like to be able to have things unique in their region, so you couldn't just parachute somebody else into replace them.” (C1A5)

In respect of the lack of perceived necessity of the change by the senior operation managers, a design team member remarked:

“I mean if I'm there, the ship is sinking, I've got a bucket and I'm trying to bail it out. And the change comes through the door and say, guess what I got to pump, then that SOM [Senior Operation Manager] is going to go oh, slowly get the pump and then start pumping all right. But the majority of change doesn't happen because of this huge negative problem. You know the ship isn't sinking. In fact the ark is going quite well you know what I mean. And if you go back that, it will go faster you know it could take a shorter route and everything, but that means they got to change things. So if I'm sailing okay and everything is going hunky-dory . . . why bother.” (C1A3)

The senior operation managers' fear of losing power relates to the transition costs category of the status quo bias theory, while their lack of perceived necessity of the change fits under the net benefits category of the theory.

Although some change agents experienced the resistance of the operation managers as apathy resistance (C1A3, C1A4R2), the majority of the agents (C1A1, C1A2, C1A5,

C1A6R5) reported that the operation managers voiced an opposite opinion to the agents, who regarded the operation managers' resistance mode as passive (Coetsee, 1999). For example, the change design team leader noted:

“Lots of people who were verbally negative I mean really destructive to what we were doing telling us that they have seen all this before that we are not doing anything different [. . .]” (C1A1)

Several reasons for the operation managers' resistance were found, including no perceived necessity of the change (C1A4R2, C1A6R5), and age matters. This was because those who have been in the organisation for long time and are about to leave were not interested in adopting the change (C1A2, C1A4R2, C1A6R5). An operation manager commented:

“[. . .] they [Operation Managers] don't see that there's anything wrong with the way it's operating at the moment.” (C1A4R2)

The operation manager added, regarding the older age operation managers:

“[. . .] so I know because I've had the conversations with them because they've been in the business for 30 to 40 years and haven't got very long to go, they just want to see their time out and leave. They don't want to be here so they don't see why they should be bothered and involved with all of this.” (C1A4R2)

The age matter is not a reason for resistance in itself as older people may resist change for different reasons such as the inability to cope with the new ways of working or a threat to their comfort zone. The quote above shows that the operation managers resisted the change not because of being old per se, but rather because they perceived the change as costly in itself. In accordance with the status quo bias theory, the lack of perceived necessity of the change by operation managers is related to the net benefits category, while the unwillingness of the older operation managers to make some efforts to accommodate the change is associated with the transition costs component of the theory.

Likewise, in terms of the team members, passive resistance was their mode of resistance to the change (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1R1, C1A4R2, C1A5, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6,

C1A7R7, C1A8R8, C1R9, C1R10). They expressed their resistance in the forms of voicing their disagreements with the change, negative perceptions and attitudes. For instance, an operation manager reported:

“[. . .] they [Team Members] laughed at it in some respects, some of them did. And they said, oh yeah seen that, done it, been there and all that, got the t-shirt, making jokes about it. And you thought, well actually you can make jokes all you like, but this is how we're gonna do it, sort of thing.” (C1A6R5)

Another operation manager described the team members' resistance by stating:

“I think frustration was . . . angry is because they just don't think it's going to work because they don't understand it, and then the frustration of actually attempting to do something and not working, which I witnessed in here.” (C1A7R7)

Two major reasons caused the team members to resist the change. First, there were no perceived benefits of the change (C1A2, C1A3, C1R1, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1R6, C1R9, C1R1, C1D3). The program director stated:

“So they would resist because they didn't see benefit, ultimately.” (C1A2)

Also, a team member commented:

“[. . .] if you don't know why sometimes the change process is going ahead, you don't know enough about it, then you're probably not quite so flexible and willing to move with it.” (C1R4)

The second reason, which is similar to that given by the operation managers, concerns the older team members who regard the change as a threat their comfort (C1A2, C1R3, C1R4, C1A6R5, C1D3). Two team members reported:

“I think you've got some people in the company that are very stuck in their ways, they've been doing that job for so many years and doing it this way and suddenly they've got to change, completely change the way that they're doing their work and the

other side of it that you were saying, that it's directly impacting what they're doing so they're reluctant to change the way they are working.” (C1R3)

“[. . .] some of the planners here are often older age and they are so comfortable with the things they have been doing before, they don't like to change, they don't like to try new systems.” (C1R1)

The lack of perceived benefits of the change and the unwillingness of the older team members to make some efforts to accommodate the change are associated with net benefits and transition costs categories of status quo bias theory respectively. Table 4.9 summarises the change recipients' levels, based upon a scheme by Coetsee (1999), and causes of resistance to the change in Case A in accordance with status quo bias theory.

Change recipients	Mode of resistance	Sources of resistance
General managers	Apathy	Regret avoidance
Senior operation managers	Active	Net benefits Transition costs
Operation managers	Passive	Net benefits Transition costs
Team members	Passive	Net benefits Transition costs

Table 4.9: The modes and sources of change recipients' resistance to the change in Case A (Source: Author)

4.7 Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' resistance to the Change

This section addresses the strategies used with a different change recipients' group to cope with their resistance to the change in Case A. The effectiveness of the strategies used to cope with the change recipients' resistance is measured by their outcomes (i.e. the fundamental role of the strategies in shifting the recipients' resistance to compliance) in accordance with Falbe and Yukl (1992). According to these authors, compliance is when people adapt to the new ways of working irrespective of their favour of the new situation. For Case A, according to all the change agents and change recipients interviewed, the mode of resistance to the

change was tackled and the change recipients complied with the change. A change design team member stated:

“But I see that in the early days of a project, it's [i.e. the resistance level] quite high all right. And that as the project moves forward, it moves from resistance to almost supportive as a general, generalisation.” (C1A3)

This is also supported by two team members, one of which was performing the change agent's role:

“I think people accept the change. I think they kind of accept this is the way we're going and it's not going to change anymore as such, this is just what we're doing, we're not going to go back on it.” (C1R4)

“Well, over time they did accept that yes they did need to make these changes and they did accept them. Well, the majority of people accepted them and realised they were for the best, and yes, this is what we need to do, [. . .]” (C1A8R8)

The following subsections present the strategies employed to deal with the resistance of the change recipients in Case A.

4.7.1 Negotiation and Agreement

In this study several strategies have been found to cope with the resistance of the change recipients. In respect of the resistance of the general managers, which was apathy, the method employed to deal with their resistance belongs to negotiation and agreement strategy. Change agents held regular meetings with the general managers to discuss their issues with the change and to address their concerns. Once the issues raised by the general managers were solved, the change agents asked the general managers for their agreement on the change. This process is called 'sign on' (C1A2), and within it, the general managers are accountable for and committed to what they have agreed on (C1A1, C1A2, C1A4R2, C1A5). This method of overcoming resistance is a form of negotiation and agreement strategy (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008). The change design team leader remarked that with regard to the general managers:

“[. . .] having conversations understanding their concerns and shaping the approach to suit them.” (C1A1)

Therefore, for the negotiation process with general managers, there was ‘give’ and ‘take’. The ‘give’ for change agents is considering potential issues that were raised by general managers. The ‘give’ process is described by the program director:

“So this would be about the benefits, so we would say, this is what, this is the scope of what we are doing, this is what we think the benefit is, do you agree with this GM [General Manager], that this is real, that you think the benefit is there, because what happens is they have to move people out, so they have to accept the project we are delivering, we would deliver efficiency within their organisation. And we say to them, at the end of the day we expect you to contribute you know 20 people to this, 30 people to this. Do you believe in this change and they either say, no, you know I am not convinced or they may say, yes. And then when we have come to point of delivering the change, we then go through a process called sign off, where we say to the GMs, all right we have done it, do you . . . are you ready to give those people and release them and we’ll move them on to different roles. So you are acknowledging the efficiency of this new way of working has been delivered.” (C1A2)

In return, the ‘take’ for change agents was requiring commitment and accountability from general managers whose issues regarding the change were considered by change agents. As asserted by the program director regarding the negotiation strategy:

“[. . .] it’s a way of holding their commitment, so if you have signed on and signed off you have formally agreed and can be held accountable for that decision.” (C1A2)

Therefore, by taking into account the salience class of the general managers in relation to the change (tertiary-dominant change recipients), and their level and sources of resistance to change, negotiation and agreement is an appropriate method to reduce their resistance (see Figure 4.6).

Finding 2: Negotiation and agreement is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dominant change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to regret avoidance.

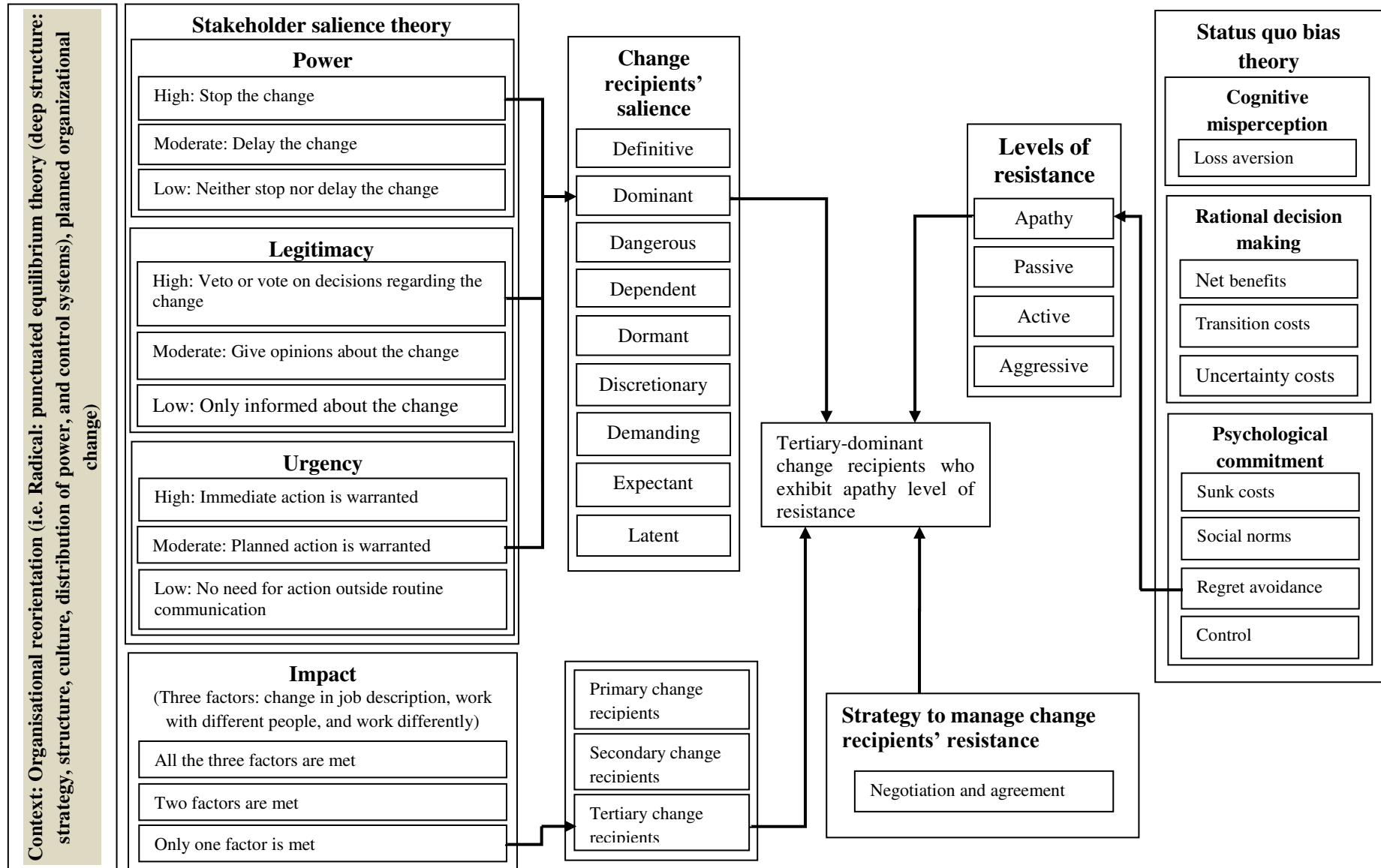


Figure 4.6: Tertiary-dominant change recipients and the relevant strategy to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

4.7.2 Coercion

With respect to the senior operation managers and the operation managers, implicit coercion was a strategy to overcome their resistance. The strategy employed was using a compliance report that is visible and accessible to all levels of management and which shows a reference number rather than names of managers. It is called the ‘*Name and Shame board*’ and every manager can access it to know which team under a manager has complied (C1A2, C1A3, C1A5). This is a way of exerting force over the managers. For instance, the report shows whether team members under a manager have been on training, conference calls, and meetings. The program director stated:

“[. . .] we have gone down a compliance route where we have said to people [. . .] so we have used the stick and we have said, we are currently at 60% compliance, we need to get to 90% and you just got to do it, just go and do it. And that, you know as we know that’s really worked in terms of sustaining change, they will do it, to hit a target, because they feel they have to.” (C1A2)

Also, two change agents (who are members of the program team) mentioned:

“[. . .] in case of the OMs [Operation Managers] I think you have to . . . you're very much now down to reports and the . . . dare I say it, the name and shame type of culture. In that you know they're very much more into compliance as opposed to necessary you know [. . .] And that drops them much more into a name shame type of arena which then sort of one or two things. They're either automatically comply or quite often what happens they pick up the phone and say why am I in this report? What have I got to do to get off it?” (C1A3)

“[. . .] we used a lot of compliance reports which means that we would probably say not a boring data reports that would show us how many people were shifted for not doing things the new way.” (C1A5)

Coercion (whether explicit or implicit) was suggested by scholars reported in the literature review, such as Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), as a strategy to cope with recipients’ resistance to change. However, the authors do not define the difference between the two

forms of coercion. The way that coercion is employed by the change agents will be defined here as implicit coercion, since there was no explicit outcome (e.g. a threat of dismissal) associated with not complying with the change. Therefore, making the compliance reports visible and accessible serves as a means to implicitly coerce the senior operation managers and the operation managers to adopt the change. Their salience to the change is regarded as secondary-discretionary and secondary-expectant change recipients respectively (see Figure 4.7 and 4.8). However, besides the implicit coercion, change agents also employed an education strategy to deal with the resistance of the senior operation managers and the operation managers. This is presented in the following subsection. By taking into consideration the salience class of the senior operation managers and their level and sources of resistance, the following finding is formulated:

Finding 3: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

With regard to the operation managers:

Finding 4: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

4.7.3 Education

Educating change recipients by explaining the change, its rationale, and the benefits as well as drawbacks of the change was employed as a strategy to cope with the resistance of the senior operation managers (C1A1, C1A2, C1D4) and the operation managers (C1A1, C1A2, C1A4R2, C1D4). In the literature, this strategy is related to education (e.g. Fiedler, 2010; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). For the senior operation managers, the change design team leader remarked:

“[. . .] the senior operations managers would spend a lot of time with them around the country in big focus groups, in big working sessions explaining what we are doing and why we are doing answering their questions and making sure they are, really you know, we spend a like a good two hours with every group of senior managers just for questions, just so we knew as best as we could so they were equipped and on board with us.” (C1A1)

The same strategy has been used to deal with the resistance of the operation managers, as the change design team leader reported:

“I spent a lot of time being honest with them. So if they were saying things that they wanted the new world to look like and it just wasn't going to be feasible from a business perspective, I would tell them there and then so that at least they can see we're being honest and that's really a fundamental part to shifting their behaviours.” (C1A1)

This is consistent with what an operation manager said about dealing with the resistance of the operation managers:

“Like I've said I mean, it's all about explaining the rationale and just being upfront and honest with these people.” (C1A4R2)

Moreover, it is mentioned in the compliance document (C1D4) that explaining the change thoroughly to the operation managers and the senior operation managers is an essential step to ensure compliance:

“Ensure that management and leadership teams understand exactly what is wanted of their teams.” (C1D4)

Consequently, with regard to the salience of the senior operation managers (i.e. secondary-discretionary change recipients) and the operation managers (i.e. secondary-expectant change recipients) in relation to the change and the relative levels and sources of their resistance, the following findings are formulated respectively:

Finding 5: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Finding 6: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

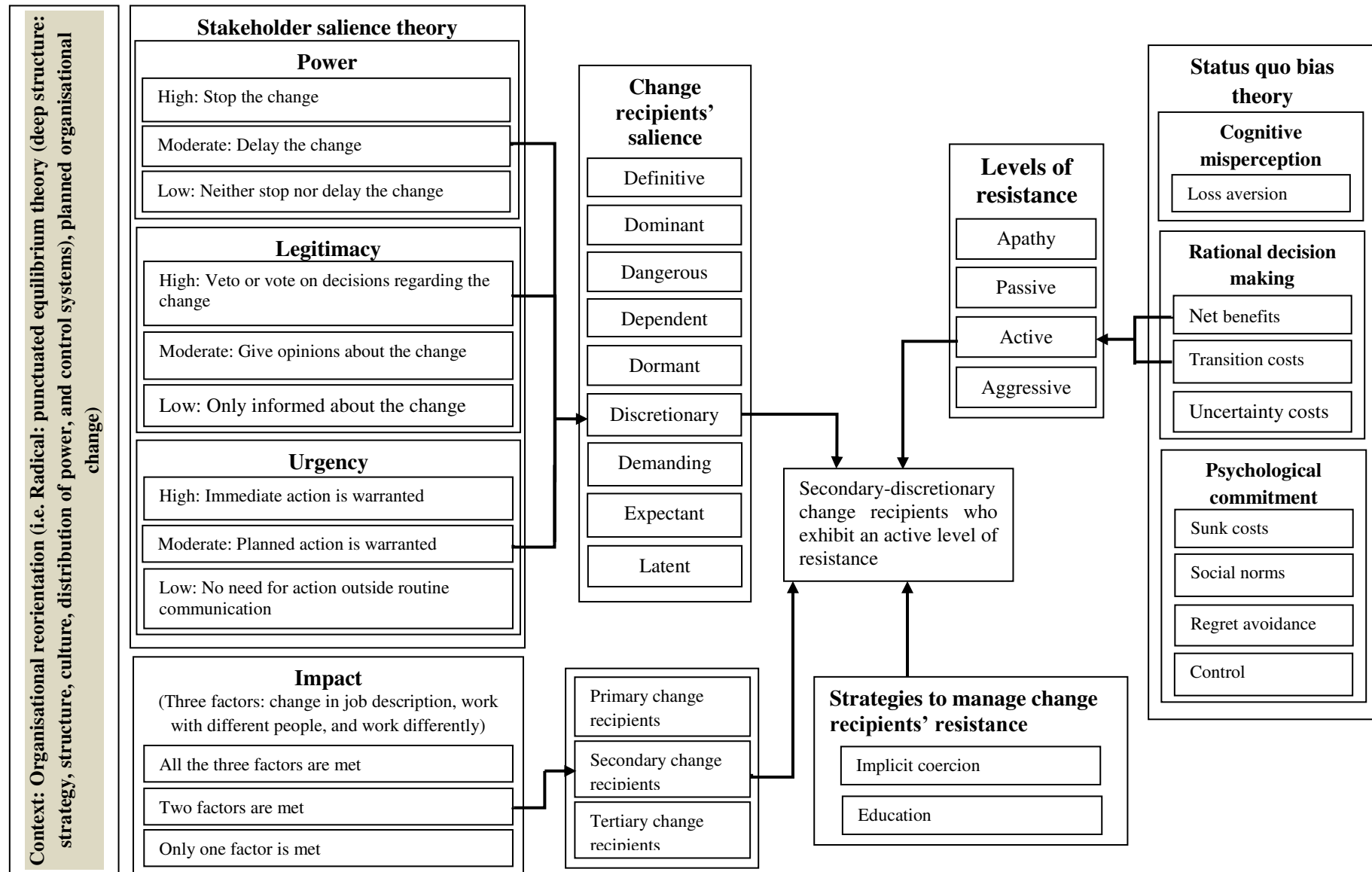


Figure 4.7: Secondary-discretionary change recipients and the relevant strategies to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

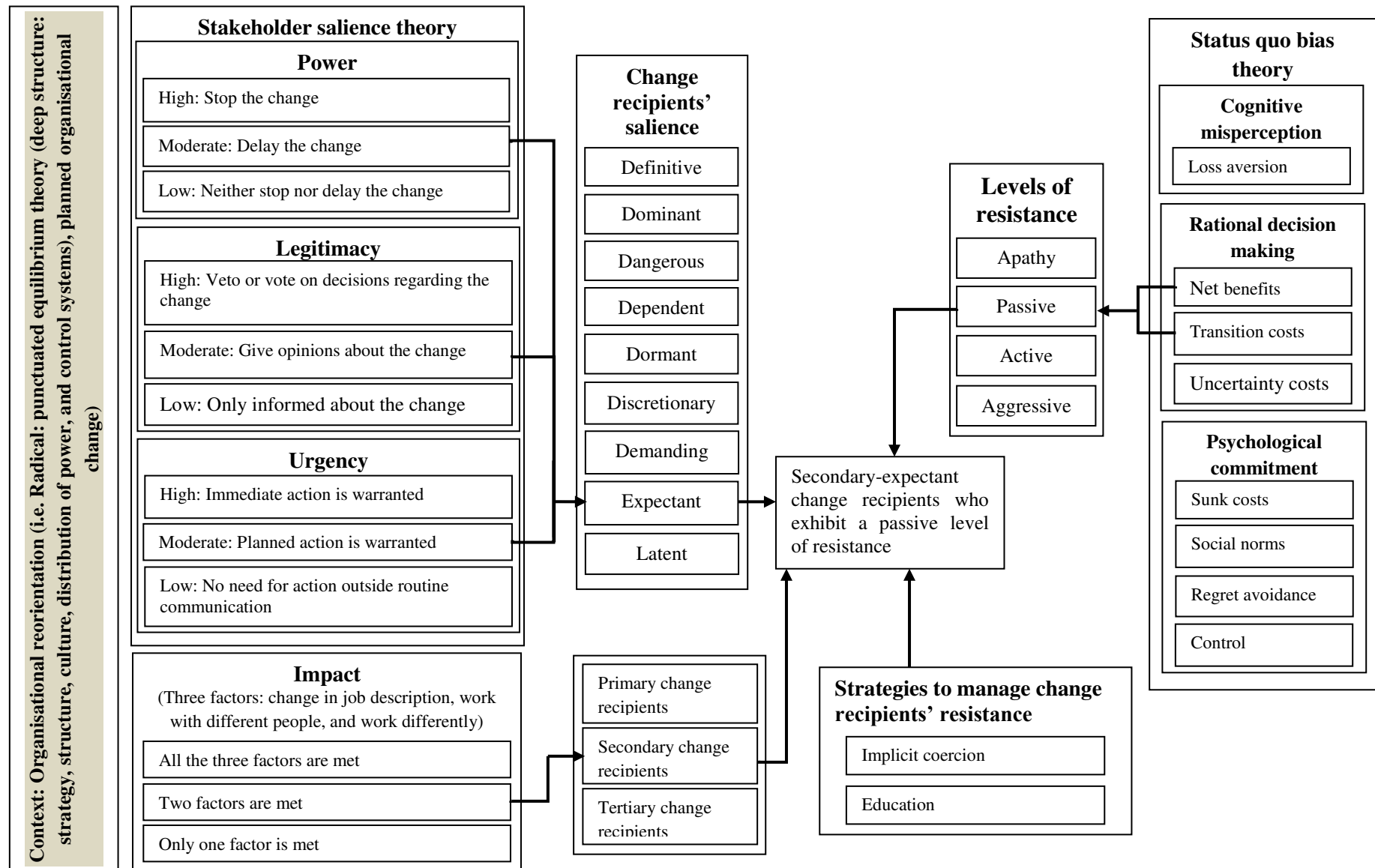


Figure 4.8: Secondary-expectant change recipients and the relevant strategies to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

4.7.4 Persuasion

In respect of overcoming the resistance of the team members, persuasion by peers was an effective strategy to reduce their resistance (C1A1, C1A2, C1A3, C1A6R5). It means using positive (non resistor) members to persuade resistor members to adopt the change by explaining the benefits of it and relies on the fact that they both encounter same change and do precisely the same job. As reported by the program director:

“So we would use the positive ones to try and convince the other two categories [i.e. team members who are sceptics and resisters], so we would normally have our positive ones as our gold users and we would use them to talk about why the change would work well for them. So that peers if you like, people within their own teams were showing them the benefit, that’s one of the best ways.” (C1A2)

This is also emphasised by the change design team member:

“The other thing is all obviously getting peer ambassadors so whether I like it or not, I got manager stamped on my forehead whether we like it or not when you got manager stamped in your forehead some people treat you with suspicion [. . .] You will have an ice-cream on your desk everyday all right. Even though the same words had said by a, an ambassador, but they're not a manager that appear you know he's a gold user call it if you will.” (C1A3)

Also, this point has been asserted by a first line manager, who was both an agent and a recipient of the change. The respondent said about his engineers:

“[. . .] they had pressure from their own peers, telling them, well actually it's easier doing it this way because of X, Y and Z because you don't have to do that, and if you use the software how it's mean to be used.” (C1A6R5)

In the literature, the above quotations mean persuasion (e.g. Hultman, 1998); i.e. some of the team members tried to convince their peers who were resisters. Therefore, by taking into account the salience of the team members to the change (primary-expectant change

recipients) their level and sources of resistance, persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to reduce their resistance (see Figure 4.9).

Finding 7: Persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

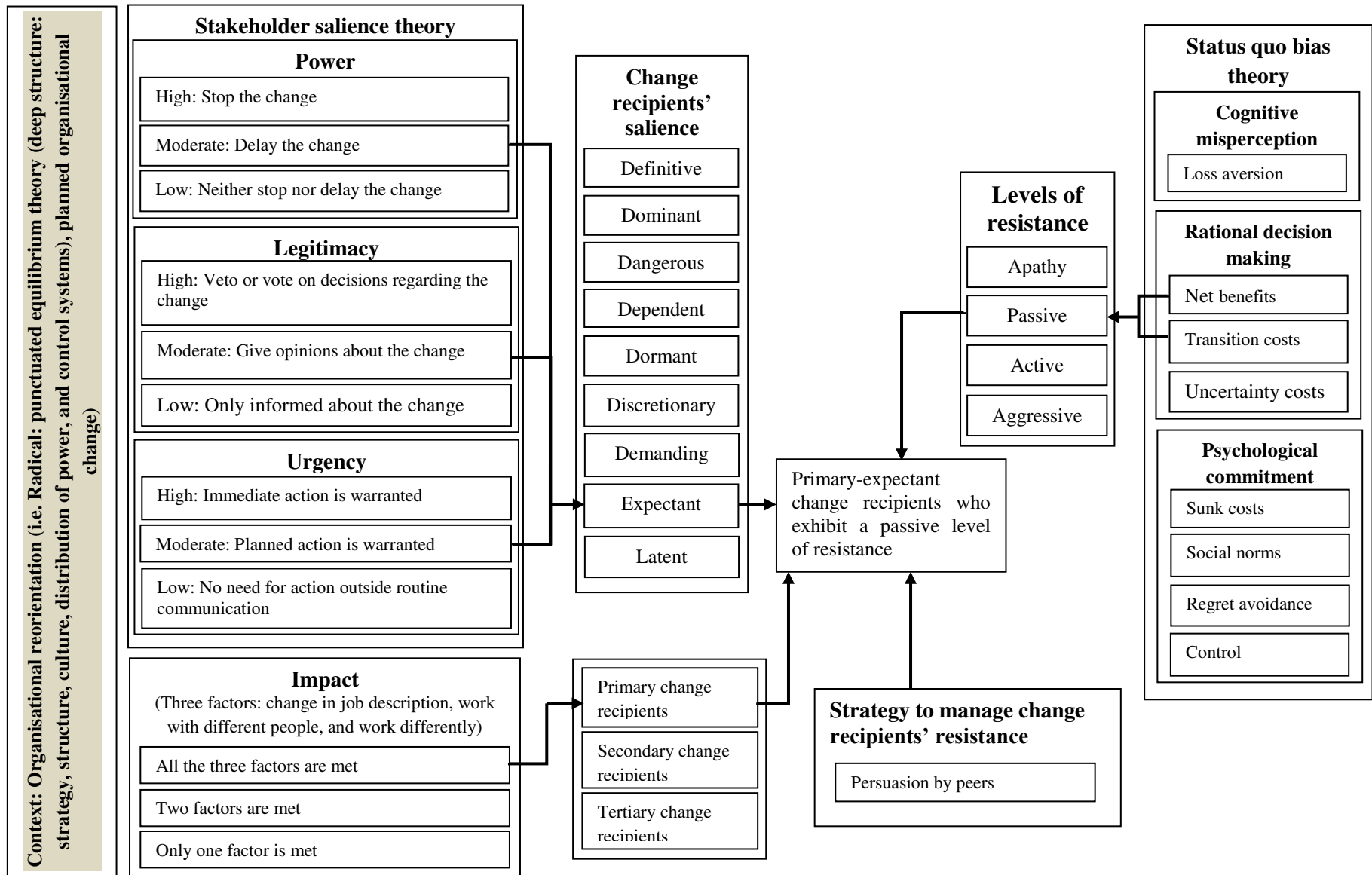


Figure 4.9: Primary-expectant change recipients and the relevant strategy to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

4.8 Summary

This chapter presented the findings of Case A, which are summarised in Table 4.10 below. The chapter began by describing the case and its data sources, followed by an explanation of the change implemented in Case A. The findings were presented in accordance with the framework developed in chapter 2. The following chapter presents a second case study (Case B).

Themes	Findings
Change recipients' salience	Finding 1: The extent to which change recipients are affected by the change needs to be considered as an attribute (alongside power, legitimacy, and urgency) in the determination of the salience of change recipients of organisational reorientation.
Negotiation and agreement	Finding 2: Negotiation and agreement is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dominant change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to regret avoidance.
Coercion	Finding 3: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.
	Finding 4: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.
Education	Finding 5: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Education (Cont)	Finding 6: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.
Persuasion	Finding 7: Persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Table 4.10: Summary of the findings from Case A (Source: Author)

CHAPTER FIVE: CASE STUDY B

5.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces Case study B, which follows the research design presented in the methodology chapter. As with Case study A, this chapter begins by explaining the context of Case B and the sources of evidence gathered, which are semi-structured interviews and relevant documents about the transformation. Next, the transformation program deployed in Case B is described by showing how the case is related to the unit of analysis introduced in the methodology chapter. After this, the remainder of the chapter is organised in accordance with the theoretical framework components presented in the literature review chapter, which are: the salience of the change recipients to the change, the sources and level of their resistance, and the strategy employed to overcome their resistance. The last section presents a summary of the findings of Case B.

5.2 Case Study B: Background Information

In accordance with Case A studied in the previous chapter, Case B is also part of the larger organisation, which is responsible for providing the local access network between exchange boxes and homes and businesses in the UK. Case B employs approximately 17000 people of which most are engineers and 1130 are managers. The mission of Case B is delivering last mile local access network connection from the cabinets on the roads to the end users (houses, shops, factories etc). This involves installing new lines, fixing faults, and upgrading line plants, for which the engineers of the organisation made about 7.7 million visits per year.

The organisational structure of Case B is based on geographical regions. The first level of the organisational structure is the managing director. The next level involves two directors with one responsible for the northern region of the country and the other the south. The following level is where general managers are managing sub-regions (counties) within the north and south areas of the country. The senior operation managers are at the fourth level and they manage particular areas (cities) under the general managers' supervision. Each

senior manager's team consists of operation managers (i.e. field operation managers) who are responsible for managing a patch within a city. Finally, an operation manager's team involves about 20 engineers (i.e. Customer Service Engineers) who do the field work and visit the end users. Also, there is a team called Control within Case B, which is responsible for monitoring and allocating jobs to the engineers.

Prior to the transformation in Case B, the performance of the organisation was not considered as efficient. The change design team noticed that the engineers spent considerable time completing their tasks and saw that there was an opportunity to reduce this time and to enable the engineers to deliver more work. The main reason for this was the antiquated technology available to the engineers in performing their tasks. For example, Windows 98 was the operating system to run the software installed on the laptops used by the engineers. Also the testers used by the engineers constituted a barrier in completing the engineers' jobs quickly. Furthermore, there was a lack of performance management in the organisation, such as measuring productivity of the workforce. Therefore, in order for the organisation to remain competitive and provide the best customer service to meet the potential increase in demands from its customers, especially after the revolution of super-fast fibre connectivity technology, the organisation needed to revolutionise its work activities.

Prior to explaining the transformation in Case B, the data sources gathered about the case will be described. The source of the background information above is a mixture of interviews and documents (e.g. C2A3, C2R6, C2D2, C2D6), and these are explained in the following section.

5.3 Sources of Evidence

The sources of evidence about Case B are semi-structured interviews (16 face-to-face interviews) and relevant documents (7 documents, see Table 5.4). Table 5.1 illustrates the informants' profile in Case B. It includes: an assigned identification number that distinguishes every respondent throughout this research, including Case A; their role in the organisation; their role in the change, and whether they were agents and/or recipients of the change.

Respondent ID	Role in the organisation	Role in the change	Agent and/or recipient of the change
C2A1	Transformation delivery director	Program director	External change agent
C2A2	Senior project manager	Program team member	External change agent
C2A3	Strategic change consultant	Program team member	External change agent
C2A4R1	Field operation manager	Personnel manager	Internal change agent and recipient
C2R2	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2R3	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2R4	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2A5R5	Field operation manager	Personnel manager	Internal change agent and recipient
C2R6	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2A6R7	Field operation manager	Personnel manager	Internal change agent and recipient
C2A7	Change deployment manager	Change quality manager	External change agent
C2A8	Change manager (Operation integration)	Program team member	External change agent
C2R8	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2R9	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2R10	Customer service engineer	None	Recipient
C2R11	Control team member	None	Recipient

Table 5.1: Respondents' profiles in Case B (C2 refers to Case B; A refers to agent; R refers to recipient) (Source: Author)

As in Case A, the respondents' relationship to the change in Case B was identified. This identification was based upon the informants' answers to questions derived from a taxonomy developed by Buchanan and Boddy (1992) for change agents (see Table 5.2) and Jick (1990) for change recipients (see Table 5.3). Both have been explained in the theoretical sampling

section of the methodology chapter. Five informants were classified as change agents, eight as change recipients, and three as both agents and recipients of the change.

Respondents	Criteria to identify respondents as change agents *				
	A	B	C	D	E
C2A1	Very high	Very high	Very high	Very high	Very high
C2A2	Very high	Very high	Very high	Moderate	High
C2A3	Low	High	Very high	Moderate	Very high
C2A4R1	None	Very high	Very high	Very high	Very high
C2R2	None	None	None	None	None
C2R3	None	None	None	None	None
C2R4	None	None	None	None	None
C2A5R5	None	High	Very high	Very high	High
C2R6	None	None	None	None	None
C2A6R7	Low	High	High	Moderate	High
C2A7	Moderate	High	Very high	High	Very high
C2A8	Low	Very high	Very high	Very high	High
C2R8	None	None	None	None	None
C2R9	None	None	None	None	None
C2R10	None	None	None	None	None
C2R11	None	None	None	None	None
* From Very high, High, Moderate, Low, to None, the respondents response the following:					
A	Setting the project's goals (e.g. vision)				
B	Setting the agents and recipients role specification (e.g. team building and networking)				
C	Communication with the change recipients				
D	Negotiation with the recipients (e.g. selling ideas)				
E	Political issues with the recipients (e.g. identifying potential coalitions, and dealing with resistance)				

Table 5.2: The respondents' responses to identification as change agents in Case B (Source: Author)

Respondents	Criteria to identify respondents as change recipients *		
	X	Y	Z
C2A1	None	None	None
C2A2	None	None	None
C2A3	None	None	None
C2A4R1	None	High	High
C2R2	None	Low	Moderate
C2R3	Low	None	Moderate
C2R4	None	None	High
C2A5R5	None	Very high	Very high
C2R6	High	None	High
C2A6R7	Moderate	None	Low
C2A7	None	None	None
C2A8	None	None	None
C2R8	None	None	Low
C2R9	None	Moderate	Moderate
C2R10	High	Moderate	Very high
C2R11	High	None	Moderate
* From Very high, High, Moderate, Low, to None, the respondents response the following:			
X	The job description of the respondent had changed		
Y	The respondent had to work with different people		
Z	The respondent had to do their work differently		

Table 5.3: The respondents' responses to identification as change recipients in Case B (Source: Author)

Figure 5.1 simplifies and represents the above tables in four quadrants. Quadrant one involves those who were involved in deploying the change as well as being affected by it (three interviewees who are both agents and recipients of the change). Quadrant two shows five informants are agents of the change who were not affected by it. Eight informants were only affected by the change but were not involved in deploying it (quadrant 3). Informants who were neither involved nor affected by the change (quadrant four) are not considered as they are not included in the theoretical sampling of this research.

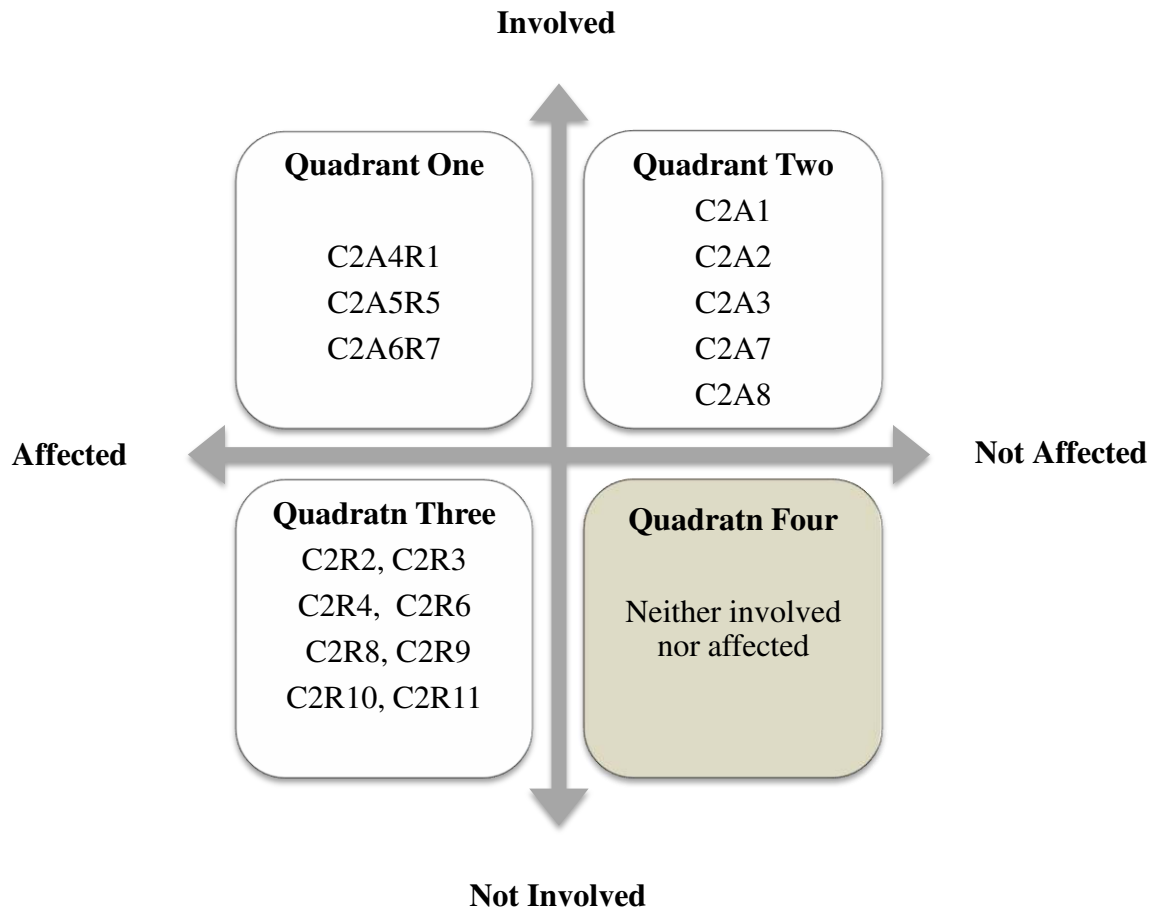


Figure 5.1: Informants' relationship to the change in Case B (Source: Author)

In addition to the interviews, relevant documents were gathered as sources of evidence in Case B. The description of each document and an assigned identification number are illustrated in Table 5.4.

Document ID	Description
C2D1	A document that explains the content of the change, and the rationale behind it.
C2D2	A web page that describes Case B.
C2D3	A document that explains the engagement plan for the change.
C2D4	An example of the fortnightly bulletin magazine about the change.
C2D5	The new mission statement of Case B.
C2D6	One page that describes the organisations' hierarchal structure.
C2D7	The timeline of the trial and implementation plan.

Table 5.4: Description of the relevant documents from Case B (C2 refers to Case B, D refers to document) (Source: Author)

5.4 Reorientation Program and the Organisation's Deep Structure

5.4.1 Reorientation Program

As introduced in section 5.2, the top management in Case B identified an opportunity to improve the productivity of its workforce. The main aim of the transformation was enhancing the organisation's efficiency thereby increasing its profits. To achieve this, the organisation decided to invest in its employees, focusing primarily on its engineers and transforming their work practices. This was achieved by changing the technology infrastructure of the organisation, including both hardware and software, and increasing the number of engineers to meet potential customers' demands (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2D1).

The organisation invested 50 million pounds in the transformation program (C2A1, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A7). The transformation duration was approximately three years: the implementation started in July 2013 and was completed by March 2014 (C2A1, C2A7, C2A8, C2D7). The interviews were conducted from November 2013 until May 2014. During this period, the engineers received new laptops or iPhones with new installed software, called Engineers.com and MyJobs respectively. Also the old tester devices were replaced by new ones, for example Prove It and Fast Test (C2A2, C2A7, C2D1), which can be joined with the new information systems implemented. In addition, more engineers were recruited

which increased the capacity of some of the teams (C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8). Managers (operation managers, senior operation managers, general managers and the directors) were given new laptops and iPhones equipped with new information systems compatible with the new ways of working (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3).

The general style of deploying the change was collaborative. The change agents commenced the change by engaging the top management (directors, general managers, and senior operation managers) in order to obtain their opinions and advice regarding the change process (C2A3). The operation managers and some of the engineers (i.e. gold users) were involved in several trials, which were conducted prior to implementing the new devices (C2A8, C2D3).

The following subsection explains the change in detail by considering its impact on the organisation's deep structure.

5.4.2 Organisational Deep Structure

As reported in the methodology chapter, the unit of analysis is a radical, planned organisational change (reorientation). The term radical is defined based upon the deep structure of an organisation (Gersick, 1991) where at least three components of the structure are modified. This is the situation in the change in Case B as indicated in Table 5.5.

Deep structure component	Factor	Deep structure in relation to the change	References
Strategy	Organisational mission (Pearce and David, 1987)	Existing mission statement has been developed	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A7, C2A8, C2D5
Structure	Work processes (Cameron and Orton, 1995)	Expanded workload for the engineers	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A7, C2A8, C2R10, C2D1
		Less interaction between the engineers and the control team members	C2A3, C2A6R7, C2R8, C2R9, C2R11
	Organisational size (Cameron and Orton, 1995)	Upsizing: The workforce has been increased by employing more engineers	C2A4R1, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R9

Culture	Values and beliefs of organisational members (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985)	Engineers has a different perception in terms of the quality of the work they can deliver	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2R6, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R10, C2D1
		Engineers become more accountable for their work (i.e. self-managing)	C2A1, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2A5R5, C2R9, C2D1
Distribution of power	Power distribution among organisational members (Gersick, 1991)	Minimally impacted	C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A8, C2R9
Control systems	Process control (French et al., 2011)	Full transparency of tracking engineers' progress	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R9
	Output control (French et al., 2011)	Different methods of measuring the engineers' performance with focus on quality rather than quantity	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9, C2R10

Table 5.5: The impact of change on the organisation's deep structure in Case B (Source: Author)

The table above shows four components (strategy, structure, culture, and control system) of the deep structure of Case B that were clearly modified. In terms of the organisation's strategy, the top management decided to make the organisation more customer focused by providing better quality and faster service to the organisation's customers in order to remain and reposition itself in the competitive market (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A7, C2A8, C2D5). As reported by Pearce and David (1987), a mission statement represents an essential explanation of why an organisation exists. Hence, the strategy of the organisation has been altered by the top managements' redefinition of the organisation's mission, which now states:

"We love our customers. We make it easy for them to do business with us and strive for a better customer experience in everything we do." (C2D5)

Also, regarding the organisation's new strategy, a member of the program team reported:

“The business case was some benefits in terms of quicker speed of response. So the strategy around the roll out and the new devices did change to effect the fact that these new devices were gonna bring some benefits in terms of speed. And the strategy was actually looking at the benefits and building those in to the year resourcing profile for the company. So there was a significant impact that based on the roll out of the tools programme, there would be savings, there would be an opportunity to do more provision work and that was built into those plans.” (C2A8)

In respect of the organisation’s structure, two factors - namely work processes, and organisational size (Cameron and Orton, 1995) - were changed. The work processes of the organisation were altered in two ways. First, the workload of the engineers has been increased. With the sophisticated technology introduced in the organisation, the approximate time the engineers save is one hour per day per engineer, which is converted to more jobs (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A7, C2A8, C2R10, C2D1). As mentioned in document C2D1:

“Potentially saving 1 hour plus over a day, and simplifying job closure for engineers.” (C2D1)

Also, a change quality manager asserted:

“Because engineer, say this loosely, I’ve saved myself, I do three jobs a day. I’ve finished those three jobs by 4 o’clock and I have a bit of time. I’m now finishing them at quarter-to-4. Do I sit around for another . . . you know, the management now have got to drive, what do you do with that extra quarter of an hour? I need to get something more out of you. So we’re now in that handover what we talked about earlier. It’s over to you now management. You’ve now got to get something out for that 15 minutes we’ve saved. ” (C2A7)

In addition, an engineer pointed out:

“We’re expected to do more but we’ve got the same hours in the day, more pressure, more stress, it’s all because of demand from service providers, end users and we’re expected to do more testing and everything else.” (C2R10)

The second form in which the organisation's work processes was affected is in terms of the interaction between the engineers and the control team. Pre the transformation, based on an engineer's skills and availability, every day the control team assigned the engineers the jobs they needed to complete in a day. The engineers also used to call the control team when they encountered an issue or when they needed support. However, this interaction between the engineers and the control team has been reduced by implementing new information systems that have automated the process (C2A3, C2A6R7, C2R8, C2R9, C2R11). A program team member noted:

“Now there's less and less reason for them to call Controls. And in the past when they would call Controls, what they would be able to do is go, come on send me to this job over here and that again, that kind of idea has really diminished.” (C2A3)

This is asserted by an operation manager who stated:

“And a lot of that is automated as well now, on the Task Force, or the engineering.com, what the engineers have got now. So that's why they don't need as many people answering the phones, 'cause a lot of it is automated.” (C2A6R7)

Furthermore, an engineer pointed out:

“Yeah because it's all automated now whereas before we used to have some sort of, whereas the control used to be sitting in an office like this and you'd ring them up and they'd dish the work out to you. It's all automated now. It's all automated so you don't have interaction with people.” (C2R9)

The other feature of the organisation's structure that was impacted is the size of the workforce. In particular the number of engineers as well as operation managers has been increased, and therefore the size of teams led by managers (operation managers, and senior operation managers) has also risen. Besides improving the efficiency of the organisation's performance to meet the potential customers' demands, there was a need to recruit more engineers (C2A4R1, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R9). A change quality manager reported that:

“Reducing some of the work practices and making them better, working smarter, but you still need to bring in more people, so you’re still growing that labour base.”
(C2A7)

An operation manager said regarding the amount of engineers:

“We’re actually upsizing, if you like, in the engineering world, [. . .]” (C2A4R1)

The third component of the deep structure that was altered in Case B is the organisation’s culture in terms of the values and beliefs of its members (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985). As a consequence of introducing the modern technology and tools for the engineers, their perception of their work quality has been shifted. Unlike before the transformation, the engineers’ belief in their ability and skills is higher (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2R6, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R10, C2D1). The program director remarked:

“So ultimately, within UK North and South it’s being able to get through more work with the field workforce that we have and it’s also supporting the multiskilling of engineers that makes it easier for them to take on different types of work. And also, I guess, it’s about the engineers feeling that we want to invest in them and that they feel that we care that they’ve got, you know, the latest technology. I think historically there was the feeling that we were behind the times and we hadn’t invested in our workforce in the same way that other companies had.” (C2A1)

This also has been stated in document C2D1 as follows:

“[. . .] we need to enable our people to do a top notch job by providing them with the right tools and technology.” (C2D1)

Additionally, there has been a shift in the organisation’s culture in terms of the engineers’ perception of how their job is managed. By having the latest technology along with new information systems, the engineers became able to manage their own work including planning their daily jobs, and tracking details of their own performance such as time management (C2A1, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2A5R5, C2R9, C2D1). As noted by an operation manager:

“[. . .] they're more involved and concerned about their own performance. Whereas before they wasn't that concerned. But with these new tools now, like I said, there's many tools that we've got and people can go on these tools, like the iPop [New software] and they can look at their weekly performance. And depending on how they've been . . . that's me I can look at the team's performance, and the individuals can also go on there and look at their own performance to see how they've been sort of conducting themselves, or what they need to do to improve things [. . .] So all my engineers on my team, they're fully aware that I don't own their performance. How they perform in a day, they own it, so if they perform bad, it's because of their actions. And I can look on there and see the actions.” (C2A5R5)

This is asserted by an engineer who stated:

“People are very, very aware now, we are very aware that we are very accountable for our time. We all have like a come back time on a job and if we don't come within that time the control that give the work out to us, they're on to us quite quickly so since we've gone onto this, I'm on the iPhone you see, I'm very aware of time management.” (C2R9)

The intention to enable the engineers to be self-managed is reported in the transformation document, which highlights:

“Almost instant access to daily task data. Engineers able to cleanly 'close as they go' - better management of day to day activities.” (C2D1)

With regard to the power distribution in the organisation, there was not a noticeable change. Although the operation managers have gained more control over their engineers in terms of the availability of data for the managers, it was not regarded as a significant shift (C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A8, C2R9). Two members of the program team reported:

“The only significant difference I suppose is the volume of statistical measurements that are now available from the new devices, because they are tracked every sort of hour, minute or second of the day. But that's not necessarily meant any change in the abundance of power. It just means that there is just more availability of statistical

information. How that is used, that's still gonna be down to the same hierarchy, it just means there is more of it.” (C2A8)

“So I think if I'm honest, it's probably taking even more power away from the engineer and giving them more for the managers in terms of how they can assess the efficiency of having to work.” (C2A3)

The last component of the deep structure that has been fundamentally altered is the control system. The control system of the organisation has been changed in terms of process control and output control (French et al., 2011). With regard to the former form of control, the operation managers became able to track their engineers' location by using a Global Position System (GPS) device that is installed in the engineers' vans, which gives real time data. Also, the process control system has been changed in terms of the availability of data for the operation managers, which enables them to know the engineers' progress such as when they started a particular job, when they have finished it, and how well they achieved it (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R9). As mentioned by a member of the program team and an operation manager:

“From the managers, yes, they'll help to control the teams and drive their business. There are obvious efficiencies from taking off an old black top. And in that time you might take to put up or to work or to respond. And we give them an iPhone which effectively is always on management device that they can take out with them. There are obvious benefits I mentioned to you there. And then we have apps that were built on the iPhone, like View My Team and Plus where they can see where their engineers are. They can track them round. They can look at their jobs. It gives them real time reporting on their engineers and what they're doing.” (C2A2)

“Before you had the tools to see if an engineer was coming in on time, I had to go out and visit the site where they worked. Now I've got the tools at my disposal I don't have to do that. Because I can sit and have a meaningful conversation, I can tell the engineer what he's doing and what he's not doing, to make improvements. Because the tools give me that. It gives me, where I can have a real conversation, you know, real information.” (C2A5R5)

In respect of the output control, by introducing the new information systems such as Engineers.com and MyJob associated with new technology, the way the engineers' performance measured became different. Unlike the old software (which was called Task Force), the new systems enable the operation managers to measure the performance of the engineers not only based on what they achieve, but also how they achieve their jobs. In other words, the method of measuring the performance of the engineers has shifted from the quantity to the quality of the jobs. Accordingly, the methods of measuring the performance of the managers (operation managers, the senior operation managers, the general managers, and the directors) have been changed (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9, C2R10). An engineer reported regarding the new methods of measuring the engineers' performance:

“Whereas before if I completed three jobs in a day that was seen as, ‘You’re doing it great.’ I’d just close my jobs off, that was it. Now they’re looking, my time efficiency on those jobs so those three jobs whereas before would have been okay, those three jobs now aren’t ‘cause they’re saying, ‘We see you did three jobs there but you did them and you tested them at a certain time of the day. What were you doing for that hour at the end of the day?’ Now you might have been doing something justifiably but because we’ve got that much information they can say, ‘Okay then, what were you doing for that last hour?’ That last hour you could have done another job. Whereas before three jobs was perfectly acceptable, now three jobs isn’t because they can analyse everything you do in your van. Your van data, your sign on times, your closure times, your testing and demonstration times so they’ve got that much information they can beat us over the head with it. That’s the reason whereas before three jobs was acceptable now three jobs isn’t acceptable.” (C2R9)

Consistently, a member of the program team mentioned:

“There’s a lot more tracking in terms of where the engineers go, what kinds of jobs they do, how efficient they are in generating and completing those jobs. So, yeah, I would say in the control systems, certainly there’s a lot more information. The major theme there is a granularity of information.” (C2A3)

As a result of the transformation, as shown above, four components of the deep structure of Case B (strategy, structure, culture, and control system) have been altered, which is consistent with the radical change definition reported in the methodology chapter. The other element of the unit of analysis that defines the type of change in this research is planned change (Nadler and Tushman, 1995; Seo et al., 2004; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). After intensive investigation of the engineers' work processes including the tools they were using in testing cables (e.g. copper and fibre) and broadband, and the software to report their jobs, the top management found an opportunity to replace the existing technology, which would not last for long, with the most sophisticated technology. Therefore, the top management decided to invest in greater support for their employees (including the provision of the latest technologies) to enhance the organisation's efficiency (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A8). As reported by the program director:

“So our CEO made a commitment that we were going to invest £50 million to ensure that our engineers were equipped with the right tools and devices to do their job in the most efficient manner possible. And on the back of that, extensive analysis was completed to look at the different engineer skill profiles across the organisation and how we would approach each transformation, per skill profile. So it was very much planned.” (C2A1)

Therefore, the transformation in Case B is compatible with the criteria of the unit of analysis of this research mentioned in the methodology chapter (radical, planned organisational change).

5.5 The Change Recipients and their Salience to the Change

In this section, the change recipients of the transformation in Case B will be described. Then the salience of the recipients will be identified by referring to their power, legitimacy, and urgency with respect to the change.

5.5.1 The Change Recipients

As shown in Table 5.6, the recipients of the transformation are the directors, the general managers, the senior operation managers, the operation managers, the engineers, and the control team, all of whom work in the organisation.

Change recipients	Aspect of change in job	References
Directors	Work differently: Have to use a new information system to manage their teams.	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A8
General managers	Work differently: Have to use a new information system to manage their teams.	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A8
Senior operation managers	Work differently: Have to use a new information system to manage their teams. Work with different people: Increased number of operation managers within some of the senior operation manager's teams.	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8
Operation managers	Work differently: Have to use a new information system to manage their teams. Work with different people: Increased number of engineers within each operation manager's team.	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2A5R5, C2R6, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9
Engineers	Job description: Some engineers have been up-skilled (i.e. working on fibre as well as copper cables). Work differently: Have to use new testing tools, hardware and software applications to perform their job. Minimal interaction with the control team. Work with different people: New engineers have been employed.	C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2R3, C2R4, C2A5R5, C2R6, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9, C2R10, C2R11
Control team	Job description: The control team members' job has been split into two: Fluidity, and Jeopardy. Work differently: Minimal interaction with the engineers.	C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R4, C2A5R5, C2A7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9, C2R11

Table 5.6: The change recipients of the change in Case B (Source: Author)

The directors (one for the Northern region of the country and one for the Southern region), the general managers, the senior operation managers, and the operation managers were all considered as recipients of the change as they had to adapt their behaviours. As a consequence of the change in the way the engineers perform their job, the productivity measures by which they are monitored by the managers have also changed. Hence the

managers have been supplied with new information system such as View My Team and Plus as well as iPhone devices which enable them to adapt to the new approaches of working (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A5R5, C2A8). A team member of the program commented regarding one of the two directors:

“[. . .] the ways that he interfaces with his people are changing. If they are changing, then his role and his interface with the role must be changed. And his eyes in the way that his business is monitored are also changing. So if we’re trying to drive benefits and efficiencies into his engineers, then he has to manage that as part of his business and his KPI and his benefits profile will change on the back of it. So he’s the recipient of the change.” (C2A2)

The program director commented regarding the four tiers of the managers:

“[. . .] so, OMs [Operation Managers] SOMs [Senior Operation Managers], GMs [General Managers] and directors need to adopt their management style to the new ways of working [. . .]” (C2A1)

The senior operation managers and the operation managers were also affected in terms of the number of the operation managers and engineers they supervise, which has been increased as mentioned in section 5.4.2.

With regard to the engineers, they were considered by all the respondents as recipients of the change. An operation manager stated:

“But the tools itself affects every single field engineer.” (C2A4R1)

The engineers have been affected in respect of the content of their job. For instance, some engineers’ skills have been upgraded from copper networks to include the fibre side of the network as well. Regarding the efforts by introducing the new technology to up-skill the engineers, the program director stated:

“It helps support up-skilling and I think previously, you know, you had a specific job come through and it would go to one community. The hope now is that by giving

people access to everything on a single device, it's easier to up-skill them, which then makes the workforce more flexible to meet business demand.” (C2A1)

Also, the engineers have been impacted in terms of the way they perform their job. The engineers have to use new tools and software (e.g. MyJobs) in order to enhance the efficiency of their work practices. A member of the program team mentioned:

“The devices are there and they drive efficiency. It's like using the Apps on the back of them, and the Apps affect the way that the engineers receive, progress and close jobs.” (C2A2)

Also, the automation process resulting from the new technology led to an independency between the engineers and the control team as reported in section 5.4.2. In addition, the engineers had to work with and interact with other engineers who are newly recruited as part of the transformation.

The last group of change recipients is the control team. They were regarded as recipients of the change as they were affected in term of their job description. Since many processes of the control team in terms of interacting with the engineers became automated, the control team's job was restructured. The team used to hold one title, called Control, in which every member did the same job. However, the control team has been split into two teams, namely the Fluidity control team and the Jeopardy control team. As mentioned by a member of the control team:

“Before, when Transformation came in you had one control. So you had for Fluidity and Jeopardy used to be one people. So Fluid would be in our office, so the person would be at the table would be able to get the work fluid, any problems we could go to them. When Transformation came in they split that up so you got two controls. Instead of having one control that split up to two controls which made it very hard to work.” (C2R11)

Fluidity team is responsible for allocating new jobs for engineers based on their skills and the areas they are in. Therefore, when a new job arises, Fluidity team looks for an

appropriate engineer who is in the area where the job needs to be done, and has the skills to complete the job and time to do it. Jeopardy team is accountable for the safety of the engineers while they are in the field. For instance, if a particular job takes more time than expected, Jeopardy team contact the engineer who is performing that job to check if any safety related issues have arisen and offer assistance, if necessary. As reported by a field operation manager:

“The controls then, if an engineer, for whatever reason, just as an example, he's got a basic skill, so he's purely a basic engineer, and there's no more of that type work he's in, he will get a ring control message. So he needs to call into the controller and just speak to someone, speak to a person, and they will allocate him some work then, maybe the closest sort of area. So that's how the controls sort of talk to us. The other thing is as well, if an engineer has, for example, two hours on a task, and he plugs in at eight o'clock in the morning, that basically is expecting him back at ten o'clock. If he goes over at that and starts going, 10, 15 minutes, half an hour over that, it realises an alert to the control, and this is where the jeopardy controller gets in. He gets an alert to say, engineer X, you know, he's expected back, now is he safe, and he is ready to pull other work. So then they will call that engineer to find out if he's okay and his expected come back time [. . .]” (C2A6R7)

Therefore, and in addition to the reduction in the interaction with the engineers, the control team had to perform their job differently from the pre transformation period. Having identified the change recipients of the change in Case B, the following subsection reveals the salience of each group of change recipients.

5.5.2 The Salience of the Change Recipients

As illustrated in Figures 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4, the informants determined the salience of each group of change recipients in Case B in terms of their power, legitimacy, and urgency in relation to the demarcation scheme defined in the methodology chapter (see Chapter Three Tables 3.11 and 3.12). However, some of the interviewees, specifically the operation managers, are not aware of the power, legitimacy, and urgency of some of the change recipients (the directors and the general managers, and the senior operation managers), and therefore the interviewees could not comment on this.

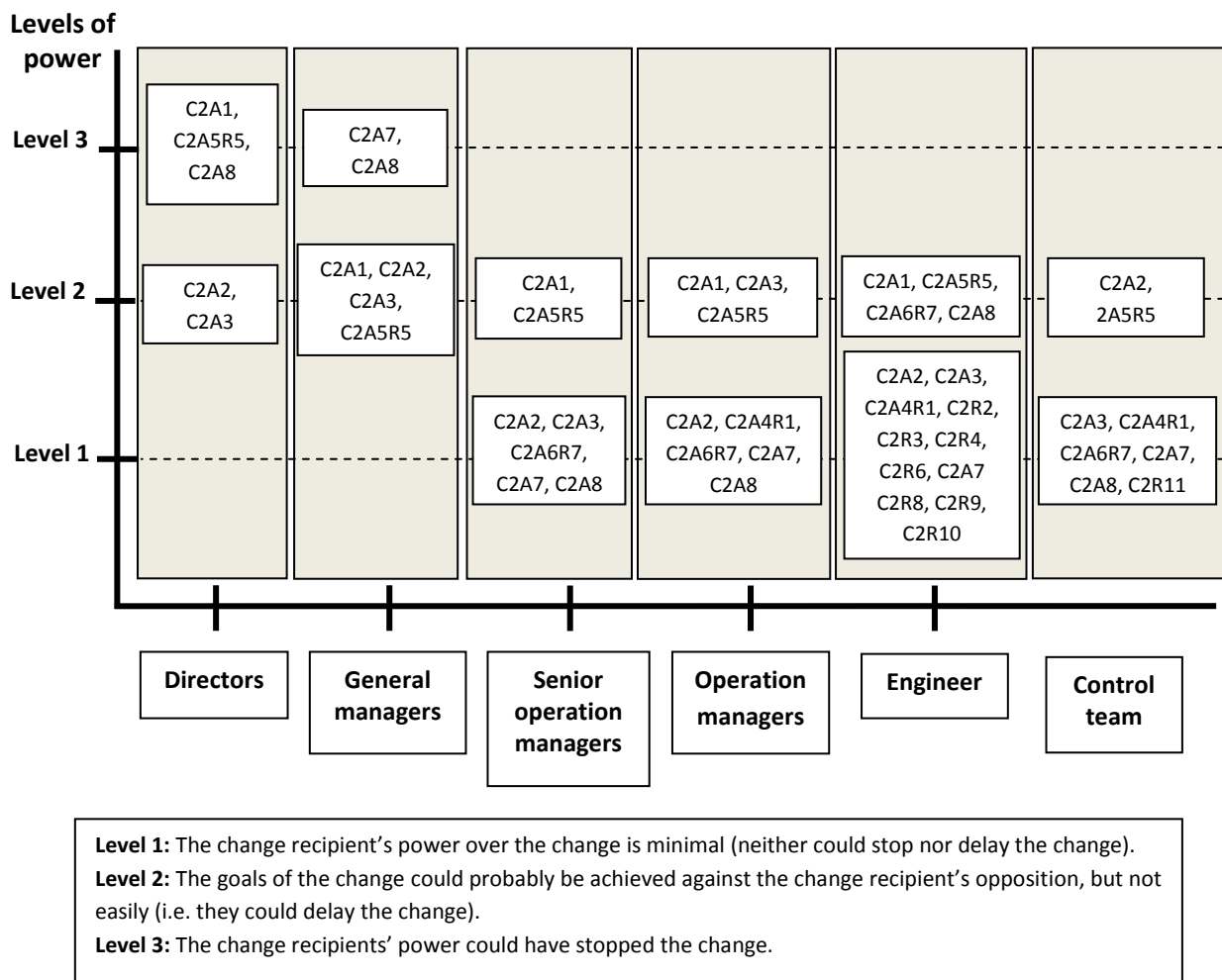


Figure 5.2: The respondents' responses to the change recipients' levels of power over the change in Case B (Source: Author)

In terms of change recipients' power over the change, Figure 5.2 indicates that the directors are the only change recipients whose level of power is high (level 3). However, the general managers' power over the change is moderate (level 2). On the whole, the remaining groups of recipients (senior operation managers, operation managers, engineers, and control team) had minimal power over the change.

In respect of the legitimacy level of the change recipients, Figure 5.3 shows that the director and the general managers had a high level of legitimacy in relation to the change (level 4 and 3). The legitimacy level of the senior operation managers, the operation managers, the engineers, and the control team leans more to the moderate level (level 2). As shown in Figure 5.3, the program director (i.e. C2A1) considers the legitimacy of the senior operation

managers, the operation managers, and the engineers as high since they had the ability to vote on decisions regarding the change via the union. However, the members of the program (i.e. C2A2, C2A3, C2A7, C2A8), along with the operation managers and the engineers, regard (the ability to vote) as not applicable to the transformation program. As commented by the change quality manager regarding the legitimacy level of the senior operation managers, the operation managers, the engineers, and the control team:

“They don’t have the choice, as we’ve said previously. It was decided by management and agreed with Unions, this is the way we’re going, you will follow.” (C2A7)

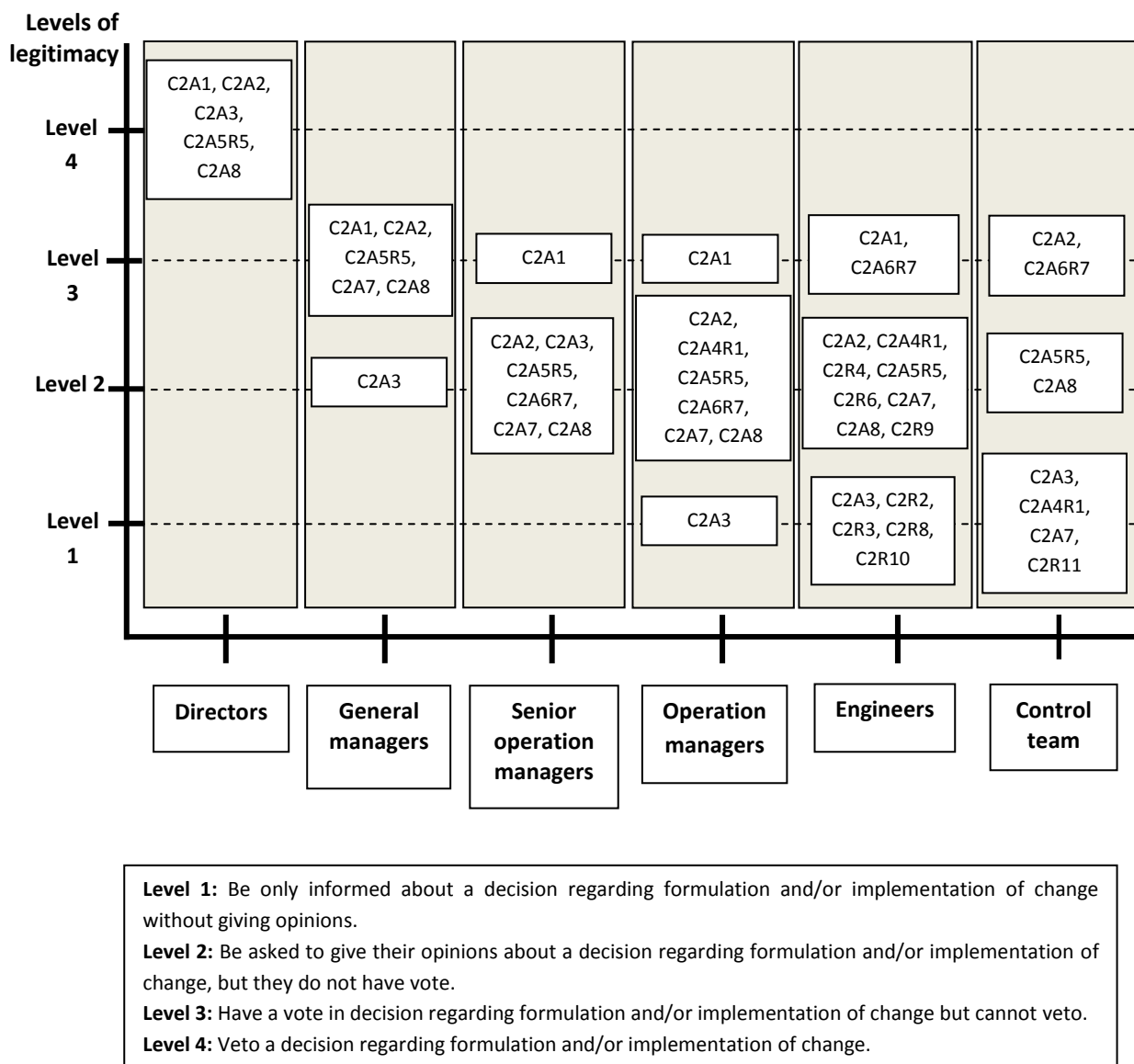


Figure 5.3: The respondents’ responses to the change recipients’ levels of legitimacy to the change in Case B (Source: Author)

Lastly, the change recipients' salience was determined in terms of the urgency of their demands in relation to the change. As illustrated in Figure 5.4, the urgency level of the directors and the general managers falls between level 3 and level 2, which classifies the urgency of their requests to the change as high. The informants' determination of the level of the urgency of the senior operation managers and the operation managers varies. However, the majority of the informants, including the program director, consider the level of the urgency of the senior operation managers and the operation managers as moderate (level 2). In terms of the engineers, their level of urgency in relation to the change lies between level 3 and level 2, which is regarded as high. The final group of the recipients is the control team whose urgency level to the change leans between level 2 and level 1, which is considered as low.

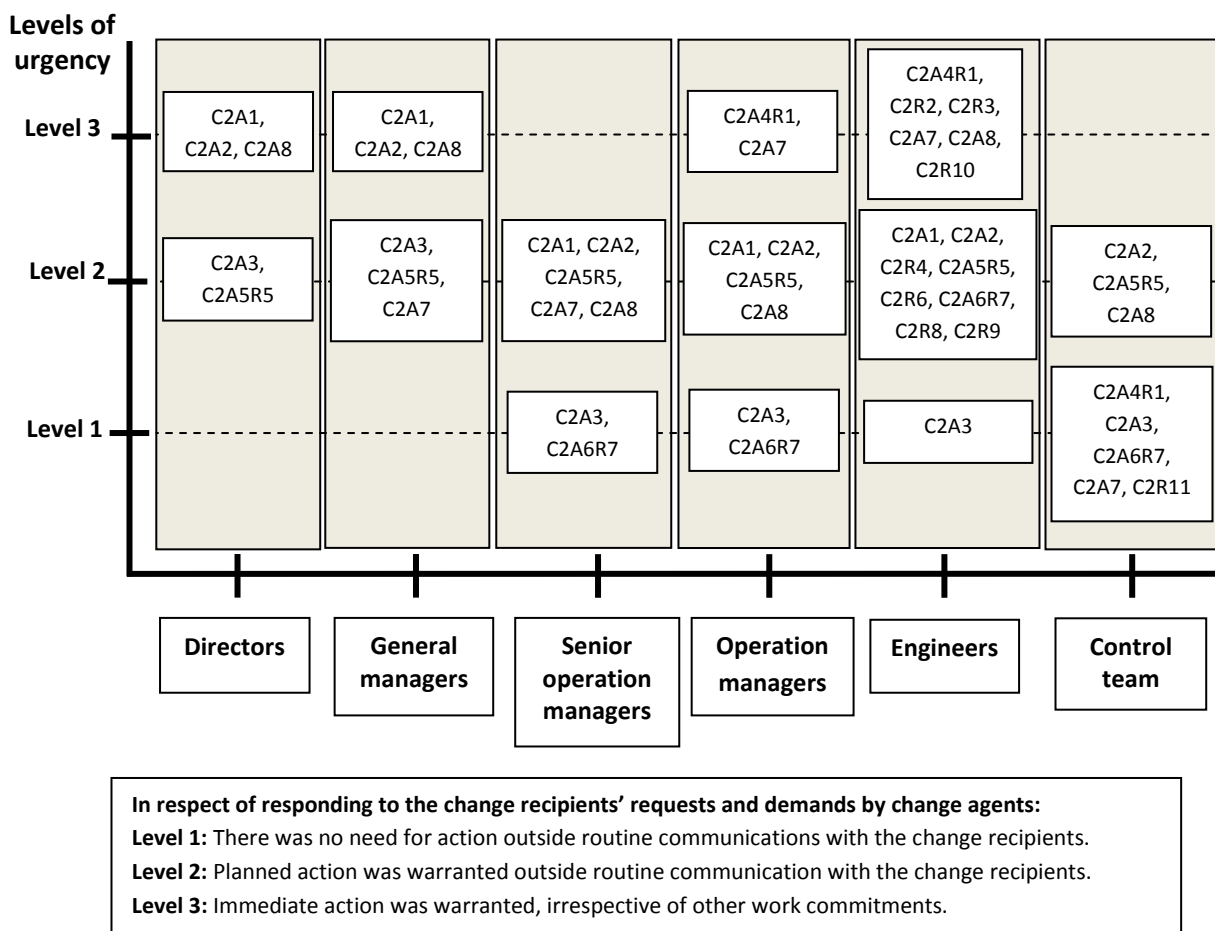


Figure 5.4: The respondents' responses to the change recipients' levels of urgency to the change in Case B (Source: Author)

A summary of the salience of the change recipients to the change and the relative demarcations are shown in Table 5.7 next.

Change recipients	Salience class	Power	Legitimacy	Urgency
The directors	Definitive	High Level 3: Stop the change	High Level 4: Veto decisions regarding the change	High Level 3: Immediate action is warranted irrespective of other work commitments
General managers	Dependent	Moderate Level 2: Delay the change	High Level 3: Vote on decisions regarding the change	High Level 3: Immediate action is warranted irrespective of other work commitments
Senior operation managers	Expectant	Low Level 1: Minimal power (neither stop nor delay the change)	Moderate Level 2: Give opinions about the change	Moderate Level 2: Planned action is warranted outside routine communication
Operation managers	Expectant	Low Level 1: Minimal power	Moderate Level 2: Give opinions about the change	Moderate Level 2: Planned action is warranted outside routine communication
Engineers	Demanding	Low Level 1: Minimal power (neither stop nor delay the change)	Moderate Level 2: Give opinions about the change	High Level 3: Immediate action is warranted irrespective of other work commitments
Control	Latent	Low Level 1: Minimal power (neither stop nor delay the change)	Moderate Level 2: Give opinions about the change	Low Level 1: No need for action outside routine communication

Table 5.7: The salience of the change recipients in relation to the change in Case B based on their power, legitimacy, and urgency (Source: Author)

By relating the results indicated in Table 5.7 to the different classes of salience defined in the methodology chapter, change recipients are matched to the relevant category. As the directors had high levels of power, legitimacy, and urgency to the change, they are regarded as definitive change recipients. The general managers had high levels of both legitimacy and urgency, but moderate power which classifies them as dependent change recipients. With regard to the senior operation managers and the operation managers, both recipients had moderate levels of legitimacy and urgency and minimal power over the change, therefore they fit under the expectant class. With only a high level of urgency, the engineers are considered as demanding change recipients. The last group of the recipients are the control team. Since the control team lacked power and urgency (both are low levels) and had a moderate level of legitimacy to the change, they are regarded as latent change recipients. Figure 5.5 below illustrates the change recipients of Case B and their relevant salience class.

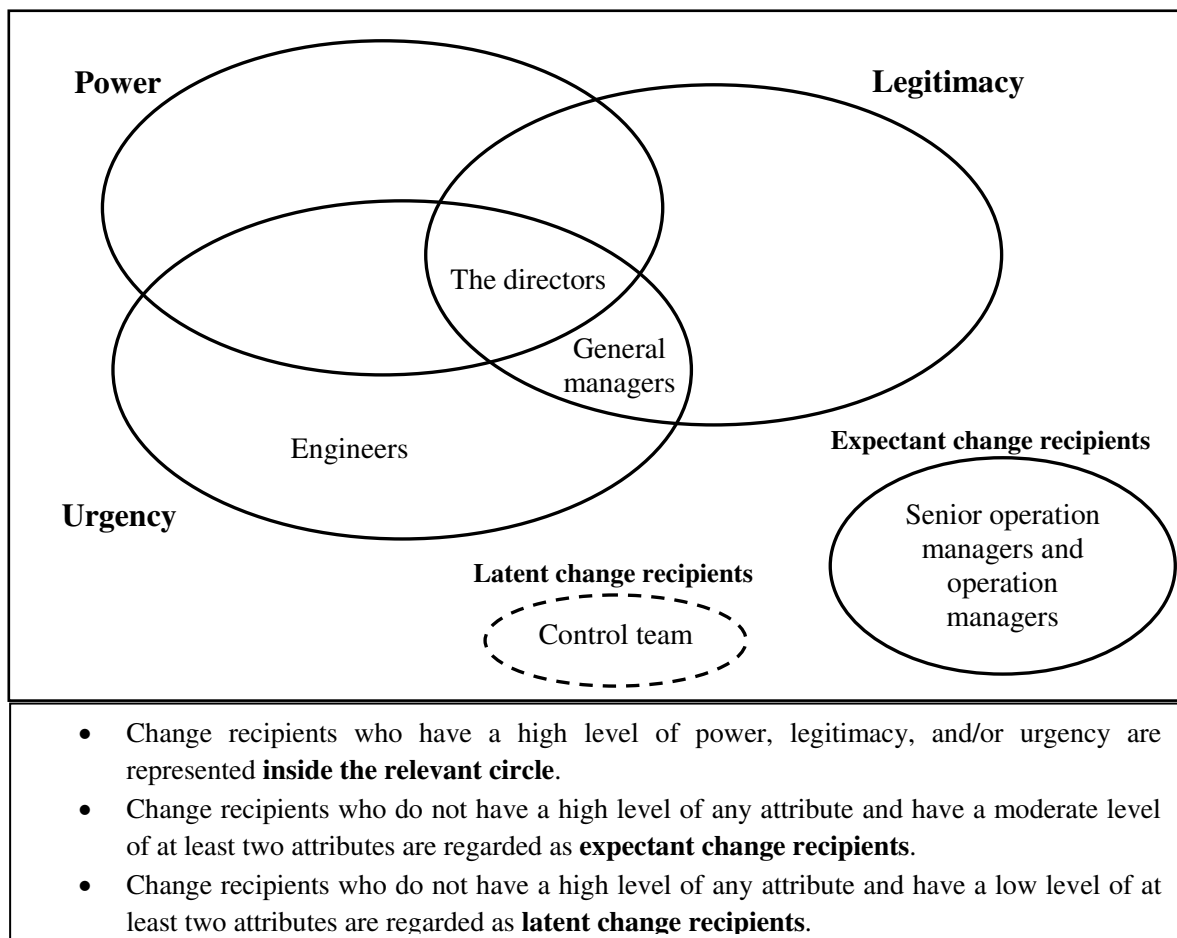


Figure 5.5: The power, legitimacy, and urgency of change recipients in Case B based on the salience theory (Source: Author)

Based upon the salience theory, Figure 5.5 shows that the directors followed by the general managers are the most salient change recipients while the engineers followed by the control team are the least salient change recipients. However, the majority of the informants (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2A5R5, C2R6, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9, C2R11) consider the engineers as the most salient change recipients since they are most affected by the change. As stated by the program director:

“I guess ultimately, the engineers are probably the most important, because they are the ones that are going to use it day in and day out.” (C2A1)

This was also asserted by an engineer and an operation manager who mentioned respectively:

“The engineers are the most important because they are the ones who had to deal with the most change so they were the first ones ‘cause they had to deal with the trackers, they had to deal with the iPhones, etc.” (C2R9)

“But most important people are the engineers, in the field.” (C2A6R7)

Consequently, the three attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) of stakeholder salience theory are inadequate to fully determine the salience of change recipients to change. Hence, as shown above, the extent that a change recipient is affected by the change needs to be taken into consideration in order to specify the salience of change recipients to organisational reorientation.

Finding 1: The extent to which a change recipient is affected by the change needs to be considered as an attribute (alongside power, legitimacy, and urgency) in the determination of the salience of change recipients of organisational reorientation.

In keeping with Case A, in order to distinguish between the change recipients in terms of the extents to which they are affected by the change in Case B, they will be categorised into three categories based on the factors reported by Jick (1990). As indicated in Table 5.6, the change recipients in Case B who were affected by all three factors (i.e. changes in job description, work with different people, and work differently) are the engineers, and they are

termed *primary change recipients*. The change recipients who were affected by only two factors will be *secondary change recipients*, and in Case B these are the senior operation managers, the operation managers, and the control team members. The least affected change recipients are those who are affected by only one of the three factors mentioned by Jick (1990). These are the directors, and the general managers, who are thus *tertiary change recipients*. Table 5.8 below presents the change recipients and their relevant class of salience to the change.

Change recipients	Salience class
The directors	Tertiary-definitive recipients
General managers	Tertiary-dependent recipients
Senior operation managers	Secondary- expectant recipients
Operation managers	Secondary-expectant recipients
Engineers	Primary-demanding recipients
Control team	Secondary-latent recipients

Table 5.8: The change recipients and their salience class to the change in Case B (Source: Author)

5.6 Levels and Sources of Change Recipients' Resistance to the Change

All the change recipient groups, except the directors, in Case B exhibited resistance to the change. In line with Case A, the modes of resistance shown by the change recipients will be defined based upon the scheme by Coetsee (1999), which is explained in the methodology chapter.

In terms of the general managers, their resistance took the form of indifference in which they did not show enthusiasm towards the change (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A8). According to Coetsee (1999), this is regarded as an apathy mode of resistance. A member of the program team noted regarding the resistance of the general managers:

“I would say it was indifference. It wasn't high opposition.” (C2A3)

The general managers' resistance was due to their fear and anxiety about the change, which stemmed from the ambiguity of the change process (C2A1, C2A3, C2A8). The program director stated, regarding the reason for the general managers' resistance:

"[. . .] they just had concerns with how it was being rolled out." (C2A1)

Also, this is asserted by a member of the program team who mentioned:

"They resisted because they felt it was going to impact on their productivity." (C2A3)

From a status quo bias theory perspective (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988), the fear and anxiety reason for resistance, as is the case for the general managers, is positioned in the uncertainty costs.

With respect to the senior operation managers, they exhibited an active level of resistance to the change (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A8). This is also the case for the operation managers (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2A7, C2A8). The resistance by these groups of recipients was blocking behaviour by asking their team not to comply with the change, which is classified as an active mode of resistance by Coetsee (1999). The program director reported regarding the resistance of the senior operation managers and the operation managers:

"So their immediate reaction was, 'Hold on a second, you know, we need to know more before we'll support this going forward.' " (C2A1)

Also, as asserted by a team member of the program regarding the senior operation managers and the operation managers respectively:

"So some SOMs [Senior Operation Managers] were saying 'that's it, stop. Get off the tools. Go back onto your old ways of working until we figure out what's going on.' " (C2A2)

"They were telling people to stop using the new tools." (C2A2)

The causes of the resistance by the senior operation managers and the operation managers

are the same. Both suffered from the uncertainty they experienced in the change (C2A1, C2A7). As stated by the program director:

“So we did not focus on SOMs [Senior Operation Managers] and OMs [Operation Managers] as a specific community that we initially targeted for UK North and South. Because they were . . . because that cascade didn’t happen and they felt that they weren’t in the know, I think they thought, you know, ‘we’re being asked to do all these different things. Our engineers are being asked to work in a different way, I’m gonna have to manage my team in a slightly different way as a result of that and you haven’t given me any forward visibility of what’s coming my way.’ ” (C2A1)

Another source of resistance by the senior operation managers was the loss of their control over their work (C2A2, C2A3, C2A8), which was also the source of the operation managers’ resistance (C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2A7, C2A8). The complexity associated with using the new devices by the engineers and the timesheets for the operation managers impacted the productivity of the senior operation managers and as well as the operation managers. Regarding the reason for the senior operation managers’ resistance, a team member of the program remarked:

“Because they [Senior Operation Managers] were being told by their engineers and their OMs that it was driving the wrong behaviour. It was working or it was doing the wrong thing to the business. So they were saying well until I get to the bottom of whether these tools are actually working, or if they’re doing what I’m hearing, I don’t know if I want to be party to this or not.” (C2A2)

Likewise, a change quality manager stated regarding the source of the operation managers’ resistance:

“Their [Operation Managers] resistance was mainly around when we had problems with timesheets, yeah, because they’re happy for the engineers to use the tools, however we had a number of issues. Timesheets weren’t always what they should’ve been so they were worse, you know, a manager was taking a lot longer at the end of the day to do the engineer’s timesheets than they were before on the old system.” (C2A7)

With regard to the status quo bias theory, the causes of resistance mentioned above - uncertainty and the issues associated with the new tools - are related to uncertainty costs and control respectively.

In respect of the engineers' resistance to change, their level was more active than passive in relation to the scheme devised by Coetsee (1999). Some of the engineers were deliberately not attending training sessions, not using the new tools, complaining to the union, and insisting on continuing their old ways of working (C2A1, C2A2, C2A4R1, C2R3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R9). The program director mentioned regarding the engineers' mode of resistance:

"Yeah, so we had no shows, no shows of training." (C2A1)

Likewise, a change quality manager commented about some of the engineers' reactions to the change:

"Not using. Once trained, still not using it [the new tools], going back to the old ways." (C2A7)

This is also asserted by an operation manager and an engineer who mentioned respectively:

"They complained, they go to see their union, yeah, yeah very much so." (C2A5R5)

"It was by refusing to use the new processes, the new tools and continuing to use the old tools [. . .]" (C2R3)

The sources of the engineers' resistance were twofold. First, the unwillingness of some the engineers to change as they were satisfied with their work pre the transformation and therefore, found that the transformation per se was costly (C2A1, C2A2, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2R3, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2R8, C2R9, C2R10, C2R11). A member of the program team commented with respect to the engineers' resistance:

"Predominantly it's just a refusal to change their working habits." (C2A2)

Consistently, an operation manager stated

“Because they didn't want it, they didn't want the change. They saw it as encroaching on their comfort zone.” (C2A5R5)

Also, an engineer explained the reason for the engineers' resistance to the change by reporting:

“You'll probably find there's stubbornness, people don't want to change for whatever reason they don't wanna change, nobody likes change.” (C2R10)

The second source of the engineers' resistance to the change is the difficulty associated with using the new tools, which caused them to lose control over their work (C2A2, C2A3, C2R6, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R9, C2R10). Two members of the program change stated:

“Some people have never used something like a Smartphone in their life, and it is just a huge mountain for these people to cope with, and to take them through.” (C2A2)

“There were some genuine people that had reasons why they couldn't use some of the new devices. So for example, you had people that previously had Taskforce on a laptop and under the roll out plans we gave them an iPhone, but didn't take into account any physical restrictions. We had some people that for example were dyslexic and there was speech software on the laptops that helped them to use their old machine. Now we've given them an iPhone and it hasn't got that speech software on so straight away they're in a situation where they can't carry out and perform their duties.” (C2A8)

Also, an engineer noted regarding the resistance of the engineers:

“The old guys don't like getting new technology. They're stuck in their ways.” (C2R6)

The unwillingness of the engineers to change their status quo and their inability to cope with the new technology are explained by the status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser,

1988): the former reason belongs to the transition costs category of the theory while the latter reason is related to control category.

The final group of change recipients who exhibited resistance to the change in Case B is the control team. However, the control team's mode of resistance was rather passive as they verbally showed their dissatisfaction with the change but took no actions to slow down the change (C2A3, C2A8, C2R9, C2R11). As reported by a member of the control team:

“People, you know, had a moan and groan about it [the change], some of it.” (C2R11)

Similar to the engineers, the cause of the resistance of the control team was their struggle to cope with the new ways of working (C2A3, C2A7, C2A8), which belongs to the control category of the status quo bias theory. A program team member noted with respect to the control team's resistance:

“So their issue is around . . . once we get to a level where there's a high level of usage, they worry that they'll inundated with phone calls from people who are struggling with the new tools, 'cause as I mentioned, once you have a difficulty, the likelihood is you'll going to be needed be what we call hard pinned a job across.” (C2A3)

Consistently, the change quality manager remarked:

“And that was probably the main thing for the controllers, not knowing how to emulate.” (C2A7)

Table 5.9 summarises the change recipients' modes and sources of resistance to the change in Case B based upon status quo bias theory.

Change recipients	Mode of resistance	Sources of resistance
General managers	Apathy	Uncertainty costs
Senior operation managers	Active	Uncertainty costs Control
Operation managers	Active	Uncertainty costs Control
Engineers	Active	Transition costs Control
Control team	Passive	Control

Table 5.9: The modes and sources of change recipients' resistance to the change in Case B (Source: Author)

5.7 Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' Resistance to the Change

Having identified the change recipients, their salience, the sources and levels of their resistance to the change in Case B, this section reports the strategies that are effective to deal with their resistance. In accordance with Case A, the effectiveness of the strategies employed in Case B is defined as compliance (Falbe and Yukl, 1992). This means that the change recipients move from being resisters to adopters irrespective of their preferences. In Case B, both change agents and change recipients assert that the change recipients complied with the change rather than insisting on resisting it (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R2, C2R4, C2A5R5, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R8, C2R10, C2R11). The change program director reported:

“You know, as I just said, we had 12 per cent uplift in one day.” (C2A1)

Also, a member of the program team noted that the number of engineers who transformed to the new ways of working has significantly increased as follows:

“So over the last couple of weeks now we’ve seen probably 84% increase in adoption. We’re proposing more numbers than ever. So I think numbers for this week in terms of jobs, completions on the new devices are around 38,000, which is the highest ever. Clearly you expect an upward trending curve, but I think the shift in the last two weeks

have been pretty amazing, and that's been as a result of all the engagement and change activities that have taken place.” (C2A3)

An operation manager reported with respect to his engineers:

“They embraced it, after it's made and the changes take place [. . .]” (C2A5R5)

This is also asserted by an engineer who commented on their mode of resistance:

“No, no I don't think it's [the resistance] going higher. I think we've accepted the equipment we've got and again we've all had to change, re-jig ourselves to work in a different way.” (C2R10)

In the next subsections, the strategies employed to overcome the resistance of the change recipients in Case B will be introduced.

5.7.1 Communication

Various strategies were found to deal with the change recipients' resistance in Case B. With regard to the general managers' resistance (apathy and resisting the change because of the uncertainty associated with the change) two-way communication was the strategy used by the agents to diminish their resistance (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A8). This was achieved via regular face-to-face meetings, e-mails, and bulletins that were frequently published in order to provide the general managers with updated information regarding the change, which is regarded in the literature as a two-way communication strategy (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013). Regarding coping with the general managers' resistance, the program director said:

“So with GMs [General Managers], it's keeping them informed. So attending their face-to-face meetings and weekly calls to give them updates on the delivery plan. [. . .] And then also just better awareness through weekly bulletins and you know, communications on our website and other internal channels that are available to us.” (C2A1)

Also, a member of the change program noted:

“Again, it’s just being available and responding back. So if I had a query, it would give them [General Managers] the information to the best of my ability, or if not seek assistance. There was senior project managers available as well, so if there was something I could answer and they were happy with that, great. If not, then I will take over the escalation route as well, keep them informed as to what’s going on with that escalation and get the responses back to them at the earliest opportunity.” (C2A8)

By referring to the salience of the general managers (i.e. tertiary-dependent change recipients), their mode and source of resistance, two-way communication is an effective method to cope with their resistance (see Figure 5.6).

Finding 2: Two-way communication is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dependent change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs.

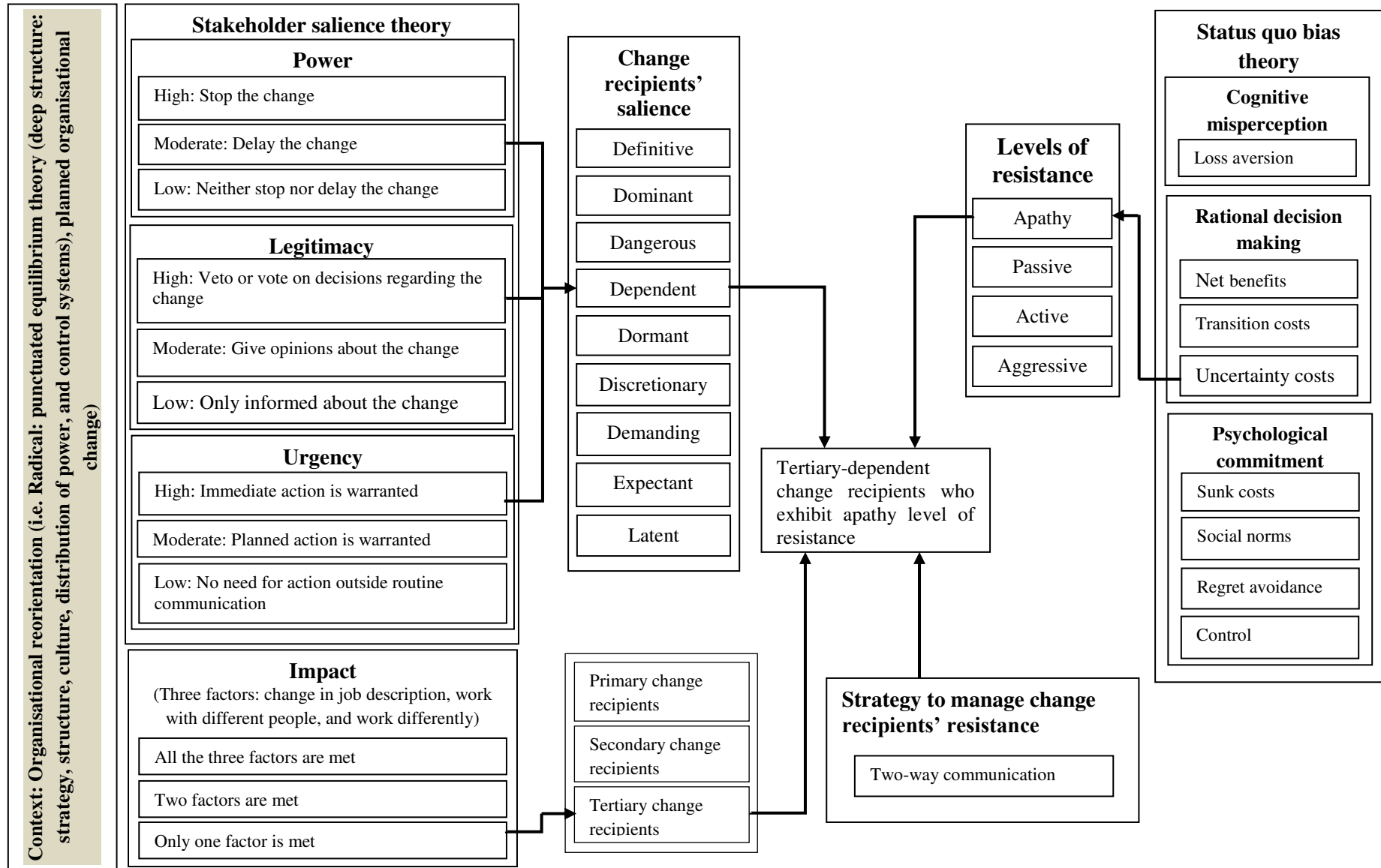


Figure 5.6: Tertiary-dependent change recipients and the relevant strategy to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

Also, two-way communication was employed to reduce the resistance of senior operation managers and the operation managers (C2A1, C2A3, C2A8). Similar to the general managers, the change agents informed the senior operation managers and the operation managers about the latest update of the change progress. As expressed by the program director:

“So similarly, it was about giving more direct comms to those populations. Attending . . . there’s like all manager sessions and calls, so having a tools slot on those to provide updates on the rollout plan.” (C2A1)

Also, a member of the program team commented, regarding dealing with the senior operation managers and the operation managers:

“But the option was always there as well, did some calls with just SOM [Senior Operation Manager] and OMs [Operation Managers] on a particular patch. So where there was interest and a lack of knowledge, then the offer was there for me to set up a conference call and just go over any issues, take away stuff and just really giving them an update of where we were and what to expect.” (C2A8)

However, two-way communication was not the only strategy used to cope with the resistance of the senior operation managers and the operation managers. Facilitation strategy was also employed. This will be introduced in the following subsection. Therefore, by taking into account the salience class of the senior operation managers and the operation managers, and the levels and sources of resistance introduced in the early sections, the following finding is formulated:

Finding 3: Two-way communication (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.

5.7.2 Facilitation

Besides two-way communication as a strategy to deal with the resistance of the senior operation managers and the operation managers, facilitation strategy was also used (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A7, C2A8, C2D4). The change agents supported the senior operation managers and the operation managers to comply with the change by fixing any issues associated with the change such as the time sheet. The change agents enabled the managers to raise any difficulty with the change by providing a bulletin (C2D4 document is an example) through which the managers could request assistance. Resolving the technical problems and the assistance offered by the change agents are methods of facilitation (Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012). The program director remarked:

“Another thing that we did is, we put a weekly bulletin out into those communities and we provided a direct link, so like a survey, they could fill out with any known issues that they wanted to report. So we tried to make it as easy as possible for them to report issues or to flag to the programme team things that they thought weren’t going well, so we could address them as quickly as possible.” (C2A1)

This is also in accordance with what a change quality manager stated:

“Fixes have all been put in. They was slow coming at first but you’ve got to really get the technical team on board to understand the problem. So what we did, a lot of those problems, and not just the timesheets, particularly in Scotland where I knew there was problems because that where I was working, I got the SOMs [Senior Operation Managers], the OMs [Operation Managers] and even some coaches on to a call. [. . .] ‘Right, let’s have a discussion. What’s not working?’ And we ironed it out.” (C2A7)

Therefore, by relating the salience level of the senior operation managers and the operation managers to the levels and sources of their resistance, the following finding is stated:

Finding 4: Facilitation (in conjunction with two-way communication) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.

Although the senior operation managers and the operation managers are two different groups of change recipients and both hold different positions in the organisation, their salience class, levels and sources of resistance to the change in Case B are the same. Hence the strategies employed to deal with their resistance (i.e. two way communication and facilitation) were the same for each of the group. This underpins the feasibility of the strategies adopted to deal with their resistance. Figure 5.7 shows the effective strategies to cope with secondary-expectant change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation.

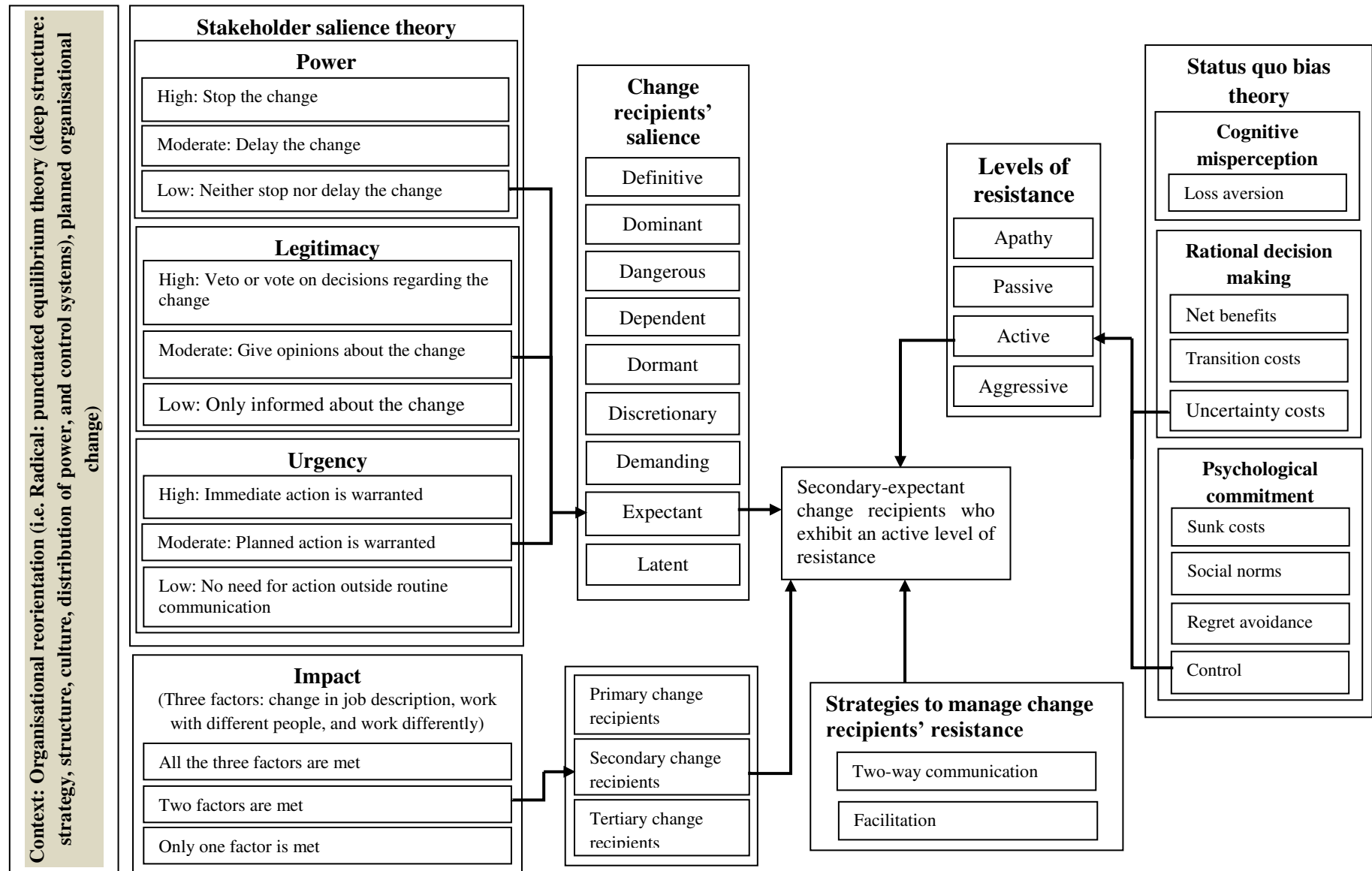


Figure 5.7: Secondary-expectant change recipients and the relevant strategies to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

Facilitation strategy was also effective in diminishing the engineers' resistance to the change in Case B. Top management support, training, and fixing issues with the new devices, all of which are forms of facilitation (Barton and Ambrosini, 2013; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012), were provided to the engineers (C2A1, C2A2, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2R3, C2R4, C2A6R7, C2A7, C2A8, C2R9, C2D4). The change agents arranged several days, which are called 'Tools Awareness Days' (C2A1), in which the top management members went out to the field, along with the change agents and the engineers, and used the new devices introduced in order to offer their support and help to the engineers. The program director mentioned:

“[. . .] we did a tools awareness day, where we had all the directors, GMs [General Managers], SOMs [Senior Operation Managers] and OMs [Operation Managers], all go out in the field and make sure that they were spending time with their engineers to understand, you know, to celebrate the successes when things were going well, but also to give people a bit more support for where they were struggling. And on the back of doing that alone in one day we saw an uplift of 12 per cent, which is a massive improvement by a single day of activity.” (C2A1)

Also, a change quality manager stated:

“I guess some of the other strategies there with the managers, we did have what we call Tools Awareness Days. We had one in December and one early in January where we said, 'Right, you drop everything in management, SOMs [Senior Operation Managers] and OMs [Operation Managers] and you get out there and you drive up the usage on your guys. Anything you need from us, we're there to help you, we're on call.'” (C2A7)

Additionally, the engineers were provided with extra training and bulletins were made available through which the engineers could learn about using the new tools. A member of the program team reported:

“So we did a weekly newsletter and that would contain things like hints and tips to make it easier for people, so it was a case of sharing some of that knowledge 'cos it could just be someone doesn't know how to use a particular system. They've gone

through training, that was provided, but it may be that they've encountered a particular task or a particular situation that they either can't remember or wasn't covered very well. So we have the newsletter that they can refer to and there were some hints and tips put in there well. And lastly there would be websites. We could direct people to websites to, again, allay some of the fears, to let people know what's coming, or if they've got particular issues already that these aren't just your issues, they're general issues and this is what's being done to fix them.” (C2A8)

Consistently, an operation manager remarked regarding coping with the engineers' resistance:

“Retraining, 'cause they're all trained, but if there's any other sort of refresher training they needed, then I would get them that.” (C2A4R1)

Additionally, the change agents facilitated the change for the engineers by solving any issue they encountered with the new devices. As noted by an engineer:

“We'd have something called huddles, where we'd, we have a meeting with our manager, who'd tell us this is changing and then we'd have a conversation with ourselves to say if you're happy really, and we'd get the product, get the tester and the tools and then if we wasn't happy with it, we'd then give feedback at the next huddle and say, well we've taken on board what you say about this has got to change. This bit of kit is brilliant, this bit of it isn't and then they'd go back and see if they could change something because obviously we're the people using tools aren't we, so if we're not happy with it, we'll obviously know because we're the people that are using it on the ground, type of thing.” (C2R4)

Along with a facilitation strategy, change agents also employed reward as an additional strategy in order to gain the engineers' compliance. This will be introduced in the following subsection. Therefore, by referring to the engineers' salience to the change (i.e. primary-demanding) and their level and sources of resistance to the change, a facilitation strategy (alongside reward) is effective in reducing their resistance.

Finding 5: Facilitation (in conjunction with reward) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.

Facilitation was also a strategy employed to deal with the resistance of the control team (C2A3, C2A7, C2A8). As reported in section 5.6, the major concern of the control team was the lack of ability to cope with the new ways of working and using the new systems. Therefore, in order to overcome the control team's resistance, the change agents provided training as well as repairing any technical issues associated with the new systems used by the control team. A change quality manager reported:

“[. . .] I think we overcame it through more by fixing the problems than, you know, communicating to them [Control Team] and telling them the problems are fixed, because their only problem really was the emulation bit.” (C2A7)

Regarding the fundamental effect of the training in reducing the resistance of the control team, a member of the program team also observed:

“So the training for them [Control Team] was all done on site and it was only maybe a couple of hours but it was necessary so that they were familiar and could carry out that emulation.” (C2A8)

Facilitation was the only strategy employed to deal with the resistance of control team. Consequently, by relating the salience of the control team to their level and source of resistance to the change, the following finding is formulated as shown in Figure 5.8:

Finding 6: Facilitation is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-latent change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to control.

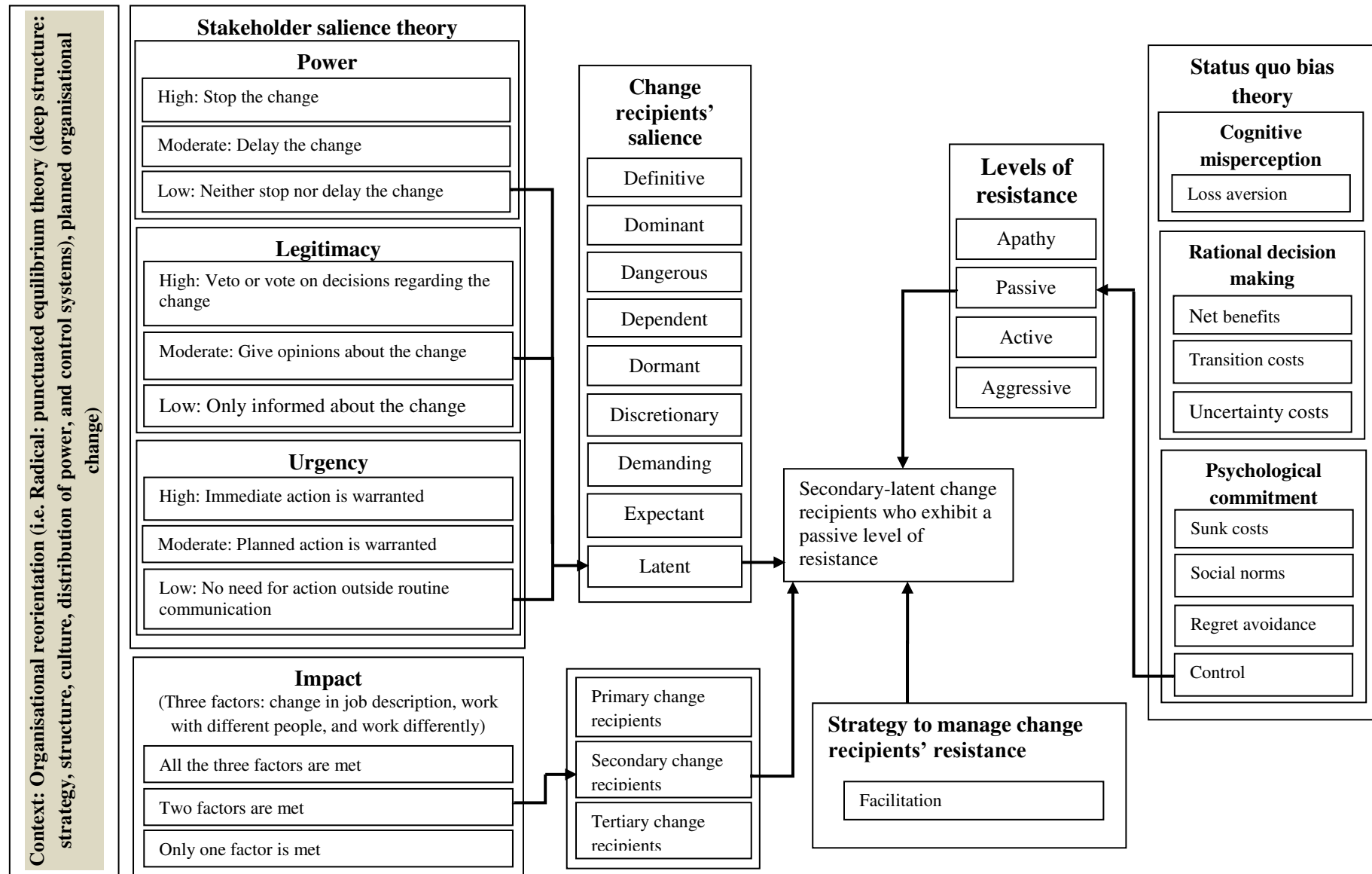


Figure 5.8: Secondary-latent change recipients and the relevant strategy to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

5.7.3 Reward

Alongside the facilitation strategy employed to deal with the resistance of the engineers, the agents also rewarded them. Prizes and appraisals, which are forms of reward (e.g. Judson, 1991), were given to the engineers who attended the awareness day, the training sessions, and those who adopted the change (C2A1, C2A3, C2A4R1, C2A7, C2A8). This reward system is considered a fair system (Joshi, 1991) since the agents did not reward one community of the engineers, such as expert ones, and neglect the others. As mentioned by the program director:

“Like we’ve just run a major campaign where we have the entire management team go out and spend a day with an engineer. And you know, photos were collected and for a few people there’s gonna be quite big prizes, like having the ability to drive an Audi for a few weeks at a time [. . .] We’ve done a bit more about, you know, focusing on the successes and you know we’ve done some prizes on the back of that to recognise the people who are fully embracing it.” (C2A1)

Also, an operation manager said:

“[. . .] one of my engineers was one of the first in the country to close a job on his iPhone, and he was given a reward from the GM [General Manager], what we call an e-message, an e-reward to say, well done, and a certificate as well.” (C2A4R1)

The reward strategy was employed in conjunction with the facilitation strategy (finding 5) and both were effective in overcoming the engineers’ resistance to the change in Case B. Therefore, by relating the salience of the engineers to the change to their level and sources of resistance, the following finding is formulated as shown in Figure 5.9:

Finding 7: Reward (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.

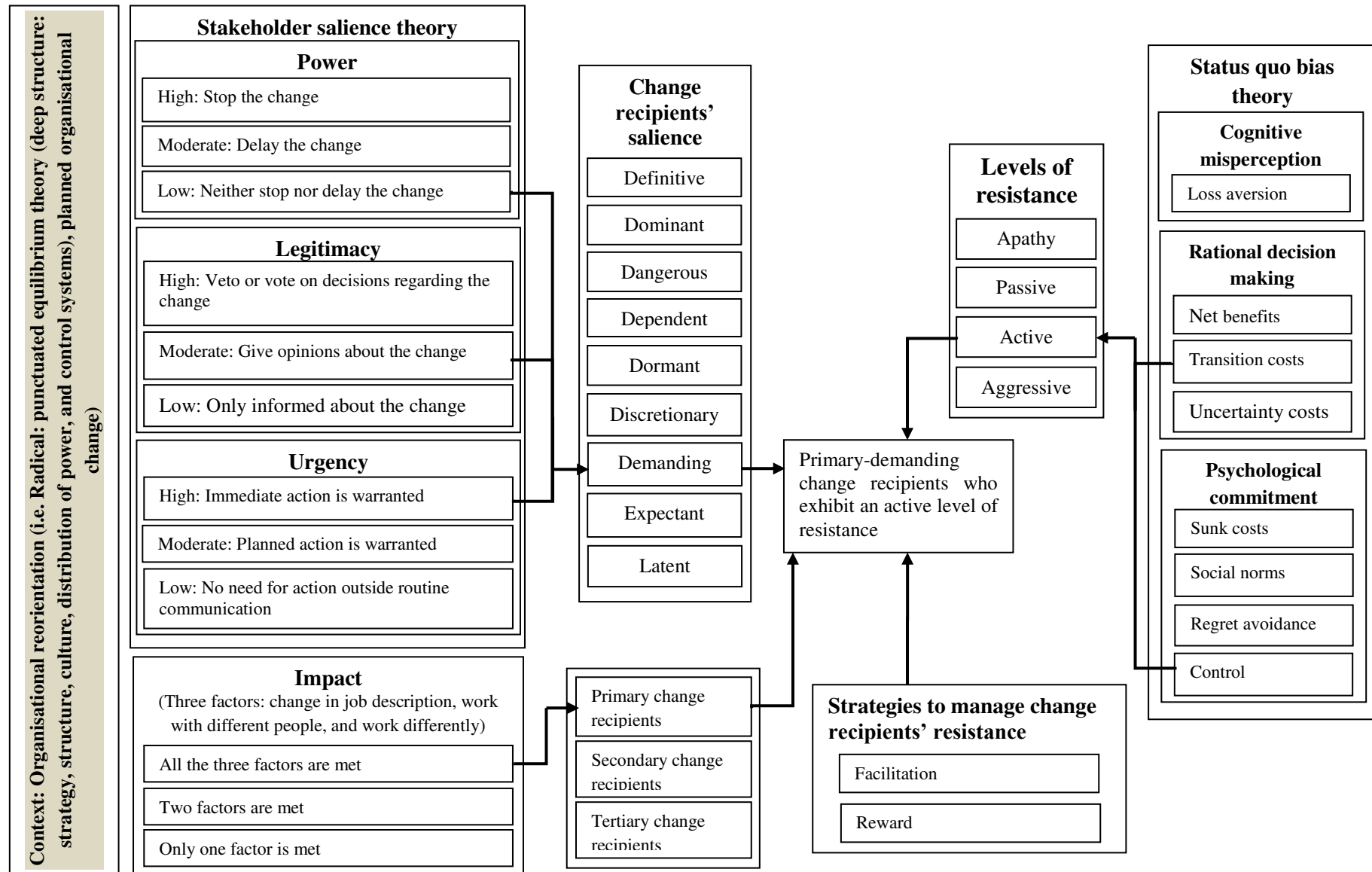


Figure 5.9: Primary-demanding change recipients and the relevant strategies to address their resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

5.8 Summary

This chapter represents a second case study alongside the first case presented in the previous chapter. The chapter commenced by introducing the context of Case B, and the related sources of evidence for the case. Subsequently, the transformation program conducted in Case B was explained. The findings from Case B were shown in Table 5.10. The next chapter analyses the similarities and differences of Case A and Case B, discusses the findings in relation to the literature presented in the literature review chapter, and then formulates a conclusion from the findings.

Themes	Findings
Change recipients' salience	Finding 1: The extent to which change recipients are affected by the change needs to be considered as an attribute (alongside power, legitimacy, and urgency) in the determination of the salience of change recipients of organisational reorientation.
Communication	<p>Finding 2: Two-way communication is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dependent change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs.</p> <p>Finding 3: Two-way communication (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.</p>
Facilitation	Finding 4: Facilitation (in conjunction with two-way communication) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.

<p>Facilitation (Cont.)</p>	<p>Finding 5: Facilitation (in conjunction with reward) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.</p>
	<p>Finding 6: Facilitation is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-latent change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to control.</p>
<p>Reward</p>	<p>Finding 7: Reward (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.</p>

Table 5.10: Summary of the findings from Case B (Source: Author)

CHAPTER SIX: SYNTHESIS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings from the previous chapters that contribute to the originality of this research. The chapter commences by comparing the findings from the previously presented Case A and Case B. Then the similarity or contrast between each finding and the existing literature is considered. Moreover, a revised model of the conceptual framework presented in the literature review chapter (see Chapter Two Figure 2.4) is developed, and provides an answer to the research question introduced in Chapter Two. The revised model deepens our understanding of addressing change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation by considering their salience to change.

6.2 Cross-Case Synthesis

The findings from Case A and Case B are represented in Table 6.1 below. As shown in the table, both cases report that the impact attribute is required in determining change recipients' salience to organisational reorientation (Finding 1). However, due to the varying moderating factors (i.e. sources and levels of change recipients' resistance) that exist in one case but not the other, the findings about the strategies for dealing with the recipients' resistance are not the same. Therefore, the differences between the strategies employed in Case A and Case B are considered as distinct rather than contradictory. The similarities and differences between the cases will be explained in detail in the relevant sections of each finding prior to discussing them.

Themes	Findings	Case A	Case B
Change recipients' salience	Finding 1: The extent to which change recipients are affected by the change needs to be considered as an attribute (alongside power, legitimacy, and urgency) in the determination of the salience of change recipients of organisational reorientation.	√	√
Negotiation and agreement	Finding 2: Negotiation and agreement is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dominant change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to regret avoidance.	√	
Coercion	Finding 3: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.	√	
	Finding 4: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.	√	
Education	Finding 5: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.	√	
	Finding 6: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.	√	
Persuasion	Finding 7: Persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.	√	

Communication	Finding 8: Two-way communication is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dependent change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs.		√
	Finding 9: Two-way communication (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.		√
Facilitation	Finding 10: Facilitation (in conjunction with two-way communication) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.		√
	Finding 11: Facilitation (in conjunction with reward) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.		√
	Finding 12: Facilitation is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-latent change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to control.		√
Reward	Finding 13: Reward (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.		√

Table 6.1: Findings from Case A and Case B (Source: Author)

6.3 Impact as a Further Attribute to Determine Change Recipients' Salience to Organisational Reorientation

Finding 1: The extent to which change recipients are affected by the change needs to be considered as an attribute (alongside power, legitimacy, and urgency) in the determination of the salience of change recipients of organisational reorientation.

In the case studies presented in the previous two chapters, the primary change recipients (team members in Case A and engineers in Case B) are regarded as the most salient change recipient group to the change. As shown in both cases, although there were other recipient groups who had higher levels of power, legitimacy, and urgency than the team members and the engineers, such as the directors and the general managers, the former two groups are the most important change recipient groups, who required most attention from change agents. The team members and the engineers are classified as the most important change recipients since they were the groups most affected by the change (i.e. primary recipients who are affected by all three factors, namely change in job description, work with different people, or work differently). In other words, they are the ones who need to change most in order for their organisations to change. Therefore, in context of organisational change, in particular reorientation, stakeholder salience theory by Mitchell et al. (1997) is unable to fully explain the salience of change recipients to change which suggests that the theory is inappropriate to employ in context of organisational reorientation.

In order to gain a deeper insight into the salience of change recipients during organisational reorientation, a fourth attribute is needed in addition to power, legitimacy and urgency, which is called impact. This is not revealed in prior studies investigating the salience theory. The existing literature (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Morris and Raben, 1995; Piercy, 1989) asserts the necessity for change agents to draw attention to influencer change recipients with reference to those who have power over a given change. However, these studies neglect the extent to which change recipients are affected by a given change. Parent and Deephouse (2007) investigated the salience theory in relation to organisations rather than change programs and their result shows that power is the most important attribute in determining the salience of a stakeholder, followed by urgency and then legitimacy. Meanwhile, Neville et

al. (2011) postulate urgency is the least important attribute. In the context of organisational change, Boonstra and Govers (2009) and Boonstra (2006) employed the salience theory to classify the salience of stakeholders of an Enterprise Resource Planning system (ERPs), but these studies remain silent on the matter of why some recipient groups may be more important than others.

Only one study (Driscoll and Starik, 2004) critiques the adequacy of the salience theory for explaining the importance of stakeholders. The authors suggest a fourth attribute, which is called proximity (in addition to power, legitimacy, and urgency), and which pertains particularly to organisations that have a direct effect on the natural environment, including ecosystem processes, the hydrosphere and the atmosphere. Driscoll and Starik (2004) define proximity as the relative physical distance between an organisation and the natural environment around it. The closer the organisation is to the natural environment (e.g. national park) that it has an effect on, the more attention the organisation's managers need to pay to that environment. Likewise, in the context of organisational reorientation, the finding discussed in this section suggests that in addition to power, legitimacy, and urgency, impact is an attribute that is necessary in determining the salience of change recipients. This is because impact refers to the extent to which change recipients are affected by organisational reorientation.

Even though impact as an attribute, to determine change recipients' salience to organisational reorientation, may overlap with power, legitimacy and urgency attributes as defined in the literature review chapter (Section 2.4) the impact attribute remains distinct. As shown in the findings of the previous chapters, the directors had power over the changes to the extent that they could stop the changes, while the team members (in Case A) and the engineers (in Case B) did not have the power to stop the changes although they were the most affected change recipient groups. The impact attribute is also different from legitimacy. A study by Boonstra and Govers (2009) shows that physicians were affected by a change (the introduction of the ERP system), however, they are considered by the authors as missing the legitimacy attribute as they were not involved in decision making with respect to the change. Conversely, the external consultants were classified as legitimate stakeholders although they were not affected by the change. The impact attribute differs from urgency as well. Boonstra (2006) classifies several business units affected by an organisational change

as missing urgency in relation to the change while external consultants, who were not affected by the change, were seen to possess a high level of urgency. As reported by Mitchell et al. (1997) each attribute of the salience theory has variables that maintain the existence of the attributes, such as coercive power for the power attribute, normative legitimacy for the legitimacy attribute, and time criticality for the urgency attribute. Similarly, there are variables for the impact attribute. These variables describe the impact attribute by explaining how change recipients are affected by a given change, such as the ones employed in this research and introduced by Jick (1990). The variables include: how the change recipients can be affected by changing their job description, doing their work differently, and working with different people. However, the relationship between these variables and the impact attribute in determining whether some change recipients are more affected than others are avenues for investigation by future research.

By considering the impact of the change on the change recipients as a further attribute of the salience theory in determining the recipients' salience to the change, Figure 6.1 depicts a modified version of the salience theory model in the context of organisational reorientation. The revised model provides a clear picture of the salience of change recipients to an organisational reorientation. The figure expands change agents' ability to classify change recipients' salience to a given change by providing various classes. For instance, a group of change recipients who possess the impact attribute (i.e. primary recipients) as well as the power to stop the change may be regarded by change agents as more salient than other change recipient groups who have high levels of both power and legitimacy but are minimally affected by the change (i.e. tertiary recipients). Likewise, change recipients who are highly affected by a given change and whose level of urgency is high may be considered as more salient than minimally affected change recipients who have high levels of both legitimacy and urgency. However, change recipients who fall in the class where the four attributes intersect seem the most salient change recipients of all the classes, but this requires empirical evidence by future research.

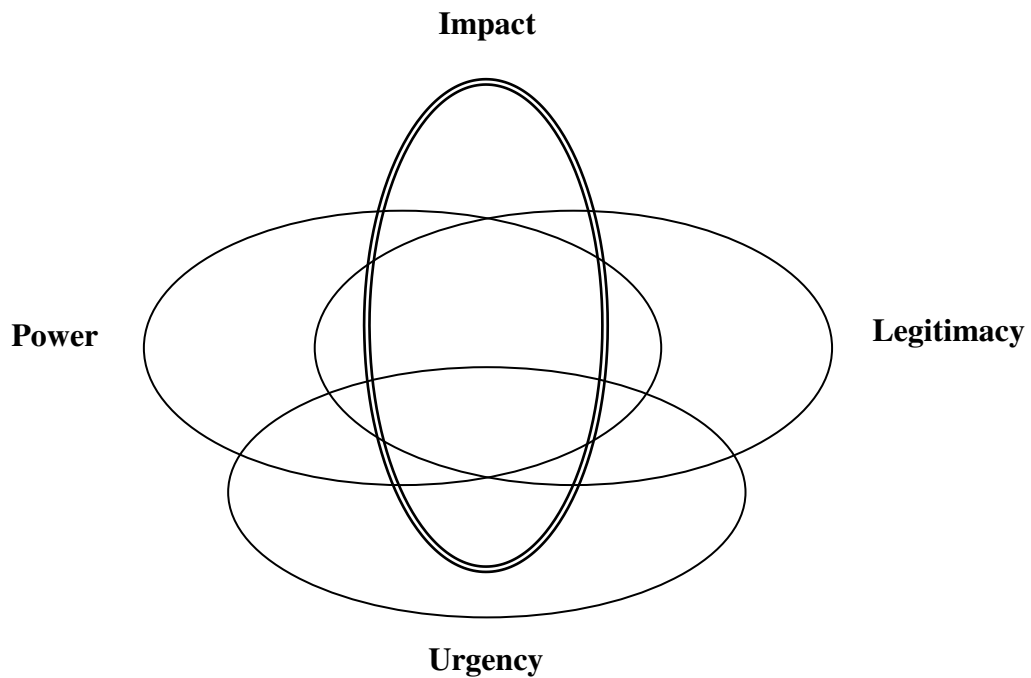


Figure 6.1: Impact attribute as a fourth attribute (in addition to power, legitimacy, and urgency) in determining the salience of change recipients to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

6.4 Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' Resistance

This section discusses the findings about the strategies employed in Case A and Case B to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation with reference to the recipients' salience as well as the sources and modes of their resistance (Finding 2 to Finding 13). Definitions of the strategies under discussion are presented in Chapters Four and Five. However, prior to commencing the discussion of each strategy, brief reference will be made to the definitions of the recipients' salience classes, and to the sources and levels of their resistance.

The definitions of change recipients' salience classes found in Case A and Case B are based upon the demarcation scheme with reference to three attributes which are power, legitimacy, and urgency reported in the methodology chapter (see Chapter Three section 3.10.2) except the impact attribute which is introduced in the findings (see Chapters 4 and 5 section 4.5 and section 5.5). In terms of the causes of resistance, status quo bias theory provides an

explanation for each source of change recipients' resistance that will be discussed. The modes of change recipients' resistance are defined based upon the scheme by Coetsee (1999) presented in the methodology chapter (see Chapter Three section 3.10.3). The type of change – reorientation - is defined with reference to the deep structure of the punctuated equilibrium theory (see Chapter Three section 3.6.3).

In the following subsections, each strategy will be discussed in terms of a combination of the following: the salience class of the change recipients, the sources and modes of their resistance, and the type of organisational change (which is reorientation).

6.4.1 Negotiation and Agreement

Finding 2: Negotiation and agreement is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dominant change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to regret avoidance.

The finding above suggests that negotiation and agreement is an effective strategy to overcome resistance of change recipients who are classified as tertiary-dominant recipients when their source of resistance is regret avoidance and their mode of resistance is apathy. This strategy was employed in Case A but not Case B. This was not because Case B has a contradictory finding; rather because the source of the tertiary-dominant recipient group's resistance in Case A, which was regret avoidance, was not a cause of resistance amongst all the recipients in Case B. Also, there is no change recipient group in Case B which is classified as one of tertiary-dominant recipients. Therefore, the salience class and the source of resistance in Finding 2 resulted from Case A, in which the negotiation strategy used was different from Case B.

In the literature, there are few studies about negotiation and agreement strategy in relation to other strategies such as education and facilitation. Finding 2 contributes to studies on negotiation and agreement (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Morris and Raben, 1995) by referring to the salience class of change recipients as well as the sources and levels of resistance. These above studies report that the negotiation and agreement strategy may be effective in dealing with resisters of a given change without

referring to attributes of change recipients such as their levels of power over the change. However, the finding in this section shows that the negotiation and agreement strategy is effective in dealing with resistance of change recipients. This is restricted to those who are tertiary-recipients (i.e. who are affected by only one factor - change in job description, work with different people, or work differently). Furthermore, they must have the power to derail the change as well as the legitimacy to vote on decisions regarding the change, but their demands to the change lack urgency (i.e. dominant recipients).

Additionally, these studies about negotiation and agreement do not specify the causes of resistance in which change agents need to employ the negotiation strategy. Finding 2 adds to this literature by identifying the source of resistance (i.e. regret avoidance) where the negotiation strategy is effective in reducing tertiary-dominant change recipients' resistance. Also, Finding 2 contributes to the existing studies by specifying the level of resistance of the tertiary-dominant change recipients is effective to employ the negotiation strategy for, which is apathy as defined by Coetsee (1999). This implies that the negotiation and agreement strategy may or may not be effective when the level of resistance of tertiary-dominant recipients is higher than apathy, such as passive, active or aggressive. It is suggested that further studies are needed to investigate this.

Existing studies (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Morris and Raben, 1995) on the negotiation and agreement strategy report that the strategy can be effective in minimising change recipients' resistance without referring to the type of change. The exception is Morris and Raben (1995) who consider incremental and radical types of changes. However, Finding 2 shows that the negotiation strategy is effective in a time of planned, radical organisational change (reorientation) to deal with the resistance of tertiary-dominant recipients whose mode of resistance is apathy and who resist change for regret avoidance related reasons.

Although the change recipients for whom the negotiation strategy was used are tertiary-recipients and their mode of resistance was apathy, change agents need to not underestimate the recipients' resistance as they have the power to derail the change and the legitimacy to vote on its decisions.

6.4.2 Coercion

Finding 3: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Finding 4: Implicit coercion (in conjunction with education) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Two findings are associated with coercion strategy that was employed in Case A but is not found in Case B. In terms of the salience class, the two cases have secondary-expectant recipients in common. Coercion strategy was employed in Case A only, since the causes of resistance for which the coercion strategy adopted in Case A did not occur in Case B. Although the causes of resistance related to transition costs existed in both Cases A and B, the causes in the former case occurred in combination with causes related to net benefits, while in the latter case the causes of resistance related to transition costs appeared in conjunction with causes related to control.

The form of coercion employed was implicit rather than explicit as defined in the findings of Case A (Chapter Four) as there was no explicit outcome (e.g. a threat of dismissal) if the recipients did not comply with the change. However, existing literature about coercion strategy, except Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), do not refer to any form of coercion or specifically to implicit and explicit coercion (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Hultman, 1998; Nutt, 1998; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012; Tepper et al., 1998; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977).

Findings 3 and 4 contribute to existing literature in terms of the salience of change recipients to reorientation. Current literature (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Hultman, 1998; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Nutt, 1998; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012; Tepper et al., 1998; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977), which report coercion as an effective strategy in dealing with change recipients' resistance, are silent in explaining what salience class the coercion strategy is appropriate with. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) suggest that coercion is effective in reducing the recipients' resistance when there is limited time available for change agents to complete

the change. Hultman (1998) notes that coercion is only appropriate when the recipients do not give reasons for their resistance, while Zaltman and Duncan (1977) speculate that the coercion strategy is effective when the recipients do not recognise the change as necessary. The results of a survey by Nutt (1998) reveals that the coercion strategy is moderately effective in reducing the recipients' resistance. In dealing with users' resistance to information system related change programs Rivard and Lapointe (2012) assert that the credibility of the message is crucial in employing coercion strategy. Falbe and Yukl (1992) and Tepper et al. (1998) emphasise that coercion is only applicable as long as it is combined with other strategies such as persuasion and facilitation.

Therefore, the findings in this section expand the above studies by identifying that implicit coercion is effective in overcoming the resistance of change recipients who are secondary recipients (i.e. affected by two factors of the three, which are change in job description, work with different people, or work differently) and are classified as discretionary or expectant recipients of change (i.e. neither has the power to derail the change nor do their demands require immediate action from change agents). Therefore, the theory claimed by Judson (1991) which suggests that coercion strategy is ineffective to employ to address change recipients' resistance is rejected as the findings revealed that coercion strategy was effective to deal with some of the change recipients described previously this research.

In combination with the salience levels of the change recipients in which implicit coercion is effective, the findings in this section also extend existing literature in respect of causes of resistance. Prior studies mentioned in this section, except Zaltman and Duncan (1977), do not refer to which sources of change recipients' resistance the coercion strategy is applicable to. Zaltman and Duncan (1977) note that the coercion strategy is appropriate when change recipients do not perceive the change as necessary. Likewise, the findings shows that implicit coercion is effective in dealing with change recipients who resist the change due to reasons related to net benefits, where they perceive the change to be more costly than beneficial. However, in association with net benefits related causes of resistance, Findings 3 and 4 show that implicit coercion is effective when the change recipients resist the change because of reasons related to transition costs. This has not been reported in the prior studies.

In addition, the findings in this section specify the levels of change recipients' resistance for which implicit coercion is employed, which are an active level for secondary-discretionary recipients and a passive level for secondary-expectant recipients. From prior studies, only one study of coercion strategy (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) considers the level of change recipients' resistance. The authors argue that coercion strategies are appropriate when change recipients exhibit a high level of resistance, but change agents may have different explanations of what is meant by a high mode of resistance. However, active and passive modes of resistance in the findings are defined based upon the scheme by Coetsee (1999), who distinguishes between the levels of resistance. Although the secondary change recipients for whom it is appropriate to employ implicit coercion have the power to delay the change and their levels of resistance are active and passive, an implicit coercion strategy is effective in dealing with their resistance.

A further contribution of Findings 3 and 4 is related to the type of organisational change. Extant literature (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Hultman, 1998; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Nutt, 1998; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012; Tepper et al., 1998) does not specify what type of organisational change to which coercion strategy is relevant except Zaltman and Duncan (1977) who focus on planned change. The findings of this research add to these studies by suggesting that implicit coercion strategy is appropriate to reorientation programs. The strategy addresses the resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients and secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit active and passive levels of resistance respectively when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Consistently with Falbe and Yukl (1992) and Tepper et al. (1998) who assert that the coercion strategy needs to be used in conjunction with other strategies, the findings reveal that implicit coercion is effective in association with the education strategy, which is discussed next.

6.4.3 Education

Finding 5: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-discretionary change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Finding 6: Education (in conjunction with implicit coercion) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

In conjunction with the coercion strategy discussed previously (which was employed in Case A), the education strategy is effective in dealing secondary-discretionary change recipients and secondary-expectant change recipients. As with the coercion strategy, the education strategy was not conducted in Case B because the sources of resistance for which the education strategy was employed in Case A (i.e. net benefits and transition costs) were not present in Case B.

In relation to existing literature on education strategy, there are numerous studies, some of which are empirical (Coch and French, 1948; Connell and Waring, 2002; Fiedler, 2010; Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009; Mumford, 1965; Reichers et al., 1997; Rothenberg, 2007) and others are conceptual (Caruth et al., 1985; Ford and Ford, 2009; Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Lawrence, 1954; Martin, 1993; Neal and Tromley, 1995; Sidle, 2006). These studies report that educating change recipients by explaining what the change is about, the rationale behind it, and the positive and negative consequences associated with the change is essential in coping with the recipients' resistance. However, Findings 5 and 6 extend these studies by identifying what class of change recipients' salience the education strategy is effective for, as well as the sources and levels of change recipients' resistance to change.

In terms of the salience of change recipients to change, the current studies are limited in explaining the effectiveness of education strategy in relation to different classes of change recipients' salience to the change. For instance, Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) and Mumford (1965) investigated users' resistance to a new information system; however, their study lacks explanation about the users' salience level, despite the fact that they may vary in respect of

their power, legitimacy and/or urgency to the change. The remaining studies mentioned in the previous paragraph (e.g. Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Sidle, 2006; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) report education as an effective strategy to deal with change recipients' resistance without referring to their salience to the change, such as their level of power or legitimacy to the change. However, the findings in this section add to these studies by identifying two salience classes of change recipients for whom the education strategy is effective: secondary-discretionary recipients and secondary-expectant recipients.

In combination with the identified salience classes for whom the education strategy is effective, the findings in this section expand current literature in respect of sources of the recipients' resistance. The findings show sources of resistance that are related to net benefits and transition costs. Amongst the prior studies that discuss education strategy to cope with resistance of change recipients, Kim and Kankanhalli (2009), Kotter and Schlesinger (2008), and Zaltman and Duncan (1977) remark that the education strategy is effective when the recipients have a low perception of the necessity of the change. This is consistent with the net benefits related sources of resistance reported in the findings. However, in association with sources of resistance related to net benefits, the findings also indicate that the education strategy is effective when the change recipients resist the change due to reasons related to transition costs. Again, this has not been noted in the previous published studies.

In respect of the levels of change recipients' resistance for whom it is appropriate to employ the education strategy, apart from Zaltman and Duncan (1977), existing studies do not refer to the modes of the recipients' resistance. The findings in this section show that the education strategy is effective when the modes of the recipients' resistance are active (in the case of secondary-discretionary recipients) and passive (in the case of secondary-expectant recipients), with both modes defined according to Coetsee (1999). By contrast, the level of resistance referred to by Zaltman and Duncan (1977) in which education strategy is effective is 'high', which has a subjective meaning. Therefore, notwithstanding the fact that the change recipients for whom the education strategy is effective in reducing their resistance have a power to delay a given change and their modes of resistance are active and passive, education is still effective strategy.

The findings in this section also provide a contribution to current literature with regard to the type of organisational change in which it is effective to use the education strategy. Amongst the literature mentioned previously in this section, there are few studies (Fiedler, 2010; Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009; Neal and Tromley, 1995; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) that refer to the type of change in which education strategy is reported. The former three studies specify the type of change as radical without considering the planned/unplanned aspect while the latter study considers planned types of change neglecting the radical/incremental feature of change. However, the findings in this section add to previous studies by showing that the education strategy is effective in times of radical, planned organisational change to deal with secondary-discretionary recipients (who exhibit an active level of resistance) and secondary-expectant recipients (who exhibit a passive level of resistance), when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

However, the findings suggest that the effectiveness of the education strategy, discussed in this section, is generated when employed in conjunction with an implicit coercion strategy discussed in the previous section.

6.4.4 Persuasion

Finding 7: Persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-expectant change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs.

Finding 7 shows persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to reduce resistance of primary-expectant change recipients when the causes of their resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs and their mode of resistance is passive. This strategy was used in Case A only since the causes of resistance in which the persuasion strategy was employed in Case A were not present in Case B. Although the sources of resistance related to transition costs existed in Cases A and B, the causes in the former case occurred in combination with sources related to net benefits, while in Case B the causes of resistance related to transition costs were present in conjunction with sources related to control. Also, the two cases are different in terms of the salience class for which the persuasion strategy was employed, (i.e for primary-expectant recipients) which do not appear in Case B.

There are numerous studies about persuasion as a strategy to deal with change recipients' resistance (Armenakis et al., 1993; Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Goldstein, 1988; Hultman, 1998; Judson, 1991; Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012; Nadler, 1993; Nutt, 1998; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). However, the form of persuasion that the finding in this section introduces is by peers rather than by change agents such as internal and/or external consultants. Amongst the prior studies, persuasion by peers is consistent with one study, Kim and Kankanhalli (2009), who suggest users who resist a new information system are more likely to be convinced to adopt changes when they are persuaded by their peers.

In relation to the existing literature about persuasion mentioned in the previous paragraph, Finding 7 represents a contribution in several respects. In terms of the salience of change recipients, the current studies about persuasion strategy are silent in specifying the salience of change recipients. In other words, the existing studies about persuasion strategy do not provide an explanation of what attributes of change recipients the persuasion strategy is effective with, such as those who have a high level of power and/or legitimacy. For instance, the persuasion strategy may be effective for those who have a low influence on the change but not appropriate for those who have a high influence. However, the finding in this section unveils that persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to diminish the resistance of change recipients who are primary (affected by all the three factors, which are change in job description, work with different people, and work differently) and have the power to delay the change but not stop it, the legitimacy to give their opinion about the change, and moderate urgency that does not require immediate action from change agents (i.e. primary-expectant recipients).

In respect of the source of resistance for which the persuasion strategy is appropriate, the finding in this section adds to the existing studies by identifying the sources of resistance where the persuasion strategy is effective. In combination with the salience class (primary-expectant recipients) for which the persuasion by peers strategy is applicable, the strategy is effective when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs. Amongst the prior literature, three studies refer to the sources of change recipients' resistance that are effectively dealt with by the persuasion strategy. Judson (1991) and Nadler (1993) report the persuasion strategy is effective when the change recipients lack certainty about the consequences of the change. Zaltman and Duncan (1977) postulate that

the persuasion strategy is appropriate to deal with those who have a low perception of the necessity of the change, which is consistent with net benefits sources of resistance shown in the finding. However, in association with sources of resistance related to net benefits, the finding in this section reports that persuasion by peers is effective when the reasons for the recipients' resistance are related to transition costs (when the recipients perceive the change itself to be costly).

The finding in this section extends the prior literature in respect of the levels of change recipients' resistance for which it is effective to employ the persuasion strategy. The prior studies do not identify the levels of resistance that persuasion strategy is applicable with, except Goldstein (1988) and Zaltman and Duncan (1977). The former refers to a low level of resistance exhibited by change recipients while the latter specify a high level of resistance, but both levels are subjective. However, in conjunction with the salience class of the recipients and the reasons for their resistance identified previously in this section, the finding shows that persuasion by peers is effective when the recipients' level of resistance is passive, and this level is defined and can be distinguished from other levels such as apathy and active based upon the scheme by Coetsee (1999).

The last respect in which the finding in this section contributes to existing scholarship regards the type of organisational change in which it is effective to use the persuasion strategy. Four studies from the previous literature refer to the type of change in which the persuasion strategy is effective. Kim and Kankanhalli (2009) and Nadler (1993) focus on the radical type of organisational change. Armenakis et al. (1993) report the persuasion strategy is appropriate for both planned and unplanned types of change, while Zaltman and Duncan (1977) refer only to the planned type of change. However, the finding shows that persuasion by peers is effective in a time of radical, planned organisational change. Therefore, by taking into account the recipients' salience class (primary-expectant), the sources of resistance categories (net benefits and transition costs), the level of resistance (passive), and the type of organisational change (reorientation), persuasion by peers is effective in reducing the recipients' resistance.

In respect of current theories, the strategy the management in Case A employed to deal with the resistance of team members who are classified as primary-expectant change recipients -

persuasion by peers - is an unexpected strategy. This is because existing theories about persuasion strategy (e.g. Judson, 1991; Nadler, 1993) report that persuading change recipients is an effective method if the reasons for their resistance are related to uncertainty and anxiety. However, as will be explored in depth in the discussion chapter (Chapter Six), the finding in this section shows that persuasion by peers strategy is effective when the sources of resistance are related to net benefits (i.e. lack of benefits from change in comparison to its costs) and transition costs (i.e. the change itself is costly, such as causing loss of comfort).

6.4.5 Communication

Finding 8: Two-way communication is an effective strategy to address resistance of tertiary-dependent change recipients who exhibit an apathy level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs.

Finding 9: Two-way communication (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.

Findings 8 and 9 report that two-way communication is an effective strategy to deal with tertiary-dependent change recipients whose mode of resistance is apathy when the sources of their resistance to organisational reorientation is related to uncertainty costs. Also, in association with the facilitation strategy, two-way communication is effective in reducing secondary-expectant change recipients who show an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control. These findings were discovered from Case B only. Even though cases A and B have secondary-expectant change recipients in common, the sources of resistance (which are uncertainty costs and control) were not reasons for the recipients' resistance in Case A.

The findings in this section contribute to current studies about communication as a strategy to deal with change recipients' resistance by considering the salience of the recipients to change. Prior studies (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Fiedler, 2010; Fidler and Johnson, 1984; Ford and Ford, 2010; Jarrett, 2004; Hultman, 1998; Judson, 1991; Pendlebury, 1987; Reichers et al., 1997) assert the role of communication in diminishing the resistance of

change recipients to change. The form of communication the studies refer to is two-way communication, which is also reported in previous studies (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013). These prior studies emphasise aspects of communication such as transparency (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013), respect (Hultman, 1998), and the use of understandable language (Judson, 1991). However, the existing studies do not refer to the salience of the recipients to change for whom the communication strategy is effective, such as those who are able to derail the change.

Consequently, the findings in this section extend the current literature by reporting that two-way communication is effective in reducing the resistance of change recipients who are tertiary recipients of change and have the power to delay the change but not stop it, the legitimacy to vote or veto decisions about the change, and their demands require immediate action from change agents (tertiary-dependent recipients). Also, as reported in the findings, two-way communication is effective in overcoming the resistance of secondary change recipients whose salience to the change is regarded as expectant (they cannot derail the change, vote on its decisions, and their demands do not require immediate action from change agents).

In combination with the previously identified change recipients' salience classes for whom the two-way communication strategy is effective, the findings demonstrate sources of recipients' resistance with which the communication strategy is applicable. Some of the previous studies about communication strategy introduced in this section do not specify sources of resistance that the communication strategy is appropriate with (e.g. Reichers et al., 1997). Other studies (e.g. Auster and Ruebottom, 2013) argue that the communication strategy is required when the level of uncertainty amongst the recipients is high, which is consistent with the uncertainty costs source of resistance reported in the findings. However, the findings also reveal that two-way communication is effective when the sources of the recipients' resistance are related to the control category of status quo bias theory (in conjunction with uncertainty costs), which has not been reported in previous studies.

In association with the identified salience classes of the change recipients for whom the two-way communication strategy is effective, and the sources of their resistance, the findings in this section add to the existing literature by specifying the levels of change recipients'

resistance based upon classification by Coetsee (1999). Prior studies about communication strategy (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Fiedler, 2010; Fidler and Johnson, 1984; Ford and Ford, 2010; Jarrett, 2004; Hultman, 1998; Judson, 1991; Pendlebury, 1987; Reichers et al., 1997) do not refer to the extents of change recipients' resistance for which communication strategy is appropriate, such as passive, active, and aggressive resistance. Therefore, the findings show that two-way communication is effective to deal with tertiary-dependent change recipients whose mode of resistance is apathy (e.g. lack of interest), and secondary-expectant change recipients whose level of resistance is active (e.g. blocking behaviours). Furthermore, the findings contribute to the extant literature by specifying the type of organisational change for which it is effective to adopt the two-way communication strategy. Some of the prior studies about communication strategy (Fidler and Johnson, 1984; Ford and Ford, 2010; Jarrett, 2004; Hultman, 1998; Judson, 1991; Reichers et al., 1997) do not identify the type of organisational change in which it is effective to employ the communication strategy, while other studies (Auster and Ruebottom, 2013; Fiedler, 2010; Pendlebury, 1987) refer to the radical type of organisational change. By taking into account the salience classes of the recipients introduced previously (tertiary-dependent and secondary-expectant), the sources of their resistance (uncertainty costs and control), and the levels of their resistance (apathy and active), the two-way communication strategy is effective in dealing with recipients' resistance in a time of radical, planned organisational change. However, with regard to secondary-expectant recipients who exhibit resistance due to uncertainty costs and control reasons, the two-way communication strategy is effective in combination with facilitation strategy which will be discussed next.

6.4.6 Facilitation

Finding 10: Facilitation (in conjunction with two-way communication) is an effective strategy to address resistance of secondary-expectant change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control.

Finding 11: Facilitation (in conjunction with reward) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.

Finding 12: Facilitation is an effective strategy to minimize resistance of secondary-latent change recipients who exhibit a passive level of resistance to organizational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to control.

As defined in the literature review chapter, the facilitation strategy is about easing the change process for change recipients such as providing them with training, and time to adopt the change. This section discusses findings about the facilitation strategy that show the strategy is effective in dealing with resistance of recipients whose salience belongs to three classes. First, the findings show that the facilitation strategy, alongside two-way communication discussed previously, is effective in diminishing the resistance of secondary-expectant recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance when the sources of their resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control. Also, the findings show that the facilitation strategy, in conjunction with reward, is effective in dealing with the resistance of primary-demanding recipients when their mode of resistance is active and the reasons for their resistance are related to transition costs and control. Moreover, the facilitation strategy is effective in overcoming the resistance of secondary-latent recipients who exhibit a passive mode of resistance and the source of their resistance is related to control.

In comparing Findings 10, 11, and 12 between Case A and Case B, the recipients' salience classes and the sources of resistance in Case B for which the facilitation strategy was employed are different from those in Case A. Although some of the salience classes reported in the findings above (i.e. secondary-expectant recipients) are common to both Case A and B, the sources of the recipients' resistance for which the facilitation strategy is effective vary, which makes the two cases different in respect of adopting the facilitation strategy. In Case A, the sources of resistance of secondary-expectant recipients are net benefits and transition costs, whilst in Case B the facilitation strategy is effective when the causes of secondary-expectant resistance are uncertainty costs and control.

In the extant literature, there are numerous studies about facilitation strategy (Barton and Ambrosini, 2013; Caruth et al., 1985, Fiedler, 2010; Hultman, 1998; Joshi, 1991; Judson, 1991; Kim and Kankanhalli, 2009; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Morris and Raben, 1995; Nadler, 1993; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012; Roberto and Levesque, 2005; Schiavone, 2012; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977). Some of these studies limit the applicability of facilitation strategy to the available resources of change agents such as time and monetary resources

(Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008; Judson, 1991; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977), while the remaining studies do not refer to any situation in which the facilitation strategy is effective. Moreover, all the studies reported in this section remain silent in explaining the appropriateness of the facilitation strategy to cope with the resistance of change recipients with regard to their salience to change. For instance, the facilitation strategy may be effective for those whose demands require immediate action from change agents but less effective or inadequate to cope with the resistance of those who have the power to derail the change.

Therefore, the findings in this section contribute to the current literature by referring to three classes of recipients' salience to the change for which it is effective to employ the facilitation strategy. The first class is secondary change recipients who may have power to delay the change but not stop it, can give opinions about the change without voting on its decisions, and their demands require planned but not immediate action from change agents. The second class is primary change recipients whose level of urgency is high (their demands require immediate action from change agents), but they neither have the power to derail the change, nor the legitimacy to vote on its decisions (i.e. primary-demanding recipients). The third class of change recipients' salience to the change is secondary recipients who do not have a high level of any of the three attributes (power, legitimacy, and urgency) and have a minimal level of at least two of the three attributes (i.e. secondary-latent recipients). Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) and Mitchell et al. (1997) point out that ignoring strategy is suitable for those who are the least important (i.e. marginal) stakeholders. However, the findings of this research show that even though secondary-latent recipients are regarded as marginal (i.e. they lack power, legitimacy, and urgency) facilitation rather than inaction strategy was employed to address their resistance. Therefore, there is a possibility that a strategy of inaction (Jawahar and McLaughlin, 2000; Mitchell et al., 1997) may not be effective in this regard.

In association with the three reported change recipients' salience classes, the findings also specify the sources of resistance for which it is effective to employ the facilitation strategy. Amongst the prior studies about the facilitation strategy, two studies (Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008) refer to the causes of resistance for which it is appropriate to use the facilitation strategy. Kotter and Schlesinger (2008) speculate that the facilitation strategy is effective when the reasons for change recipients' resistance are related to fear and anxiety.

However, fear and anxiety are ambiguous in determining the sources of resistance as they may be a result of the recipients' uncertainty about a given change and/or lack of their ability and skills to adapt to new ways of working. Judson (1991) reports it is appropriate to adopt the facilitation strategy when the change recipients lack the necessary skills and confidence to embrace the change (i.e. self-efficacy). This is consistent with sources of resistance related to the control category of status quo bias theory reported in the findings in this section. However, the findings add to the extant literature by presenting that the facilitation strategy is effective when the sources of resistance are related to control for those whose salience to change is secondary-expectant, primary-demanding, or secondary-latent. With regard to the former two classes of change recipients' salience to change, there are sources of resistance, in conjunction with those related to control, in which facilitation strategy is effective namely uncertainty costs and transition costs respectively.

In combination with the identified salience classes of change recipients and the reasons for their resistance, the findings identify the modes of the recipients' resistance for which the facilitation strategy is effective. The prior studies reported in this section, except Zaltman and Duncan (1977), do not identify the extent of change recipients' resistance for which the facilitation strategy is applicable. Zaltman and Duncan (1977) note that the facilitation strategy is effective when the mode of change recipients' resistance is low. Yet, this mode is subjective as low resistance may be interpreted differently. Therefore, the findings contribute to the existing studies by revealing that the facilitation strategy is effective when the mode of resistance by the recipients is active (for both secondary-expectant recipients and primary-demanding recipients) and passive (for secondary-latent recipients), where both modes are defined according to Coetsee (1999).

Also, the findings in this section contribute to the existing studies in terms of the type of organisational change for which it is effective to employ the facilitation strategy in order to deal with change recipients' resistance whose salience to change, sources and modes of their resistance is identified in the previous paragraphs in this subsection. Amongst the prior studies about facilitation strategy reported in this subsection, the type of change that Fiedler (2010), Kim and Kankanhalli (2009), and Nadler (1993) investigate is radical while Morris and Raben (1995) refer to both incremental and radical types of organisational change. In terms of planned and unplanned types of change, only one study, which is by Zaltman and

Duncan (1977), focuses on planned change, for which the facilitation strategy is effective. Therefore, by referring to the salience classes of the recipients reported previously (secondary-expectant, primary-demanding, and secondary-latent recipients), the sources of their resistance (uncertainty costs, transition costs, and control), and the levels of their resistance (passive and active), the facilitation strategy is effective in diminishing the recipients' resistance in a time of radical, planned organisational change.

The form of facilitation employed with the engineers in Case B bears a close relation to the egalitarian thought style of the grid group cultural theory (Douglas, 1996, Thompson et al., 1990) and cultural bias theory (Thompson and Wildavsky, 1986). In order to avoid bias in understanding the culture of individuals in an organisation, Thompson and Wildavsky (1986, p. 278) state that 'a proposition that lies at the heart of cultural theory is that rationality is context dependent. To understand the rational actor, we must look not at him but at the relationship between him and the institutions in which he is embedded'. The participation of the top management in field work and their use of some of the new tools the engineers were required to use indicates that the relationship between the groups was considered and support was offered to the engineers. This is consistent with the egalitarian thought style of the grid group cultural theory.

According to the theory, there are four main styles of social organisation that are classified based upon two dimensions: namely group and grid. The group dimension represents the strength of group cohesiveness, which ranges from high to low. The grid dimension refers to the degree to which an individual's behaviour is controlled by externally imposed prescriptions. Egalitarian style is located in the high group and low grid quadrant. Therefore, in the context of organisational change, egalitarians give priority to the success of every individual in the group. In the quadrant where high group and high grid contexts exist, hierarchal style is formed. Individualistic constitutes a third style when the low group and low grid end meet. The last style is fatalistic, which occurs when individuals are low group and high grid (See Douglas, 1996, Thompson et al., 1990).

However, in respect of primary-demanding recipients who exhibit resistance due to transition costs and control reasons, the facilitation strategy is effective in combination with the reward strategy which will be discussed in the following subsection.

6.4.7 Reward

Finding 13: Reward (in conjunction with facilitation) is an effective strategy to address resistance of primary-demanding change recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance to organisational reorientation, when the sources of resistance are related to transition costs and control.

The finding in this subsection is that the reward strategy in conjunction with facilitation is effective to overcome resistance of primary-demanding change recipients when the sources of their resistance are related to transition costs and control and their level of resistance is active. This strategy was employed in Case B only since the causes of resistance for which the reward strategy adopted in Case B did not occur in Case A. Although the sources of resistance related to transition costs existed in both Cases A and B, the causes in the former case occurred in combination with sources related to net benefits while in the latter case the sources of resistance related to transition costs appeared in conjunction with sources related to control. Moreover, the two cases are different in terms of the salience class for which the reward strategy was employed, i.e primary-demanding recipients, which were not present in Case A.

Finding 13 contributes to extant studies about reward strategy to deal with change recipients' resistance by identifying the salience of the recipients to change. Existing studies about reward strategy (Caruth et al., 1985; Joshi, 1991; Judson, 1991; Mccarthy et al., 2008; Morris and Raben, 1995; Nadler, 1993; Reichers et al., 1997) do not identify the change recipients' salience for which it is effective to employ the reward strategy. Amongst these studies, only one study (Joshi, 1991) specifies the type of change recipients, who are users of an information system. However, the users of an information system may vary in terms of their salience to change. For example, the reward strategy may be effective to reduce resistance of those who have low power and/or urgency in relation to a given change but may not be so for those whose power can derail the change. Therefore, the finding in this subsection extends the prior studies by introducing that the reward strategy, in conjunction

with facilitation, is effective in diminishing the resistance of those who are primary recipients when their demands to change require immediate action from change agents, but neither have the power to derail the change nor the legitimacy to vote on its decisions (i.e. primary-demanding recipients).

The finding in this subsection contributes to the existing studies in terms of the sources of change recipients' resistance to change. The previous studies reported in this subsection about reward strategy do not identify sources of resistance for which it is applicable to employ the reward strategy. However, in combination with the salience class identified previously (primary-demanding recipients), the finding shows that the reward strategy is effective in dealing with the recipients' resistance when the sources of their resistance are associated with transition costs as well as control.

Furthermore, the finding considers the change recipients' mode of resistance for which it is appropriate to adopt the reward strategy. The studies mentioned previously about reward strategy do not refer to the extent of change recipients' resistance, such as passive or active resistance. Therefore, in association with the previously identified change recipients' salience class (primary-demanding) and the sources of their resistance (transition costs and control), the finding in this subsection expands the current studies by showing that the reward strategy is effective when the level of resistance by the recipients is active.

Finding 13 presents that the reward strategy is effective in the radical, planned type of organisational change. Two studies amongst the prior literature about reward strategy consider the type of organisational change. Morris and Raben (1995) refer to incremental and radical types of organisational change where the reward strategy is effective, while Nadler (1993) considers only radical change. Therefore, the finding extends the prior studies about the reward strategy by revealing that the strategy is effective in a time of radical, planned organisation change for those who are primary-demanding recipients, when the sources of their resistance are associated with transition costs and control and exhibit an active level of resistance. However, the reward strategy is effective in conjunction with the facilitation strategy discussed in the previous subsection.

6.5 Revised Model of Strategies to Overcome Change Recipients' Resistance

As a result of this discussion of the findings, a revised version of the framework introduced in the literature review chapter (see Figure 2.4) is developed and is depicted in Figure 6.2. The framework comprises change recipients' salience classes, their sources and levels of resistance, and the relative strategies to reduce their resistance to organisational reorientation. In comparing the revised model shown in Figure 6.2 to the one in Figure 2.4 in the literature review chapter, the revised framework shows the new attribute, impact, embedded in stakeholder salience theory. The impact attribute is fundamental in determining the salience of change recipients to organisational reorientation because without it, an incomplete picture about the salience of change recipients may be obtained (see Figure 6.1). As shown in Figure 6.2, based upon three criteria by Jick (1990) about how change recipients are affected by a given change, the change recipients are classified in relation to the impact attribute as primary, secondary and tertiary recipients.

Additionally, the revised model suggests alignment between the strategies to deal with change recipients, their salience classes, and their sources and levels of resistance to organisational reorientation, which past research does not do. Therefore, the revised model contributes to prior research by advancing understanding about dealing with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation. As the revised model depicts, there are seven strategies that are effective to address resistance of change recipients who belong to six salience classes and resist change for different reasons and with various levels. As defined in the finding chapters (see Chapters Four and Five sections 4.7 and 5.7), the term effective means that the strategies are sufficient to turn change recipients from resisters to adopters of change. These strategies are negotiation and agreement, implicit coercion, education, persuasion by peers, two-way communication, facilitation, and reward.

As indicated in the model, the negotiation and agreement strategy is effective in reducing tertiary-dominant recipients' resistance when their mode of resistance is apathy and they resist change for reasons related to regret avoidance. The combination of implicit coercion and education strategies is effective in overcoming resistance of secondary-discretionary and secondary-expectant recipients who exhibit active and passive levels of resistance to change respectively, when the sources of resistance are associated with net benefits and transition costs. For those who are primary-expectant recipients, persuasion by peers is effective in

reducing their resistance when their mode of resistance is passive and the causes of their resistance are related to net benefits and transition costs. When the sources of resistance are about uncertainty costs, two-way communication strategy is effective in dealing with resistance of tertiary-dependent recipients whose level of resistance is apathy. The association of two-way communication and facilitation strategies is effective to cope with resistance of secondary-expectant recipients who exhibit an active mode of resistance when the reasons for their resistance are related to uncertainty costs and control. With regard to change recipients whose salience is secondary-latent and resist the change passively, facilitation strategy is effective in diminishing their resistance when the causes of their resistance are related to control. The combination of facilitation and rewards strategies is effective in dealing with resistance of primary-demanding recipients who actively resist the change when the reasons for their resistance are associated with transition costs and control.

The revised framework demonstrates the originality of this research, which will be reported in the next chapter. The framework contributes to existing theories about change recipients' resistance by being the first to combine stakeholder salience theory (which is used to classify change recipients' salience), status quo bias theory (to explain the sources of resistance), punctuated equilibrium theory (to define radical organisational change), and the literature of strategies to cope with resistance.

The diagnostic process of the revised framework commences by identifying the mode of change recipients' resistance to a given change as defined in the research (reorientation). The modes of the resistance are defined according to the scheme by Coetsee (1999) shown in Figure 3.7. The next step is to understand the causes of change recipients' resistance to change. This is achieved by referring to the status quo bias theory explained in Table 3.13. Following this, change recipients' salience needs to be evaluated in terms of their power, legitimacy, urgency and impact attributes. Having identified all the previous factors, change managers are able to employ the relevant strategy[ies], if applicable, as shown in Figure 6.2.

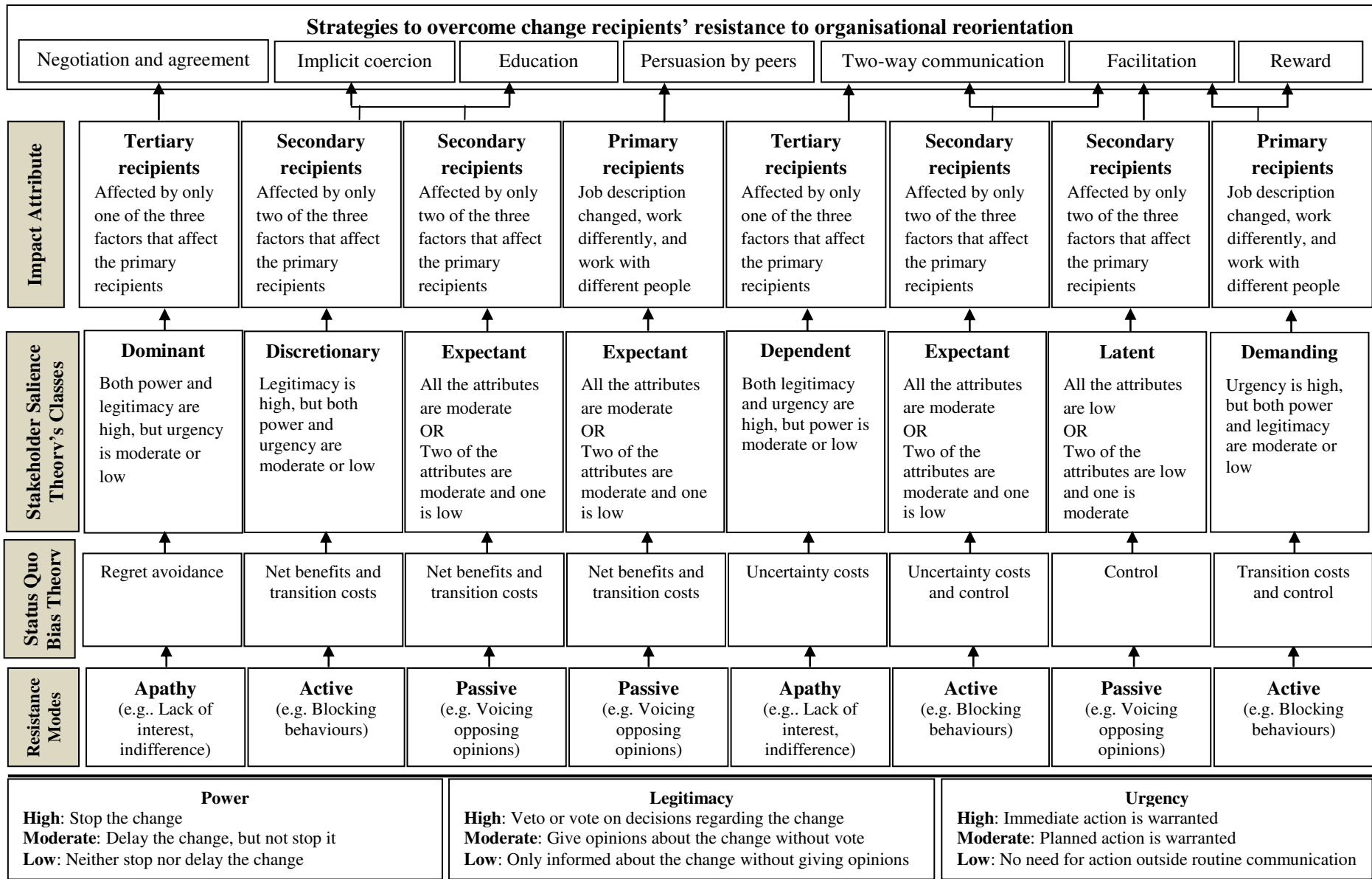


Figure 6.2: A revised framework of strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation (Source: Author)

6.6 Summary

This chapter presented a discussion of the findings from Case A and Case B and presents a revised model that demonstrates the innovations of this research. As a result of discussing the findings in relation to the extant literature, this chapter revealed that stakeholder salience theory is inadequate to identify the salience of change recipients to organisational reorientation. Therefore, as shown in Figure 6.1, the impact attribute is essentially required alongside the three attributes of the salience theory (power, legitimacy, and urgency) in order to identify the change recipients' salience to organisational reorientation. Also, as illustrated in the revised model (Figure 6.2), there are seven strategies that have been found to be effective to deal with change recipients' resistance to change whose salience to change belongs to six salience classes, namely dominant, discretionary, expectant, dependent, latent, and demanding. These seven strategies are negotiation and agreement, implicit coercion, education, persuasion by peers, two-way communication, facilitation, and reward. The revised model also shows the moderating factors for which it is effective to employ these strategies. These moderating factors are the sources of change recipients' resistance to change, based upon status quo bias theory, and the modes of the recipients' resistance as defined by Coetsee (1999). Having discussed the empirical findings in this chapter, the next chapter will present the contributions of this research to theory and practice, as well as the limitations of the research and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the conclusion of this research in terms of the contribution to theory, the contribution to practice, the transferability (i.e. generalisability) of the findings, the limitations of the research, the recommendations for future research, and the lessons learned by the researcher. However, firstly a brief summary of the chapters of this research will be reported in order to present how the research process and the links between the chapters reach the conclusion.

7.2 Research Summary

As reported in the introduction chapter, change recipients' resistance to organisational change remains a barrier for the success of many change projects (e.g. Prosci, 2014) and ideas relating to their resistance are still being developed (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013). The aim of this research is to advance understanding of how to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational change. The extant literature on strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance to change neglects the salience the recipients' have in relation to the change. Therefore, this research investigated the strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance to change with reference to their salience in relation to the change.

The literature review presented and discussed prior studies about dealing with change recipients' resistance to change. In order to conduct a comprehensive survey and a fair selection of the extant literature a systematic approach (Tranfield et al., 2003) was conducted. The result of the review revealed that no studies consider the salience of change recipients in relation to change when investigating the strategies to cope with the recipients' resistance. Therefore, by reviewing the relevant theories and literature, the theoretical framework has been developed and consists of organisational reorientation, change recipients' salience in relation to change, modes and sources of the recipients' resistance, and the strategies to cope with their resistance to change. Based upon the framework, the

research question was formulated and this then guided the appropriate empirical design explained in Chapter Three.

Having developed the theoretical framework and formulated the research question, the research design adopted for this research is explained in Chapter Three. Based upon a subjectivist view, the qualitative case study is the research methodology of this research. The unit of analysis, which is based upon the deep structure of the punctuated equilibrium theory, defines the criteria for selecting relevant cases for this research. Semi structured interviews were triangulated with documents relevant to the cases studied together constitute the sources of evidence for this research. In order to ensure that the interviewed informants were relevant to this research, theoretical criteria, which define whether an interviewee occupies a role of change agent and/or change recipient, were established. Subsequently, the methods employed to enhance the research quality, including validity, reliability and transferability were explained. Thematic analysis was the method of analysing the data and NVivo10 was used to organise and categorise the data efficiently.

After developing and reporting the research design for this research, the subsequent chapters (Chapters Four and Five) presented the findings from Case A and B respectively. At the beginning of these chapters, the evaluation of the selected cases was introduced in order to clarify why the cases were relevant to the unit of analysis defined in Chapter Three. Based upon 30 semi-structured interviews (14 interviews from Case A and 16 interviews from Case B) and relevant documents from the cases, the remaining chapters reported the findings of the cases.

In Chapter Six, the findings from Case A and B are discussed in terms of similarities and differences (cross-case comparison). Accordingly, each finding was discussed in relation to the relevant extant literature and, through this process, the theoretical contribution emerged. Therefore, the theoretical framework proposed in Chapter Two was developed and represented in a new revised framework at the end of the chapter.

7.3 Research Originality

This section introduces the originality of this research with regard to theory as well as practice. Although originality and uniqueness may seem the same, they are in fact different. Hart (1998) points out that any research, even one that replicates other studies, is to be considered as unique in terms of its structure and/or style of writing. However, with regard to originality, which is the concern of academic research, the author states that ‘original might be taken to mean doing something no one has done before, or even thought about doing before’ (1998, p. 23). Yin agrees with this (2011). Regarding what constitutes a contribution, Hart (1998) remarks that ‘no matter how small, it is something that helps further our understanding of the world in which we live’ (1998, p. 23). The theoretical as well as practical contributions from this research are reported next.

7.3.1 Contribution to Theory

This research has several theoretical implications that will be presented in this subsection. Like any study, the purpose of this research is to enrich the understanding of existing theory, because ‘the field of management will not advance without’ this (Hambrick, 2007, p. 1346). Corley and Gioia (2011) describe a theoretical contribution in the management field as a study that provides an answer to a research question that does not have a certain answer before.

This research contributes to theory by providing fresh insight in terms of advancing the understanding of dealing with change recipients’ resistance to organisational change, particularly, radical, planned change (reorientation). The revised framework introduced in Chapter Six (see Figure 6.2) provides a theoretical contribution to existing theory. The framework is the first to integrate the strategies to cope with change recipients’ resistance to organisational change with their salience level, which has not been taken into consideration in the prior studies. The subsequent paragraphs will explain how the framework is novel compared to existing theories.

By employing stakeholder salience theory, status quo bias theory, and punctuated equilibrium theory as the theoretical basis for this research, the revised framework provides contributions to these theories. Robson (2011) explains that this is because theory that serves

as theoretical foundation of a research does not only enable researchers to develop the appropriate research design, but also provides a contribution to the theory per se.

In terms of stakeholder salience theory (Mitchell et al., 1997), the framework shows that the theory is inadequate to determine the salience of change recipients' to organisational reorientation. As reported in the literature review chapter, the salience theory has been tested and verified (e.g. Parent and Deephouse, 2007) to specify the salience of stakeholders to organisations. However, in terms of the salience of change recipients in relation to organisational reorientation, the findings show that the salience theory is insufficient. In addition to the three attributes of the salience theory that use a determination of a stakeholder's salience, a further attribute i.e. impact is required (see Figure 6.1). The impact attribute is defined as the extent to which change recipients are affected by an organisational reorientation program. Based upon three factors (i.e. change in job description, work with different people, and work differently), Jick (1991) identifies the possible effects of a given change on change recipients. In terms of impact attribute, as shown in Chapters Four and Five, the change recipients are classified into primary (those who are affected in terms of the three factors), secondary (those who are affected in terms of the two factors), and tertiary (those who are affected in terms of only one factor). For instance, the engineers in Case B were primary change recipients while the general managers were tertiary change recipients. Although the general managers had higher levels in terms of their power, legitimacy, and urgency in relation to the change than the engineers had, the informants in Case B regarded the engineers as the most salient change recipients in relation to the change. Therefore, by considering the salience theory solely to identify the salience level of change recipients, a false picture will be obtained. In order to gain a complete view and identify the salience of change recipients' to organisational reorientation, the impact attribute is needed in conjunction with power, legitimacy, and urgency.

A further contribution to the salience theory is that the revised framework identifies six salience classes of change recipients in relation to change and specifies the relevant strategies to deal with their resistance. These salience classes are dominant, dependent, discretionary, demanding, expectant, and latent. For instance, as shown in the framework, negotiation and agreement is effective to address resistance of change recipients whose salience class in relation to the change is dominant (those who have high levels of power and

legitimacy in relation to change but lack urgency). A further example from the framework shows that rewarding change recipients in conjunction with facilitating the change for them are effective strategies to deal with demanding recipients. This has not been evident in the prior studies shown in Table 2.3 (e.g. Barton and Ambrosini, 2013; Mccarthy et al., 2008; Rivard and Lapointe, 2012), which do not consider the salience level of change recipients in relation to the change.

However, there are moderating factors that need to be considered in combination with the salience classes of change recipients to change. These factors are the modes of change recipients' resistance to change and the sources of their resistance. Based upon the scheme defined by Coetsee (1999), which classifies the modes of resistance into apathy, passive, active and aggressive, this research contributes to these modes by identifying the relevant strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance with reference to different modes of resistance they exhibit. This is shown in the revised framework. In particular, the contribution of this research includes three of the four modes defined by Coetsee (1999) namely apathy, passive and active resistance. Although prior studies (e.g. Battilana and Casciaro, 2013; Goldstein, 1988; Zaltman and Duncan, 1977) refer to these levels by reporting low and high levels of change recipients' resistance, the explanations of high and/or low resistance remain subjective and thus can be interpreted differently. Therefore, by defining what these modes mean (apathy, passive, and active), and identifying the relevant strategies required to address each group of change recipients' resistance as shown in the revised framework, this research provides a theoretical contribution in this regard.

Moreover, the contribution of this research has a theoretical dimension in terms of status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988). The theory was employed to explain and classify the causes of change recipients' resistance to change, which accordingly require effective strategies to cope with their resistance. In particular, this research contributes to five components of the theory. These components are net benefits, transition costs, uncertainty costs, control, and regret avoidance. As shown in the revised framework in Chapter Six, by identifying the strategies to cope with change recipients' resistance who resist the change due to reasons related to the five components of the theory, the relationship between the strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change and the causes of their resistance is established. This advances understanding of how to tackle these causes of

resistance. For example, as shown in the framework, when change recipients exhibit a passive level of resistance to organisational reorientation and resist the change because of reasons related to net benefits and transition costs, and the salience level of the recipients is primary-expectant, persuasion by peers is an effective strategy to diminish their resistance. Prior studies (e.g. Hultman, 1998; Judson, 1991; Kotter and Schlesinger, 2008) consider the causes of change recipients' resistance when investigating the strategies to cope with their resistance but without identifying the recipients' salience level and/or the modes of their resistance. By contrast, this research integrates them, as depicted in the revised framework.

In terms of punctuated equilibrium theory, since the deep structure component of the theory provides the criteria for the context in which this research was undertaken, the contribution of this research lies in the definition of the theory of radical organisational change. In other words, the revised framework developed in this research does not provide a contribution to contexts that define the type of change based on other criteria that are different from the deep structure component of the punctuated equilibrium theory.

Lastly, this research has theoretical implications for the literature on strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to change, as reported in the literature review chapter and illustrated in Table 2.3. Seven strategies were identified: negotiation and agreement, implicit coercion, education, persuasion by peers, two-way communication, reward, and facilitation. The contribution of this research extends the effectiveness of these strategies to include the six salience classes of change recipients shown in the revised framework as well as the modes and sources of their resistance to organisational reorientation.

This contribution advances understanding of options to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation by considering the salience level the recipients have over the change with reference to the modes and sources of their resistance to change.

7.3.2 Contribution to Practice

The contribution to practice from this research is the provision of the diagnostic instrument of the revised framework presented in Chapter Six. The instrument is illustrated in Appendix 13. It serves as a tool to enable managers of change to evaluate the resistance they experience from change recipients and then apply the revised framework in practice.

However, as reported in this research, the applicability of the framework is restricted to the organisational reorientation context defined in the unit of analysis section in Chapter Three.

The diagnostic tool consists of three parts: modes of change recipients' resistance, their sources of resistance, and their salience in relation to change. First, change managers need to assess the level of change recipients' resistance. This can be achieved by responding to the relevant definitions to determine the modes of change recipients' resistance. These definitions are derived from the scheme by Coetsee (1999), which has been explained and employed in this research to specify the level of change recipients' resistance to change (see Figure 3.7). However, since the aggressive mode of resistance is not discovered in this research, the instrument does not provide implications for this mode.

The second part of the diagnostic tool involves classifications of the sources of change recipients' resistance. Classification is based upon status quo bias theory, which includes eight categories that explain the reasons for resistance to change. However, since this research identified five of these categories (net benefits, transition costs, uncertainty costs, control, and regret avoidance), the remaining three categories (loss aversion, sunk costs, and social norms) are not included in the diagnostic tool, as the research has not found implications regarding them.

Having identified the modes and sources of change recipients' resistance to change, the subsequent step is evaluating the salience level of the recipients in relation to change. This includes attributes such as power, legitimacy, and urgency. The assessment of these attributes levels is derived from Tables 3.11 and 3.12 introduced in the Chapter Three. Furthermore, this third part includes the impact attribute discovered from the findings reported in Chapters Four and Five.

By identifying the modes and sources of change recipients resistance to change, and the recipients' salience in relation to change, change managers will be able to consider and employ relevant strategies in the revised framework (Figure 6.2).

7.4 Research Transferability

This section concerns how the findings of this research can be transferable. The terms transferability and generalisability are used interchangeably in qualitative research (Maxwell, 2013). The way the findings are generalised is based upon the route of the research (qualitative vs. quantitative) (Yin, 2003), and its initial location in a philosophical paradigm (subjectivist vs. objectivist) (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Unlike quantitative studies, which rely on statistical generalisation, the generalisation from qualitative research is based upon theoretical criteria (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). Hence, for this research, the theoretical criteria by which the findings can be generalised are reported next.

The research methodology conducted in this research is a qualitative case study. Therefore, the criteria that define the unit of analysis specify what other cases or contexts to which the findings of this research are transferable (Long, 2004; Yin, 2003). Yin (2003) states that the theory ‘that led to a case study in the first place is the same theory that will help to identify other cases to which the results are generalizable’ (Yin, 2003, p. 37). Therefore, the criteria for generalising the results of this research are explained in the unit of analysis section in Chapter Three (i.e. planned, radical change based upon the deep structure component of punctuated equilibrium theory).

Whether a qualitative case study research involves one or several cases, the theoretical generalisation is still applicable (Yin, 2003). Regarding this Firmin (2008) states that ‘generalizability should not be viewed as an on or off button—something that either exists or does not exist for a research study. Rather, external validity should be understood as a volume button—something that exists on a continuum’ (2008, p. 756). The criteria that enrich the transferability of this research have been reported in the methodology chapter (see Table 3.8).

7.5 Research Limitations

For this research, theoretical as well as empirical limitations are recognised by the researcher that nonetheless, can serve as directions for future investigation. Although the revised framework introduced in Chapter Six provides an explanation of the strategies to cope with change recipients’ resistance with reference to their salience in relation to change, the

findings do not cover all the possible levels of change recipients' salience or all modes and sources of the recipients' resistance.

In terms of change recipients' salience level in relation to change, this research found six classes: dominant, dependent, discretionary, demanding, expectant, and latent. However, there are further classes (definitive, dangerous, and dormant) for which the findings of this research do not provide an explanation.

Also, this research is limited in respect of the modes and sources of change recipients' resistance, which serve as moderating factors when considering the strategies to deal with the recipients' resistance. The findings of this research include three of the four modes of resistance (apathy, passive, and active) defined by Coetsee (1999). This leaves the aggressive mode of resistance unaddressed. With regard to the sources of the recipients' resistance, there are three categories within status quo bias theory (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988) that the research findings do not cover, and these are loss aversion, sunk costs, and social norms.

Furthermore, the research has a limitation in terms of some of the combinations between the salience of change recipients and the modes and sources of their resistance to change. For instance, this research found that negotiation and agreement is effective to address resistance of change recipients whose salience to change is tertiary-dominant and who exhibit an apathy level of resistance when the cause of their resistance is related to regret avoidance. However, the research does not inform whether or not negotiation and agreement is still effective to deal with tertiary dominant recipients who exhibit an active level of resistance rather than apathy. A further example is that this research found that the reward strategy is effective in dealing with primary-demanding recipients who exhibit passive mode of resistance, when the reasons for their resistance are related to transition costs and control. However, when the salience level is lower than primary-demanding, such as primary-latent recipients, the reward strategy may still be effective or there may be other strategies that are less costly than reward but more effective to employ such as persuasion (Judson, 1991).

While this study provides rich evidence on addressing change recipients' resistance to organisational reorientation with reference to their salience, an empirical limitation is

recognised. This limitation emerges from the nature of qualitative case study research and includes the intensive time researchers are required to spend in the field and the difficulty of accessing other cases (Eisenhardt, 1989). Also, because such research is based on theoretical rather than statistical sampling, Eisenhardt states that ‘there is no ideal number of cases’ (1989, p. 545). In spite of reaching saturation point in terms of data collection within each case, this research is based on in depth study of two cases in one organisation. This limits the ability of this research to explore salience classes of change recipients that have not been covered (as reported at the start of this section). It also impacts on the transferability of the research results. Many methods have been employed to enhance this transferability. However, as in all qualitative research, ‘it is the researcher's responsibility to paint a full picture of the context and then allow the reader to determine if the work is transferable to their context’ (Jensen, 2008, p. 887). Therefore, organisations that are in similar circumstances to the ones studied in this research are more likely to benefit from the research results than other different organisations.

These limitations recognised by the researcher represent opportunities for future research, as explained in the following section.

7.6 Recommendations for Future Research

Having identified the limitations of this research, the recommendations for future research become apparent. Several avenues are recommended for future research. First, the revised framework developed in this research is recommended for further development. This can be achieved by exploring the salience classes of change recipients not found in this research, which are definitive, dangerous, and dormant. Moreover, future research is recommended to explore the aggressive mode of change recipients’ resistance in order to find the relevant strategies to cope with the resistance of such recipients. Also, considering the categories of status quo bias theory that have not been identified in this research (loss aversion, sunk costs, and social norms) is an opportunity for further investigation for researchers concerned with strategies to cope with change recipients’ resistance to change.

A further area for future investigation is evaluating the salience attributes of change recipients (identified in this research as impact, power, legitimacy, and urgency) in relation to change. The investigation needs to examine what the order of importance of these

attributes. In other words, what is the order of the attributes in terms of the weight given to them with regard to identifying the most salient change recipients? For instance, Parent and Deephouse (2007) found that power is the primary attribute in identifying the salience of stakeholders followed by urgency and legitimacy. However, in the context of organisational reorientation, the order of these attributes besides the impact attribute is not investigated in the existing literature.

The last area for future study recommended in this research emerges from the outcomes of the systematic review section reported in the literature review chapter. As discussed there, considering the salience levels of change recipients in relation to change when investigating their resistance to the change is in its infancy. Therefore, exploring the relationships between change recipients' salience to change and their resistance to change will yield fruitful results in understanding how to cope with the recipients' resistance to change. To elaborate, investigating the relationship between the attributes of change recipients (impact, power, legitimacy, and urgency) and the causes of their resistance could then enhance the prediction of potential reasons for resistance. For example, change recipients who have a high level of power over a change may resist the change due to reasons related to self-interest. Also, exploring the relationships between the attributes of change recipients in relation to change, in association with the modes of resistance they exhibit, will yield informative results. For instance, change recipients who have a high level of salience in relation to change may be more likely to exhibit a high mode of resistance (active or aggressive), while those with a low level of salience may be associated with a low level of resistance (apathy or passive).

7.7 Lessons Learned

Undertaking doctoral research is a long journey and is a major project to be completed individually. For this researcher, countless lessons have been learned. However, some of the main lessons will be outlined.

The researcher has learned lessons in terms of handling the literature review part of the research. For instance, the researcher became familiar with the systematic review method. This sophisticated method requires researchers to be precise and transparent in the way they review current literature in their fields, from choosing appropriate search key words, evaluating relevant journals, identifying relevant databases, to providing reasons for

including and excluding studies, and finally reporting the relevant studies. Also, this method can save valuable time by enabling researchers to search multiple specified journals in relevant databases with many key words or search strings.

Furthermore, there have been lessons learned in respect of conducting the fieldwork (research methodology). For example, the researcher gained skills in using NVivo10 software to handle and organise the qualitative data gathered, to store the complete research project data from the transcripts, audio files, coding and classification, and to produce reports. Moreover, it was learned that the software can be used for classifying and recording the studies reviewed by researchers, which is a useful tool for the future.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Relevant search strings used for systematic review

Change Management	Resistance to Change	Recipients of Change
change management	resistance to change	change receptivity
organisational transformation	overcoming resistance	recipients' importance
organisational change	minimising resistance	recipients' priorities
change program	reducing resistance	recipients' salience
Radical change	dealing with resistance	targets' importance
revolutionary change	cope with resistance	targets' priorities
episodic change	eliminating resistance	targets' salience
strategic change	resistance mode	change recipient
	modes of resistance	recipient of change
	resistance levels	change target
	levels of resistance	target of change

Appendix 2: Journals titles and their relevant ISSN

No	Journal title	ISSN	Period of journal shown in search platform
1	Journal of Change Management	14697017	Scopus, 2010-2014 ProQuest, 2001-2014 EBSCO host, 2001-2014
2	Journal of Organizational Change Management	09534814	Scopus, 1995-2014 ProQuest, 1992, 2014 EBSCO host, 1988-2014
3	International Journal of Industrial Organization	01677187	Scopus, 1983-2014 ProQuest, 1983-2014 EBSCO host, 1983-2014
4	Journal of Management Inquiry	10564926	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1998-2014 EBSCO host, 1992-2014
5	International Journal of Management Reviews	14608545	Scopus, 1999-2014 ProQuest, 2004-2014 EBSCO host, 1999-2014
6	Academy of Management Perspectives	15589080	Scopus, 2006-2014 ProQuest, 1987-2014 EBSCO host, 2006-2014
7	New Technology, Work and Employment	02681072	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1987-2014 EBSCO host, 2006-2014
8	Human Resource Management Journal(UK)	09545395	Scopus, 2005-2014 ProQuest, 1995-2014 EBSCO host, 1997-2014
9	International Journal of Human Resource Management	09585192	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1990-2014 EBSCO host, 1990-2014

10	Journal of Information Technology	02683962	Scopus, 1987-2014 ProQuest, 1986-2014 EBSCO host, 1986-2014
11	Journal of Management Information Systems	07421222	Scopus, 1987-2014 ProQuest, 1986-2013 EBSCO host, 1984-2014
12	Journal of Strategic Information Systems	09638687	Scopus, 1991-2014 ProQuest, 0 EBSCO host, 0
13	Information Systems Journal	13501917	Scopus, 1994-2014 ProQuest, 2004-2014 EBSCO host, 1998-2014
14	Information and Organization	14717727	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 0 EBSCO host, 2002-2014
15	Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology (JASIST)	15322882	Scopus, 2000-2014 ProQuest, 1974-2014 EBSCO host, 2001-2013
16	Organizational Dynamics	00902616	Scopus, 1972-2014 ProQuest, 1973-2013 EBSCO host, 1972-2009
17	Research in Organizational Behavior	01913085	Scopus, 2000-2014 ProQuest, 2006-2013 EBSCO host, 1979-2011
18	Group and Organization Management	10596011	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1976-2014 EBSCO host, 1992-2014
19	Strategic Change	10861718	Scopus, 0 ProQuest, 1996-2014 EBSCO host, 1996-2014
20	Public Administration: An International Quarterly	00333298	Scopus, 0 ProQuest, 0 EBSCO host, 1965-2014
21	Industrial and Corporate Change	09606491	Scopus, 1992-2014 ProQuest, 1993-2014 EBSCO host, 1992-2014
22	Long Range Planning	00246301	Scopus, 1968-2014 ProQuest, 1972-2014 EBSCO host, 1968-2014
23	Advances in Strategic Management	07423322	Scopus, 2000-2013 ProQuest, 0 EBSCO host, 0
24	Academy of Management Journal	00014273	Scopus, 1975-2014 ProQuest, 1967-2014 EBSCO host, 1963-2014
25	Administrative Science Quarterly	00018392	Scopus, 1975-2014 ProQuest, 1956-2014 EBSCO host, 1956-2014
26	Journal of Management Studies	00222380	Scopus, 1986-2014 ProQuest, 1965-2014 EBSCO host, 1964-2014

27	Journal of Management	01492063	Scopus, 1993-2014 ProQuest, 1965-2014 EBSCO host, 1964-2014
28	Academy of Management Review	03637425	Scopus, 1978-2014 ProQuest, 1976-2014 EBSCO host, 1976-2014
29	British Journal of Management	10453172	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1990-2014 EBSCO host, 1990-2014
30	Human Resource Management (USA)	00904848	Scopus, 1978-2014 ProQuest, 1972-2014 EBSCO host, 1972-2014
31	MIS Quarterly	02767783	Scopus, 1980-2014 ProQuest, 1985-2014 EBSCO host, 1977-2014
32	Management Science	00251909	Scopus, 1970-2014 ProQuest, 1954-2014 EBSCO host, 1954-2014
33	Human Relations	00187267	Scopus, 1951-2014 ProQuest, 1951-2014 EBSCO host, 1965-2014
34	Organization Studies	01708406	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1980-2014 EBSCO host, 1980-2014
35	Organization Science	10477039	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1990-2014 EBSCO host, 1990-2013
36	Personnel Psychology	00315826	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1971-2014 EBSCO host, 1948-2014
37	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	07495978	Scopus, 1985-2014 ProQuest, 1971-2014 EBSCO host, 1985-2014
38	Journal of Organizational Behavior	08943796	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1988-2014 EBSCO host, 1988-2014
39	Public Administration Review	00333352	Scopus, 1978-2014 ProQuest, 1971-2014 EBSCO host, 1965-2014
40	Strategic Management Journal	01432095	Scopus, 1996-2014 ProQuest, 1980-2014 EBSCO host, 1980-2014
41	European Management Review	17404762	Scopus, 2011-2015 ProQuest, 2004-2015 EBSCO host, 2010-2015
42	Strategic Organization	14761270	Scopus, 2011-2015 ProQuest, 2011-2015 EBSCO host, 2003-2015
43	MIT Sloan Management Review	15329194	Scopus, 2001-2014 ProQuest, 1972-2014 EBSCO host, 2001-2014

44	California Management Review	00081256	Scopus, 1978-2014 ProQuest, 1960-2014 EBSCO host, 1958-2014
45	Harvard Business Review	00178012	Scopus, 1974-2014 ProQuest, 1971-2014 EBSCO host, 1922-2014

Appendix 3: Search syntax used in reviewing literature

Appendix 3.1: Search queries used in EBSCO host platform.

Search by All Text	((("change management" or "organi?ational transformation" or "organi?ational change" or "change program*" or "radical change" or "revolutionary change" or "strateg* change")and((" resistance to change" or " overcome* resistance" or "minimiz* resistance" or "reduc* resistance" or "dealing with resistance" or "eliminatin* resistance" or “cop* with resistance” or "mode* of resistance" or " resistance mode*" or "level* of resistance" or “resistance level*”)) or ((("resistance to change" or " overcome* resistance" or "minimiz* resistance" or "reduc* resistance" or "dealing with resistance" or "eliminatin* resistance" or “cop* with resistance” or "mode* of resistance" or " resistance mode*" or "level* of resistance" or “resistance level*”) and (" change receptivity" or “recipient* of change” or “change recipient*” or “target* of change” or “change target*” or " recipient* importance" or "recipient* priorit*" or "recipient* salience" or " target* importance" or "target* priorit*" or "target* salience"))
And ISSN	(14697017) or (09534814) or (01677187) or (10564926) or (14608545) or (09585192) or (02683962) or (07421222) or (01913085) or (00333298) or (09606491) or (00246301) or (00014273) or (00018392) or (00222380) or (01492063) or (03637425) or (10453172) or (00904848) or (02767783) or (00251909) or (01708406) or (00315826) or (08943796) or (00333352) or (01432095) or (00081256) or (00178012) or (14761270)

Appendix 3.2: Search queries used in ProQuest platform

Search by All Text	((("change management" OR "organi?ational transformation" OR "organi?ational change" OR "change program*" OR "radical change" OR "revolutionary change" OR "strateg* change") AND (" resistance to change" OR " overcome* resistance" OR "minimiz* resistance" OR "reduc* resistance" OR "dealing with resistance" OR "eliminatin* resistance" OR "cop* with resistance" OR "mode* of resistance" OR " resistance mode*" OR "level* of resistance" OR "resistance level*")) OR ((("resistance to change" OR " overcome* resistance" OR "minimiz* resistance" OR "reduc* resistance" OR "dealing with resistance" OR "eliminatin* resistance" OR "cop* with resistance" OR "mode* of resistance" OR " resistance mode*" OR
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	"level* of resistance" OR "resistance level*") AND (" change receptivity" OR "recipient* of change" OR "change recipient*" OR "target* of change" OR "change target*" OR " recipient* importance" OR "recipient* priorit*" OR "recipient* salience" OR " target* importance" OR "target* priorit*" OR "target* salience"))
And ISSN	(“15589080” or “15322882” or “10596011” or “15329194” or “02681072” or “09545395” or “00187267” or “10477039” or “07495978” or “10861718” or “17404762”)

Appendix 3.3: Search queries used in Scopus platform

Search by Title, abstract, and keywords	TITLE-ABS-KEY(“resistance” or “change recipient”) and issn((09638687) or (13501917) or (14717727) or (00902616) or (01913085) or (07423322))
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Appendix 4: List of excluded studies from the review (N=52)

Studies excluded because they are:	
Duplicated	
Kotter, J.P. and Schlesinger, L.A. (1979) 'Choosing strategies for change', <i>Harvard Business Review</i> , 57(2), pp. 106-114.	
Lawrence, P. R. (1964) 'How to deal with resistance to change', <i>Harvard Business Review</i> , 32(1), pp. 49-57.	
Short articles (e.g. editorials, call for papers, commentaries, and book review)	
Anonymous (2008) 'Influential articles', <i>Harvard Business Review</i> , 86(1), pp. 130-133.	
Anonymous (2013) 'Call for papers', <i>Journal of Change Management</i> , 13(1), pp. 110-111.	
By, R. T. (2009) 'Editorial', <i>Journal of Change Management</i> , 9(1), pp. 1-3.	
Lawrence, P. R. (1986) 'How to deal with resistance to change', <i>Harvard Business Review</i> , 64(2), pp. 199-199.	
Meshoulam, I. (1983) 'Commentary on Tichy', <i>Human Resources Management</i> , 22(1), pp. 61-62.	
Morrow, I. J. (1999) 'Making change irresistible: overcoming resistance to change in your organization', <i>Personnel Psychology</i> , 52(3), pp. 816-819.	
Oswick, O., Tom, Keenoy, T. and Grant, D. (2001) 'Editorial: dramatizing and organizing', <i>Journal of Organizational Change Management</i> , 14(1), pp. 218-224.	
Stewart, T. A. (2004) 'Burning to be great', <i>Harvard Business Review</i> , 82(1), pp. 8-8.	
Studies that are not about change recipients' resistance to change	
Ackroyd, S., Kirkpatrick, I. and Walker, R. M. (2007) 'Public management reform in the uk and its consequences for professional organization: a comparative analysis', <i>Public Administration</i> , 85(1), pp. 9-26.	
Annique Un, C. and Cuervo-Cazurra, A. (2005) 'Top managers and the product improvement process', <i>Advances in Strategic Management</i> , 22(1), pp. 319-348.	
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Appendix 5: List of studies included in the full review (N=101)

No	Study	Theory employed	Type and/or (content) of change	Methodology
1	Alvarez (2008)	None	Radical (Information systems “ERP”)	Mixed methods 40 interviews and 213 questionnaires in a university, USA
2	Anderson (2006)	None	Not specified (Efficiency)	Qualitative Interviews with 27 academics from eight Australian universities
3	Armenakis et al. (1993)	None	Planned and unplanned	Conceptual
4	Auster and Ruebottob (2013)	None	Radical (Not specified)	Conceptual
5	Balogun (2003)	None	Planned, Radical (Privatisation)	Qualitative Single case, interviews
6	Barton and Ambrosini (2013)	Procedural justice theory	Not specified	Quantitative A survey of middle managers from 701 High Tech organisations, the UK
7	Battilana and Casciaro (2013)	Social network theory	Incremental and radical change	Quantitative Survey of 68 change initiatives at NHS in the UK
8	Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2005)	Coping theory	Not specified (Information systems)	Qualitative 17 interviews in two banks, USA
9	Beech and Johnson (2005)	None	Radical	Qualitative Single case, interviews
10	Binci et al. (2012)	None	Not specified (Development program)	Qualitative Interviews in an electricity company, Italy
11	Bouchikhi and Kimberly (2003)	None	Radical	Conceptual
12	Butchholtz and Ribbens (1994)	Agency theory	Not specified (Acquisition)	Quantitative Archival records of 402 firms in the USA
13	Clemons and Hann (1999)	None	Radical	Conceptual

14	Connell and Waring (2002)	None	Not specified	Qualitative Multiple case, 61 interviews from three firms, Australia
15	Cunha et al. (2013)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
16	Darragh and Campbell (2001)	None	Not specified	Qualitative Multiple cases. Interviews on 8 change programs
17	DeCelles et al. (2013)	None	Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 687 officers
18	Dobosz and Jankowicz (2006)	None	Not specified (Quality improvement)	Qualitative Single case, 28 interviews of managers
19	Doolin (2004)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Qualitative A single case, 46 interviews in a hospital, New Zealand
20	Drummond (1998)	None	Not specified (Efficiency)	Qualitative Single case, interviews
21	Enns et al. (2003)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Mixed methods Focused interviews with CIOs and their peers. A survey instrument was then developed and distributed to a sample of CIO and peer executive
22	Ezzamel et al. (2001)	None	Not specified (Business process reengineering)	Qualitative Participant observation and interviews on a factory, the UK
23	Ferres and Connell (2004)	None	Not specified	Quantitative A survey, 448 respondents in a public organisation
24	Fidler and Johnson (1984)	None	Not specified (Innovation)	Conceptual

25	Fiol (2002)	None	Radical (Organisational identity change)	Conceptual
26	Fiol and O'Connor (2002)	None	Radical (Organisational identity change)	Conceptual
27	Folger and Skarlicki (1999)	Referent cognition theory	Planned (Not specified)	Conceptual
28	Ford and Ford (2009)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
29	Ford and Ford (2010)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
30	Ford et al. (2002)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
31	Ford et al. (2008)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
32	Fox and Staw (1979)	None	Not specified	Quantitative Experiment, the subjects of this experiment were 160 undergraduate students
33	Garcia et al. (2007)	None	Not specified (Innovation)	Mixed method Multiple cases, interviews and questionnaires in four manufacturers in US, Australia, and New Zealand
34	George and Jones (2001)	None	Radical	Conceptual
35	Giangreco and Peccei (2005)	None	Planned/Radical (privatisation)	Quantitative A survey of 322 middle managers in an Italian firm
36	Ginsberg and Abrahamson (1991)	None	Incremental and radical (Regulation and legislation)	Mix methods Questionnaires and interviews. Bank industry, USA
37	Goldstein (1988)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
38	Hall et al. (1993)	None	Radical (Business process reengineering)	Conceptual

39	Hardgrave et al. (2003)	Technology acceptance model	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative A survey of 110 IT developers from one organisation
40	Heath et al. (1993)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
41	Jarrett (2004)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
42	Johnson (1974)	None	Not specified (New technology)	Experiment in a telephone firm
43	Johnson-Cramer et al. (2007)	Social network theory	Not specified (Merger)	Quantitative Survey of 105 engineers and managers in an organisation
44	Joshi (1991)	Equity theory	Not specified (Information systems)	Conceptual
45	Kegan and Lahey (2001)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
46	Kersten (2001)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
47	Kim and Kankanhalli (2009)	Status quo bias theory	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative Survey in a company that had implemented a new ERP system
48	Kirkman and Shapiro (1997)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
49	Kirkman and Shapiro (2001)	None	Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 461 self-managing work team members in four countries, the USA, Belgium, Finland, and the Philippines
50	Klein and Sorra (1996)	None	Not specified (Innovation)	Conceptual
51	Konig et al. (2013)	None	Radical	Conceptual
52	Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	None	Not specified	Conceptual

53	Labianca et al. (2000)	None	Not specified (Decision making process)	Mixed method Single case, interviews and questionnaire
54	Lapointe and Rivard (2005)	Technology acceptance model	Not specified (Information systems)	Qualitative Three hospitals that had implemented EMRs
55	Lapointe and Rivard (2007)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Qualitative Multiple cases. Interviews from three hospitals that had implemented a new IS
56	Larsson and Finkelstein (1999)	None	Radical (Merger and acquisition)	Quantitative Secondary data of 61 cases in USA and Europe
57	Lawrence (1954)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
58	Lee (2010)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
59	Lee and Clark	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Conceptual
60	Lines (2004)	Expectancy theory	Radical (Efficiency and cost reduction)	Quantitative A survey on large telecommunication firm
61	Lines (2007)	None	Radical (Efficiency and cost reduction)	Quantitative survey in a large telecommunication company
62	Lofquist (2011)	None	Planned (Privatisation)	Qualitative 57 semi-structured interviews
63	Longstrand and Elg (2012)	Actor network theory	Not specified (Lean)	Qualitative A longitudinal case study
64	Macri et al. (2000)	None	Not specified	Qualitative Participant observation, interviews, and documents on a small organisation

65	Mahadevan (2012)	None	Not specified	Qualitative 21 interviews and four focus groups German high-tech company
66	Mallinger (1993)	None	Not specified (Quality improvement)	Qualitative Single case, participant observation
67	Marquis and Lounsbury (2007)	None	Not specified (Acquisition)	Quantitative Secondary data from 379 US communities
68	Martin (1993)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
69	Martinsons and Chong (1999)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative A survey of 60 organisations in East Asia.
70	Mccarthy et al. (2008)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
71	Mumford (1965)	None	Not specified (New technology)	Qualitative Two cases, 35 interviews with clerks
72	Neal and Tromley (1995)	None	Radical	Conceptual
73	Nesterkin (2013)	Theory of psychological reactance	Not specified	Conceptual
74	Nord and Durand (1975)	None	Not specified (Efficiency)	Qualitative A single case 49 interviews
75	Nov and Schecter (2012)	Technology acceptance model	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative A survey of 77 physicians in hospital
76	Nov and Ye (2008)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative A survey of 222 students in a university
77	Nov and Ye (2009)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative A survey of 304 students in a university
78	Nutt (1998)	None	Not specified	Quantitative A database of 376 strategic decisions in various types of organisations, USA

79	Oreg and Berson (2011)	None	Radical (efficiency)	Quantitative, A survey of principals and 586 teachers from 75 school
80	Pendlebury (1987)	None	Radical (New strategy)	Conceptual
81	Piderit (2000)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
82	Pieterse et al. (2002)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Qualitative A case study in technical department of a European low-cost airline
83	Pitsakis et al. (2012)	Institutional theory and identity theory	Not specified	Conceptual
84	Polites and Karahanna (2012)	Status quo bias theory	Not specified (Information systems)	Quantitative Survey of students at a US university
85	Powell and Posner (1978)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
86	Reichers et al. (1997)	None	Not specified (Efficiency and cost reduction)	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture
87	Rivard and Lapointe (2012)	None	Non specified (Information systems)	Mixed methods Case study survey
88	Roberto and Levesque (2005)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
89	Rothenberg (2007)	None	Not specified (New product development)	Qualitative Multiple cases, 24 interviews from three firms
90	Rusaw (2000)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
91	Schiavone (2012)	None	Not specified (New technology)	Qualitative Case study, Italy
92	Selander and Henfridsson (2012)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Qualitative 57 interviews in one organisation
93	Sidle (2006)	None	Not specified (Merger)	Conceptual
94	Smith et al. (2010)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Mixed methods

95	Strebel (1996)	None	Not specified	Conceptual
96	Sutanto et al. (2008)	None	Not specified (Information systems)	Mix method from a single public organisation, Singapore
97	Tepper et al. (1998)	None	Not specified	Quantitative A survey of MBA students
98	Trader-Leigh (2002)	None	Not specified	Mixed method Single case
99	Tummers et al. (2012)	None	Not specified (Public policy)	Quantitative Survey of Dutch mental healthcare professionals
100	Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009)	Social identity theory	Not specified (Merger)	Mixed methods in two law firms
101	Wolfgramm et al. (1998)	Institutional theory	Incremental (Regulation)	Qualitative Interviews in two banks

Appendix 6: A complete list of studies about strategies to deal with change recipients' resistance to organisational change

Education strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Coch and French (1948)	The necessity of the change needs to be explained to change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Field experiment	Not specified
Lawrence (1954)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Mumford (1965)	Explaining the impact of the change on the recipients Condition(s) of use: When the recipients will not lose personal goal	Qualitative Two cases, 35 interviews with clerks	Type: Not specified Content: New technology
Zaltman and Duncan (1977)	Providing a rationale justification of why the change is necessary Condition(s) of use: Requires time When the level of uncertainty of change recipients is high Change recipients have a low perception of the necessity of the change	Conceptual	Type: Planned change Content: Not specified
Caruth et al. (1985)	Explaining the rationale, the benefits and the negatives of the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Judson (1991)	Providing change recipients information about the change Condition(s) of use: Sufficient, accurate, and real information Two-way interaction	Conceptual	Not specified
Martin (1993)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Neal and Tromley (1995)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Reichers et al. (1997)	Explaining the necessity of the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Connell and Waring (2002)	Explaining the rationale behind the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Qualitative Multiple case, 61 interviews from three firms, Australia	Not specified
Side (2006)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Merger

Education strategy (Cont.)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Rothenberg (2007)	Explaining the rationale behind the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Qualitative Multiple cases, 24 interviews from three firms	Type: Not specified Content: New product development
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Change recipients have inadequate information about the change Requires time	Conceptual	Not specified
Ford and Ford (2009)	Explaining the change to the recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Kim and Kankanhalli (2009)	Presenting the benefits of change for the resisters Condition(s) of use: When the perceived value of change for the resisters is low	Quantitative Survey in a company that had implemented a new ERP system	Type: Radical Content: Enterprise resource planning system
Fiedler (2010)	Providing change recipients with information about the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified

Communication strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Fidler and Johnson (1984)	Communicating with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Compatibility with the complexity of the change	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Innovation
Pendlebury (1987)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Judson (1991)	Communication through many channels Condition(s) of use: The language of communication needs to be understandable to different levels of change recipients	Conceptual	Not specified
Reichers et al. (1997)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Hultman (1998)	Communicating with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Communicating with respect to their ideas and opinions	Conceptual	Not specified

Communication strategy (Cont.)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Jarrett (2004)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Fiedler (2010)	Two-way communication with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Ford and Ford (2010)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Auster and Ruebottom (2013)	Two-way communication Condition(s) of use: Transparency	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified

Participation and involvement strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Coch and French (1948)	Involving change recipients in planning the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Field experiment	Not specified
Johnson (1974)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Experiment in a telephone firm	Type: Not specified Content: New technology
Caruth et al. (1985)	Involving change recipients in planning and implementing the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Joshi (1991)	Involving of IS users Condition(s) of use: Fair procedure of participation	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Information system
Judson (1991)	Involving change recipients in decision making Condition(s) of use: The recipients need to perceive that management need their involvement and consider their ideas Praise contributions of those involved and avoid criticism	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	Involving change recipients in giving advice regarding planning and/or implementing the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified

Participation and involvement strategy (Cont.)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Armenakis et al. (1993)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: For planned change only	Conceptual	Type: Planned and unplanned change Content: Not specified
Heath et al. (1993)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: When the recipients will not be dismissed	Conceptual	Not specified
Mallinger (1993)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: The recipients' inputs need to be respected and appreciated by the agents	Qualitative single case, participant observation	Type: Not specified Content: Quality improvement
Nadler (1993)	Involving change recipients in planning and/or implementing change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Morris and Raben (1995)	Direct and indirect participation of change recipients in planning and implementing change Condition(s) of use: Change agents to be careful when and how as it costs time	Conceptual	Type: Incremental and radical Content: Not specified
Reichers et al (1997)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: The recipients' inputs need to be respected and appreciated by the agents	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Hultman (1998)	Involving change recipients in decision making Condition(s) of use: Ensure to involve those are affected by the change	Conceptual	Not specified
Nutt (1998)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A database of 376 strategic decisions in various types of organisations, USA	Not specified
Martinsons and Chong (1999)	Involving human resource specialists in information system related change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 60 organisations in East Asia.	Type: Not specified Content: Information system
Lines (2004)	Involving change recipients in decision making Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey on large telecommunication firm	Type: Radical Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Giangreco and Peccei (2005)	Involving middle managers in planning and implementing the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 322 middle managers in an Italian firm	Type: Planned radical Content: Privatisation

Participation and involvement strategy (Cont)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Sidle (2006)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Merger
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Involving change recipients in planning and implementing change Condition(s) of use: Change agents lack information about the change Requires time	Conceptual	Not specified
Mccarthy (2008)	Involving change recipients in the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Fiedler (2010)	Involving change recipients in planning and implementing the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Pardo-del-Val et al. (2012)	Involving change recipients in decision making Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 86 companies Spain	Not specified
Auster and Ruebottom (2013)	Involving influential change recipients both promoters and negative resistors Condition(s) of use: Participation across the organisation	Conceptual	Type: Radical and incremental Content: Not specified

Facilitation strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Zaltman and Duncan (1977)	Management support Condition(s) of use: Requires many resources such as time and money Change recipients have a high perception of the necessity of the change When the level of resistance is low	Conceptual	Type: Planned change Content: Not specified
Caruth et al. (1985)	Allowing sufficient time Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Joshi (1991)	Providing training and sufficient time Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: IS

Facilitation strategy (Cont.)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Judson (1991)	Sufficient training and time Ceremonies Condition(s) of use: For those who feel lack of self efficacy Time is moderated by the supposed time of change completion	Conceptual	Not specified
Nadler (1993)	Providing sufficient time for change recipients to adopt the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Morris and Raben (1995)	Providing sufficient time for change recipients to adopt the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Incremental and radical Content: Not specified
Hultman (1998)	Providing training and skills necessary for the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Roberto and Levesque (2005)	Training, and compatibility between the recipients' skills and new ways of working Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Training, time, and emotional support Condition(s) of use: Fear and anxiety exists in change recipients Requires time and money	Conceptual	Not specified
Kim and Kankanhalli (2009)	Providing training and time necessary to adopt the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative Survey in a company that had implemented a new ERP system	Type: Radical Content: Enterprise resource planning system
Fiedler (2010)	Training Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Rivard and Lapointe (2012)	Rectification (e.g. training) Condition(s) of use: Congruent with the object of resistance (e.g. system features)	Mixed methods Case study survey	Type: Not specified Content: Information systems
Schiavone (2012)	Training Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Qualitative Case study, Italy	Type: Not specified Content: New technology
Barton and Ambrosini (2013)	Top management support for middle managers Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of middle managers from 701, organisations, UK	Not specified

Reward strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Caruth et al. (1985)	Reward change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Joshi (1991)	Praise, promotion, and awards Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Not specified Content: Information systems
Judson (1991)	Both monetary and non monetary rewards Condition(s) of use: The reward needs to match the needs of the resistor	Conceptual	Not specified
Nadler (1993)	Formal and informal rewards Condition(s) of use: Rewards need to be during and after the change	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Morris and Raben (1995)	Formal and informal rewards Condition(s) of use: Rewards need to be during and after the change	Conceptual	Type: Incremental and radical change Content: Not specified
Reichers et al. (1997)	Reward Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of employees from one manufacture	Type: Not specified Content: Efficiency and cost reduction
Mccarthy et al. (2008)	Reward Condition(s) of use: Fair reward system	Conceptual	Not specified
Persuasion strategy			
Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Zaltman and Duncan (1977)	Reasoning and urging actions Condition(s) of use: Change recipients have a low perception of the necessity of the change When the level of resistance is high	Conceptual	Type: Planned change Content: Not specified
Goldstein (1988)	Change agents sell the change Condition(s) of use: When the level of resistance is not high	Conceptual	Not specified
Judson (1991)	By assuring change recipients that some aspects of their job will remain the same such as they will not be made redundant Condition(s) of use: When the recipients are anxious and insecure about their jobs	Conceptual	Not specified

Persuasion strategy (Cont.)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	Using logical arguments with the recipients that the change is worthwhile Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Armenakis et al. (1993)	Change agents sell the change Condition(s) of use: For both planned and unplanned change	Conceptual	Type: Planned and unplanned change Content: Not specified
Nadler (1993)	Persuading change recipients by emphasising the aspects of the organisations that will remain stable Condition(s) of use: When there is uncertainty and anxiety among the recipients	Conceptual	Type: Radical Content: Not specified
Hultman (1998)	Emphasising the benefits of change for the change recipients Condition(s) of use: Honesty required	Conceptual	Not specified
Kim and Kankanhalli (2009)	Persuasion by colleagues Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative Survey in a company that had implemented a new ERP system	Type: Radical Content: Enterprise resource planning system
Rivard and Lapointe (2012)	Supportive persuasion Condition(s) of use: Credibility of the message	Mixed methods Case study survey	Type: Not specified Content: Information systems

Negotiation and agreement strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Judson (1991)	Bargaining with the change recipients Condition(s) of use: Needs to be in advance before the change The willingness of managers to compromise	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	By exchanging implicit and/or explicit offers with the recipients Condition(s) of use: Moderately effective	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified

Negotiation and agreement strategy (Cont.)

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Morris and Raben (1995)	Bargaining with change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Type: Incremental and radical change Content: Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Negotiating with the change recipients in advance before the change Condition(s) of use: When change recipients will lose something valuable Requires money	Conceptual	Not specified

Manipulation strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Zaltman and Duncan (1977)	Introducing biased information Condition(s) of use: Change recipients have a low perception of the necessity of the change Change agents need to be able to provide change recipients with the necessary resources to adopt the change	Conceptual	Type: Planned change Content: Not specified
Caruth et al. (1985)	Managers always need to show a positive attitude towards the change despite any negative feelings they have about the change Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	By using personal appeals such as friendship and/or loyalty Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Hultman (1998)	Managers need to avoid showing anger, impatience, and frustration to change recipients Condition(s) of use: Not specified	Conceptual	Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Introducing biased information Cooptation Condition(s) of use: when limited time available	Conceptual	Not specified
Battilana and Casciaro (2013)	Affective cooptation via strong ties of change agents to resisters Condition(s) of use: For fence sitters, both types of incremental and/or radical changes work For purely resisters, works only in incremental type of change	Quantitative Survey of 68 change initiatives at NHS in the UK	Type: Incremental and radical change Content: Not specified

Coercion strategy

Author	Description and conditions	Methodology	Type and content of change
Zaltman and Duncan (1977)	Use of threat Condition(s) of use: Change recipients have a low perception of the necessity of the change Change agents need to be able to provide change recipients with the necessary resources to adopt the change	Conceptual	Type: Planned change Content: Not specified
Falbe and Yukl (1992)	Threat, frequent check, and legitimating Condition(s) of use: More effective when it is combined with other strategies	Quantitative A survey of 95 MBA students USA	Not specified
Judson (1991)	Any form of coercion should not be used at all times	Conceptual	Not specified
Hultman (1998)	Using power to force change recipients to adopt the change Condition(s) of use: Can be used only when resisters do not provide an obvious reason why they resist	Conceptual	Not specified
Nutt (1998)	Use force with the resisters Condition(s) of use: Its effectiveness is moderate	Quantitative A database of 376 strategic decisions in various types of organisations, USA	Not specified
Tepper et al. (1998)	Use force with the resisters Condition(s) of use: It is more effective when it is combined with a soft tactic such as facilitation	Quantitative A survey of MBA students	Not specified
Kotter and Schlesinger (2008)	Implicit and/or explicit threat to resisters to adopt change Condition(s) of use: When limited time available	Conceptual	Not specified
Rivard and Lapointe (2012)	Force resisters to adopt Condition(s) of use: Credibility of the message	Mixed methods Case study survey	Type: Not specified Content: Information systems

Appendix 7: Outline of the pre-interview session



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At the start of each interview:

- a) The participants will be thanked for agreeing to the interview.
- b) The purpose of the research will be outlined.
- c) Participants will be informed that the length of the interview will be approximately 90 minutes.
- d) Each interviewee will be assured that the information will be confidentially kept, and is only for research purposes.
- e) Participants will be informed that they have the right not to answer any question, and the interview will be stopped if they wish.
- f) The permission for recording electronically will be gained prior to starting the formal interview questions.

At the end of the interview, every interviewee will be thanked for their participation.

All of these points should take no more than 2 minutes in total.

Appendix 8: Questions to identify change agents and recipients

(These questions were asked at the beginning of each interview)

<p>Questions to identify change agents</p>	<p>1- What have been your roles, if any, in the XX change project? To what extent were these roles concerned with:</p> <p>f) Setting the project's goals (e.g. vision). <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p> <p>g) Setting the agents and recipients role specification (e.g. team building and networking). <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p> <p>h) Communication with the change recipients. <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p> <p>i) Negotiation with the recipients (e.g. selling ideas). <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p> <p>j) Political issues with the recipients (e.g. identifying potential coalitions, and dealing with resistance). <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p>
<p>Questions to identify change recipients</p>	<p>2- As a result of the change:</p> <p>d) Has your job description changed? <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p> <p>e) Have you had to work with different people? <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p> <p>f) Have you had to do your work differently? <input type="radio"/> 0 <input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4</p>
<p>None <input type="radio"/> 0</p>	<p>Low <input type="radio"/> 1 Moderate <input type="radio"/> 2 High <input type="radio"/> 3 Very high <input type="radio"/> 4</p>

Note:

Informants who replied 'None' to all criteria about change agents are not considered as agents of change.

Informants who replied 'None' to all criteria about change recipients are not considered as recipients of change.

Appendix 9: Interview questions employed in the research

Appendix 9.1: Questions for change agents (who are defined using the criteria in Appendix 8)

Category	No	Questions
Background information about the context (i.e. organisational reorientation)	1	What is your role in the organisation?
	2	Was the change planned? Please elaborate.
	3	What impact has the change had on the organisation in terms of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture (e.g. values and beliefs about the organisation) • Strategy (e.g. vision) • Structure (e.g. organisational hierarchy) • Distribution of power (e.g. change in roles and responsibilities) • Control systems (e.g. measuring performance)
	4	Who were the change recipients?
	5	How would you classify the change recipients you mentioned, if possible?
	6	With these recipients you mentioned in mind, can you describe how you managed the change recipients during the change?
Change recipient salience in relation to change	7	How would you classify the change recipients in terms of their importance to the change?
	8	What were the criteria used to judge the change recipients' importance to the change?
	9	<p>Power <i>(Informants were asked to specify the level of power of every change recipient group they reported in relation to the change)</i></p> <p>The change recipient had a capacity to influence the change (irrespective of whether their influence was seen as legitimate or not) to the extent that:</p> <p>9.1 Their power was such that it could have stopped the change. 9.2 The goals of the change could probably have been achieved against this change recipient's opposition, but not easily (i.e. they could have delayed the change). 9.3 Their power over the change was minimal (i.e. they could have neither stopped nor delayed the change). 9.4 Other, please specify.</p>
	10	<p>Legitimacy <i>(Informants were asked to specify the level of legitimacy of every change recipient group they reported in relation to the change)</i></p> <p>The change recipient's actions were seen as legitimate (proper) to the extent that they were in a position to:</p> <p>10.1 Veto decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change. 10.2 Vote in decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change but could not veto. 10.3 Give opinions about decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change, but did not have a vote. 10.4 Be only informed about decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change without giving opinions. 10.5 Other, please specify.</p>

Category	No	Questions
Change recipient salience in relation to change (Cont.)	11	<p>Urgency <i>(Informants were asked to specify the level of urgency of every change recipient group they reported in relation to the change)</i></p> <p>The change recipient's demands required urgent attention from the change agents to the extent that:</p> <p>11.1 Immediate action was warranted, irrespective of other work commitments.</p> <p>11.2 Planned action was warranted outside routine communication.</p> <p>11.3 There was no need for action outside routine communications.</p> <p>11.4 Other, please specify.</p>
Resistance to change	12	<p>From which change recipients did you encounter resistance?</p> <p><i>(Informants were asked questions 13-15 about every change recipient group the informants reported who exhibited resistance to change)</i></p>
	13	How would you describe the change recipients' level of resistance?
	14	Why did the change recipients resist the change?
Strategies to deal with resistance	15	What were the strategies employed for coping with the change recipients' resistance?
	16	To what extent did these strategies help to overcome the change recipients' resistance?
Conclusion	17	What were the main lessons learned from managing the change recipients in the change?

Note: In addition to the questions above, informants who were also recipients of change were asked questions 5, 14, 15, and 16 in the change recipients' questions list in Appendix 9.2.

Appendix 9.2: Questions for change recipients (who are defined using the criteria in Appendix 8)

Category	No	Questions
Background information about the context (i.e. organisational reorientation)	1	What is your role in the organisation?
	2	What impact has the change had on the organisation in terms of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Culture (e.g. values and beliefs about the organisation) • Strategy (e.g. vision) • Structure (e.g. organisational hierarchy) • Distribution of power (e.g. change in roles and responsibilities) • Control systems (e.g. measuring performance)
	3	Who were the change recipients?
	4	How would you classify the change recipients you mentioned if possible?
	5	Can you describe how you experienced the change?
Change recipient salience in relation to change	6	How would you classify the change recipients in terms of their importance to the change?
	7	What were the criteria used to judge the change recipients' importance to the change?
	8	<p>Power <i>(Informants were asked to specify the level of power of the department/group they belong to in relation to the change)</i></p> <p>Your (department/group) had a capacity to influence the change (irrespective of whether their influence was seen as legitimate or not) to the extent that:</p> <p>8.1 Their power was such that it could have stopped the change. 8.2 The goals of the change could probably have been achieved against the opposition of your (department/group), but not easily (i.e. they could have delayed the change). 8.3 Their power over the change was minimal (i.e. they could have neither stopped nor delayed the change). 8.4 Other, please specify.</p>
9	<p>Legitimacy <i>(Informants were asked to specify the level of legitimacy of the department/group they belong to in relation to the change)</i></p> <p>The actions of your (department/group) were seen as legitimate (proper) to the extent that they were in a position to:</p> <p>Veto decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change. 9.1 Vote in decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change but could not veto. 9.2 Give opinions about decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change, but did not have a vote. 9.3 Be only informed about decisions regarding formulation and/or implementation of the change without giving opinions. 9.4 Other, please specify.</p>	

Category	No	Questions
Change recipient salience in relation to change (Cont.)	10	<p>Urgency <i>(Informants were asked to specify the level of urgency of the department/group they belong to in relation to the change)</i></p> <p>The demands of your (department/group) required urgent attention from the change agents to the extent that:</p> <p>10.1 Immediate action was warranted, irrespective of other work commitments. 10.2 Planned action was warranted outside routine communication. 10.3 There was no need for action outside routine communications. 10.4 Other, please specify.</p>
Resistance to change	11	<p>Who were the resistors of the change?</p> <p><i>(Informants were asked questions 12-13 about every change recipient group the informants reported who exhibited resistance to change)</i></p>
	12	How would you describe the change recipients' level of resistance to the change?
	13	Why did the change recipients resist the change?
Strategies to deal with resistance	14	How was the resistance from your (department/group) managed by the change agents?
	15	How satisfied were the change recipients with the way the resistance was managed? Please elaborate.
Conclusion	16	What could have been done better to help you adopt the change?

Appendix 9.3: Prompt questions employed during the interviews for both change agents and recipients

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you give me an example of . . . please? • Can you elaborate on . . . please? • Can you clarify what you mean by . . . please? • Can you explain the difference between . . . and . . . please? |
|---|

Appendix 10: Participant information sheet



Brunel Business School

Research Ethics

Participant Information Sheet

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Yazeed Alhezzani. I am a fulltime PhD student at Brunel Business School. I am working on a project looking at the strategies to deal with those who are affected by a transformational change in their organisation. In particular, the purpose is to investigate how the resistance by those who are affected by the change was dealt with.

To carry out my research, I need to collect primary data. This is by way of interviews with those involved in change as well as documents about the transformational program. Documents include information about the project such as the background of the project, project phases, stakeholders involved, and main strategies employed to facilitate the change process. Interviewees include with those who were change managers as well as who were not.

Taking part is voluntary. Importantly, all the information about your organisation will be confidential and used for the purposes of this study only. The information will be used in a way that will not allow your organisation or any of the interviewees to be identified in any way. All the documents information will be confidential

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude for your participation and assistance. Should you need further information about this research, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Email: Yazeed.Alhezzani@brunel.ac.uk

Thank you
Yazeed Alhezzani

Appendix 11: An example of an interview summary that was sent to an interviewee (change agent) from Case B (i.e. C2A8)

Summary

The change has had a radical impact on the organisation. The change has affected the organisations' strategy (improving efficiency and saving costs to provide better customer service), its structure (automated work processes, and increased number of engineers), its distribution of power (operation managers became more powerful by gaining more data and control of their engineers), its culture (in terms of the engineers' perception of the quality of their work), and its control system (output control i.e. moving from quantity of measuring the engineers' work to the quality of their work, and process control i.e. more accurate available information in monitoring the engineers' work). The change was planned in advance, intended, by realizing an opportunity to invest in new technology that enables the organisation to work efficiently and effectively.

The change recipients of the tools transformation program are the engineers, the operation managers, the senior operation managers, the general managers, the directors, and the control team of the organisation. However, the engineers are the most important change recipients, followed by the operation managers and the control team due to the high effect of the change on them.

In respect of resistance to change, the resistors are: the engineers, the operation managers, the senior operation managers, the general managers, and the control team. The engineers' level of resistance was more active rather than passive by formally complaining about the change to the change managers. Similarly, the operation managers and the senior operation managers' level of resistance was active by not supporting the change within their teams. Finally, the general managers and the control team's level of resistance was more apathy by not showing interest in the change and being in an indifference position. The reasons for the engineers' resistance are: a) the self efficacy (i.e. lack of confidence in their ability to cope with the new tools and management support), b) not willing to change as they feared the change as a change which they perceived as loss regardless of the benefits associated with it. With regard to the operation managers and the senior operation managers, they resisted the change due to the problems associated with the new tools such as time sheets. The general managers' resistance stems from the uncertainty about the consequences of the tools transformation. The control team's resistance was because they lack the skills to cope with the new changes associated with the new tools such as emulation.

The methods to minimise the resistance of the engineers were twofold: a) facilitation in a form of training, management support (e.g. the awareness day), and fixing the issues with the new tools, b) rewards such as driving an Audi for a week for those who started using the

new tools. The methods used to deal with the resistance of the operation managers and the senior operation managers were: a) frequent, two-way communication with the change managers to provide them with the latest updates and enable them to raise any issue they encounter, and b) facilitation in form of fixing issues with the time sheets. The way employed to minimise the resistance of the control team was facilitation in a form of providing training and fixing any issue they encountered with the new tools.

All the methods mentioned above were very effective in reducing the resistance of the change recipients and turned them to adopters rather than resistors.

Appendix 12: Examples of thematic analysis by NVivo10

Appendix 12.1: An example of the organisational reorientation theme, which involves the deep structure and its subcategories, with relevant text (From Case A)

The screenshot displays the NVivo10 interface. At the top, a 'Nodes' table lists the following categories and their associated data:

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Deep structure	16	127	06/08/2013 14:44	Y.M	02/09/2013 13:09	Y.M
Control systems	13	26	12/08/2013 13:51	Y.M	29/03/2014 13:50	Y.M
Output control	10	10	09/02/2014 20:38	Y.M	01/04/2014 11:41	Y.M
Process control	7	7	09/02/2014 20:33	Y.M	19/11/2014 22:21	Y.M
Culture	11	21	06/08/2013 14:45	Y.M	29/03/2014 13:50	Y.M
Distribution of power	13	14	12/08/2013 13:49	Y.M	01/04/2014 11:36	Y.M
Strategy	11	14	13/08/2013 15:45	Y.M	29/03/2014 13:50	Y.M
Structure	15	52	12/08/2013 13:48	Y.M	29/03/2014 13:50	Y.M

The 'Process control' node is selected, and its content is displayed in the main text area:

R: We didn't have some proper systems before, so we're in the early stages at the moment. And they used to judge the work output by the content of the work that was issued. So if you had to put six poles up in the field and you set the job off on the work tool, to put six poles up, as far as planning it is no different to putting one up but you've got more time for it, so people used to pick jobs like that. Whereas now they are basing it on the above of activity they issue, so we have – have you heard of the CSS system? Or just coming on one system and they base it on the number of times you close an activity. So it doesn't matter if you raise an estimate for a thousand pounds or one pound that doesn't make a difference to your output, so that has all changed because everybody used to be based and judged on the amount of work they issued to the field, the moneywise.

I: **Right.**

R: So now that doesn't matter it's all based on the number of customer orders that we close down. So that's come away because all these tools are about issuing estimates but the work that they're now being judged on is based on how many orders they've provided and how much service they've provided to individual people, so that has

On the right side of the text view, there is a vertical bar with a legend for 'Coding Density' and a list of nodes: CIA3, Systems, C1R6, C1R10, Control systems, CIA7/R7, Output control, and Coding Density.

Appendix 12.2: An example of the resistance to change theme, which involves modes and sources of resistance and its subcategories, with relevant text (From Case A)

The screenshot displays a software interface with a hierarchical tree of nodes on the left and a detailed view of a selected node on the right.

Nodes Table:

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Resistance to change	16	102	20/11/2014 10:11	Y.M	20/11/2014 10:11	Y.M
Levels of resistance	12	40	25/07/2013 13:56	Y.M	27/07/2013 14:43	Y.M
Active	3	4	23/08/2013 15:10	Y.M	20/11/2014 10:15	Y.M
Apathy	6	16	25/07/2013 14:06	Y.M	27/07/2013 14:43	Y.M
Passive	8	20	25/07/2013 14:07	Y.M	27/07/2013 14:44	Y.M
Voicing opposing views	8	20	27/07/2013 01:23	Y.M	06/02/2014 11:45	Y.M
Operations managers	4	5	27/07/2013 01:25	Y.M	20/11/2014 10:27	Y.M
Team members	8	13	27/07/2013 01:25	Y.M	31/03/2014 20:51	Y.M
Sources of resistance	15	62	27/07/2013 13:28	Y.M	28/07/2013 13:23	Y.M

Team members Node Detail:

Lots of people who were verbally negative I mean really destructive to what we were doing telling us that they have seen all this before that we are not doing anything different then they didn't trust us anything like that. And yeah and we saw that in some First-Line Managers as well.

<Internals\IC1A2> - § 2 references coded [0.78% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.31% Coverage

and then we will have one lot big stream end, who will say, no, I am not doing it, unless someone forces me to do it. I don't agree with it.

Summary Panel:

- Persistent
- Operations managers
- Voicing opposing views
- CI A1
- CI R3
- CI A6R15
- Coding Density
- CI A2

Appendix 12.3: An example of the strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance theme, with relevant text (From Case B)

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
Strategies to overcome change recipients' resistance	12	68	20/11/2014 11:02	Y.M	21/11/2014 22:19	Y.M
Facilitation	12	45	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	20/11/2014 11:00	Y.M
Active resistance OMs	6	13	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	16/09/2014 14:57	Y.M
Active resistants SOMs	4	7	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	16/09/2014 14:57	Y.M
Controls	5	5	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	19/09/2014 12:20	Y.M
Passive resistant engineers	11	20	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	04/09/2014 15:18	Y.M
Awareness day	4	7	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	07/09/2014 12:12	Y.M
Listening	2	2	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	14/08/2014 15:15	Y.M
Rectification	4	5	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	14/08/2014 19:43	Y.M
Training	7	10	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	27/08/2014 16:15	Y.M
Reward	5	9	20/11/2014 11:03	Y.M	20/11/2014 11:00	Y.M
Two-way communication	4	14	20/11/2014 11:04	Y.M	16/09/2014 12:38	Y.M

Awareness day

<Internals\C2A2> - § 1 reference coded [0.88% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.88% Coverage

I: Okay. And how did you overcome their resistance?

L: Encouraging usage. So getting people to try it, and then encouraging that usage time and time again. So we had Tools Awareness Day on Monday, where it was like, okay, everybody just get out and use it today. Let's figure out to get some OMs support out there. Let's try it, because it's almost like the first couple of times you try it are the hardest. So.

<Internals\C2A3> - § 3 references coded [3.57% Coverage]

Summary Reference Tool

C2A2 Active resistants SOMs

C2A1 Active resistance OMs

C2A3

C2A7

Passive resistant engineers

Coding Density

Appendix 13: The diagnostic instrument for practitioners to assess the change recipients in terms of their resistance and salience in relation to change

(This is to be used for each change recipient group)

1. Modes of resistance	Identify the level of change recipients' resistance to change from the definitions below:			
	1.1 Apathy <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of interest Neutral Fence sitters Feeling indifference	1.2 Passive <input type="checkbox"/> Voicing opposing opinions Humour Negative attitude	1.3 Active <input type="checkbox"/> Peaceful strikes Boycotts Delaying tactics	1.4 Aggressive <input type="checkbox"/> Violent strikes Sabotage Subversion
2. Sources of resistance	<i>If the choice is 1.4 see Note 1; otherwise continue this part</i>			
	Identify the sources of change recipients' resistance to change from the definitions below: (Select one or more of sources where relevant)			
	2.1 Net benefits <input type="checkbox"/> The costs of change are greater than the benefits, such as lack of necessity of the change	2.2 Transition costs <input type="checkbox"/> The change per se is costly such as loss of comfort and power	2.3 Uncertainty costs <input type="checkbox"/> The recipients are uncertain about the change process or consequences	
	2.4 Control <input type="checkbox"/> The recipients fear losing control over their work such as their inability to perform with the new ways of working	2.5 Regret avoidance <input type="checkbox"/> The recipients try to avoid making decisions similar to the ones they have experienced as negative	2.6 Others <input type="checkbox"/>	
3. Change recipients' salience in relation to change	<i>If the choice includes 2.6 see Note 1; otherwise continue this part</i>			
	Identify the level of change recipients power, legitimacy, and urgency in relation to change from the definitions below:			
	3.1 Impact: The change recipients are affected by the change in terms of: Change in their job description, they have to work differently, and/or they have to work with different people			
	3.1.1 Primary <input type="checkbox"/> All of the three aspects are met	3.1.2 Secondary <input type="checkbox"/> Two aspects are met	3.1.3 Tertiary <input type="checkbox"/> Only one aspect is met	
	3.2 Power: The change recipients have a capacity to influence the change (irrespective of whether their influence was seen as legitimate or not) to the extent that they can:			
3.2.1 High: Stop the change <input type="checkbox"/>	3.2.2 Moderate: Delay the change, but not stop it <input type="checkbox"/>	3.2.3 Low: Neither stop nor delay the change <input type="checkbox"/>		
3.3 Legitimacy: The change recipient's actions regarding the change are seen as legitimate (proper) to the extent that they are in a position to:				
3.3.1 High: Veto or vote on decisions regarding the change <input type="checkbox"/>	3.3.2 Moderate: Give opinions about the change, but not able to vote <input type="checkbox"/>	3.3.3 Low: Only be informed about the change without giving opinions <input type="checkbox"/>		
3.4 Urgency: The change recipient's demands required urgent attention from the change agents to the extent that:				
3.4.1 High: Immediate action is warranted <input type="checkbox"/>	3.4.2 Moderate: Planned action is warranted <input type="checkbox"/>	3.4.3 Low: No need for action outside routine communication <input type="checkbox"/>		

By checking all the relevant boxes, the modes and sources of change recipients' resistance will be identified as well as the recipients' salience in relation to change, which then enables change managers to employ the strategies in the revised framework (Figure 6.2) where relevant.

Note 1: The choice(s) selected is not covered by the contribution of this research.